DECLARATION OF YOLANDA ANDERSEN

I, Yolanda Andersen, declare as follows:

1. I am the Director of Member Services at the Sierra Club. I have had this position for more than 23 years.
2. In that role, I manage all aspects of the Sierra Club's customer service functions related to members, including maintaining an accurate list of members and managing the organization's member databases.
3. The Sierra Club is a non-profit membership organization incorporated under the laws of the State of California.
4. Sierra Club's mission is to explore, enjoy and protect the wild places of the Earth; to practice and promote the responsible use of the Earth's resources and ecosystems; to educate and enlist humanity to protect and restore the quality of the natural and human environment; and to use all lawful means to carry out these objectives.
5. The Sierra Club's Natural Gas Reform campaign is focused on reducing the amount and impacts of natural gas extraction, including preventing the export of unconventional natural gas without a full analysis of the environmental and public interest effects of such export.

6. When an individual becomes a member of the Sierra Club, his or her current residential address is recorded in our membership database. The database entry reflecting the member's residential address is verified or updated as needed.
7. The Sierra Club currently has 601,150 members in the United States including 2,819 members in Louisiana. These members have a strong interest in protecting human health and the environment from the effects of natural gas extraction and export.

I declare under penalty of perjury under the laws of the United States of America that the foregoing is true and correct. Executed in San Francisco, California on May 20, 2013.

Yolanda Andersen

Yolanda Andersen

Independent Statistics & Analysis
U.S. Energy Information Administration

Effect of Increased Natural Gas Exports on Domestic Energy Markets

as requested by the Office of Fossil Energy

January 2012

Independent Statistics & Analysis
www.eia.gov

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Washington, DC 20585

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Preface

The U.S. Energy Information Administration (EIA) is the statistical and analytical agency within the U.S. Department of Energy. EIA collects, analyzes, and disseminates independent and impartial energy information to promote sound policymaking, efficient markets, and public understanding of energy and its interaction with the economy and the environment. By law, EIA's data, analyses, and forecasts are independent of approval by any other officer or employee of the U.S. Government. The views in this report, therefore, should not be construed as representing those of the Department of Energy or other Federal agencies.

The projections in this report are not statements of what *will* happen but of what *might* happen, given the assumptions and methodologies used. The Reference case in this report is a business-as-usual trend estimate, reflecting known technology and technological and demographic trends, and current laws and regulations. Thus, it provides a policy-neutral starting point that can be used to analyze policy initiatives. EIA does not propose, advocate, or speculate on future legislative and regulatory changes.

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Introduction

This report responds to an August 2011 request from the Department of Energy's Office of Fossil Energy (DOE/FE) for an analysis of "the impact of increased domestic natural gas demand, as exports." Appendix A provides a copy of the DOE/FE request letter. Specifically, DOE/FE asked the U.S. Energy Information Administration (EIA) to assess how specified scenarios of increased natural gas exports could affect domestic energy markets, focusing on consumption, production, and prices.

DOE/FE provided four scenarios of export-related increases in natural gas demand (Figure 1) to be considered:

- 6 billion cubic feet per day (Bcf/d), phased in at a rate of 1 Bcf/d per year (low/slow scenario),
- 6 Bcf/d phased in at a rate of 3 Bcf/d per year (low/rapid scenario),
- 12 Bcf/d phased in at a rate of 1 Bcf/d per year (high/slow scenario), and
- 12 Bcf/d phased in at a rate of 3 Bcf/d per year (high/rapid scenario).

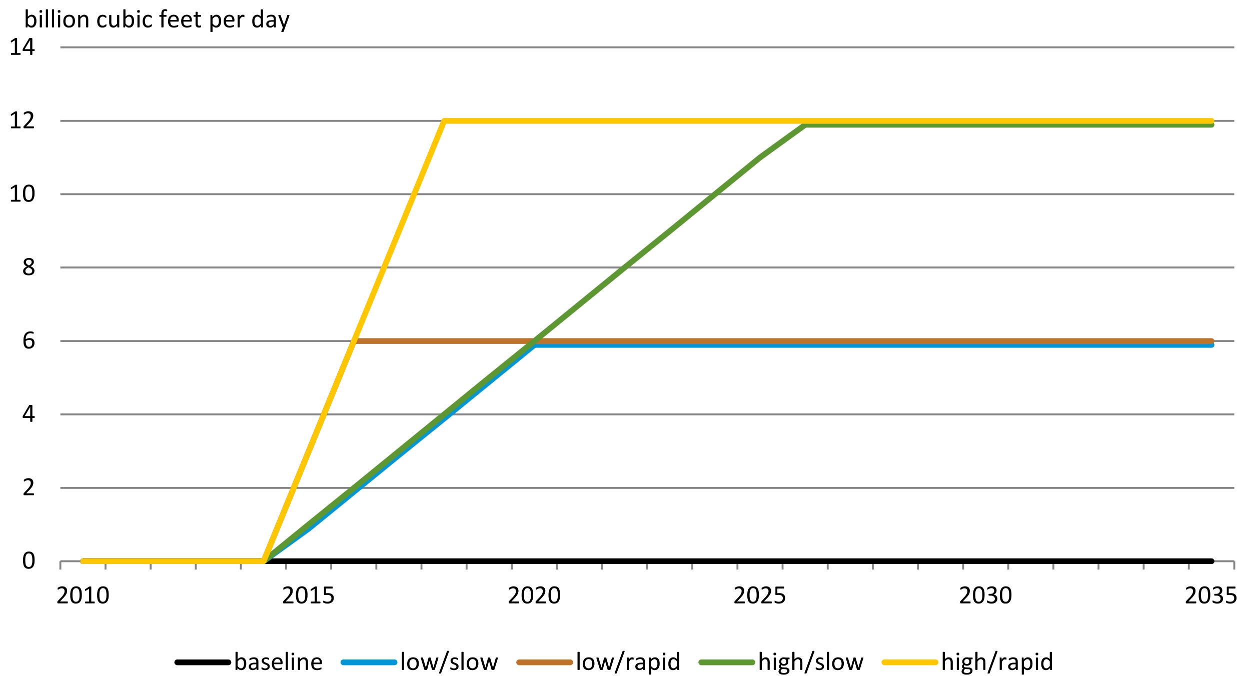
Total marketed natural gas production in 2011 was about 66 Bcf/d. The two ultimate levels of increased natural gas demand due to additional exports in the DOE/FE scenarios represent roughly 9 percent or 18 percent of current production.

DOE/FE requested that EIA consider the four scenarios of increased natural gas exports in the context of four cases from the EIA's *2011 Annual Energy Outlook* (*AEO2011*) that reflect varying perspectives on the domestic natural gas supply situation and the growth rate of the U.S. economy. These are:

- the *AEO2011* Reference case,
- the High Shale Estimated Ultimate Recovery (EUR) case (reflecting more optimistic assumptions about domestic natural gas supply prospects, with the EUR per shale gas well for new, undrilled wells assumed to be 50 percent higher than in the Reference case),
- the Low Shale EUR case (reflecting less optimistic assumptions about domestic natural gas supply prospects, with the EUR per shale gas well for new, undrilled wells assumed to be 50 percent lower than in the Reference case), and
- the High Economic Growth case (assuming the U.S. gross domestic product will grow at an average annual rate of 3.2 percent from 2009 to 2035, compared to 2.7 percent in the Reference case, which increases domestic energy demand).

DOE/FE requested this study as one input to their assessment of the potential impact of current and possible future applications to export domestically produced natural gas. Under Section 3 of the Natural Gas Act (NGA) (15 U.S.C. § 717b), DOE must evaluate applications to import and export natural gas and liquefied natural gas (LNG) to or from the United States. The NGA requires DOE to grant a permit unless it finds that such action is not consistent with the public interest. As a practical matter, the need for DOE to make a public interest judgment applies only to trade involving countries that have not entered into a free trade agreement (FTA) with the United States requiring the national treatment for trade in natural gas and LNG. The NGA provides that applications involving imports from or exports to an FTA country are deemed to be in the public interest and shall be granted without modification or delay. Key countries with FTAs include Canada and Mexico, which engage in significant natural gas trade with the United States via pipeline. A FTA with South Korea, currently the world's second largest importer of LNG, which does not currently receive domestically produced natural gas from the United States, has been ratified by both the U.S. and South Korean legislatures, but had not yet entered into force as of the writing of this report.

Figure 1. Four scenarios of increased natural gas exports specified in the analysis request



Source: U.S. Energy Information Administration based on DOE Office of Fossil Energy request letter

Analysis approach

EIA used the *AEO2011* Reference case issued in April 2011 as the starting point for its analysis and made several changes to the model to accommodate increased exports. EIA exogenously specified additional natural gas exports from the United States in the National Energy Modeling System (NEMS), as the current version of NEMS does not generate an endogenous projection of LNG exports. EIA assigned these additional exports to the West South Central Census Division.[1] Any additional natural gas consumed during the liquefaction process is counted within the total additional export volumes specified in the DOE/FE scenarios. Therefore the net volumes of LNG produced for export are roughly 10 percent below the gross volumes considered in each export scenario.

Other changes in modeled flows of gas into and out of the lower-48 United States were necessary to analyze the increased export scenarios. U.S. natural gas exports to Canada and U.S. natural gas imports from Mexico are exogenously specified in all of the *AEO2011* cases. U.S. imports of natural gas from

[1] This effectively assumes that incremental LNG exports would be shipped out of the Gulf Coast States of Texas or Louisiana.

Canada are endogenously set in the model and continue to be so for this study. However, U.S. natural gas exports to Mexico and U.S. LNG imports that are normally determined endogenously within the model were set to the levels projected in the associated *AEO2011* cases for this study. Additionally, EIA assumed that an Alaska pipeline, which would transport Alaskan produced natural gas into the lower-48 United States, would not be built during the forecast period in any of the cases in order to isolate the lower-48 United States supply response. Due to this restriction, both the *AEO2011* High Economic Growth and Low Shale EUR cases were rerun, as those cases had the Alaska pipeline entering service during the projection period in the published *AEO2011*.

Caveats regarding interpretation of the analysis results

EIA recognizes that projections of energy markets over a 25-year period are highly uncertain and subject to many events that cannot be foreseen, such as supply disruptions, policy changes, and technological breakthroughs. This is particularly true in projecting the effects of exporting significant natural gas volumes from the United States due to the following factors:

- NEMS is not a world energy model and does not address the interaction between the potential for additional U.S. natural gas exports and developments in world natural gas markets.
- Global natural gas markets are not integrated and their nature could change substantially in response to significant changes in natural gas trading patterns. Future opportunities to profitably export natural gas from the United States depend on the future of global natural gas markets, the inclusion of relevant terms in specific contracts to export natural gas, as well as on the assumptions in the various cases analyzed.
- Macroeconomic results have not been included in the analysis because the links between the energy and macroeconomic modules in NEMS do not include energy exports.
- NEMS domestic focus makes it unable to account for all interactions between energy prices and supply/demand in energy-intensive industries that are globally competitive. Most of the domestic industrial activity impacts in NEMS are due to changes in the composition of final demands rather than changes in energy prices. Given its domestic focus, NEMS does not account for the impact of energy price changes on the global utilization pattern for existing capacity or the siting of new capacity inside or outside of the United States in energy-intensive industries.

Representation of natural gas markets

Unlike the oil market, current natural gas markets are not integrated globally. In today's markets, natural gas prices span a range from $0.75 per million British thermal units (MMBtu) in Saudi Arabia to $4 per MMBtu in the United States and $16 per MMBtu in Asian markets that rely on LNG imports. Prices in European markets, which reflect a mix of spot prices and contract prices with some indexation to oil, fall between U.S and Asian prices. Spot market prices at the U.K. National Balancing Point averaged $9.21 per MMBtu during November 2011.

Liquefaction projects typically take four or more years to permit and build and are planned to run for at least 20 years. As a result, expectations of future competitive conditions over the lifetime of a project play a critical role in investment decisions. The current large disparity in natural gas prices across major world regions, a major driver of U.S. producers' interest in possible liquefaction projects to increase natural gas exports, is likely to narrow as natural gas markets become more globally integrated. Key questions remain regarding how quickly convergence might occur and to what extent it will involve all or only some global regions. In particular, it is unclear how far converged prices may reflect purely "gas on gas" competition, a continuing relationship between natural gas and oil prices as in Asia (and to a lesser extent in Europe), or some intermediate outcome. As an example of the dynamic quality of global gas markets, recent regulatory changes combined with abundant supplies and muted demands appear to have put pressure on Europe's oil-linked contract gas prices.

U.S. market conditions are also quite variable, as monthly average Henry Hub spot prices have ranged from over $12 to under $3 per MMBtu over the past five years. Furthermore, while projected Henry Hub prices in the *AEO2011* Reference case reach $7.07 per MMBtu in 2035, in the High and Low Shale EUR cases prices in 2035 range from $5.35 per MMBtu to $9.26 per MMBtu.[2] For purposes of this study, the scenarios of additional exports posited by DOE/FE in their request do not vary across the different baseline cases that are considered. In reality, given available prices in export markets, lower or higher U.S. natural gas prices would tend to make any given volume of additional exports more or less likely.

The prospects for U.S. LNG exports depend greatly on the cost-competitiveness of liquefaction projects in the United States relative to those at other locations. The investment to add liquefaction capacity to an existing regasification terminal in the United States is significant, typically several times the original cost of a regasification-only terminal. However, the ability to make use of existing infrastructure, including natural gas processing plants, pipelines, and storage and loading facilities means that U.S. regasification terminals can reduce costs relative to those that would be incurred by a "greenfield" LNG facility. Many of the currently proposed LNG supply projects elsewhere in the world are integrated standalone projects that would produce, liquefy, and export stranded natural gas. These projects would require much more new infrastructure, entailing not only the construction of the liquefaction plant from the ground up, but also storage, loading, and production facilities, as well pipelines and natural gas processing facilities.

While the additional infrastructure for integrated standalone projects adds considerably to their cost, such projects can be sited at locations where they can make use of inexpensive or stranded natural gas resources that would have minimal value independent of the project. Also, while these projects may require processing facilities to remove impurities and liquids from the gas, the value of the separated liquids can improve the overall project economics. On the other hand, liquefaction projects proposed for the lower-48 United States plan to use pipeline gas drawn from the largest and most liquid natural gas market in the world. Natural gas in the U.S. pipeline system has a much greater inherent value than stranded natural gas, and most of the valuable natural gas liquids have already been removed.

Future exports of U.S. LNG depend on other factors as well. Potential buyers may place additional value on the greater diversity of supply that North American liquefaction projects provide. Also, the degree of regulatory and other risks are much lower for projects proposed in countries like the United States,

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[2] All prices in this report are in 2009 dollars unless otherwise noted. For the Low Shale EUR case used in this study the Henry Hub price in 2035 is $9.75 per MMBtu, slightly higher than in the AEO2011 case with the Alaska pipeline projected to be built towards the end of the projection period.

Canada, and Australia than for those proposed in countries like Iran, Venezuela, and Nigeria. However, due to relatively high shipping costs, LNG from the United States may have an added cost disadvantage in competing against countries closer to key markets, such as in Asia. Finally, LNG projects in the United States would frequently compete not just against other LNG projects, but against other natural gas supply projects aimed at similar markets, such as pipeline projects from traditional natural gas sources or projects to develop shale gas in Asia or Europe.

Macroeconomic considerations related to energy exports and global competition in energy-intensive industries

Macroeconomic results have not been included in the analysis because energy exports are not explicitly represented in the NEMS macroeconomic module. [3] The macroeconomic module takes energy prices, energy production, and energy consumption as inputs (or assumptions) from NEMS energy modules. The macroeconomic module then calculates economic drivers that are passed back as inputs to the NEMS energy modules. Each energy module in NEMS uses different economic inputs; however these economic concepts are encompassed by U.S. gross domestic product (GDP), a summary measure describing the value of goods and services produced in the economy.[4]

The net exports component of GDP in the macroeconomic module, however, does not specifically account for energy exports. As a result, increases in energy exports generated in the NEMS energy modules are not reflected as increases in net exports of goods and services in the macroeconomic module. This results in an underestimation of GDP, all else equal. The components of GDP are calculated based on this underestimated amount as well, and do not reflect the increases in energy exports. This is particularly important in the industrial sector, where the value of its output will not reflect the increased energy exports either.

The value of output in the domestic industrial sector in NEMS depends in general on both domestic and global demand for its products, and on the price of inputs. Differences in these factors between countries will also influence where available production capacity is utilized and where new production capacity is built in globally competitive industries. For energy-intensive industries, the price of energy is particularly important to utilization decisions for existing plants and siting decisions for new ones. Given its domestic focus, however, NEMS does not account for the impact of energy price changes on global utilization pattern of existing capacity or the siting of new capacity inside or outside of the United States in energy-intensive industries. Capturing these linkages requires an international model of the particular industry in question, paired with a global macroeconomic model.

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[3] In the macroeconomic model, energy exports are used in two places: estimating exports of industrial supplies and materials and estimating energy's impact on the overall production of the economy. To assess their impact on overall production, energy exports are included in the residual between energy supply (domestic production plus imports) and energy demand. This residual also includes changes in inventory.

[4] GDP is defined as the sum of consumption, investment, government expenditure and net exports (equal to exports minus imports).

Summary of Results

Increased natural gas exports lead to higher domestic natural gas prices, increased domestic natural gas production, reduced domestic natural gas consumption, and increased natural gas imports from Canada via pipeline.

Impacts overview

- **Increased natural gas exports lead to increased natural gas prices.** Larger export levels lead to larger domestic price increases, while rapid increases in export levels lead to large initial price increases that moderate somewhat in a few years. Slower increases in export levels lead to more gradual price increases but eventually produce higher average prices during the decade between 2025 and 2035.
- **Natural gas markets in the United States balance in response to increased natural gas exports largely through increased natural gas production.** Increased natural gas production satisfies about 60 to 70 percent of the increase in natural gas exports, with a minor additional contribution from increased imports from Canada. Across most cases, about three-quarters of this increased production is from shale sources.
- **The remaining portion is supplied by natural gas that would have been consumed domestically if not for the higher prices.** The electric power sector accounts for the majority of the decrease in delivered natural gas. Due to higher prices, the electric power sector primarily shifts to coal-fired generation, and secondarily to renewable sources, though there is some decrease in total generation due to the higher price of natural gas. There is also a small reduction in natural gas use in all sectors from efficiency improvements and conservation.
- **Even while consuming less, on average, consumers will see an increase in their natural gas and electricity expenditures.** On average, from 2015 to 2035, natural gas bills paid by end-use consumers in the residential, commercial, and industrial sectors combined increase 3 to 9 percent over a comparable baseline case with no exports, depending on the export scenario and case, while increases in electricity bills paid by end-use customers range from 1 to 3 percent. In the rapid growth cases, the increase is notably greater in the early years relative to the later years. The slower export growth cases tend to show natural gas bills increasing more towards the end of the projection period.

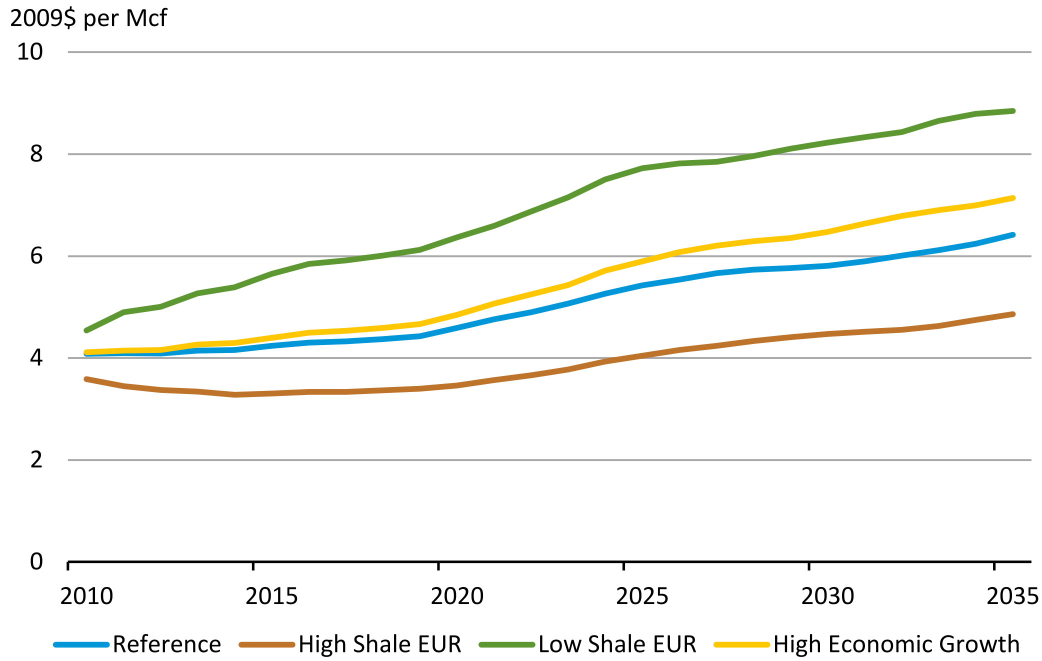
Natural gas prices

Wellhead natural gas prices in the baseline cases (no additional exports)

EIA projects that U.S. natural gas prices are projected to rise over the long run, even before considering the possibility of additional exports (Figure 2). The projected price increase varies considerably, depending on the assumptions one makes about future gas supplies and economic growth. Under the Reference case, domestic wellhead prices rise by about 57 percent between 2010 and 2035. But different assumptions produce different results. Under the more optimistic resource assumptions of the High Shale EUR case, prices actually fall at first and rise by only 36 percent by 2035. In contrast, under the more pessimistic resource assumptions of the Low Shale EUR case, prices nearly double by 2035.

While natural gas prices rise across all four baseline cases (no additional exports) considered in this report, it should be noted that natural gas prices in all of the cases are far lower than the price of crude oil when considered on an energy-equivalent basis. Projected natural gas prices in 2020 range from $3.46 to $6.37 per thousand cubic feet (Mcf) across the four baseline cases, which roughly corresponds to an oil price range of $20 to $36 per barrel in energy-equivalent terms. In 2030, projected baseline natural gas prices range from $4.47 to $8.23 per Mcf in the four baseline cases, which roughly corresponds to an oil price range of $25 to $47 per barrel in energy-equivalent terms.

Figure 2. Natural gas wellhead prices in the baseline cases (no additional exports)



Source: U.S. Energy Information Administration, National Energy Modeling System

Export scenarios—relationship between wellhead and delivered natural gas prices

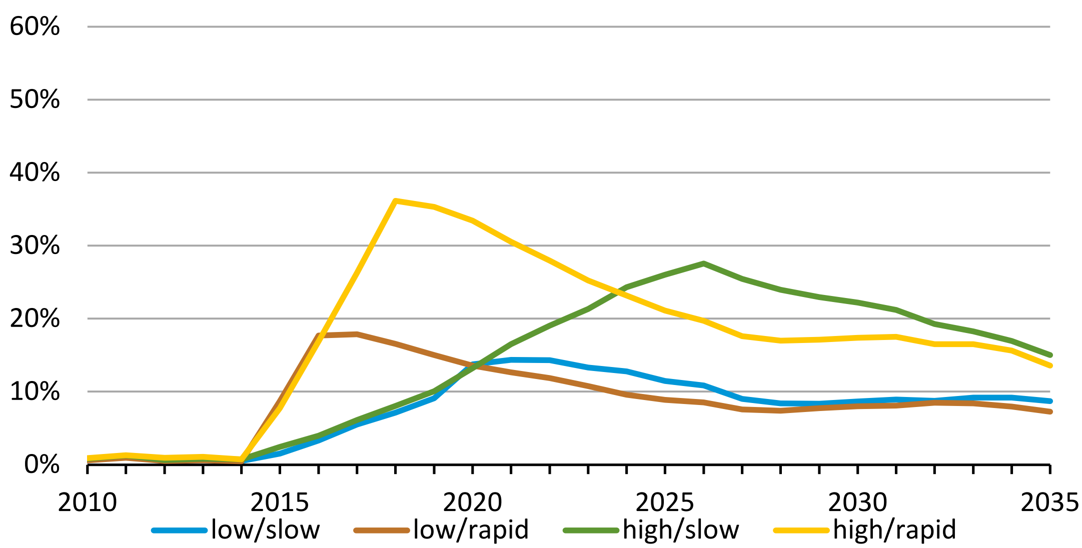
Increases in natural gas prices at the wellhead translate to similar absolute increases in delivered prices to customers under all export scenarios and baseline cases. However, delivered prices include transportation charges (for most customers) and distribution charges (especially for residential and commercial customers). These charges change to much less of a degree than the wellhead price does under different export scenarios. As a result, the percentage change in prices that industrial and electric customers pay tends to be somewhat lower than the change in the wellhead price. The percentage change in prices that residential and commercial customers pay is significantly lower. Summary statistics on delivered prices are provided in Appendix B. More detailed results on delivered prices and other report results can be found in the standard NEMS output tables that are posted online.

Export scenarios – wellhead price changes under the Reference case.

Increased exports of natural gas lead to increased wellhead prices in all cases and scenarios. The basic pattern is evident in considering how prices would change under the Reference case (Figure 3):

- The pattern of price increases reflects both the ultimate level of exports and the rate at which increased exports are phased in. In the low/slow scenario (which phases in 6 Bcf/d of exports over six years), wellhead price impacts peak at about 14% ($0.70/Mcf) in 2022. However, the wellhead price differential falls below 10 percent by about 2026.
- In contrast, rapid increases in export levels lead to large initial price increases that would moderate somewhat in a few years. In the high/rapid scenario (which phases in 12 Bcf/d of exports over four years), wellhead prices are about 36 percent higher ($1.58/Mcf) in 2018 than in the no-additional-exports scenario. But the differential falls below 20 percent by about 2026. The sharp projected price increases during the phase-in period reflect what would be needed to balance the market through changes in production, consumption, and import levels in a compressed timeframe.
- Slower increases in export levels lead to more gradual price increases but eventually produce higher average prices, especially during the decade between 2025 and 2035. The differential between wellhead prices in the high/slow scenario and the no-additional-exports scenario peaks in 2026 at about 28 percent ($1.53/Mcf), and prices remain higher than in the high/rapid scenario. The lower prices in the early years of the scenarios with slow export growth leads to more domestic investment in additional natural gas burning equipment, which increases demand somewhat in later years, relative to rapid export growth scenarios.

Figure 3. Natural gas wellhead price difference from *AEO2011* Reference case with different additional export levels imposed

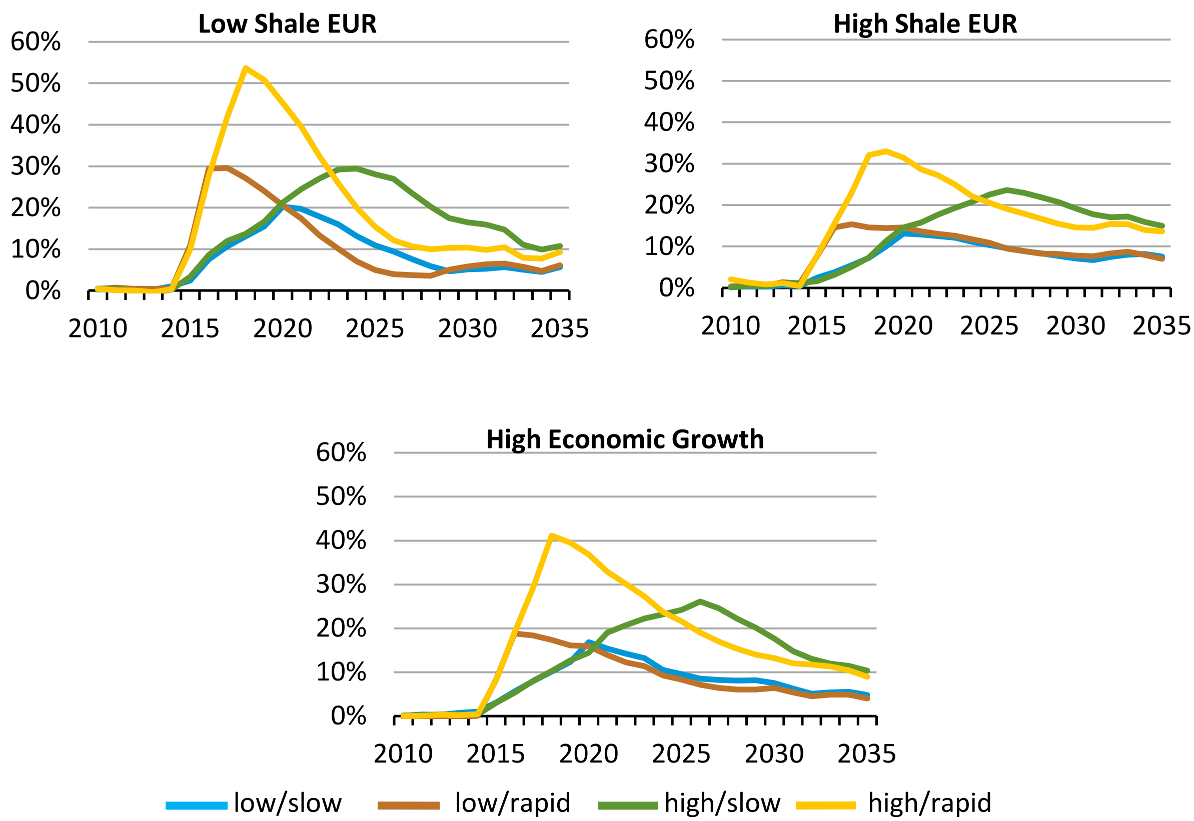


Source: U.S. Energy Information Administration, National Energy Modeling System

Export scenarios—wellhead price changes under alternative baseline cases

The effect of increasing exports on natural gas prices varies somewhat under alternative baseline case assumptions about resource availability and economic growth. However, the basic patterns remain the same: higher export levels would lead to higher prices, rapid increases in exports would lead to sharp price increases, and slower export increases would lead to slower but more lasting price increases. But the relative size of the price increases changes with changing assumptions (Figure 4).

Figure 4. Natural gas wellhead price difference from indicated baseline case (no additional exports) with different additional export levels imposed



Source: U.S. Energy Information Administration, National Energy Modeling System

In particular, with more pessimistic assumptions about the Nation's natural gas resource base (the Low Shale EUR case), wellhead prices in all export scenarios initially increase more in percentage terms over the baseline case (no additional exports) than occurs under Reference case conditions. For example, in the Low Shale EUR case the rapid introduction of 12 Bcf/d of exports results in a 54 percent ($3.23/Mcf) increase in the wellhead price in 2018; whereas under Reference case conditions with the same export scenario the price increases in 2018 by only 36 percent ($1.58/Mcf).[5] But the percentage price increase falls in later years under the Low Shale EUR case, even below the price response under Reference case conditions. Under Low Shale EUR conditions, the addition of exports ultimately results in wellhead prices exceeding the $9 per Mcf threshold, with this occurring as early as 2018 in the high/rapid scenario.

[5] The percentage rise in prices for the low EUR case also represents a larger absolute price increase because it is calculated on the higher baseline price under the same pessimistic resource assumptions.

More robust economic growth shows a similar pattern – higher initial percentage price increases and lower percentage increases in later years. On the other hand, with more optimistic resource assumptions (the High Shale EUR case), the percentage price rise would be slightly smaller than under Reference case conditions, and result in wellhead prices never exceeding the $6 per Mcf threshold.

Natural gas supply and consumption

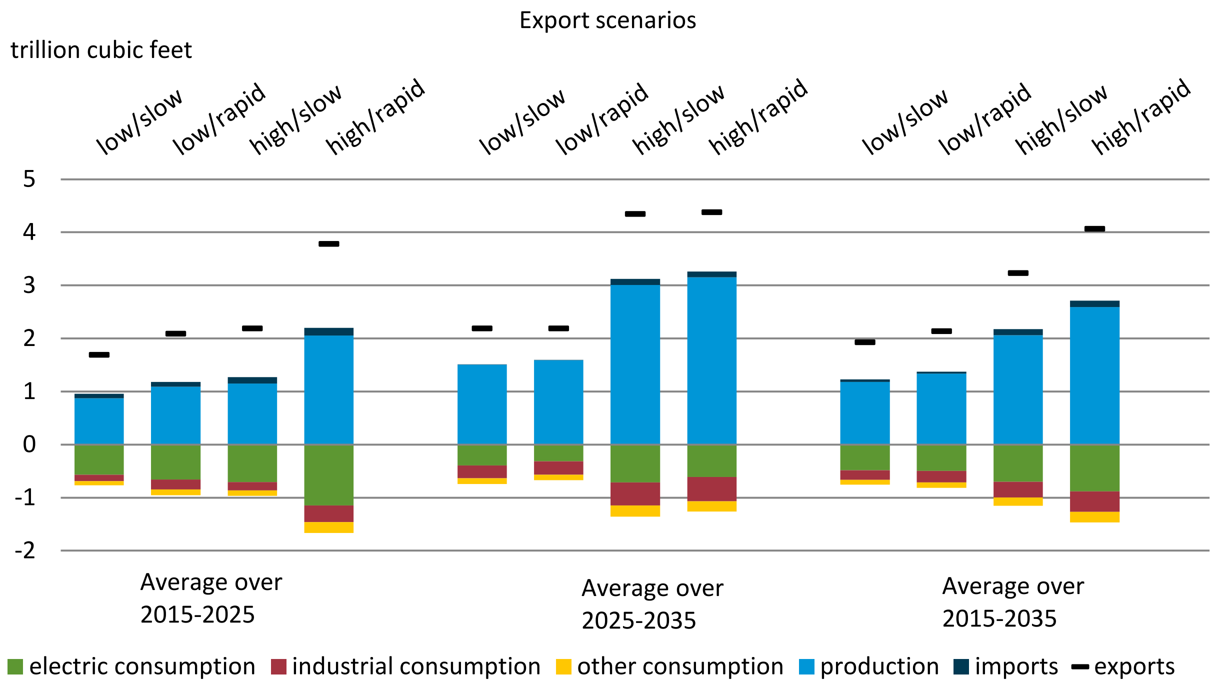
In the AEO2011 Reference case, total domestic natural gas production grows from 22.4 trillion cubic feet (Tcf) in 2015 to 26.3 Tcf in 2035, averaging 24.2 Tcf for the 2015-2035 period. U.S. net imports of natural gas decline from 11 percent of total supply in 2015 to 1 percent in 2035, with lower net imports from Canada and higher net exports to Mexico. The industrial sector consumes an average of 8.1 Tcf of natural gas (34.2% of delivered volumes) between 2015 and 2035, with 7.1 Tcf, 4.8 Tcf, and 3.6 Tcf consumed in the electric power, residential, and commercial sectors respectively.

Under the scenarios specified for this analysis, increased natural gas exports lead to higher domestic natural gas prices, which lead to reduced domestic consumption, and increased domestic production and pipeline imports from Canada (Figure 5). Lower domestic consumption dampens the degree to which supplies must increase to satisfy the additional natural gas exports. Accordingly, in order to accommodate the increased exports in each of the four export scenarios, the mix of production, consumption, and imports changes relative to the associated baseline case. In all of the export scenarios across all four baseline cases, a majority of the additional natural gas needed for export is provided by increased domestic production, with a minor contribution from increased pipeline imports from Canada. The remaining portion of the increased export volumes is offset by decreases in consumption resulting from the higher prices associated with the increased exports.

The absolute value of the sum of changes in consumption (delivered volumes), production, and imports (represented by the total bar in Figure 5) approximately[6] equals the average change in exports. Under Reference case conditions, about 63 percent, on average, of the increase in exports in each of the four scenarios is accounted for by increased production, with most of the remainder from decreased consumption from 2015 to 2035. The percentage of exports accounted for by increased production is slightly lower in the earlier years and slightly higher in the later years. While this same basic relationship between added exports and increased production is similar under the other cases, the percentage of added exports accounted for by increased production is somewhat less under a Low Shale EUR environment and more under a High Economic Growth environment.

[6] The figure displays the changes in delivered volumes of natural gas to residential, commercial, industrial, vehicle transportation, and electric generation customers. There are also some minor differences in natural gas used for lease, plant, and pipeline fuel use which are not included.

Figure 5. Average change in annual natural gas delivered, produced, and imported from *AEO2011* Reference case with different additional export levels imposed



Source: U.S. Energy Information Administration, National Energy Modeling System

One seeming anomaly that can be seen in Figure 5 is in the 2025 to 2035 timeframe: the decrease in consumption is somewhat lower in the rapid export penetration relative to the slow export penetration scenarios. This is largely attributed to slightly lower prices in the later years of the rapid export penetration scenarios relative to the slow penetration scenarios.

Supply

Increases in natural gas production that contribute to additional natural gas exports from the relative baseline scenario come predominately from shale sources. On average, across all cases and export scenarios, the shares of the increase in total domestic production coming from shale gas, tight gas, coalbed, and other sources are 72 percent, 13 percent, 8 percent, and 7 percent, respectively. Most of the export scenarios are also accompanied by a slight increase in pipeline imports from Canada. Under the Low Shale EUR case (which just applies to domestic shale), imports from Canada contribute to a greater degree than in other cases.

Consumption by sector

In general, greater export levels lead to higher domestic prices and larger decreases in consumption, although the price and consumption differences across the scenarios narrow in the later part of the projection period.

Electric power generation

In the AEO2011 Reference case, electric power generation averages 4,692 billion kilowatthours (bkWh) over the 2015-2035 period. Natural gas generation averages 23 percent of total power generation, increasing from 1,000 bkWh in 2015 to 1,288 bkWh in 2035. Coal, nuclear, and renewables provide an average of 43 percent, 19 percent, and 14 percent of generation, respectively, with a minimal contribution from liquids.

In scenarios with increased natural gas exports, most of the decrease in natural gas consumption occurs in the electric power sector (Figure 5). Most of the tradeoff in electric generators' natural gas use is between natural gas and coal, especially in the early years (Figure 6), when there is excess coal-fired capacity to allow for additional generation. Over the projection period, excess coal capacity progressively declines, along with the degree by which coal-fired generation can be increased in response to higher natural gas prices.[7] Increased coal-fired generation accounts for about 65 percent of the decrease in natural gas-fired generation under Reference case conditions.

The increased use of coal for power generation results in an average increase in coal production from 2015 to 2035 over Reference case levels of between 2 and 4 percent across export scenarios. Accordingly, coal prices also increase slightly which, along with higher gas prices, drive up electricity prices. The resulting increase in electricity prices reduces total electricity demand, also offsetting some of the drop in natural gas-fired generation. The decline in total electricity demand tends to be less in the earlier years.

In addition, small increases in renewable generation contribute to reduced natural gas-fired generation. Relatively speaking, the role of renewables is greater in a higher-gas-price environment (i.e., the Low Shale EUR case), when they can more successfully compete with coal, and in a higher-generation environment (i.e., the High Economic Growth case), particularly in the later years.

Industrial sector

Reductions in industrial natural gas consumption in scenarios with increased natural gas exports tend to grow over time. In general, higher gas prices earlier in the projection period in these scenarios provide some disincentive for natural gas-fired equipment purchases (such as natural gas-fired combined heat and power (CHP) capacity) by industrial consumers, which has a lasting impact on their projected use of natural gas.

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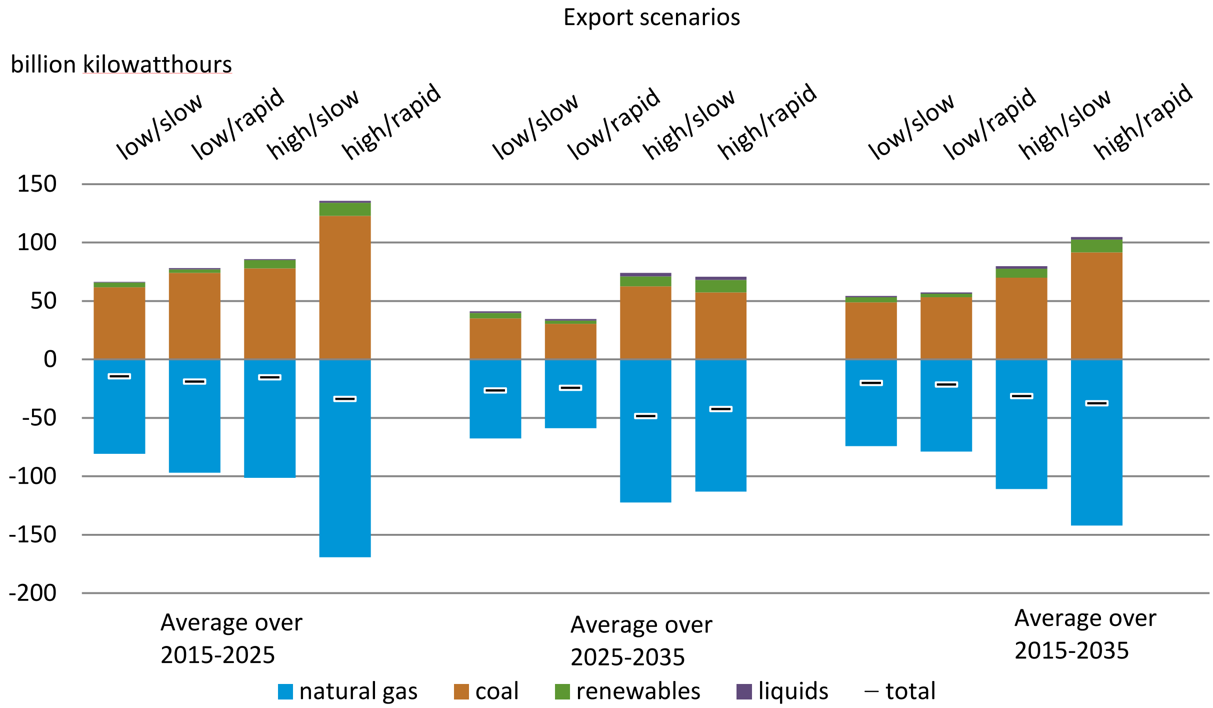
[7] The degree to which coal might be used in lieu of natural gas depends on what regulations are in-place that might restrict coal use. These scenarios reflect current laws and regulations in place at the time the *AEO2011* was produced.

Figure 6. Average change in annual electric generation from *AEO2011* Reference case with different additional export levels imposed



Source: U.S. Energy Information Administration, National Energy Modeling System

Note: Nucleargeneration levels do not change in the Reference case scenarios.

As noted in the discussion of caveats in the first section of this report, the NEMS model does not explicitly address the linkage between energy prices and the supply/demand of industrial commodities in global industries. To the extent that the location of production is very sensitive to changes in natural gas prices, industrial natural gas demand would be more responsive than shown in this analysis.

Other sectors

Natural gas consumption in the other sectors (residential, commercial, and compressed natural gas vehicles) also decreases in response to the higher gas prices associated with increased exports, although less significantly than in the electric and industrial sectors. Even so, under Reference case conditions residential and commercial consumption decreases from 1 to 2 percent and from 2 to 3 percent, respectively, across the export scenarios, on average from 2015 to 2035. Their use of electricity also declines marginally in response to higher electricity prices. In response to higher natural gas and electricity prices, residential and commercial customers directly cut back their energy usage and/or purchase more efficient equipment.

Exports to Canada and Mexico

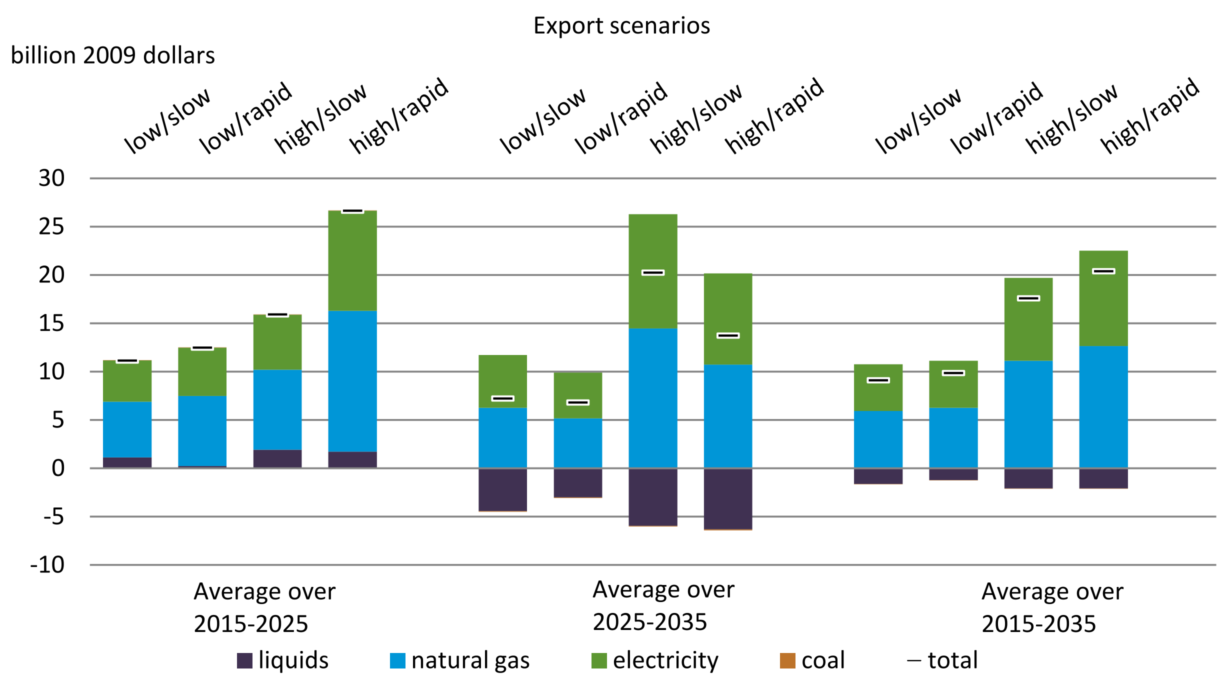
If exports to Canada and Mexico were allowed to vary under these additional export scenarios, they would likely respond similarly to domestic consumption and decrease in response to higher natural gas prices.

End-use energy expenditures

The AEO2011 Reference case projects annual average end-use energy expenditures of $1,490 billion over the 2015-2035 period. Of that, $975 billion per year is spent on liquids, $368 billion on electricity bills, $140 billion on natural gas bills, and $7 billion on coal expenditures.

From an end-user perspective in the scenarios with additional gas exports, consumers will consume less and pay more on both their natural gas and electricity bill, and generally a little less for liquid fuels (Figure 7). Under Reference case conditions, increased end-use expenditures on natural gas as a result of additional exports average about 56 percent of the total additional expenditures for natural gas and electricity combined. For example, under Reference case conditions in the low/slow scenario, end-use consumers together are expected to increase their total energy expenditures by $9 billion per year, or 0.6 percent on average from 2015 to 2035. Under the high/rapid scenarios, consumed total energy expenditures increase by $20 billion per year, or 1.4 percent on average, between 2015 and 2035.

Figure 7. Average change in annual end-use energy expenditures from *AEO2011* Reference case as a result of additional natural gas exports



Source: U.S. Energy Information Administration, National Energy Modeling System

Natural gas expenditures

As discussed earlier, given the lower consumption levels in response to the higher prices from increased exports, the percentage change in the dollars expended by customers for natural gas is less than the percentage change in the delivered prices. In general, the relative pattern of total end-use expenditures across time, export scenarios, and cases, is similar to the relative pattern shown in the wellhead prices in Figures 3 and 4. The higher export volume scenarios result in greater increases in expenditures, while those with rapid export penetration show increases peaking earlier and at higher levels than their slow export penetration counterpart, which show bills increasing more towards the end of the projection period. Under Reference case conditions, the greatest single year increase in total end-use consumer bills is 16 percent, while the lowest single year increase is less than 1 percent. In all but three export scenarios and cases, the higher average increase over the comparable baseline scenario in natural gas bills paid by end-use consumers occurred during the early years. The greatest percentage increase in end-use expenditures over the comparable baseline level in a single year (26 percent) occurs in the high/rapid scenario under the Low Shale EUR case.

On average between 2015 and 2035, total U.S. end-use natural gas expenditures as a result of added exports, under Reference case conditions, increase between $6 billion to $13 billion (between 3 to 9 percent), depending on the export scenario. The Low Shale EUR case shows the greatest average annual increase in end-use natural gas expenditures over the same time period, with increases over the baseline (no additional exports) scenario ranging from $7 billion to $15 billion.

At the sector level, since the natural gas commodity charge represents significantly different portions of each natural gas consuming sector's bill, the degree to which each sector is projected to see their total bill change with added exports varies significantly (Table 1). Natural gas expenditures increase at the highest percentages in the industrial sector, where low transmission and distribution charges constitute a relatively small part of the delivered natural gas price.

Table 1. Change in natural gas expenditures by end use consumers from AEO2011 Reference case with different additional export levels imposed

Sector	Scenario	Average 2015-2025	Average 2025-2035	Average 2015-2035	Maximum Annual Change	Minimum Annual Change
Residential	low/slow	3.2%	3.3%	3.2%	4.7%	0.5%
Residential	low/rapid	4.2%	2.9%	3.6%	5.4%	2.2%
Residential	high/slow	4.4%	7.1%	5.6%	8.9%	0.9%
Residential	high/rapid	8.3%	5.7%	7.0%	10.9%	2.5%
Commercial	low/slow	3.2%	3.2%	3.2%	4.8%	0.6%
Commercial	low/rapid	4.3%	2.7%	3.5%	5.8%	2.0%
Commercial	high/slow	4.6%	6.9%	5.6%	8.9%	0.9%
Commercial	high/rapid	8.3%	5.4%	6.9%	11.4%	2.7%
Industrial	low/slow	7.2%	5.8%	6.4%	11.1%	1.2%
Industrial	low/rapid	9.4%	4.6%	7.1%	14.0%	3.5%
Industrial	high/slow	10.2%	14.7%	12.2%	19.3%	2.0%
Industrial	high/rapid	18.7%	10.4%	14.6%	26.9%	5.2%

Source: U.S. Energy Information Administration, National Energy Modeling System

The results in Table 1 do not reflect changes in natural gas expenditures in the electric power sector. The projected overall decrease in natural gas use by generators is significant enough to result in a decrease in natural gas expenditures for that sector, largely during 2015-2025. However, electric generators will see an increase in their overall costs of power generation that will be reflected in higher electricity bills for consumers.

Electricity expenditures

On average across the projection period, electricity prices under Reference case conditions increase by between 0.14 and 0.29 cents per kilowatthour (kWh) (between 2 and 3 percent) when gas exports are added. The greatest increase in the electricity price occurs in 2019 under the Low Shale EUR case for the high export/rapid growth export scenario, with an increase of 0.85 cents per kWh (9 percent).

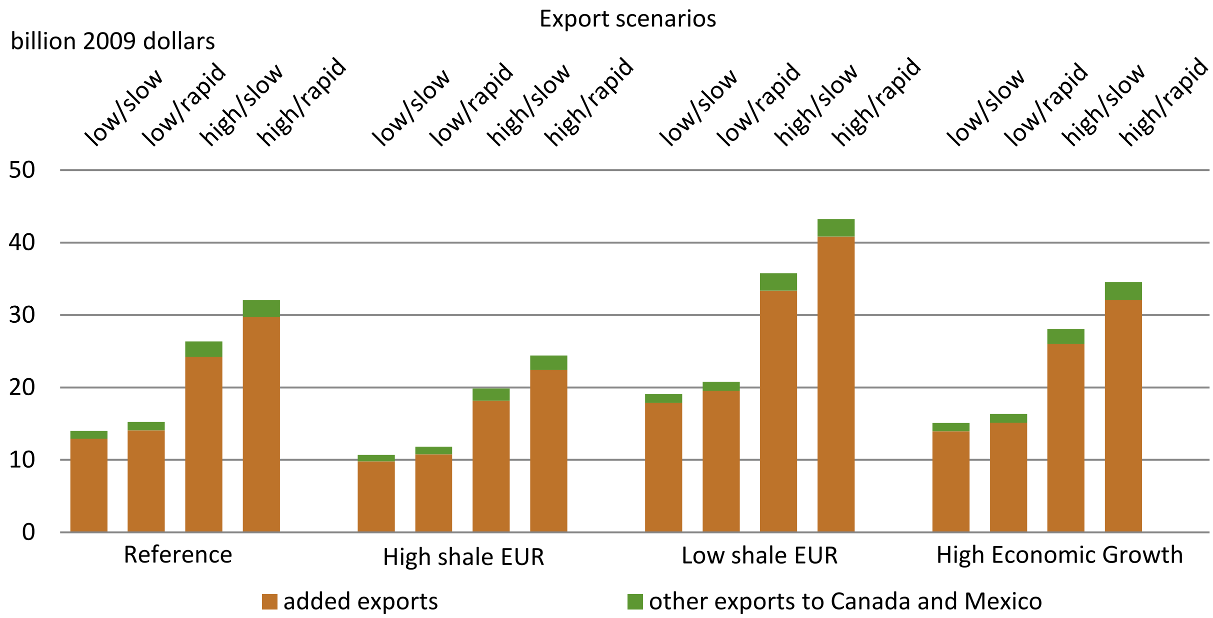
Similar to natural gas, higher electricity prices due to the increased exports reduce end-use consumption making the percentage change in end-use electricity expenditures less than the percentage change in delivered electricity prices; additionally, the percentage increase in end-use electricity expenditures will be lower for the residential and commercial sectors and higher for the industrial sector. Under Reference case conditions, the greatest single year increase in total end-use consumer electricity bills is 4 percent, while the lowest single year increase is negligible. The greatest percentage increase in end-use electricity expenditures over the comparable baseline level in a single year (7 percent) occurs in the high/rapid scenario under the Low Shale EUR case.

On average between 2015 and 2035, total U.S. end-use electricity expenditures as a result of added exports, under Reference case conditions, increase between $5 billion to $10 billion (between 1 to 3 percent), depending on the export scenario. The High Macroeconomic Growth case shows the greatest average annual increase in natural gas expenditures over the same time period, with increases over the baseline (no additional exports) scenario ranging from $6 billion to $12 billion.

Natural gas producer revenues

Total additional natural gas revenues to producers from exports increase on an average annual basis from 2015 to 2035 between $14 billion and $32 billion over the *AEO2011* Reference case, depending on the export scenario (Figure 8). These revenues largely come from the added exports defining the scenarios, as well as other exports to Canada and Mexico in the model that see higher prices under the additional export scenarios, even though the volumes are assumed not to vary. Revenues associated with the added exports reflect dollars spent to purchase and move the natural gas to the export facility, but do not include any revenues associated with the liquefaction and shipping process. The Low Shale EUR case shows the greatest average annual increase in revenues over the 2015 to 2035 time period, with revenues ranging from over $19 billion to $43 billion, due to the relatively high natural gas wellhead prices in that case. These figures represent increased revenues, not profits. A large portion of the additional export revenues will cover the increased costs associated with supplying the increased level of production required when natural gas exports are increased, such as for equipment (e.g., drilling rigs) and labor. In contrast, the additional revenues resulting from the higher price of natural gas that would have been produced and sold to largely domestic customers even in the absence of the additional exports posited in the analysis scenarios would preponderantly reflect increased profits for producers and resource owners.

Figure 8. Average annual increase in domestic natural gas export revenues from indicated baseline case (no additional exports) with different additional export levels imposed, 2015-2035



Source: U.S. Energy Information Administration, National Energy Modeling System

Impacts beyond the natural gas industry

While the natural gas industry would be directly impacted by increased exports, there are indirect impacts on other energy sectors. The electric generation industry shows the largest impact, followed by the coal industry.

As discussed earlier, higher natural gas prices lead electric generators to burn more coal and less natural gas. Coal producers benefit from the increased coal demand. On average, from 2015 to 2035, coal minemouth prices, production, and revenues increase by at most 1.1, 5.5, and 6.2 percent, respectively, across the increased export scenarios applied to all cases.

Domestic petroleum production in the form of lease condensate and natural gas plant liquids also rises due to increased natural gas drilling. For example, under Reference case conditions, in the scenario with the greatest overall response (high/rapid exports), total domestic energy production is 4.13 quadrillion British thermal units (Btu) per year (4.7 percent), which is greater on average from 2015 to 2035 than in the baseline scenario, while total domestic energy consumption is only 0.12 quadrillion Btu (0.1 percent) lower.

Effects on non-energy sectors, other than impacts on their energy expenditures, are generally beyond the scope of this report for reasons described previously.

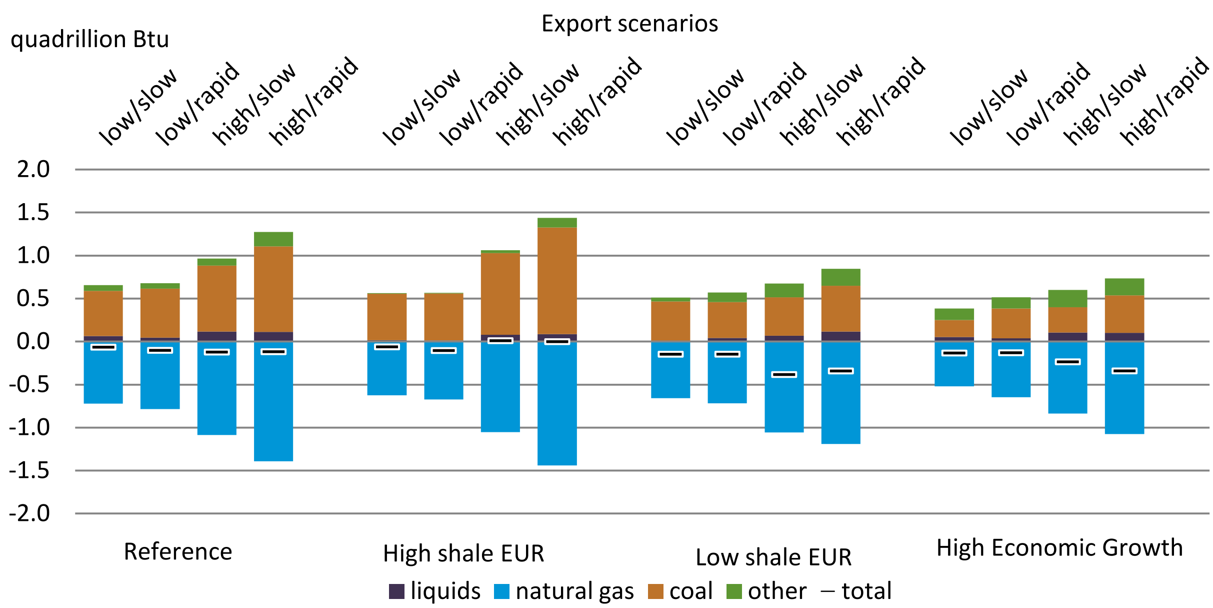
Total energy use and energy-related carbon dioxide emissions

Annual primary energy consumption in the AEO2011 Reference case, measured in Btu, averages 108 quadrillion Btu between 2015 and 2035, with a growth rate of 0.6 percent. Cumulative carbon dioxide (CO_2) emissions total 125,000 million metric tons for that twenty-year period.

The changes in overall energy consumption across scenarios and cases are largely reflective of what occurs in the electric power sector. While additional exports result in decreased natural gas consumption, changes in overall energy consumption are relatively minor as much of the decrease in natural gas consumption is replaced with increased coal consumption (Figure 9). In fact, in some of the earlier years total energy consumption increases with added exports since directly replacing natural gas with coal in electricity generation requires more Btu, as the heat rates (Btu per kWh) for coal generators exceed those for natural gas generators.

On average from 2015 to 2035 under Reference case conditions, decreased natural gas consumption as a result of added exports are countered proportionately by increased coal consumption (72 percent), increased liquid fuel consumption (8 percent), other increased consumption, such as from renewable generation sources (9 percent), and decreases in total consumption (11 percent). In the earlier years, the amount of natural gas to coal switching is greater, and coal plays a more dominant role in replacing the decreased levels of natural gas consumption, which also tend to be greater in the earlier years. Switching from natural gas to coal is less significant in later years, partially as a result of a greater proportion of switching into renewable generation. As a result decreased natural gas consumption from added exports more directly results in decreased total energy consumption via the end-use consumer cutting back energy use in response to higher prices. This basic pattern similarly occurs under the Low Shale EUR and High Economic Growth cases – less switching from natural gas into coal and more into renewable than under Reference case conditions, as well as greater decreases in total energy consumption as a result of added exports.

Figure 9. Average annual change from indicated baseline case (no additional exports) in total primary energy consumed with different additional export levels imposed, 2015-2035



Source: U.S. Energy Information Administration, National Energy Modeling System
Note: Other includes renewable and nuclear generation.

While lower domestic natural gas deliveries resulting from added exports reduce natural gas related CO_2 emissions, the increased use of coal in the electric sector generally results in a net increase in overall

CO_2 emissions. The exceptions occur in environments when renewables are better able to compete against natural gas and coal. However, when also accounting for emissions related to natural gas used in the liquefaction process, additional exports increase CO_2 levels under all cases and export scenarios, particularly in the earlier years of the projection period. Table 2 displays the cumulative CO_2 emissions levels from 2015 to 2035 in all cases and scenarios, with the change relative to the associated baseline case.

Table 2. Cumulative CO_2 emissions from 2015 to 2035 associated with additional natural gas export levels imposed (million metric tons CO_2 and percentage)

Case	no added exports	low/slow	low/rapid	high/slow	high/rapid
Reference					
Cumulative carbon dioxide emissions	125,056	125,699	125,707	126,038	126,283
Change from baseline		643	651	982	1,227
Percentage change from baseline		0.5%	0.5%	0.8%	1.0%
High Shale EUR					
Cumulative carbon dioxide emissions	124,230	124,888	124,883	125,531	125,817
Change from baseline		658	653	1,301	1,587
Percentage change from baseline		0.5%	0.5%	1.0%	1.3%
Low Shale EUR					
Cumulative carbon dioxide emissions	125,162	125,606	125,556	125,497	125,670
Change from baseline		444	394	335	508
Percentage change from baseline		0.4%	0.3%	0.3%	0.4%
High Economic Growth					
Cumulative carbon dioxide emissions	131,675	131,862	132,016	131,957	132,095
Change from baseline		187	341	282	420
Percentage change from baseline		0.1%	0.3%	0.2%	0.3%

Source: U.S. Energy Information Administration, National Energy Modeling System, with emissions related to natural gas assumed to be consumed in the liquefaction process included.

Appendix A. Request Letter

Department of Energy
Washington, DC 20585
August 15, 2011

MEMORANDUM

TO: HOWARD K. GRUENSPECHT
ACTING ADMINISTRATOR
ENERGY INFORMATION ADMINISTRATION

FROM: CHARLES D. MCCONNELL
CHIEF OPERATING OFFICER
OFFICE OF FOSSIL ENERGY

SUBJECT: **ACTION:** Request for EIA to Perform a Domestic Natural Gas Export Case Study

ISSUE: The Department of Energy's (DOE) Office of Fossil Energy (FE) must determine whether exports of liquefied natural gas (LNG) to non-free trade agreement countries are not inconsistent with the public interest. An independent case study analysis of the impact of increased domestic natural gas demand, as exports, under different incremental demand scenarios, performed by the Energy Information Administration (EIA) will be useful to assist DOE/FE in making future public interest determinations.

BACKGROUND: DOE/FE has been delegated the statutory responsibility under section 3 of the Natural Gas Act (NGA) (15 U.S.C. § 717b) to evaluate and approve or deny applications to import and export natural gas and liquefied natural gas to or from the United States. Applications to DOE/FE to export natural gas and LNG to non-free trade agreement countries are reviewed under section 3(a) of the NGA, under which FE must determine if the proposed export arrangements meet the public interest requirements of section 3 of the NGA.

To-date, DOE/FE has received applications for authority to export domestically produced LNG by vessel from three proposed liquefaction facilities, one application to export LNG by ISO containers on cargo carriers, and additional applications could be submitted by others in the future. Applications submitted to DOE/FE total 5.6 billion cubic feet per day (Bcf/day) of natural gas to be exported from the United States, equal to over 8 percent of U.S. natural gas consumption in 2015 compared to the EIA reference case projection of 68.8 Bcf/day in 2015.[1]

Studies and analyses submitted with, and in support of, LNG export applications to DOE/FE evaluated the impact LNG exports could have on domestic natural gas supply,

[1] EIA *Annual Energy Outlook 2011 (AEO2011)*

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demand and market prices. It would be helpful in DOE/FE reviews of these applications, and other potential applications, to understand the implications of additional natural gas demand (as exports) on domestic energy consumption, production, and prices under different scenarios.

Understanding that the domestic natural gas market is sensitive to a number of factors, including those highlighted on page 37 of the *AEO2011*, we request that EIA include sensitivity cases to explore some of these uncertainties, using the modeling analysis presented in the *AEO2011* as a starting point. The results of this study will be beneficial to DOE/FE by providing an independent assessment of how increased natural gas exports could affect domestic markets, and could be used in making future public interest determinations. The specific request of the study is provided in the attachment. We would like to receive the study, along with an analysis and commentary of the results by October 2011, and recognize that the study may be made available on EIA's website.

We are available to further discuss the study with your staff as they begin the study to clarify any issues associated with this request as needed.

RECOMMENDATION: That you approve this request.

APPROVE:______________ DISAPPROVE: ________________ DATE: _______

ATTACHMENTS:
Impact of Higher Demand for U.S. Natural Gas on Domestic Energy Markets
Background: (15 U.S.C. § 717b)

Impact of Higher Demand for U.S. Natural Gas on Domestic Energy Markets

The Office of Fossil Energy (FE) requests the Energy Information Administration (EIA) to evaluate the impact of increased natural gas demand, reflecting possible exports of U.S. natural gas, on domestic energy markets using the modeling analysis presented in the *Annual Energy Outlook 2011 (AEO2011)* as a starting point. In discussions with EIA we learned that EIA's National Energy Modeling System is not designed to capture the impact of increased export-driven demand for natural gas on economy-wide economic indicators such as gross domestic product and employment, and that it does not include a representation of global natural gas markets. Therefore, EIA should focus its analysis on the implications of additional natural gas demand on domestic energy consumption, production, and prices.

The study should address scenarios reflecting export-related increases in natural gas demand of between 6 billion cubic feet per day (Bcf/d) and 12 Bcf/d that are phased in at rates of between 1 Bcf/d per year and 3 Bcf/d per year starting in 2015. Understanding that the domestic natural gas market is sensitive to a number of factors, including those highlighted on page 37 of the *AEO2011*, we request that EIA include sensitivity cases to explore some of these uncertainties. We are particularly interested in sensitivity cases relating to alternative recovery economics for shale gas resources, as in the *AEO2011 Low and High Shale EUR* cases, and a sensitivity case with increased baseline natural gas demand as in the *AEO2011 High Economic Growth* case.

The study report should review and synthesize the results obtained in the modeling work and include, as needed, discussions of context, caveats, issues and limitations that are relevant to the study. Please include tables or figures that summarize impacts on annual domestic natural gas prices, domestic natural gas production and consumption levels, domestic expenditures for natural gas and other relevant fuels, and revenues associated with the incremental export demand for natural gas. The standard *AEO 2011* reporting tables should also be provided, with the exception of tables reporting information that EIA considers to be spurious or misleading given the limitations of its modeling tools in addressing the study questions.

We would like to receive the completed analysis by October 2011 and recognize that EIA may post the study on its website after providing it to us.

Thank you for your attention to this request. Please do not hesitate to contact me (Charles D. McConnell) or John Anderson at 6-0521, if you have any questions.

Source: http://uscode.house.gov/download/pls/15C15B.txt

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-CITE-
    15 USC Sec. 717b                                            01/07/2011

-EXPCITE-
    TITLE 15 - COMMERCE AND TRADE
    CHAPTER 15B - NATURAL GAS

-HEAD-
    Sec. 717b. Exportation or importation of natural gas; LNG terminals

-STATUTE-
    (a) Mandatory authorization order
      After six months from June 21, 1938, no person shall export any
    natural gas from the United States to a foreign country or import
    any natural gas from a foreign country without first having secured
    an order of the Commission authorizing it to do so. The Commission
    shall issue such order upon application, unless, after opportunity
    for hearing, it finds that the proposed exportation or importation
    will not be consistent with the public interest. The Commission may
    by its order grant such application, in whole or in part, with such
    modification and upon such terms and conditions as the Commission
    may find necessary or appropriate, and may from time to time, after
    opportunity for hearing, and for good cause shown, make such
    supplemental order in the premises as it may find necessary or
    appropriate.
    (b) Free trade agreements
      With respect to natural gas which is imported into the United
    States from a nation with which there is in effect a free trade
    agreement requiring national treatment for trade in natural gas,
    and with respect to liquefied natural gas -
        (1) the importation of such natural gas shall be treated as a
      "first sale" within the meaning of section 3301(21) of this
      title; and
        (2) the Commission shall not, on the basis of national origin,
      treat any such imported natural gas on an unjust, unreasonable,
      unduly discriminatory, or preferential basis.
    (c) Expedited application and approval process
      For purposes of subsection (a) of this section, the importation
    of the natural gas referred to in subsection (b) of this section,
    or the exportation of natural gas to a nation with which there is
    in effect a free trade agreement requiring national treatment for
    trade in natural gas, shall be deemed to be consistent with the
    public interest, and applications for such importation or
    exportation shall be granted without modification or delay.
    (d) Construction with other laws
      Except as specifically provided in this chapter, nothing in this
    chapter affects the rights of States under -
        (1) the Coastal Zone Management Act of 1972 (16 U.S.C. 1451 et
      seq.);
        (2) the Clean Air Act (42 U.S.C. 7401 et seq.); or
        (3) the Federal Water Pollution Control Act (33 U.S.C. 1251 et
      seq.).
    (e) LNG terminals
      (1) The Commission shall have the exclusive authority to approve
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or deny an application for the siting, construction, expansion, or operation of an LNG terminal. Except as specifically provided in this chapter, nothing in this chapter is intended to affect otherwise applicable law related to any Federal agency's authorities or responsibilities related to LNG terminals.

(2) Upon the filing of any application to site, construct, expand, or operate an LNG terminal, the Commission shall -

(A) set the matter for hearing;

(B) give reasonable notice of the hearing to all interested persons, including the State commission of the State in which the LNG terminal is located and, if not the same, the Governor-appointed State agency described in section 717b-1 of this title;

(C) decide the matter in accordance with this subsection; and

(D) issue or deny the appropriate order accordingly.

(3)(A) Except as provided in subparagraph (B), the Commission may approve an application described in paragraph (2), in whole or part, with such modifications and upon such terms and conditions as the Commission find (!1) necessary or appropriate.

(B) Before January 1, 2015, the Commission shall not -

(i) deny an application solely on the basis that the applicant proposes to use the LNG terminal exclusively or partially for gas that the applicant or an affiliate of the applicant will supply to the facility; or

(ii) condition an order on -

(I) a requirement that the LNG terminal offer service to customers other than the applicant, or any affiliate of the applicant, securing the order;

(II) any regulation of the rates, charges, terms, or conditions of service of the LNG terminal; or

(III) a requirement to file with the Commission schedules or contracts related to the rates, charges, terms, or conditions of service of the LNG terminal.

(C) Subparagraph (B) shall cease to have effect on January 1, 2030.

(4) An order issued for an LNG terminal that also offers service to customers on an open access basis shall not result in subsidization of expansion capacity by existing customers, degradation of service to existing customers, or undue discrimination against existing customers as to their terms or conditions of service at the facility, as all of those terms are defined by the Commission.

(f) Military installations

(1) In this subsection, the term "military installation" -

(A) means a base, camp, post, range, station, yard, center, or homeport facility for any ship or other activity under the jurisdiction of the Department of Defense, including any leased facility, that is located within a State, the District of Columbia, or any territory of the United States; and

(B) does not include any facility used primarily for civil works, rivers and harbors projects, or flood control projects, as determined by the Secretary of Defense.

(2) The Commission shall enter into a memorandum of understanding

with the Secretary of Defense for the purpose of ensuring that the Commission coordinate and consult (!2) with the Secretary of Defense on the siting, construction, expansion, or operation of liquefied natural gas facilities that may affect an active military installation.

(3) The Commission shall obtain the concurrence of the Secretary of Defense before authorizing the siting, construction, expansion, or operation of liquefied natural gas facilities affecting the training or activities of an active military installation.

-SOURCE-

(June 21, 1938, ch. 556, Sec. 3, 52 Stat. 822; Pub. L. 102-486, title II, Sec. 201, Oct. 24, 1992, 106 Stat. 2866; Pub. L. 109-58, title III, Sec. 311(c), Aug. 8, 2005, 119 Stat. 685.)

-REFTEXT-

REFERENCES IN TEXT

The Coastal Zone Management Act of 1972, referred to in subsec. (d)(1), is title III of Pub. L. 89-454 as added by Pub. L. 92-583, Oct. 27, 1972, 86 Stat. 1280, as amended, which is classified generally to chapter 33 (Sec. 1451 et seq.) of Title 16, Conservation. For complete classification of this Act to the Code, see Short Title note set out under section 1451 of Title 16 and Tables.

The Clean Air Act, referred to in subsec. (d)(2), is act July 14, 1955, ch. 360, 69 Stat. 322, as amended, which is classified generally to chapter 85 (Sec. 7401 et seq.) of Title 42, The Public Health and Welfare. For complete classification of this Act to the Code, see Short Title note set out under section 7401 of Title 42 and Tables.

The Federal Water Pollution Control Act, referred to in subsec. (d)(3), is act June 30, 1948, ch. 758, as amended generally by Pub. L. 92-500, Sec. 2, Oct. 18, 1972, 86 Stat. 816, which is classified generally to chapter 26 (Sec. 1251 et seq.) of Title 33, Navigation and Navigable Waters. For complete classification of this Act to the Code, see Short Title note set out under section 1251 of Title 33 and Tables.

-MISC1-

AMENDMENTS

2005 - Pub. L. 109-58, Sec. 311(c)(1), inserted "; LNG terminals" after "natural gas" in section catchline.

Subsecs. (d) to (f). Pub. L. 109-58, Sec. 311(c)(2), added subsecs. (d) to (f).

1992 - Pub. L. 102-486 designated existing provisions as subsec. (a) and added subsecs. (b) and (c).

-TRANS-

TRANSFER OF FUNCTIONS

Enforcement functions of Secretary or other official in Department of Energy and Commission, Commissioners, or other official in Federal Energy Regulatory Commission related to compliance with authorizations for importation of natural gas from Alberta as pre-deliveries of Alaskan gas issued under this section with respect to pre-construction, construction, and initial operation of transportation system for Canadian and Alaskan natural gas transferred to the Federal Inspector, Office of Federal Inspector for Alaska Natural Gas Transportation System, until first anniversary of date of initial operation of Alaska Natural Gas Transportation System, see Reorg. Plan No. 1 of 1979, Secs. 102(d), 203(a), 44 F.R. 33663, 33666, 93 Stat. 1373, 1376, effective July 1, 1979, set out under section 719e of this title. Office of Federal Inspector for the Alaska Natural Gas Transportation System abolished and functions and authority vested in Inspector transferred to Secretary of Energy by section 3012(b) of Pub. L. 102-486, set out as an Abolition of Office of Federal Inspector note under section 719e of this title. Functions and authority vested in Secretary of Energy subsequently transferred to Federal Coordinator for Alaska Natural Gas Transportation Projects by section 720d(f) of this title.

DELEGATION OF FUNCTIONS

Functions of President respecting certain facilities constructed and maintained on United States borders delegated to Secretary of State, see Ex. Ord. No. 11423, Aug. 16, 1968, 33 F.R. 11741, set out as a note under section 301 of Title 3, The President.

-EXEC-

EX. ORD. NO. 10485. PERFORMANCE OF FUNCTIONS RESPECTING ELECTRIC POWER AND NATURAL GAS FACILITIES LOCATED ON UNITED STATES BORDERS

Ex. Ord. No. 10485. Sept. 3, 1953, 18 F.R. 5397, as amended by Ex. Ord. No. 12038, Feb. 3, 1978, 43 F.R. 4957, provided:

Section 1. (a) The Secretary of Energy is hereby designated and empowered to perform the following-described functions:

(1) To receive all applications for permits for the construction, operation, maintenance, or connection, at the borders of the United States, of facilities for the transmission of electric energy between the United States and a foreign country.

(2) To receive all applications for permits for the construction, operation, maintenance, or connection, at the borders of the United States, of facilities for the exportation or importation of natural gas to or from a foreign country.

(3) Upon finding the issuance of the permit to be consistent with the public interest, and, after obtaining the favorable recommendations of the Secretary of State and the Secretary of Defense thereon, to issue to the applicant, as appropriate, a permit for such construction, operation, maintenance, or connection. The Secretary of Energy shall have the power to attach to the issuance of the permit and to the exercise of the rights granted thereunder such conditions as the public interest may in its judgment require.

(b) In any case wherein the Secretary of Energy, the Secretary of State, and the Secretary of Defense cannot agree as to whether or not a permit should be issued, the Secretary of Energy shall submit to the President for approval or disapproval the application for a permit with the respective views of the Secretary of Energy, the Secretary of State and the Secretary of Defense.

Sec. 2. [Deleted.]

Sec. 3. The Secretary of Energy is authorized to issue such rules and regulations, and to prescribe such procedures, as it may from time to time deem necessary or desirable for the exercise of the authority delegated to it by this order.

Sec. 4. All Presidential Permits heretofore issued pursuant to Executive Order No. 8202 of July 13, 1939, and in force at the time of the issuance of this order, and all permits issued hereunder, shall remain in full force and effect until modified or revoked by the President or by the Secretary of Energy.

Sec. 5. Executive Order No. 8202 of July 13, 1939, is hereby revoked.

-FOOTNOTE-

(!1) So in original. Probably should be "finds".

(!2) So in original. Probably should be "coordinates and consults".

-End-

Appendix B. Summary Tables

Table B1. U.S. Annual Average Values from 2015 to 2025

	Reference					High Shale EUR					Low Shale EUR					High Macroeconomic Growth				
	baseline	low/ slow	low/ rapid	high/ slow	high/ rapid	baseline	low/ slow	low/ rapid	high/ slow	high/ rapid	baseline	low/ slow	low/ rapid	high/ slow	high/ rapid	baseline	low/ slow	low/ rapid	high/ slow	high/ rapid
NATURAL GAS VOLUMES (Tcf)																				
Net Exports	(1.90)	(0.29)	0.11	0.17	1.74	(1.32)	0.32	0.70	0.79	2.35	(2.72)	(1.17)	(0.88)	(0.73)	0.66	(2.00)	(0.38)	0.01	0.07	1.64
gross imports	3.62	3.70	3.70	3.74	3.76	3.19	3.25	3.26	3.27	3.31	4.27	4.42	4.53	4.48	4.68	3.70	3.78	3.79	3.82	3.85
gross exports	1.72	3.41	3.81	3.91	5.50	1.87	3.56	3.96	4.06	5.65	1.56	3.25	3.65	3.75	5.34	1.70	3.39	3.79	3.89	5.49
Dry Production	23.27	24.15	24.37	24.42	25.33	26.24	27.28	27.51	27.57	28.41	19.80	20.72	20.78	20.99	21.83	23.85	24.90	25.10	25.22	26.20
shale gas	8.34	8.96	9.17	9.13	9.90	11.90	12.66	12.87	12.89	13.64	3.88	4.42	4.63	4.53	5.22	8.73	9.49	9.70	9.69	10.51
other	14.93	15.18	15.20	15.29	15.43	14.34	14.61	14.65	14.68	14.77	15.91	16.30	16.15	16.45	16.62	15.12	15.41	15.39	15.53	15.70
Delivered Volumes (1)	23.34	22.57	22.38	22.37	21.68	25.58	24.94	24.79	24.75	24.00	20.82	20.13	19.90	19.94	19.35	23.99	23.37	23.17	23.22	22.60
electric generators	6.81	6.25	6.16	6.11	5.67	8.35	7.94	7.88	7.80	7.30	5.07	4.66	4.55	4.54	4.23	6.99	6.63	6.53	6.54	6.21
industrial	8.14	8.01	7.95	7.98	7.83	8.55	8.40	8.34	8.37	8.19	7.74	7.58	7.51	7.56	7.38	8.50	8.34	8.27	8.30	8.12
residential	4.83	4.80	4.79	4.79	4.75	4.94	4.92	4.90	4.91	4.87	4.68	4.63	4.61	4.62	4.57	4.90	4.86	4.85	4.85	4.81
commercial	3.48	3.44	3.42	3.42	3.37	3.65	3.61	3.59	3.60	3.55	3.27	3.20	3.17	3.18	3.11	3.52	3.46	3.45	3.45	3.39
NATURAL GAS END-USE PRICES (2009$/Mcf)																				
residential	11.19	11.63	11.77	11.81	12.33	9.92	10.24	10.37	10.36	10.72	13.23	14.05	14.27	14.42	15.10	11.56	12.09	12.21	12.29	12.87
commercial	9.23	9.66	9.79	9.83	10.34	7.97	8.28	8.40	8.39	8.74	11.27	12.09	12.31	12.46	13.16	9.60	10.12	10.24	10.31	10.88
industrial	5.59	6.10	6.25	6.32	6.91	4.41	4.80	4.95	4.94	5.41	7.50	8.40	8.62	8.83	9.59	5.89	6.49	6.63	6.73	7.41
OTHER PRICES																				
Natural Gas Wellhead Price (2009$/Mcf)	4.70	5.17	5.30	5.37	5.91	3.56	3.90	4.02	4.03	4.42	6.52	7.41	7.63	7.84	8.64	4.99	5.54	5.66	5.77	6.39
Henry Hub Price (2009$/MMBtu)	5.17	5.69	5.83	5.91	6.51	3.92	4.29	4.43	4.43	4.87	7.18	8.16	8.41	8.64	9.51	5.49	6.10	6.23	6.35	7.04
Coal Minemouth Price (2009$/short-ton)	32.67	32.76	32.89	32.89	32.89	32.33	32.69	32.52	32.59	32.77	32.91	33.15	33.10	32.97	33.04	33.23	33.18	33.06	33.33	33.28
End-Use Electricity Price (2009 cents/KWh)	8.85	8.98	9.00	9.02	9.17	8.56	8.62	8.67	8.64	8.70	9.44	9.64	9.71	9.78	9.97	9.08	9.26	9.27	9.32	9.46
NATURAL GAS REVENUES (B 2009$)																				
Export Revenues (2)	9.47	20.64	23.25	25.10	37.74	7.51	16.01	18.17	19.27	28.89	12.83	29.03	32.72	36.09	53.91	10.04	22.11	24.82	26.97	40.81
Domestic Supply Revenues (3)	160.19	175.25	179.33	181.70	199.21	147.33	159.55	163.65	164.23	177.50	177.88	201.92	206.65	213.21	236.34	171.34	190.13	193.88	197.79	218.78
production revenues (4)	109.53	125.29	129.41	132.23	150.47	93.68	106.70	111.00	111.90	126.30	129.24	154.00	158.75	165.84	189.27	119.39	138.71	142.53	146.83	168.64
delivery revenues (5)	50.65	49.97	49.92	49.46	48.74	53.65	52.85	52.65	52.33	51.20	48.64	47.92	47.91	47.37	47.07	51.94	51.41	51.36	50.96	50.14
Import Revenues (6)	17.44	19.22	19.72	19.92	21.97	12.09	13.35	13.86	13.83	15.35	28.00	31.62	33.03	33.32	36.58	18.96	21.07	21.66	21.94	24.19
END-USE ENERGY EXPENDITURES (B 2009$)	1,398.11	1,409.25	1,410.59	1,414.03	1,424.75	1,368.25	1,375.50	1,377.65	1,379.69	1,386.87	1,448.36	1,465.24	1,469.02	1,473.83	1,482.50	1,485.34	1,498.28	1,499.67	1,504.03	1,514.65
liquids	913.43	914.55	913.66	915.34	915.15	908.98	909.65	908.67	911.23	911.57	920.92	921.56	921.21	920.98	916.83	971.80	971.63	971.22	972.09	970.98
natural gas	128.00	133.77	135.27	136.30	142.58	113.26	117.51	119.11	119.24	123.94	151.16	161.03	163.24	165.90	173.42	136.49	143.47	144.71	146.37	153.61
electricity	349.77	354.03	354.76	355.46	360.10	339.21	341.51	343.06	342.39	344.53	369.28	375.68	377.60	379.98	385.31	369.58	375.70	376.28	378.08	382.59
coal	6.90	6.91	6.91	6.93	6.92	6.80	6.82	6.81	6.83	6.83	6.99	6.98	6.97	6.97	6.94	7.47	7.49	7.46	7.49	7.46
END-USE ENERGY CONSUMPTION (quadrillion Btu)	67.88	67.68	67.59	67.67	67.37	68.58	68.40	68.28	68.37	68.11	66.93	66.63	66.49	66.54	66.20	70.23	70.02	69.89	69.98	69.64
liquids	36.71	36.74	36.74	36.78	36.78	36.67	36.71	36.71	36.74	36.75	36.71	36.72	36.71	36.74	36.73	38.13	38.18	38.16	38.20	38.20
natural gas	16.04	15.85	15.76	15.81	15.55	16.76	16.55	16.45	16.49	16.23	15.22	14.97	14.86	14.91	14.65	16.49	16.26	16.16	16.21	15.92
electricity	13.44	13.41	13.41	13.41	13.37	13.48	13.47	13.46	13.48	13.47	13.32	13.26	13.24	13.22	13.16	13.84	13.81	13.80	13.79	13.75
coal	1.68	1.68	1.68	1.68	1.67	1.67	1.67	1.67	1.67	1.67	1.68	1.68	1.68	1.68	1.67	1.77	1.77	1.77	1.77	1.76
ELECTRIC GENERATION (billion kWh)	4,456.38	4,441.98	4,437.47	4,441.10	4,422.62	4,492.78	4,484.65	4,477.63	4,483.35	4,471.75	4,391.20	4,369.32	4,360.19	4,356.29	4,329.07	4,594.62	4,577.41	4,572.19	4,572.39	4,552.42
coal	1,921.25	1,982.85	1,995.33	1,999.09	2,044.09	1,756.51	1,808.90	1,813.78	1,828.74	1,885.58	2,093.76	2,132.35	2,134.49	2,123.82	2,139.82	2,004.09	2,036.83	2,052.54	2,043.09	2,073.78
gas	999.19	918.42	902.15	898.01	829.83	1,232.25	1,170.15	1,158.31	1,147.99	1,070.38	733.83	671.33	653.23	655.42	608.52	1,036.47	978.19	959.84	964.71	909.63
nuclear	866.34	866.34	866.34	866.34	866.34	850.50	850.50	850.50	851.17	855.05	866.34	866.34	866.34	866.34	866.34	866.34	866.34	866.34	866.34	866.34
renewables	610.16	614.27	613.17	617.16	621.29	593.01	594.47	595.24	594.57	599.35	636.27	638.25	645.09	648.70	651.89	626.90	634.74	632.26	636.59	641.06
other	59.43	60.11	60.48	60.50	61.08	60.51	60.63	59.80	60.87	61.39	61.00	61.04	61.03	62.00	62.50	60.83	61.30	61.21	61.65	61.61
PRIMARY ENERGY (quadrillion Btu)																				
Consumption	104.89	104.90	104.87	104.98	104.91	105.24	105.25	105.14	105.32	105.27	104.34	104.16	104.07	104.06	103.75	108.35	108.31	108.25	108.36	108.12
Imports	28.62	28.75	28.72	28.78	28.90	27.69	27.73	27.77	27.87	27.94	29.78	29.83	29.92	29.98	30.08	30.06	30.22	30.21	30.24	30.28
Exports	7.06	8.76	9.15	9.26	10.86	7.20	8.92	9.32	9.43	11.03	6.85	8.54	8.93	9.01	10.60	7.10	8.80	9.20	9.30	10.90
Production	83.14	84.73	85.12	85.28	86.71	84.63	86.34	86.60	86.79	88.26	81.15	82.63	82.84	82.86	84.05	85.16	86.66	87.01	87.18	88.52
ENERGY RELATED CO_2 EMISSIONS (including liquefaction)(million metric tons)	5,793.73	5,832.23	5,837.67	5,846.39	5,869.62	5,754.36	5,787.50	5,787.31	5,804.76	5,833.35	5,832.09	5,853.23	5,846.94	5,841.58	5,843.35	6,017.09	6,037.23	6,043.12	6,043.12	6,055.08

Table B2. Differential from Base in U.S. Average Annual Values from 2015 to 2025 when Exports are Added

	Reference				High Shale EUR				Low Shale EUR				High Macroeconomic Growth			
	low/ slow	low/ rapid	high/ slow	high/ rapid	low/ slow	low/ rapid	high/ slow	high/ rapid	low/ slow	low/ rapid	high/ slow	high/ rapid	low/ slow	low/ rapid	high/ slow	high/ rapid
NATURAL GAS VOLUMES (Tcf)																
Net Exports	1.61	2.00	2.07	3.64	1.64	2.02	2.11	3.67	1.55	1.84	1.99	3.38	1.62	2.01	2.07	3.64
gross imports	0.08	0.09	0.12	0.15	0.05	0.07	0.08	0.12	0.14	0.25	0.20	0.41	0.07	0.08	0.12	0.14
gross exports	1.69	2.09	2.19	3.78	1.69	2.09	2.19	3.78	1.69	2.09	2.19	3.78	1.69	2.09	2.19	3.78
Dry Production	0.87	1.09	1.15	2.05	1.04	1.28	1.33	2.17	0.92	0.98	1.19	2.04	1.05	1.24	1.37	2.35
shale gas	0.62	0.82	0.79	1.55	0.77	0.97	0.99	1.74	0.53	0.75	0.65	1.33	0.76	0.97	0.96	1.78
other	0.25	0.27	0.36	0.50	0.27	0.31	0.34	0.43	0.39	0.24	0.54	0.71	0.29	0.27	0.41	0.57
Delivered Volumes (1)	(0.77)	(0.95)	(0.97)	(1.66)	(0.64)	(0.80)	(0.84)	(1.59)	(0.69)	(0.91)	(0.88)	(1.46)	(0.62)	(0.82)	(0.77)	(1.39)
electric generators	(0.57)	(0.66)	(0.71)	(1.15)	(0.42)	(0.47)	(0.55)	(1.05)	(0.41)	(0.52)	(0.53)	(0.84)	(0.36)	(0.46)	(0.45)	(0.78)
industrial	(0.13)	(0.19)	(0.16)	(0.32)	(0.15)	(0.22)	(0.19)	(0.36)	(0.15)	(0.23)	(0.18)	(0.35)	(0.16)	(0.23)	(0.20)	(0.38)
residential	(0.03)	(0.04)	(0.04)	(0.08)	(0.03)	(0.04)	(0.04)	(0.07)	(0.05)	(0.07)	(0.07)	(0.11)	(0.04)	(0.05)	(0.05)	(0.09)
commercial	(0.05)	(0.06)	(0.06)	(0.11)	(0.04)	(0.06)	(0.05)	(0.10)	(0.07)	(0.09)	(0.09)	(0.15)	(0.05)	(0.07)	(0.07)	(0.13)
NATURAL GAS END-USE PRICES (2009$/Mcf)																
residential	0.44	0.58	0.62	1.14	0.32	0.45	0.44	0.80	0.81	1.03	1.18	1.87	0.53	0.65	0.72	1.31
commercial	0.43	0.57	0.61	1.12	0.31	0.43	0.42	0.76	0.82	1.04	1.19	1.89	0.52	0.64	0.71	1.28
industrial	0.51	0.66	0.73	1.32	0.39	0.54	0.54	1.00	0.90	1.13	1.33	2.09	0.61	0.74	0.85	1.52
OTHER PRICES																
Natural Gas Wellhead Price (2009$/Mcf)	0.47	0.60	0.68	1.21	0.33	0.46	0.47	0.86	0.88	1.11	1.32	2.11	0.55	0.67	0.77	1.40
Henry Hub Price (2009$/MMBtu)	0.52	0.66	0.74	1.34	0.37	0.51	0.51	0.95	0.97	1.22	1.46	2.33	0.60	0.74	0.85	1.54
Coal Minemouth Price (2009$/short-ton)	0.09	0.21	0.22	0.22	0.36	0.19	0.26	0.44	0.24	0.19	0.06	0.13	(0.05)	(0.17)	0.11	0.06
End-Use Electricity Price (2009 cents/KWh)	0.13	0.15	0.17	0.31	0.06	0.11	0.08	0.14	0.20	0.27	0.34	0.53	0.17	0.19	0.24	0.38
NATURAL GAS REVENUES (B 2009$)																
Export Revenues (2)	11.17	13.77	15.63	28.26	8.50	10.65	11.75	21.38	16.20	19.89	23.25	41.08	12.07	14.79	16.93	30.78
Domestic Supply Revenues (3)	15.07	19.14	21.51	39.02	12.22	16.32	16.91	30.17	24.04	28.77	35.33	58.46	18.79	22.55	26.46	47.44
production revenues (4)	15.75	19.88	22.70	40.93	13.02	17.31	18.22	32.62	24.76	29.51	36.60	60.03	19.32	23.13	27.44	49.24
delivery revenues (5)	(0.68)	(0.74)	(1.19)	(1.91)	(0.80)	(0.99)	(1.32)	(2.45)	(0.72)	(0.74)	(1.28)	(1.58)	(0.53)	(0.59)	(0.98)	(1.80)
Import Revenues (6)	1.78	2.28	2.48	4.53	1.26	1.77	1.74	3.26	3.62	5.03	5.32	8.58	2.12	2.70	2.99	5.24
END-USE ENERGY EXPENDITURES (B 2009$)	11.15	12.49	15.92	26.65	7.26	9.40	11.44	18.63	16.89	20.67	25.47	34.14	12.94	14.33	18.69	29.31
liquids	1.12	0.22	1.91	1.72	0.68	(0.30)	2.26	2.60	0.64	0.29	0.05	(4.09)	(0.18)	(0.59)	0.29	(0.82)
natural gas	5.76	7.26	8.30	14.58	4.26	5.85	5.98	10.68	9.86	12.07	14.73	22.25	6.98	8.22	9.88	17.12
electricity	4.26	4.99	5.69	10.32	2.31	3.85	3.18	5.32	6.39	8.31	10.70	16.02	6.12	6.70	8.50	13.01
coal	0.01	0.01	0.03	0.02	0.02	0.00	0.03	0.03	(0.00)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.04)	0.02	(0.01)	0.02	(0.00)
END-USE ENERGY CONSUMPTION (quadrillion Btu)	(0.20)	(0.29)	(0.21)	(0.50)	(0.18)	(0.30)	(0.21)	(0.47)	(0.30)	(0.44)	(0.38)	(0.73)	(0.22)	(0.34)	(0.26)	(0.60)
liquids	0.03	0.03	0.06	0.06	0.04	0.04	0.07	0.08	0.01	(0.00)	0.03	0.02	0.05	0.03	0.07	0.07
natural gas	(0.19)	(0.28)	(0.23)	(0.49)	(0.22)	(0.32)	(0.27)	(0.53)	(0.25)	(0.36)	(0.31)	(0.57)	(0.24)	(0.34)	(0.28)	(0.57)
electricity	(0.03)	(0.04)	(0.04)	(0.08)	(0.00)	(0.02)	(0.00)	(0.01)	(0.06)	(0.08)	(0.09)	(0.16)	(0.03)	(0.04)	(0.05)	(0.09)
coal	(0.00)	(0.00)	0.00	(0.00)	(0.00)	(0.00)	0.00	(0.00)	(0.00)	(0.01)	(0.00)	(0.01)	(0.00)	(0.00)	0.00	(0.01)
ELECTRIC GENERATION (billion kWh)	(14.39)	(18.91)	(15.27)	(33.75)	(8.13)	(15.15)	(9.43)	(21.02)	(21.89)	(31.02)	(34.92)	(62.13)	(17.21)	(22.43)	(22.23)	(42.20)
coal	61.59	74.07	77.84	122.84	52.39	57.26	72.23	129.07	38.59	40.73	30.06	46.06	32.74	48.46	39.01	69.70
gas	(80.76)	(97.03)	(101.17)	(169.36)	(62.10)	(73.94)	(84.25)	(161.86)	(62.50)	(80.59)	(78.41)	(125.31)	(58.28)	(76.63)	(71.76)	(126.84)
nuclear	-	-	-	-	0.00	0.00	0.67	4.55	(0.00)	-	-	(0.00)	-	-	-	-
renewables	4.10	3.00	7.00	11.12	1.46	2.24	1.57	6.35	1.98	8.82	12.43	15.61	7.85	5.36	9.70	14.17
other	0.67	1.04	1.07	1.64	0.11	(0.71)	0.36	0.88	0.04	0.03	1.00	1.50	0.47	0.38	0.82	0.78
PRIMARY ENERGY (quadrillion Btu)																
Consumption	0.02	(0.02)	0.09	0.02	0.01	(0.09)	0.08	0.03	(0.18)	(0.27)	(0.28)	(0.59)	(0.03)	(0.10)	0.01	(0.23)
Imports	0.13	0.10	0.16	0.28	0.04	0.08	0.18	0.26	0.05	0.14	0.20	0.30	0.16	0.15	0.18	0.22
Exports	1.70	2.09	2.20	3.79	1.72	2.12	2.23	3.83	1.69	2.08	2.16	3.75	1.70	2.10	2.20	3.80
Production	1.59	1.98	2.14	3.58	1.71	1.96	2.16	3.63	1.47	1.69	1.71	2.90	1.50	1.85	2.02	3.36
ENERGY RELATED CO_2 EMISSIONS (including liquefaction)(million metric tons)	38.50	43.94	52.67	75.90	33.14	32.94	50.39	78.99	21.14	14.85	9.48	11.26	20.14	26.03	26.03	37.99

Table B3. U.S. Annual Average Values from 2025 to 2035

	Reference					High Shale EUR					Low Shale EUR					High Macroeconomic Growth				
	baseline	low/ slow	low/ rapid	high/ slow	high/ rapid	baseline	low/ slow	low/ rapid	high/ slow	high/ rapid	baseline	low/ slow	low/ rapid	high/ slow	high/ rapid	baseline	low/ slow	low/ rapid	high/ slow	high/ rapid
NATURAL GAS VOLUMES (Tcf)																				
Net Exports	(0.71)	1.48	1.48	3.52	3.57	0.10	2.16	2.15	4.19	4.20	(2.09)	(0.21)	(0.33)	1.83	1.76	(0.88)	1.29	1.29	3.21	3.38
gross imports	2.98	2.99	2.98	3.10	3.09	2.47	2.60	2.61	2.73	2.75	3.99	4.30	4.42	4.41	4.52	3.09	3.11	3.11	3.35	3.21
gross exports	2.28	4.47	4.47	6.62	6.66	2.57	4.76	4.76	6.91	6.95	1.90	4.09	4.09	6.25	6.28	2.21	4.40	4.40	6.56	6.59
Dry Production	25.07	26.58	26.66	28.08	28.23	28.73	30.16	30.21	31.50	31.51	20.98	22.22	22.24	23.61	23.89	26.84	28.59	28.55	29.99	30.31
shale gas	10.96	12.08	12.10	13.10	13.27	15.51	16.70	16.75	17.75	17.74	5.22	6.06	6.13	6.78	6.97	12.19	13.49	13.47	14.49	14.75
other	14.12	14.49	14.56	14.98	14.96	13.21	13.46	13.47	13.75	13.77	15.76	16.16	16.11	16.83	16.91	14.65	15.10	15.08	15.50	15.56
Delivered Volumes (1)	23.96	23.22	23.29	22.60	22.70	26.63	25.94	26.00	25.19	25.19	21.41	20.69	20.82	19.97	20.27	25.80	25.29	25.26	24.72	24.85
electric generators	7.27	6.87	6.95	6.56	6.66	8.89	8.55	8.65	8.11	8.20	5.78	5.28	5.41	4.82	5.08	8.21	8.04	8.03	7.77	7.93
industrial	8.06	7.82	7.81	7.62	7.60	8.68	8.45	8.42	8.25	8.16	7.47	7.34	7.32	7.20	7.19	8.68	8.43	8.40	8.22	8.18
residential	4.82	4.78	4.78	4.73	4.74	4.95	4.91	4.91	4.88	4.88	4.64	4.61	4.61	4.56	4.58	5.01	4.97	4.97	4.93	4.94
commercial	3.68	3.62	3.62	3.56	3.57	3.91	3.85	3.85	3.80	3.80	3.40	3.36	3.37	3.29	3.32	3.75	3.70	3.71	3.66	3.66
NATURAL GAS END-USE PRICES (2009$/Mcf)																				
residential	12.90	13.45	13.39	14.05	13.85	11.31	11.66	11.68	12.10	11.98	15.49	15.96	15.83	16.76	16.27	13.70	14.13	14.06	14.67	14.51
commercial	10.61	11.15	11.09	11.73	11.54	9.01	9.34	9.36	9.75	9.63	13.24	13.71	13.58	14.53	14.02	11.39	11.80	11.73	12.32	12.15
industrial	6.82	7.43	7.36	8.26	7.98	5.39	5.86	5.88	6.46	6.32	9.30	9.79	9.66	10.69	10.09	7.50	8.05	7.96	8.82	8.59
OTHER PRICES																				
Natural Gas Wellhead Price (2009$/Mcf)	5.88	6.42	6.35	7.14	6.88	4.45	4.82	4.83	5.31	5.17	8.25	8.77	8.68	9.69	9.10	6.52	6.98	6.90	7.67	7.43
Henry Hub Price (2009$/MMBtu)	6.47	7.06	6.99	7.86	7.58	4.90	5.30	5.31	5.85	5.69	9.08	9.66	9.56	10.67	10.02	7.18	7.68	7.60	8.45	8.18
Coal Minemouth Price (2009$/short-ton)	33.46	33.51	33.43	33.68	33.43	33.20	33.45	33.21	33.42	33.25	33.77	34.11	33.89	33.76	33.85	34.30	34.01	33.95	33.99	34.16
End-Use Electricity Price (2009 cents/KWh)	9.02	9.17	9.15	9.36	9.28	8.57	8.65	8.67	8.75	8.69	9.86	9.98	9.94	10.25	10.06	9.50	9.67	9.63	9.90	9.78
NATURAL GAS REVENUES (B 2009$)																				
Export Revenues (2)	12.81	29.82	29.50	50.58	48.98	10.46	23.42	23.49	38.88	38.06	17.38	39.57	38.98	66.69	62.90	14.21	32.48	32.11	54.16	52.87
Domestic Supply Revenues (3)	199.45	221.98	220.95	249.66	244.39	184.30	200.41	201.19	220.08	216.08	222.71	243.85	242.19	276.77	266.61	230.96	254.64	252.33	282.66	278.95
production revenues (4)	147.54	170.77	169.47	200.63	194.52	128.09	145.41	146.06	167.45	162.93	173.25	194.92	193.13	228.66	217.47	175.63	199.91	197.44	230.19	225.48
delivery revenues (5)	51.91	51.21	51.48	49.03	49.87	56.21	55.00	55.13	52.63	53.14	49.47	48.94	49.06	48.11	49.13	55.33	54.74	54.89	52.47	53.47
Import Revenues (6)	18.06	19.89	19.65	22.97	22.09	11.69	13.64	13.75	16.04	15.80	33.87	37.50	37.30	41.19	39.73	20.96	22.75	22.52	26.35	24.99
END-USE ENERGY EXPENDITURES (B 2009$)	1,582.70	1,589.93	1,589.52	1,602.94	1,596.44	1,543.37	1,552.01	1,553.43	1,559.62	1,552.40	1,648.34	1,658.55	1,651.04	1,673.64	1,651.53	1,766.94	1,773.78	1,770.57	1,786.74	1,777.53
liquids	1,036.91	1,032.47	1,033.91	1,030.97	1,030.61	1,032.78	1,033.84	1,034.44	1,031.39	1,028.44	1,044.39	1,046.22	1,041.53	1,044.12	1,034.65	1,156.40	1,151.96	1,151.22	1,149.05	1,147.03
natural gas	152.47	158.71	157.65	166.94	163.18	136.00	140.12	140.18	146.00	143.37	180.36	184.84	183.01	194.25	187.01	172.16	177.27	175.86	185.15	181.63
electricity	386.65	392.12	391.36	398.45	396.09	368.01	371.51	372.27	375.68	374.08	416.91	420.84	419.85	428.68	423.29	430.75	436.99	435.94	445.06	441.40
coal	6.67	6.62	6.61	6.59	6.56	6.57	6.54	6.53	6.54	6.51	6.68	6.64	6.65	6.59	6.58	7.63	7.55	7.54	7.48	7.46
END-USE ENERGY CONSUMPTION (quadrillion Btu)	70.29	69.92	69.90	69.59	69.57	71.26	70.89	70.87	70.66	70.61	68.84	68.56	68.64	68.25	68.43	74.98	74.60	74.59	74.25	74.26
liquids	37.85	37.84	37.82	37.84	37.83	37.75	37.74	37.75	37.81	37.80	37.74	37.71	37.77	37.73	37.81	40.67	40.66	40.65	40.64	40.64
natural gas	16.26	15.95	15.94	15.69	15.66	17.32	16.97	16.93	16.66	16.58	15.13	14.92	14.92	14.71	14.73	17.13	16.83	16.81	16.58	16.53
electricity	14.59	14.55	14.56	14.48	14.52	14.61	14.62	14.62	14.61	14.66	14.39	14.35	14.38	14.25	14.32	15.43	15.39	15.41	15.31	15.37
coal	1.59	1.58	1.58	1.57	1.57	1.58	1.57	1.57	1.57	1.57	1.58	1.57	1.57	1.56	1.56	1.74	1.73	1.73	1.72	1.72
ELECTRIC GENERATION (billion kWh)	4,926.27	4,899.77	4,902.00	4,877.85	4,883.87	4,985.61	4,970.39	4,968.96	4,955.47	4,962.16	4,805.29	4,785.02	4,792.39	4,749.29	4,771.60	5,218.96	5,192.01	5,194.85	5,161.80	5,172.17
coal	2,142.71	2,177.86	2,173.08	2,205.23	2,199.91	1,965.65	2,017.08	2,010.40	2,076.04	2,072.01	2,250.96	2,299.95	2,288.43	2,318.37	2,307.93	2,230.53	2,234.24	2,247.81	2,248.95	2,243.60
gas	1,143.09	1,075.44	1,084.20	1,020.61	1,029.93	1,418.58	1,349.39	1,356.51	1,272.85	1,275.05	878.08	797.50	812.65	731.17	762.84	1,317.28	1,273.98	1,266.15	1,220.40	1,234.87
nuclear	876.67	876.67	876.67	876.67	876.67	858.29	858.29	858.29	858.29	863.83	876.67	878.22	878.27	879.99	878.26	876.67	877.25	876.67	877.38	876.67
renewables	702.87	707.59	705.79	711.29	713.75	681.48	683.24	681.93	685.54	688.71	734.07	743.56	747.72	752.68	756.76	730.61	742.46	740.48	748.18	750.94
other	60.93	62.21	62.25	64.05	63.60	61.62	62.40	61.82	62.74	62.56	65.51	65.81	65.32	67.09	65.81	63.87	64.07	63.73	66.89	66.09
PRIMARY ENERGY (quadrillion Btu)																				
Consumption	111.05	110.88	110.85	110.69	110.76	111.50	111.37	111.37	111.45	111.46	109.71	109.57	109.69	109.18	109.59	117.72	117.47	117.54	117.22	117.23
Imports	27.93	27.63	27.67	27.60	27.46	26.80	26.78	26.86	27.04	26.99	29.22	29.38	29.42	29.45	29.40	30.26	30.04	29.97	30.09	29.72
Exports	7.91	10.13	10.13	12.29	12.32	8.18	10.39	10.40	12.58	12.62	7.54	9.74	9.72	11.88	11.94	7.97	10.17	10.18	12.32	12.36
Production	90.96	93.37	93.26	95.38	95.65	92.89	95.05	94.99	97.21	97.27	87.86	89.79	89.86	91.50	92.04	95.31	97.52	97.67	99.38	99.80
ENERGY RELATED CO_2 EMISSIONS (including liquefaction)(million metric tons)	6,114.82	6,136.49	6,131.49	6,155.61	6,152.88	6,074.00	6,103.94	6,102.31	6,151.52	6,146.61	6,084.64	6,103.94	6,106.49	6,104.89	6,120.61	6,521.09	6,517.76	6,525.31	6,521.52	6,520.16

Table B4. Differential from Base in U.S. Average Annual Values from 2025 to 2035 when Exports are Added

	Reference				High Shale EUR				Low Shale EUR				High Macroeconomic Growth			
	low/ slow	low/ rapid	high/ slow	high/ rapid	low/ slow	low/ rapid	high/ slow	high/ rapid	low/ slow	low/ rapid	high/ slow	high/ rapid	low/ slow	low/ rapid	high/ slow	high/ rapid
NATURAL GAS VOLUMES (Tcf)																
Net Exports	2.18	2.19	4.23	4.28	2.06	2.05	4.09	4.10	1.88	1.76	3.93	3.85	2.17	2.17	4.09	4.26
gross imports	0.01	0.00	0.12	0.10	0.13	0.14	0.26	0.28	0.31	0.43	0.42	0.53	0.02	0.02	0.26	0.12
gross exports	2.19	2.19	4.35	4.38	2.19	2.19	4.35	4.38	2.19	2.19	4.35	4.38	2.19	2.19	4.35	4.38
Dry Production	1.51	1.59	3.00	3.15	1.43	1.49	2.77	2.78	1.24	1.25	2.62	2.90	1.74	1.71	3.15	3.47
shale gas	1.13	1.15	2.14	2.31	1.18	1.23	2.24	2.23	0.84	0.91	1.55	1.75	1.29	1.28	2.30	2.56
other	0.38	0.44	0.86	0.84	0.25	0.25	0.53	0.55	0.40	0.35	1.07	1.16	0.45	0.43	0.85	0.91
Delivered Volumes (1)	(0.75)	(0.67)	(1.36)	(1.26)	(0.69)	(0.63)	(1.43)	(1.43)	(0.72)	(0.59)	(1.44)	(1.13)	(0.51)	(0.54)	(1.08)	(0.95)
electric generators	(0.40)	(0.32)	(0.71)	(0.61)	(0.35)	(0.25)	(0.79)	(0.70)	(0.50)	(0.37)	(0.96)	(0.69)	(0.17)	(0.19)	(0.45)	(0.28)
industrial	(0.24)	(0.25)	(0.44)	(0.46)	(0.24)	(0.27)	(0.43)	(0.53)	(0.13)	(0.15)	(0.27)	(0.28)	(0.25)	(0.27)	(0.46)	(0.49)
residential	(0.04)	(0.04)	(0.08)	(0.08)	(0.03)	(0.03)	(0.07)	(0.06)	(0.03)	(0.03)	(0.08)	(0.06)	(0.04)	(0.03)	(0.07)	(0.07)
commercial	(0.06)	(0.06)	(0.12)	(0.11)	(0.05)	(0.06)	(0.11)	(0.10)	(0.05)	(0.04)	(0.11)	(0.08)	(0.05)	(0.04)	(0.10)	(0.09)
NATURAL GAS END-USE PRICES (2009$/Mcf)																
residential	0.55	0.48	1.15	0.95	0.35	0.37	0.79	0.67	0.46	0.33	1.27	0.78	0.43	0.35	0.97	0.81
commercial	0.54	0.48	1.12	0.92	0.33	0.34	0.73	0.61	0.47	0.34	1.29	0.78	0.41	0.34	0.93	0.76
industrial	0.62	0.54	1.44	1.16	0.46	0.48	1.07	0.92	0.49	0.36	1.39	0.78	0.55	0.46	1.32	1.09
OTHER PRICES																
Natural Gas Wellhead Price (2009$/Mcf)	0.54	0.47	1.27	1.01	0.36	0.38	0.86	0.71	0.52	0.43	1.44	0.85	0.45	0.38	1.15	0.90
Henry Hub Price (2009$/MMBtu)	0.60	0.52	1.39	1.11	0.40	0.41	0.95	0.79	0.57	0.47	1.59	0.94	0.50	0.42	1.26	1.00
Coal Minemouth Price (2009$/short-ton)	0.05	(0.03)	0.22	(0.03)	0.25	0.01	0.22	0.05	0.34	0.12	(0.01)	0.08	(0.29)	(0.35)	(0.30)	(0.14)
End-Use Electricity Price (2009 cents/KWh)	0.16	0.13	0.35	0.27	0.08	0.10	0.18	0.12	0.12	0.08	0.38	0.20	0.17	0.13	0.40	0.28
NATURAL GAS REVENUES (B 2009$)																
Export Revenues (2)	17.01	16.69	37.77	36.17	12.96	13.03	28.42	27.60	22.19	21.60	49.31	45.52	18.27	17.90	39.95	38.66
Domestic Supply Revenues (3)	22.53	21.50	50.21	44.94	16.11	16.89	35.77	31.78	21.14	19.48	54.05	43.89	23.68	21.37	51.70	47.99
production revenues (4)	23.23	21.93	53.09	46.98	17.31	17.97	39.36	34.84	21.67	19.88	55.41	44.23	24.28	21.81	54.56	49.85
delivery revenues (5)	(0.71)	(0.44)	(2.88)	(2.04)	(1.21)	(1.08)	(3.58)	(3.06)	(0.53)	(0.40)	(1.36)	(0.33)	(0.60)	(0.44)	(2.86)	(1.87)
Import Revenues (6)	1.82	1.59	4.91	4.02	1.95	2.06	4.35	4.11	3.63	3.43	7.32	5.87	1.79	1.56	5.39	4.03
END-USE ENERGY EXPENDITURES (B 2009$)	7.22	6.81	20.24	13.73	8.64	10.06	16.25	9.03	10.21	2.71	25.31	3.19	6.84	3.63	19.81	10.59
liquids	(4.45)	(3.01)	(5.94)	(6.31)	1.05	1.66	(1.39)	(4.34)	1.83	(2.86)	(0.27)	(9.74)	(4.43)	(5.17)	(7.34)	(9.37)
natural gas	6.25	5.18	14.47	10.71	4.12	4.18	10.00	7.37	4.49	2.65	13.90	6.65	5.12	3.70	12.99	9.47
electricity	5.47	4.71	11.80	9.44	3.50	4.26	7.68	6.07	3.94	2.94	11.78	6.39	6.24	5.19	14.31	10.65
coal	(0.05)	(0.07)	(0.08)	(0.11)	(0.03)	(0.04)	(0.03)	(0.06)	(0.04)	(0.03)	(0.09)	(0.11)	(0.08)	(0.09)	(0.15)	(0.16)
END-USE ENERGY CONSUMPTION (quadrillion Btu)	(0.37)	(0.38)	(0.70)	(0.71)	(0.37)	(0.39)	(0.60)	(0.65)	(0.28)	(0.20)	(0.60)	(0.42)	(0.38)	(0.39)	(0.73)	(0.72)
liquids	(0.00)	(0.02)	(0.01)	(0.02)	(0.01)	0.00	0.06	0.06	(0.03)	0.03	(0.01)	0.07	(0.02)	(0.03)	(0.03)	(0.03)
natural gas	(0.31)	(0.32)	(0.57)	(0.60)	(0.35)	(0.39)	(0.65)	(0.74)	(0.21)	(0.21)	(0.42)	(0.40)	(0.30)	(0.32)	(0.54)	(0.60)
electricity	(0.04)	(0.03)	(0.11)	(0.07)	0.00	0.01	(0.00)	0.04	(0.04)	(0.01)	(0.14)	(0.07)	(0.05)	(0.02)	(0.13)	(0.07)
coal	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.02)	(0.02)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.02)	(0.02)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.02)	(0.03)
ELECTRIC GENERATION (billion kWh)	(26.50)	(24.27)	(48.42)	(42.40)	(15.22)	(16.66)	(30.14)	(23.45)	(20.26)	(12.90)	(55.99)	(33.69)	(26.95)	(24.11)	(57.15)	(46.78)
coal	35.15	30.37	62.53	57.20	51.43	44.76	110.39	106.36	48.98	37.46	67.41	56.97	3.71	17.28	18.42	13.07
gas	(67.65)	(58.89)	(122.48)	(113.16)	(69.19)	(62.06)	(145.72)	(143.53)	(80.58)	(65.43)	(146.91)	(115.24)	(43.30)	(51.13)	(96.88)	(82.41)
nuclear	-	(0.00)	-	-	0.00	0.00	0.00	5.55	1.54	1.60	3.32	1.59	0.58	0.00	0.71	0.00
renewables	4.72	2.92	8.41	10.87	1.76	0.46	4.07	7.23	9.49	13.65	18.61	22.69	11.85	9.87	17.57	20.33
other	1.28	1.33	3.12	2.68	0.77	0.19	1.12	0.94	0.30	(0.19)	1.58	0.31	0.20	(0.13)	3.02	2.22
PRIMARY ENERGY (quadrillion Btu)																
Consumption	(0.16)	(0.20)	(0.35)	(0.29)	(0.13)	(0.13)	(0.05)	(0.04)	(0.13)	(0.02)	(0.53)	(0.12)	(0.25)	(0.18)	(0.50)	(0.49)
Imports	(0.30)	(0.26)	(0.33)	(0.47)	(0.03)	0.05	0.23	0.19	0.16	0.20	0.23	0.18	(0.22)	(0.30)	(0.17)	(0.54)
Exports	2.21	2.21	4.37	4.41	2.21	2.22	4.40	4.43	2.20	2.19	4.35	4.41	2.20	2.21	4.35	4.39
Production	2.41	2.30	4.42	4.69	2.16	2.10	4.32	4.38	1.93	2.00	3.65	4.18	2.20	2.36	4.07	4.49
ENERGY RELATED CO_2 EMISSIONS (including liquefaction)(million metric tons)	21.67	16.67	40.79	38.07	29.94	28.31	77.52	72.61	19.31	21.85	20.25	35.98	(3.33)	4.21	0.43	(0.93)

Table B5. U.S. Annual Average Values from 2015 to 2035

	Reference					High Shale EUR					Low Shale EUR					High Macroeconomic Growth				
	baseline	low/ slow	low/ rapid	high/ slow	high/ rapid	baseline	low/ slow	low/ rapid	high/ slow	high/ rapid	baseline	low/ slow	low/ rapid	high/ slow	high/ rapid	baseline	low/ slow	low/ rapid	high/ slow	high/ rapid
NATURAL GAS VOLUMES (Tcf)																				
Net Exports	(1.31)	0.57	0.78	1.81	2.63	(0.63)	1.21	1.41	2.44	3.24	(2.40)	(0.70)	(0.60)	0.52	1.21	(1.45)	0.44	0.64	1.60	2.49
gross imports	3.31	3.35	3.35	3.42	3.43	2.84	2.94	2.95	3.01	3.04	4.13	4.36	4.46	4.44	4.59	3.40	3.45	3.45	3.59	3.53
gross exports	2.00	3.93	4.13	5.23	6.06	2.22	4.15	4.35	5.45	6.28	1.73	3.66	3.86	4.96	5.79	1.95	3.88	4.09	5.19	6.02
Dry Production	24.18	25.37	25.52	26.24	26.78	27.48	28.71	28.86	29.52	29.95	20.40	21.47	21.51	22.28	22.86	25.37	26.75	26.83	27.60	28.26
shale gas	9.65	10.51	10.63	11.10	11.56	13.70	14.67	14.79	15.30	15.67	4.56	5.23	5.37	5.64	6.08	10.47	11.48	11.58	12.08	12.62
other	14.54	14.85	14.89	15.15	15.21	13.78	14.04	14.06	14.22	14.28	15.84	16.24	16.14	16.64	16.78	14.90	15.27	15.25	15.53	15.65
Delivered Volumes (1)	23.67	22.91	22.85	22.52	22.20	26.12	25.46	25.41	25.00	24.61	21.12	20.42	20.36	19.97	19.81	24.92	24.35	24.23	24.01	23.75
electric generators	7.06	6.58	6.57	6.36	6.18	8.64	8.26	8.28	7.98	7.77	5.44	4.97	4.98	4.69	4.66	7.63	7.36	7.29	7.18	7.09
industrial	8.10	7.92	7.88	7.81	7.72	8.62	8.42	8.38	8.31	8.18	7.60	7.46	7.42	7.38	7.29	8.59	8.39	8.34	8.27	8.16
residential	4.82	4.79	4.78	4.76	4.75	4.94	4.91	4.91	4.89	4.88	4.66	4.62	4.61	4.59	4.57	4.95	4.92	4.91	4.90	4.87
commercial	3.58	3.53	3.52	3.49	3.47	3.78	3.73	3.72	3.70	3.68	3.34	3.28	3.27	3.24	3.22	3.64	3.59	3.58	3.56	3.53
NATURAL GAS END-USE PRICES (2009$/Mcf)																				
residential	12.04	12.53	12.57	12.91	13.08	10.61	10.95	11.02	11.22	11.35	14.35	14.98	15.06	15.55	15.69	12.63	13.10	13.13	13.45	13.68
commercial	9.91	10.39	10.44	10.76	10.93	8.49	8.80	8.88	9.06	9.18	12.24	12.88	12.95	13.46	13.60	10.49	10.95	10.98	11.29	11.50
industrial	6.20	6.76	6.80	7.26	7.44	4.90	5.32	5.41	5.69	5.86	8.38	9.07	9.15	9.71	9.84	6.69	7.26	7.29	7.75	7.99
OTHER PRICES																				
Natural Gas Wellhead Price (2009$/Mcf)	5.28	5.78	5.82	6.23	6.39	4.01	4.35	4.42	4.66	4.79	7.37	8.06	8.16	8.71	8.87	5.75	6.25	6.28	6.69	6.90
Henry Hub Price (2009$/MMBtu)	5.81	6.36	6.41	6.86	7.03	4.41	4.79	4.87	5.12	5.27	8.12	8.88	8.98	9.60	9.77	6.33	6.88	6.91	7.36	7.60
Coal Minemouth Price (2009$/short-ton)	33.06	33.12	33.15	33.29	33.18	32.77	33.07	32.87	32.99	33.00	33.34	33.64	33.50	33.38	33.46	33.74	33.60	33.52	33.66	33.72
End-Use Electricity Price (2009 cents/KWh)	8.94	9.08	9.08	9.19	9.22	8.56	8.63	8.67	8.70	8.70	9.65	9.81	9.83	10.00	10.02	9.29	9.46	9.45	9.60	9.62
NATURAL GAS REVENUES (B 2009$)																				
Export Revenues (2)	11.13	25.11	26.34	37.49	43.23	8.98	19.64	20.80	28.85	33.39	15.07	34.12	35.85	50.80	58.30	12.11	27.19	28.43	40.19	46.69
Domestic Supply Revenues (3)	179.79	198.43	200.12	215.08	221.64	165.83	179.88	182.38	191.82	196.70	200.15	222.46	224.55	243.87	251.43	201.24	222.30	223.13	239.62	248.66
production revenues (4)	128.46	147.79	149.40	165.76	172.31	110.87	125.92	128.47	139.27	144.50	151.06	173.98	176.05	196.01	203.32	147.54	169.19	169.97	187.82	196.82
delivery revenues (5)	51.32	50.64	50.72	49.32	49.33	54.96	53.96	53.92	52.55	52.21	49.09	48.48	48.50	47.86	48.12	53.70	53.12	53.16	51.79	51.84
Import Revenues (6)	17.77	19.53	19.69	21.37	22.03	11.92	13.52	13.84	14.94	15.61	30.84	34.49	35.15	37.10	38.16	19.97	21.90	22.09	24.07	24.58
END-USE ENERGY EXPENDITURES (B 2009$)	1,489.93	1,499.04	1,499.79	1,507.51	1,510.31	1,455.15	1,463.17	1,465.18	1,469.08	1,469.35	1,547.09	1,561.08	1,559.57	1,572.52	1,567.30	1,625.45	1,635.66	1,634.71	1,644.67	1,646.03
liquids	974.71	973.09	973.49	972.64	972.64	970.30	971.23	971.23	970.91	969.68	981.60	983.31	980.57	982.05	975.74	1,063.35	1,061.47	1,060.75	1,060.30	1,058.97
natural gas	140.16	146.09	146.41	151.27	152.79	124.61	128.76	129.62	132.45	133.62	165.55	172.70	173.21	179.55	180.30	154.27	160.27	160.24	165.41	167.51
electricity	368.28	373.10	373.13	376.85	378.14	353.56	356.51	357.67	359.05	359.38	393.11	398.26	398.98	404.14	404.50	400.29	406.41	406.21	411.48	412.09
coal	6.78	6.76	6.75	6.75	6.74	6.68	6.68	6.67	6.68	6.67	6.83	6.81	6.81	6.78	6.76	7.54	7.51	7.50	7.48	7.46
END-USE ENERGY CONSUMPTION (quadrillion Btu)	69.09	68.81	68.75	68.64	68.49	69.93	69.65	69.59	69.52	69.37	67.90	67.61	67.58	67.42	67.33	72.62	72.33	72.26	72.14	71.97
liquids	37.29	37.30	37.29	37.31	37.31	37.21	37.23	37.24	37.28	37.28	37.24	37.23	37.25	37.25	37.28	39.42	39.43	39.42	39.43	39.44
natural gas	16.15	15.90	15.85	15.76	15.61	17.04	16.76	16.69	16.58	16.41	15.18	14.95	14.89	14.82	14.69	16.81	16.55	16.49	16.41	16.23
electricity	14.02	13.98	13.98	13.95	13.95	14.05	14.05	14.04	14.04	14.06	13.85	13.81	13.81	13.74	13.74	14.64	14.60	14.61	14.55	14.56
coal	1.63	1.63	1.63	1.63	1.62	1.62	1.62	1.62	1.62	1.62	1.63	1.62	1.62	1.62	1.61	1.76	1.75	1.75	1.74	1.74
ELECTRIC GENERATION (billion kWh)	4,691.78	4,671.70	4,670.36	4,660.47	4,654.31	4,740.10	4,728.42	4,724.32	4,720.03	4,717.90	4,599.04	4,578.46	4,576.69	4,554.90	4,551.26	4,907.86	4,886.10	4,884.89	4,868.85	4,864.09
coal	2,030.24	2,078.96	2,083.33	2,100.15	2,121.75	1,860.54	1,912.06	1,912.09	1,949.35	1,977.66	2,171.63	2,216.91	2,212.07	2,221.68	2,224.94	2,114.85	2,134.13	2,149.63	2,144.11	2,158.39
gas	1,074.40	1,000.10	995.54	963.40	932.18	1,328.06	1,262.83	1,259.57	1,215.21	1,175.80	808.02	735.39	733.01	695.09	685.68	1,181.25	1,129.59	1,115.49	1,096.96	1,074.83
nuclear	871.23	871.23	871.23	871.23	871.23	854.18	854.18	854.18	854.53	859.21	871.23	872.04	872.07	872.97	872.07	871.23	871.54	871.23	871.61	871.23
renewables	655.74	660.26	658.89	663.43	666.81	636.24	637.87	637.72	639.17	643.29	684.94	690.77	696.38	700.70	704.42	678.14	688.13	686.04	691.94	695.77
other	60.17	61.15	61.37	62.26	62.34	61.08	61.49	60.76	61.77	61.93	63.21	63.35	63.16	64.47	64.16	62.38	62.71	62.50	64.24	63.86
PRIMARY ENERGY (quadrillion Btu)																				
Consumption	107.97	107.90	107.87	107.85	107.85	108.38	108.31	108.27	108.38	108.37	107.04	106.89	106.89	106.66	106.70	113.05	112.91	112.92	112.81	112.71
Imports	28.28	28.20	28.21	28.18	28.19	27.27	27.28	27.34	27.47	27.49	29.50	29.62	29.68	29.71	29.75	30.17	30.14	30.09	30.17	30.02
Exports	7.48	9.43	9.63	10.73	11.57	7.69	9.64	9.86	10.96	11.81	7.19	9.12	9.32	10.41	11.25	7.53	9.47	9.68	10.77	11.61
Production	87.04	89.04	89.18	90.30	91.17	88.73	90.66	90.77	91.94	92.73	84.52	86.20	86.35	87.18	88.04	90.24	92.09	92.35	93.26	94.16
ENERGY RELATED CO_2 EMISSIONS (including liquefaction)(million metric tons)	5,955.05	5,985.66	5,986.04	6,001.82	6,013.46	5,915.71	5,947.04	5,946.80	5,977.68	5,991.27	5,960.10	5,981.23	5,978.85	5,976.06	5,984.27	6,270.24	6,279.14	6,286.47	6,283.68	6,290.23

Table B6. Differential from Base in U.S. Average Annual Values from 2015 to 2035 when Exports are Added

	Reference				High Shale EUR				Low Shale EUR				High Macroeconomic Growth			
	low/ slow	low/ rapid	high/ slow	high/ rapid	low/ slow	low/ rapid	high/ slow	high/ rapid	low/ slow	low/ rapid	high/ slow	high/ rapid	low/ slow	low/ rapid	high/ slow	high/ rapid
NATURAL GAS VOLUMES (Tcf)																
Net Exports	1.89	2.10	3.12	3.95	1.84	2.03	3.06	3.87	1.70	1.81	2.92	3.61	1.89	2.09	3.05	3.94
gross imports	0.04	0.04	0.11	0.12	0.09	0.10	0.17	0.20	0.23	0.33	0.31	0.46	0.04	0.05	0.19	0.13
gross exports	1.93	2.14	3.23	4.07	1.93	2.14	3.23	4.07	1.93	2.14	3.23	4.07	1.93	2.14	3.23	4.07
Dry Production	1.18	1.33	2.06	2.59	1.23	1.38	2.04	2.47	1.06	1.11	1.88	2.45	1.38	1.46	2.23	2.89
shale gas	0.86	0.98	1.45	1.91	0.97	1.09	1.60	1.97	0.67	0.81	1.08	1.52	1.01	1.11	1.61	2.15
other	0.32	0.35	0.61	0.68	0.26	0.28	0.44	0.50	0.40	0.30	0.80	0.93	0.37	0.35	0.62	0.74
Delivered Volumes (1)	(0.76)	(0.82)	(1.15)	(1.47)	(0.66)	(0.71)	(1.12)	(1.51)	(0.71)	(0.77)	(1.15)	(1.31)	(0.57)	(0.69)	(0.91)	(1.17)
electric generators	(0.48)	(0.49)	(0.70)	(0.88)	(0.38)	(0.36)	(0.66)	(0.87)	(0.46)	(0.46)	(0.75)	(0.78)	(0.27)	(0.34)	(0.45)	(0.54)
industrial	(0.18)	(0.22)	(0.29)	(0.38)	(0.19)	(0.24)	(0.31)	(0.44)	(0.14)	(0.19)	(0.22)	(0.32)	(0.20)	(0.25)	(0.32)	(0.43)
residential	(0.04)	(0.04)	(0.06)	(0.08)	(0.03)	(0.04)	(0.05)	(0.06)	(0.04)	(0.05)	(0.07)	(0.09)	(0.04)	(0.04)	(0.06)	(0.08)
commercial	(0.05)	(0.06)	(0.09)	(0.11)	(0.05)	(0.06)	(0.08)	(0.10)	(0.06)	(0.07)	(0.10)	(0.12)	(0.05)	(0.06)	(0.08)	(0.11)
NATURAL GAS END-USE PRICES (2009$/Mcf)																
residential	0.49	0.53	0.87	1.04	0.33	0.41	0.60	0.73	0.64	0.71	1.20	1.34	0.47	0.50	0.82	1.05
commercial	0.48	0.52	0.84	1.02	0.31	0.39	0.57	0.69	0.64	0.71	1.22	1.35	0.46	0.49	0.80	1.02
industrial	0.56	0.60	1.07	1.24	0.42	0.51	0.79	0.96	0.69	0.77	1.33	1.46	0.57	0.60	1.06	1.30
OTHER PRICES																
Natural Gas Wellhead Price (2009$/Mcf)	0.50	0.54	0.95	1.11	0.34	0.42	0.65	0.79	0.69	0.79	1.34	1.50	0.50	0.52	0.94	1.15
Henry Hub Price (2009$/MMBtu)	0.55	0.59	1.05	1.22	0.38	0.46	0.72	0.87	0.77	0.87	1.48	1.65	0.55	0.58	1.03	1.26
Coal Minemouth Price (2009$/short-ton)	0.06	0.09	0.22	0.12	0.30	0.11	0.22	0.24	0.29	0.16	0.04	0.12	(0.14)	(0.22)	(0.08)	(0.02)
End-Use Electricity Price (2009 cents/KWh)	0.14	0.14	0.25	0.29	0.07	0.10	0.13	0.13	0.16	0.18	0.35	0.37	0.17	0.16	0.31	0.33
NATURAL GAS REVENUES (B 2009$)																
Export Revenues (2)	13.99	15.22	26.36	32.10	10.66	11.82	19.87	24.41	19.05	20.78	35.73	43.23	15.08	16.32	28.08	34.57
Domestic Supply Revenues (3)	18.64	20.34	35.29	41.85	14.05	16.55	25.99	30.88	22.30	24.39	43.72	51.28	21.06	21.88	38.37	47.42
production revenues (4)	19.33	20.94	37.29	43.84	15.05	17.60	28.40	33.63	22.92	24.98	44.95	52.25	21.64	22.43	40.28	49.28
delivery revenues (5)	(0.69)	(0.60)	(2.00)	(1.99)	(1.00)	(1.04)	(2.41)	(2.75)	(0.61)	(0.59)	(1.23)	(0.97)	(0.58)	(0.54)	(1.91)	(1.86)
Import Revenues (6)	1.76	1.93	3.60	4.26	1.60	1.92	3.02	3.69	3.65	4.31	6.26	7.31	1.93	2.12	4.11	4.61
END-USE ENERGY EXPENDITURES (B 2009$)	9.11	9.86	17.59	20.39	8.02	10.03	13.93	14.19	13.98	12.47	25.42	20.21	10.22	9.26	19.22	20.58
liquids	(1.63)	(1.22)	(2.07)	(2.07)	0.92	0.92	0.61	(0.62)	1.70	(1.04)	0.45	(5.86)	(1.88)	(2.60)	(3.05)	(4.38)
natural gas	5.94	6.26	11.12	12.63	4.15	5.01	7.84	9.01	7.15	7.66	14.00	14.75	6.00	5.98	11.14	13.24
electricity	4.82	4.86	8.57	9.87	2.95	4.11	5.49	5.82	5.15	5.87	11.03	11.39	6.12	5.92	11.19	11.80
coal	(0.02)	(0.03)	(0.03)	(0.04)	(0.01)	(0.02)	(0.00)	(0.02)	(0.02)	(0.02)	(0.05)	(0.07)	(0.03)	(0.04)	(0.06)	(0.08)
END-USE ENERGY CONSUMPTION (quadrillion Btu)	(0.28)	(0.34)	(0.45)	(0.60)	(0.27)	(0.34)	(0.41)	(0.55)	(0.29)	(0.32)	(0.48)	(0.57)	(0.30)	(0.36)	(0.49)	(0.65)
liquids	0.01	0.00	0.03	0.03	0.02	0.02	0.06	0.07	(0.01)	0.02	0.01	0.04	0.02	0.00	0.02	0.02
natural gas	(0.25)	(0.30)	(0.40)	(0.54)	(0.28)	(0.35)	(0.46)	(0.63)	(0.23)	(0.29)	(0.36)	(0.49)	(0.27)	(0.33)	(0.41)	(0.58)
electricity	(0.04)	(0.03)	(0.07)	(0.07)	(0.00)	(0.00)	(0.00)	0.02	(0.05)	(0.05)	(0.11)	(0.11)	(0.04)	(0.03)	(0.09)	(0.08)
coal	(0.00)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.00)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.02)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.02)
ELECTRIC GENERATION (billion kWh)	(20.08)	(21.43)	(31.31)	(37.47)	(11.67)	(15.77)	(20.07)	(22.20)	(20.58)	(22.35)	(44.13)	(47.78)	(21.76)	(22.98)	(39.01)	(43.78)
coal	48.72	53.09	69.91	91.51	51.52	51.55	88.82	117.12	45.28	40.44	50.04	53.31	19.28	34.78	29.25	43.53
gas	(74.30)	(78.86)	(111.00)	(142.22)	(65.24)	(68.49)	(112.86)	(152.26)	(72.63)	(75.01)	(112.93)	(122.34)	(51.66)	(65.76)	(84.29)	(106.42)
nuclear	-	(0.00)	-	-	0.00	0.00	0.35	5.02	0.81	0.84	1.74	0.83	0.30	0.00	0.37	0.00
renewables	4.52	3.15	7.69	11.07	1.63	1.48	2.94	7.06	5.84	11.44	15.76	19.48	9.99	7.89	13.80	17.63
other	0.98	1.20	2.09	2.17	0.41	(0.32)	0.69	0.86	0.13	(0.06)	1.25	0.94	0.33	0.11	1.86	1.48
PRIMARY ENERGY (quadrillion Btu)																
Consumption	(0.07)	(0.10)	(0.12)	(0.12)	(0.06)	(0.11)	0.01	(0.00)	(0.15)	(0.15)	(0.38)	(0.34)	(0.13)	(0.13)	(0.24)	(0.34)
Imports	(0.09)	(0.08)	(0.10)	(0.10)	0.01	0.07	0.20	0.22	0.12	0.18	0.21	0.25	(0.03)	(0.07)	0.00	(0.15)
Exports	1.94	2.15	3.25	4.09	1.96	2.17	3.28	4.12	1.93	2.13	3.22	4.06	1.94	2.15	3.24	4.08
Production	2.00	2.14	3.26	4.13	1.93	2.03	3.20	4.00	1.68	1.83	2.66	3.52	1.85	2.11	3.02	3.92
ENERGY RELATED CO_2 EMISSIONS (including liquefaction)(million metric tons)	30.62	30.99	46.77	58.42	31.33	31.09	61.96	75.56	21.14	18.75	15.96	24.18	8.90	16.23	13.44	19.99

FOOTNOTES

(1) total includes components below plus deliveries to the transportation sector

(2) export volumes added for this study times the Henry Hub price plus an assumed transport fee to the liquefaction facility of 20 cents per Mcf, plus sum of all other export volumes (i.e., to Canada and Mexico) times the associated price at the border

(3) represents producer revenues at the wellhead plus other revenues extracted before final gas delivery.

(4) dry gas production times average wellhead or first-purchase price

(5) represented revenues extracted as gas moves from the first-purchase wellhead price to final delivery

(6) import volumes times the associated price at the border

Projections: EIA, Annual Energy Outlook 2011 National Energy Modeling system runs ref2011.d020911a, rflexslw.d090911a, rflexrpd.d090911a, rfhexslw.d090911a, rfhesrpd.d090911a, hshleur.d020911a, helexslw.d090911a, helexrpd.d090911a, hehexslw.d090911a, hehexrpd.d090911a, feleur.d090811a, lelexslw.d090911a, lelexrpd.d090911a, lehexslw.d090911a, lehexrpd.d090911a, fehdem.d090811a, hmlexslw.d090911a, hmlexrpd.d090911a, hmhexslw.d090911a, hmhexrpd.d090911a

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ECONOMIC CONSULTING

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U.S. Department of Energy
1000 Independence Avenue, SW
Washington, DC 20585

December 3, 2012

Attn: Deputy Assistant Secretary Christopher Smith

Dear Mr. Smith

I am transmitting with this letter a clean copy of NERA's report on the macroeconomic impacts of LNG exports from the United States that was contracted for by the Department of Energy.

Sincerely,

W. David Montgomery
Senior Vice President

Enclosure

document8

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Macroeconomic Impacts of LNG Exports from the United States

NERA Economic Consulting

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[1] The opinions expressed herein do not necessarily represent the views of NERA Economic Consulting or any other NERA consultant.

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List of Acronyms

AEO 2011	Annual Energy Outlook 2011	GNP	Gross national product
AGR	Agricultural sector	IEA WEO	International Energy Agency World Energy Outlook
CES	Constant elasticity of substitution	IEO	International Energy Outlook
COL	Coal sector	JCC	Japanese Customs-cleared crude
CRU	Crude oil sector	LNG	Liquefied natural gas
DOE/FE	U.S. Department of Energy, Office of Fossil Energy	M_V	Motor Vehicle manufacturing sector
EIA	Energy Information Administration	MAN	Other manufacturing sector
EIS	Energy-intensive sector	Mcf	Thousand cubic feet
EITE	Energy-intensive trade exposed	MMBtu	Million British thermal units
ELE	Electricity sector	MMTPA	Million metric tonne per annum
EUR	Estimated ultimate recovery	NAICS	North American Industry Classification System
FDI	Foreign direct investment	NBP	National Balancing Point
FSU	Former Soviet Union	OIL	Refining sector
GAS	Natural gas sector	SRV	Commercial sector
GDP	Gross domestic product	Tcf	Trillion cubic feet
GIIGNL	International Group of LNG Importers	TRK	Commercial trucking sector
GNGM	Global Natural Gas Model	TRN	Other commercial transportation sector

Scenario Naming Convention

The following is the naming convention used for all the scenarios. Lists of all the possible U.S., international, U.S. LNG export, and quota rent cases are shown below.

Generic Naming Convention:

U.S. Case_International Case_U.S. LNG Export Case_Quota Rent Case

U.S. Cases:		**International Cases:**	
USREF	US Reference case	INTREF	International Reference case
HEUR	High Shale EUR	D	International Demand Shock
LEUR	Low Shale EUR	SD	International Supply/Demand Shock

U.S. LNG Export Cases

NX	No-Export Capacity	LS	Low/Slow	HS	High/Slow
LSS	Low/Slowest	LR	Low/Rapid	HR	High/Rapid
NC	No-Export Constraint				

Quota Rent Cases:

HEUR_SD_LSS_QR	US High Shale EUR with International Supply/Demand Shock at Low/Slowest export levels with quota rent
HEUR_SD_HR_QR	US High Shale EUR with International Supply/Demand Shock at High/Rapid export levels with quota rent

N_{ew}Era Baselines:

Bau_REF	No LNG export expansion case consistent with AEO 2011 Reference case
Bau_HEUR	No LNG export expansion case consistent with AEO 2011 High Shale EUR case
Bau_LEUR	No LNG export expansion case consistent with AEO 2011 Low Shale EUR case

Scenarios Analyzed by N_{ew}Era

USREF_D_LSS	US Reference case with International Demand Shock and lower than Low/Slowest export levels
USREF_D_LS	US Reference case with International Demand Shock and lower than Low/Slow export levels
USREF_D_LR	US Reference case with International Demand Shock and lower than Low/Rapid export levels
USREF_SD_LS	US Reference case with International Supply/Demand Shock at Low/Slow export levels
USREF_SD_LR	US Reference case with International Supply/Demand Shock at Low/Rapid export levels
USREF_SD_HS	US Reference case with International Supply/Demand Shock and lower than High/Slow export levels
USREF_SD_HR	US Reference case with International Supply/Demand Shock and lower than High/Rapid export levels
USREF_SD_NC	US Reference case with International Supply/Demand Shock and No Constraint on exports
HEUR_D_NC	US High Shale EUR with International Demand Shock and No Constraint on exports
HEUR_SD_LSS	US High Shale EUR with International Supply/Demand Shock at Low/Slowest export levels
HEUR_SD_LS	US High Shale EUR with International Supply/Demand Shock at Low/Slow export levels
HEUR_SD_LR	US High Shale EUR with International Supply/Demand Shock at Low/Rapid export levels
HEUR_SD_HS	US High Shale EUR with International Supply/Demand Shock at High/Slow export levels
HEUR_SD_HR	US High Shale EUR with International Supply/Demand Shock at High/Rapid export levels
HEUR_SD_NC	US High Shale EUR with International Supply/Demand Shock and No Constraint on exports
LEUR_SD_LSS	US Low Shale EUR with International Supply/Demand Shock at Low/Slowest export levels

EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

Approach

At the request of the U.S. Department of Energy, Office of Fossil Energy ("DOE/FE"), NERA Economic Consulting assessed the potential macroeconomic impact of liquefied natural gas ("LNG") exports using its energy-economy model (the "N_{ew}ERA" model). NERA built on the earlier U.S. Energy Information Administration ("EIA") study requested by DOE/FE by calibrating its U.S. natural gas supply model to the results of the study by EIA. The EIA study was limited to the relationship between export levels and domestic prices without considering whether or not those quantities of exports could be sold at high enough world prices to support the calculated domestic prices. The EIA study did not evaluate macroeconomic impacts.

NERA's Global Natural Gas Model ("GNGM") was used to estimate expected levels of U.S. LNG exports under several scenarios for global natural gas supply and demand.

NERA's N_{ew}ERA energy-economy model was used to determine the U.S. macroeconomic impacts resulting from those LNG exports.

Key Findings

This report contains an analysis of the impact of exports of LNG on the U.S. economy under a wide range of different assumptions about levels of exports, global market conditions, and the cost of producing natural gas in the U.S. These assumptions were combined first into a set of scenarios that explored the range of fundamental factors driving natural gas supply and demand. These market scenarios ranged from relatively normal conditions to stress cases with high costs of producing natural gas in the U.S. and exceptionally large demand for U.S. LNG exports in world markets. The economic impacts of different limits on LNG exports were examined under each of the market scenarios. Export limits were set at levels that ranged from zero to unlimited in each of the scenarios.

Across all these scenarios, the U.S. was projected to gain net economic benefits from allowing LNG exports. Moreover, for every one of the market scenarios examined, net economic benefits increased as the level of LNG exports increased. In particular, scenarios with unlimited exports always had higher net economic benefits than corresponding cases with limited exports.

In all of these cases, benefits that come from export expansion more than outweigh the losses from reduced capital and wage income to U.S. consumers, and hence LNG exports have net economic benefits in spite of higher domestic natural gas prices. This is exactly the outcome that economic theory describes when barriers to trade are removed.

Net benefits to the U.S. would be highest if the U.S. becomes able to produce large quantities of gas from shale at low cost, if world demand for natural gas increases rapidly, and if LNG supplies from other regions are limited. If the promise of shale gas is not fulfilled and costs of producing gas in the U.S. rise substantially, or if there are ample supplies of LNG from other regions to satisfy world demand, the U.S. would not export LNG. Under these conditions, allowing exports of LNG would cause no change in natural gas prices and do no harm to the overall economy.

U.S. natural gas prices increase when the U.S. exports LNG. But the global market limits how high U.S. natural gas prices can rise under pressure of LNG exports because importers will not purchase U.S. exports if U.S. wellhead price rises above the cost of competing supplies. In particular, the U.S. natural gas price does not become linked to oil prices in any of the cases examined.

Natural gas price changes attributable to LNG exports remain in a relatively narrow range across the entire range of scenarios. Natural gas price increases at the time LNG exports could begin range from zero to $0.33 (2010$/Mcf). The largest price increases that would be observed after 5 more years of potentially growing exports could range from $0.22 to $1.11 (2010$/Mcf). The higher end of the range is reached only under conditions of ample U.S. supplies and low domestic natural gas prices, with smaller price increases when U.S. supplies are more costly and domestic prices higher.

How increased LNG exports will affect different socioeconomic groups will depend on their income sources. Like other trade measures, LNG exports will cause shifts in industrial output and employment and in sources of income. Overall, both total labor compensation and income from investment are projected to decline, and income to owners of natural gas resources will increase. Different socioeconomic groups depend on different sources of income, though through retirement savings an increasingly large number of workers share in the benefits of higher income to natural resource companies whose shares they own. Nevertheless, impacts will not be positive for all groups in the economy. Households with income solely from wages or government transfers, in particular, might not participate in these benefits.

Serious competitive impacts are likely to be confined to narrow segments of industry. About 10% of U.S. manufacturing, measured by value of shipments, has both energy expenditures greater than 5% of the value of its output and serious exposure to foreign competition. Employment in industries with these characteristics is about one-half of one percent of total U.S. employment.

LNG exports are not likely to affect the overall level of employment in the U.S. There will be some shifts in the number of workers across industries, with those industries associated with natural gas production and exports attracting workers away from other industries. In no scenario is the shift in employment out of any industry projected to be larger than normal rates of turnover of employees in those industries.

I. SUMMARY

A. What NERA Was Asked to Do

NERA Economic Consulting was asked by the DOE/FE to use its N_{ew}ERA model to evaluate the macroeconomic impact of LNG exports. NERA's analysis follows on from the study of impacts of LNG exports on U.S. natural gas prices performed by the U.S. EIA "Effect of Increased Natural Gas Exports on Domestic Energy Markets," hereafter referred to as the "EIA Study."[2]

NERA's analysis addressed the same 16 scenarios for LNG exports analyzed by EIA. These scenarios incorporated different assumptions about U.S. natural gas supply and demand and different export levels as specified by DOE/FE:

- U.S. scenarios: Reference, High Demand, High Natural Gas Resource, and Low Natural Gas Resource cases.
- U.S. LNG export levels reflecting either slow or rapid increases to limits of
  - Low Level: 6 billion cubic feet per day
  - High Level: 12 billion cubic feet per day

DOE also asked NERA to examine a lower export level, with capacity rising at a slower rate to 6 billion cubic feet per day and cases with no export constraints.

The EIA study was confined to effects of specified levels of exports on natural gas prices within the U.S. EIA was not asked to estimate the price that foreign purchasers would be willing to pay for the specified quantities of exports. The EIA study, in other words, was limited to the relationship between export levels and domestic prices without, for example, considering whether or not those quantities of exports could be sold at high enough world prices to support the calculated domestic prices. Thus before carrying out its macroeconomic analysis, NERA had to estimate the export or world prices at which various quantities of U.S. LNG exports could be sold on the world market. This proved quite important in that NERA concluded that in many cases, the world natural gas market would not accept the full amount of exports assumed in the EIA scenarios at export prices high enough to cover the U.S. wellhead domestic prices calculated by the EIA.

To evaluate the feasibility of exporting the specified quantities of natural gas, NERA developed additional scenarios for global natural gas supply and demand, yielding a total of 63 scenarios when the global and U.S. scenarios were combined. NERA then used the GNGM to estimate the market-determined export price that would be received by exporters of natural gas from the United States in the combined scenarios.

NERA selected 13 of these scenarios that spanned the range of economic impacts from all the scenarios for discussion in this report and eliminated scenarios that had essentially identical

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[2] Available at: www.eia.gov/analysis/requests/fe/.

outcomes for LNG exports and prices.[3] These scenarios are described in Figure 1. NERA then analyzed impacts on the U.S. economy of these levels of exports and the resulting changes in the U.S. trade balance and in natural gas prices, supply, and demand.

Figure 1: Feasible Scenarios Analyzed in the Macroeconomic Model

U.S. Market Outlook	Reference		High Shale EUR		Low Shale EUR	
Int'l Market Outlook	Demand Shock	Supply/ Demand Shock	Demand Shock	Supply/ Demand Shock	Demand Shock	Supply/ Demand Shock
Export Volume/ Pace	Scenario Name					
Low/Slow	**USREF_D_LS**	*USREF_SD_LS*		*HEUR_SD_LS*		
Low/Rapid	**USREF_D_LR**	*USREF_SD_LR*		*HEUR_SD_LR*		
High/Slow		**USREF_SD_HS**		*HEUR_SD_HS*		
High/Rapid		**USREF_SD_HR**		*HEUR_SD_HR*		
Low/ Slowest	**USREF_D_LSS**			*HEUR_SD_LSS*		**LEUR_SD_LSS**

Scenarios in italics use DOE/FE defined export volumes.
Scenarios in bold use NERA determined export volumes.
Results for all cases are provided in Appendix C.

The three scenarios chosen for the U.S. resource outlook were the EIA Reference cases, based on the Annual Energy Outlook ("AEO") 2011, and two cases assuming different levels of estimated ultimate recovery ("EUR") from new gas shale development. Outcomes of the EIA high demand case fell between the high and low EUR cases and therefore would not have changed the range of results. The three different international outlooks were a reference case, based on the EIA International Energy Outlook ("IEO") 2011, a Demand Shock case with increased worldwide natural gas demand caused by shutdowns of some nuclear capacity, and a Supply/Demand Shock case which added to the Demand Shock a supply shock that assumed key LNG exporting regions did not increase their exports above current levels.

NERA concluded that in many cases the world natural gas market would not accept the full amount of exports specified by FE in the EIA scenarios at prices high enough to cover the U.S. wellhead price projected by EIA. In particular, NERA found that there would be no U.S. exports in the International Reference case with U.S. Reference case conditions. In the U.S. Reference case with an International Demand Shock, exports were projected but in quantities below any of the export limits. In these cases, NERA replaced the export levels specified by DOE/FE and prices estimated by EIA with lower levels of exports (and, *a fortiori* prices) estimated by GNGM

3 The scenarios not presented in this report had nearly identical macroeconomic impacts to those that are included, so that the number of scenarios discussed could be reduced to make the exposition clearer and less duplicative.

that are indicated in bold black in Figure 1. For sensitivity analysis, NERA also examined cases projecting zero exports and also cases with no limit placed on exports.

B. Key Assumptions

All the scenarios were derived from the AEO 2011, and incorporated the assumptions about energy and environmental policies, baseline coal, oil and natural gas prices, economic and energy demand growth, and technology availability and cost in the corresponding AEO cases.

The global LNG market was treated as a largely competitive market with one dominant supplier, Qatar, whose decisions about exports were assumed to be fixed no matter what the level of U.S. exports. U.S. exports compete with those from the other suppliers, who are assumed to behave as competitors and adjust their exports in light of the price they are offered. In this market, LNG exports from the U.S. necessarily lower the price received by U.S. exporters below levels that might be calculated based on current prices or prices projected without U.S exports, and in particular U.S. natural gas prices do not become linked to world oil prices.

It is outside the scope of this study to analyze alternative responses by other LNG suppliers in order to determine what would be in their best economic interest or how they might behave strategically to maximize their gains. This would require a different kind of model that addresses imperfect competition in global LNG markets and could explain the apparent ability of some large exporters to charge some importing countries at prices higher than the cost of production plus transportation.

Key assumptions in analyzing U.S. economic impacts were as follows: prices for natural gas used for LNG production were based on the U.S. wellhead price plus a percentage markup, the LNG tolling fee was based on a return of capital to the developer, and financing of investment was assumed to originate from U.S. sources. In order to remain consistent with the EIA analysis, the N_{ew}ERA model was calibrated to give the same results for natural gas prices as EIA at the same levels of LNG exports so that the parameters governing natural gas supply and demand in N_{ew}ERA were consistent with EIA's NEMS model.

Results are reported in 5-year intervals starting in 2015. These calendar years should not be interpreted literally but represent intervals after exports begin. Thus if the U.S. does not begin LNG exports until 2016 or later, one year should be added to the dates for each year that exports commence after 2015.

Like other general equilibrium models, N_{ew}ERA is a model of long run economic growth such that in any given year, prices, employment, or economic activity might fluctuate above or below projected levels. It is used in this study not to give unconditional forecasts of natural gas prices, but to indicate how, under different conditions, different decisions about levels of exports would affect the performance of the economy. In this kind of comparison, computable general equilibrium models generally give consistent and robust results.

Consistent with its equilibrium nature, N_{ew}ERA does not address questions of how rapidly the economy will recover from the recession and generally assumes that aggregate unemployment rates remain the same in all cases. As is discussed below, N_{ew}ERA does estimate changes in worker compensation in total and by industry that can serve as an indicator of pressure on labor markets and displacement of workers due to some industries growing more quickly and others less quickly than assumed in the baseline.

C. Key Results

1. Impacts of LNG Exports on U.S. Natural Gas Prices

In its analysis of global markets, NERA found that the U.S. would only be able to market LNG successfully with higher global demand or lower U.S. costs of production than in the Reference cases. The market limits how high U.S. natural gas prices can rise under pressure of LNG exports because importers will not purchase U.S. exports if the U.S. wellhead price rises above the cost of competing supplies. In particular, the U.S. natural gas price does not become linked to oil prices in any of the cases examined.

2. Macroeconomic Impacts of LNG Exports are Positive in All Cases

In all of the scenarios analyzed in this study, NERA found that the U.S. would experience net economic benefits from increased LNG exports.[4] Only three of the cases analyzed with the global model had U.S. exports greater than the 12Bcf/d maximum exports allowed in the cases analyzed by EIA. These were the USREF_SD, the HEUR_D and the HEUR_SD cases. NERA estimated economic impacts for these three cases with no constraint on exports, and found that even with exports reaching levels greater than 12 Bcf/d and associated higher prices than in the constrained cases, there were net economic benefits from allowing unlimited exports in all cases.

Across the scenarios, U.S. economic welfare consistently increases as the volume of natural gas exports increased. This includes scenarios in which there are unlimited exports. The reason for this is that even though domestic natural gas prices are pulled up by LNG exports, the value of those exports also rises so that there is a net gain for the U.S. economy measured by a broad metric of economic welfare (Figure 2) or by more common measures such as real household income or real GDP. Although there are costs to consumers of higher energy prices and lower consumption and producers incur higher costs to supply the additional natural gas for export, these costs are more than offset by increases in export revenues along with a wealth transfer from overseas received in the form of payments for liquefaction services. The net result is an increase in U.S. households' real income and welfare.[5]

Net benefits to the U.S. economy could be larger if U.S. businesses were to take more of a merchant role. Based on business models now being proposed, this study assumes that foreign

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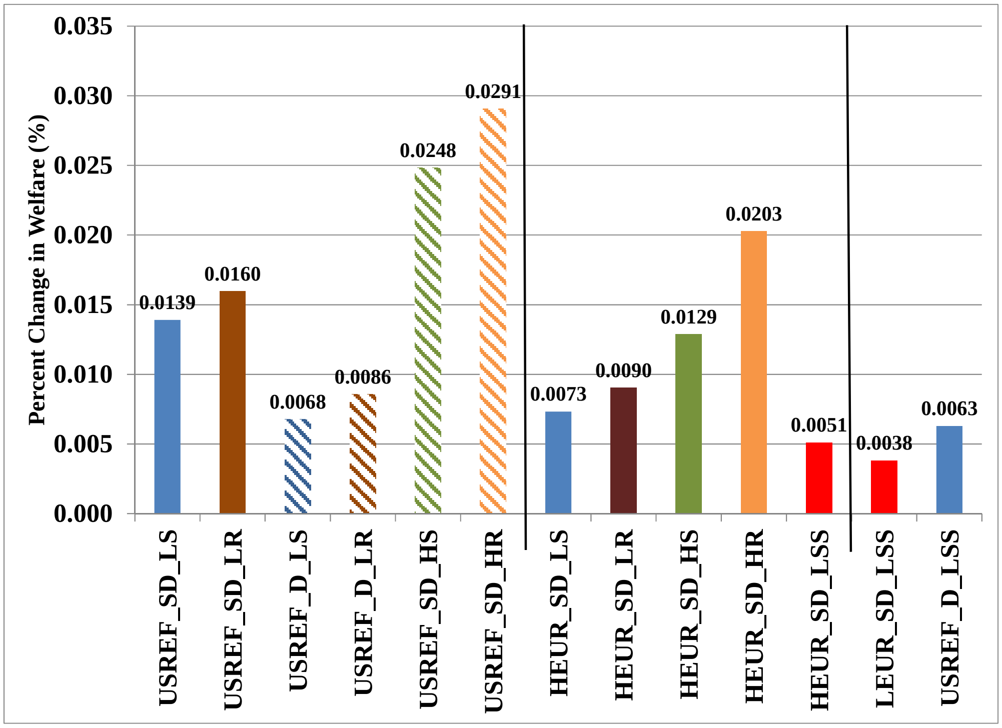
[4] NERA did not run the EIA High Growth case because the results would be similar to the REF case.

[5] In this report, the measure of welfare is technically known as the "equivalent variation" and it is the amount of income that a household would be willing to give up in the case without LNG exports in order to achieve the benefits of LNG exports. It is measured in present value terms, and therefore captures in a single number benefits and costs that might vary year by year over the period.

purchasers take title to LNG when it is loaded at a United States port, so that any profits that could be made by transporting and selling in importing countries accrue to foreign entities. In the cases where exports are constrained to maximum permitted levels, this business model sacrifices additional value from LNG exports that could accrue to the United States.

Figure 2: Percentage Change in Welfare (%)[6]



3. Sources of Income Would Shift

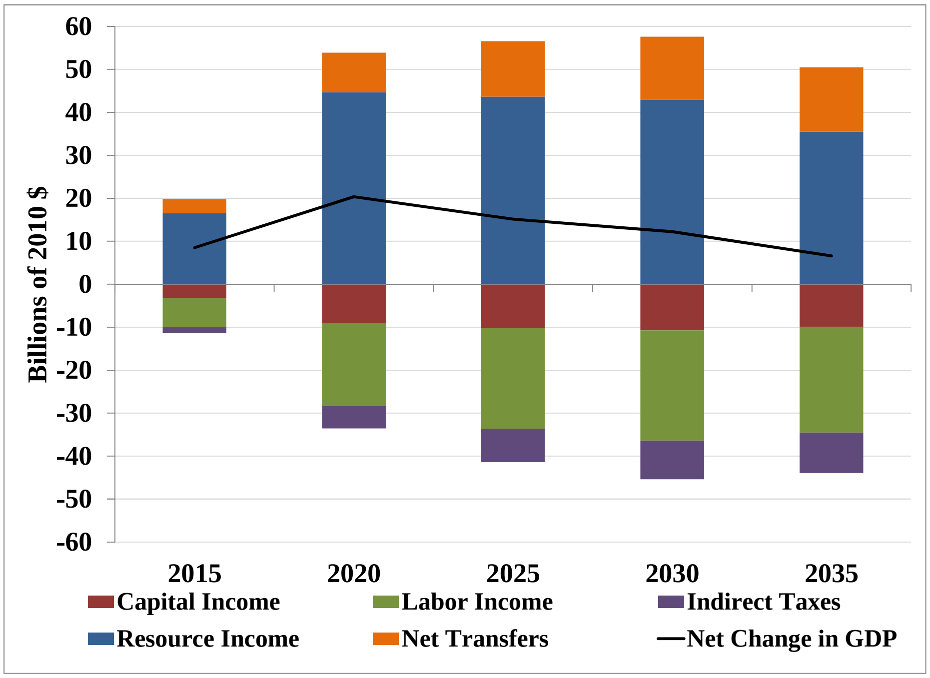
At the same time that LNG exports create higher income in total in the U.S., they shift the composition of income so that both wage income and income from capital investment are reduced. Our measure of total income is GDP measured from the income side, that is, by adding up income from labor, capital and natural resources and adjusting for taxes and transfers. Expansion of LNG exports has two major effects on income: it raises energy costs and, in the process, depresses both real wages and the return on capital in all other industries, but it also creates two additional sources of income. First, additional income comes in the form of higher export revenues and wealth transfers from incremental LNG exports at higher prices paid by overseas purchasers. Second, U.S. households also benefit from higher natural gas resource income or rents. These benefits distinctly differentiate market-driven expansion of LNG exports from actions that only raise domestic prices without creating additional sources of income. The benefits that come from export expansion more than outweigh the losses from reduced capital and wage income to U.S. consumers, and hence LNG exports have net economic benefits in spite

6 Welfare is calculated as a single number that represents in present value terms the amount that households are made better (worse) off over the entire time horizon from 2015 to 2035.

of higher natural gas prices. This is exactly the outcome that economic theory describes when barriers to trade are removed.

Figure 3 illustrates these shifts in income components for the USREF_SD_HR scenario, though the pattern is the same in all. First, Figure 3 shows that GDP increases in all years in this case, as it does in other cases (see Appendix C). Labor and investment income are reduced by about $10 billion in 2015 and $45 billion in 2030, offset by increases in resource income to natural gas producers and property owners and by net transfers that represent that improvement in the U.S. trade balance due to exporting a more valuable product (natural gas). Note that these are positive but, on the scale of the entire economy, very small net effects.

Figure 3: Change in Income Components and Total GDP in USREF_SD_HR (Billions of 2010$)



4. Some Groups and Industries Will Experience Negative Effects of LNG Exports

Different socioeconomic groups depend on different sources of income, though through retirement savings an increasingly large number of workers will share in the benefits of higher income to natural resource companies whose shares they own. Nevertheless, impacts will not be positive for all groups in the economy. Households with income solely from wages or transfers, in particular, will not participate in these benefits.

Higher natural gas prices in 2015 can also be expected to have negative effects on output and employment, particularly in sectors that make intensive use of natural gas, while other sectors not so affected could experience gains. There would clearly be greater activity and employment in natural gas production and transportation and in construction of liquefaction facilities. Figure

4 shows changes in total wage income for the natural gas sector and for other key sectors[7] of the economy in 2015. Overall, declines in output in other sectors are accompanied by similar reductions in worker compensation in those sectors, indicating that there will be some shifting of labor between different industries. However, even in the year of peak impacts the largest change in wage income by industry is no more than 1%, and even if all of this decline were attributable to lower employment relative to the baseline, no sector analyzed in this study would experience reductions in employment more rapid than normal turnover. In fact, most of the changes in real worker compensation are likely to take the form of lower than expected real wage growth, due to the increase in natural gas prices relative to nominal wage growth.

Figure 4: Change in Total Wage Income by Industry in 2015 (%)

	AGR	EIS	ELE	GAS	M_V	MAN	OIL	SRV
USREF_SD_LS	-0.12	-0.13	-0.06	0.88	-0.10	-0.08	0.01	0.00
USREF_SD_LR	-0.22	-0.28	-0.18	2.54	-0.24	-0.19	0.01	-0.04
USREF_D_LS	-0.08	-0.10	-0.06	0.87	-0.08	-0.07	0.00	-0.01
USREF_D_LR	-0.18	-0.23	-0.16	2.35	-0.21	-0.16	0.00	-0.05
USREF_SD_HS	-0.15	-0.18	-0.06	0.88	-0.11	-0.10	0.01	0.00
USREF_SD_HR	-0.27	-0.33	-0.18	2.54	-0.26	-0.22	0.01	-0.03
USREF_D_LSS	-0.06	-0.07	-0.03	0.43	-0.05	-0.04	0.00	0.00
HEUR_SD_LS	-0.10	-0.11	-0.05	0.71	-0.09	-0.07	0.01	0.00
HEUR_SD_LR	-0.19	-0.23	-0.16	2.04	-0.22	-0.16	0.00	-0.04
HEUR_SD_HS	-0.12	-0.14	-0.05	0.71	-0.09	-0.08	0.01	0.00
HEUR_SD_HR	-0.25	-0.30	-0.16	2.05	-0.25	-0.20	0.01	-0.02
HEUR_SD_LSS	-0.06	-0.07	-0.02	0.35	-0.04	-0.04	0.00	0.00
LEUR_SD_LSS	-0.02	-0.02	0.00	0.00	0.00	-0.01	0.00	0.01

5. Peak Natural Gas Export Levels, Specified by DOE/FE for the EIA Study, and Resulting Price Increases Are Not Likely

The export volumes selected by DOE/FE for the EIA Study define the maximum exports allowed in each scenario for the NERA macroeconomic analysis. Based on its analysis of global natural gas supply and demand under different assumptions, NERA projected achievable levels of exports for each scenario. The NERA scenarios that find a lower level of exports than the limits specified by DOE are shown in Figure 5. The cells in italics (red) indicate the years in which the

[7] Other key sectors of the economy include: AGR – Agriculture, EIS-Energy Intensive Sectors, ELE-Electricity, GAS-Natural gas, M_V-Motor Vehicle, MAN-Manufacturing, OIL-Refined Petroleum Products, and SRV-Services.

limit on exports is binding.[8] All scenarios hit the export limits in 2015 except the NERA export volume case with Low/Rapid exports.

Figure 5: NERA Export Volumes (Tcf)

NERA Export Volumes	2015	2020	2025	2030	2035
USREF_D_LS	***0.37***	0.98	1.43	1.19	***2.19***
USREF_D_LR	1.02	0.98	1.43	1.19	1.37
USREF_SD_HS	***0.37***	2.19	3.93	***4.38***	***4.38***
USREF_SD_HR	***1.1***	***2.92***	3.93	***4.38***	***4.38***
USREF_D_LSS	***0.18***	0.98	1.43	1.19	1.37

As seen in Figure 6, in no case does the U.S. wellhead price increase by more than $1.09/Mcf due to market-determined levels of exports. Even in cases in which no limits were placed on exports, competition between the U.S. and competing suppliers of LNG exports and buyer resistance limits increases in both U.S. LNG exports and U.S. natural gas prices.

To match the characterization of U.S. supply and demand for natural gas in EIA's NEMS model, NERA calibrated its macroeconomic model so that for the same level of LNG exports as assumed in the EIA Study, the NERA model reproduced the prices projected by EIA. Thus natural gas price responses were similar in scenarios where NERA export volumes were at the EIA export volumes. However, the current study determined that the high export limits were not economic in the U.S. Reference case and that in these scenarios there would be lower exports than assumed by EIA. Because the current study estimated lower export volumes than were specified by FE for the EIA study, U.S. natural gas prices do not reach the highest levels projected by EIA (see Figure 7).

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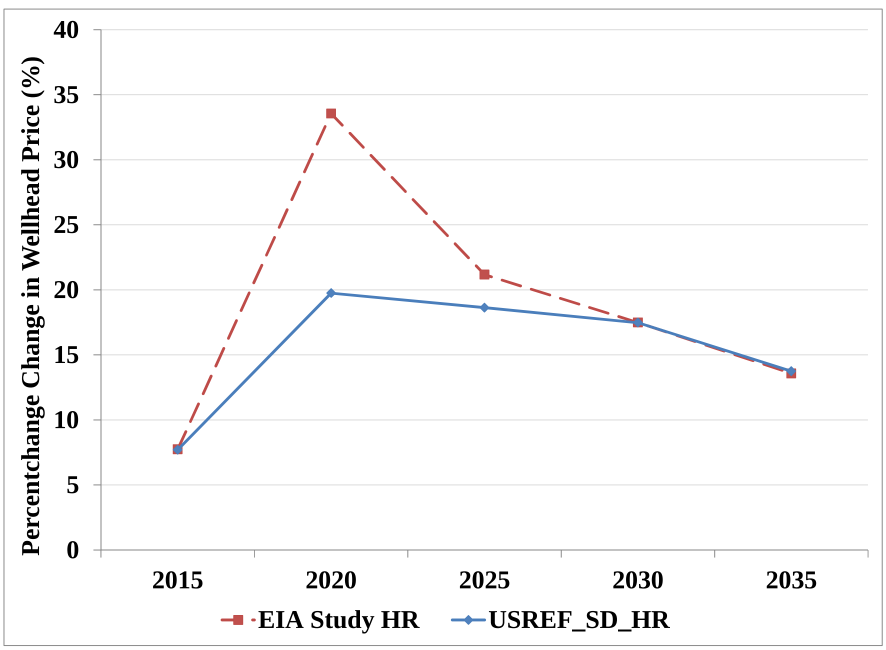
[8] The U.S. LNG export capacity binds when the market equilibrium level of exports as determined by the model exceeds the maximum LNG export capacity assumed in that scenario.

Figure 6: Prices and Export Levels in Representative Scenarios for Year 2035

U.S. Scenarios	International Scenarios	Quota Scenarios	U.S. Wellhead Price (2010$/Mcf)	U.S. Export (Tcf)	Price Relative to Reference case (2010$/Mcf)
USREF	INTREF	NX	$6.41		
USREF	INTREF	NC	$6.41	0	$0.00
USREF	D	HR	$6.66	1.37	$0.25
USREF	D	NC	$6.66	1.37	$0.25
USREF	SD	HR	$7.24	4.38	$0.83
USREF	SD	NC	$7.50	5.75	$1.09
HEUR	INTREF	NX	$4.88		
HEUR	INTREF	LR	$5.16	2.19	$0.28
HEUR	INTREF	NC	$5.31	3.38	$0.43
HEUR	D	NC	$5.60	5.61	$0.72
HEUR	SD	LSS	$5.16	2.19	$0.28
HEUR	SD	NC	$5.97	8.39	$1.09
LEUR	INTREF	NX	$8.70		
LEUR	INTREF	NC	$8.70	0	$0.00
LEUR	D	NC	$8.70	0	$0.00
LEUR	SD	NC	$8.86	0.52	$0.16

Figure 7: Comparison of EIA and NERA Maximum Wellhead Price Increases



The reason is simple and implies no disagreement between this report and EIA's - the analysis of world supply and demand indicates that at the highest wellhead prices estimated by EIA, world demand for U.S. exports would fall far short of the levels of exports assumed in the EIA Study.

In none of the scenarios analyzed in this study do U.S. wellhead prices become linked to oil prices in the sense of rising to oil price parity, even if the U.S. is exporting to regions where natural gas prices are linked to oil. The reason is that costs of liquefaction, transportation, and regasification keep U.S. prices well below those in importing regions.

6. Serious Competitive Impacts are Likely to be Confined to Narrow Segments of Industry

About 10% of U.S. manufacturing, measured by value of shipments, has energy expenditures greater than 5% of the value of its output and serious exposure to foreign competition. Employment in industries with these characteristics is one-half of one percent of total U.S. employment. These energy-intensive, trade-exposed industries for the most part process raw natural resources into bulk commodities. Value added in these industries as a percentage of value of shipments is about one-half of what it is in the remainder of manufacturing. In no scenario are energy-intensive industries as a whole projected to have a loss in employment or output greater than 1% in any year, which is less than normal rates of turnover of employees in the relevant industries.

7. Even with Unlimited Exports, There Would Be Net Economic Benefits to the U.S.

NERA also estimated economic impacts associated with unlimited exports in cases in which even the High, Rapid limits were binding. In these cases, both LNG exports and prices were determined by global supply and demand. Even in these cases, U.S. natural gas prices did not rise to oil parity or to levels observed in consuming regions, and net economic benefits to the U.S. increased over the corresponding cases with limited exports.

To examine U.S. economic impacts under cases with even higher natural gas prices and levels of exports than in the unlimited export cases, NERA also estimated economic impacts associated with the highest levels of exports and U.S. natural gas prices in the EIA analysis, regardless of whether or not those quantities could actually be sold at the assumed netback prices. The price received for exports in these cases was calculated in the same way as in the cases based on NERA's GNGM, by adding the tolling fee plus a 15% markup over Henry Hub to the Henry Hub price. Even with the highest prices estimated by EIA for these hypothetical cases, NERA found that there would be net economic benefits to the U.S., and the benefits became larger, the higher the level of exports. This is because the export revenues from sales to other countries at those high prices more than offset the costs of freeing that gas up for export.

II. INTRODUCTION

This section describes the issues that DOE/FE asked to be addressed in this study and then describes the scope of both the EIA Study and the NERA analysis that make up the two-part study commissioned by the DOE/FE.

A. Statement of the Problem

1. At What Price Can Various Quantities of LNG Exports be Sold?

An analysis of U.S. LNG export potential requires consideration of not only the impact of additional demand on U.S. production costs, but also consideration of the price levels that would make U.S. LNG economical in the world market. For the U.S. natural gas market, LNG exports would represent an additional component of natural gas demand that must be met from U.S. supplies. For the global market, U.S. LNG exports represent another component of supply that must compete with supply from other regions of the world. As the demand for U.S. natural gas increases, so will the cost of producing incremental volumes. But U.S. LNG exports will compete with LNG produced from other regions of the world. At some U.S. price level, it will become more economic for a region other than the U.S. to provide the next unit of natural gas to meet global demand. A worldwide natural gas supply and demand model assists in determining under what conditions and limits this pricing point is reached.

2. What are the Economic Impacts on the U.S. of LNG Exports?

U.S. LNG exports have positive impacts on some segments of the U.S. economy and negative impacts on others. On the positive side, U.S. LNG exports provide an opportunity for natural gas producers to realize additional profits by selling incremental volumes of natural gas. Exports of natural gas will improve the U.S. balance of trade and result in a wealth transfer into the U.S. Construction of the liquefaction facilities to produce LNG will require capital investment. If this capital originates from sources outside the U.S., it will represent another form of wealth transfer into the U.S. Households will benefit from the additional wealth transferred into the U.S. If they, or their pensions, hold stock in natural gas producers, they will benefit from the increase in the value of their investment.

On the negative side, producing incremental natural gas volumes will increase the marginal cost of supply and therefore raise domestic natural gas prices and increase the value of natural gas in general. Households will be negatively affected by having to pay higher prices for the natural gas they use for heating and cooking. Domestic industries for which natural gas is a significant component of their cost structure will experience increases in their cost of production, which will adversely impact their competitive position in a global market and harm U.S. consumers who purchase their goods.

Natural gas is also an important fuel for electricity generation, providing about 20% of the fuel inputs to electricity generation. Moreover, in many regions and times of the year natural gas-fired generation sets the price of electricity so that increases in natural gas prices can impact electricity prices. These price increases will also propagate through the economy and affect both household energy bills and costs for businesses.

B. Scope of NERA and EIA Study

NERA Economic Consulting was asked by the U.S. DOE/FE to evaluate the macroeconomic impact of LNG exports using a general equilibrium model of the U.S. economy with an emphasis on the energy sector and natural gas in particular. NERA incorporated the U.S. EIA's case study output from the National Energy Modeling System ("NEMS") into the natural gas production module in its N_{ew}ERA model by calibrating natural gas supply and cost curves in the N_{ew}ERA macroeconomic model. NERA's task was to use this model to evaluate the impact that LNG exports could have on multiple economic factors, primarily U.S. gross domestic product ("GDP"), employment, and real income. The complete statement of work is attached as Appendix F.

1. EIA Study

The DOE/FE requested that the U.S. EIA perform an analysis of "the impact of increased domestic natural gas demand, as exports."[9] Specifically, DOE/FE asked the EIA to assess how specified scenarios of increased natural gas exports could affect domestic energy markets, focusing on consumption, production, and prices.

DOE/FE requested that EIA analyze four scenarios of LNG export-related increases in natural gas demand:

1. 6 billion cubic feet per day (Bcf/d), phased in at a rate of 1 Bcf/d per year (Low/Slow scenario);

2. 6 Bcf/d phased in at a rate of 3 Bcf/d per year (Low/Rapid scenario);

3. 12 Bcf/d phased in at a rate of 1 Bcf/d per year (High/Slow scenario); and

4. 12 Bcf/d phased in at a rate of 3 Bcf/d per year (High/Rapid scenario).

Total U.S. marketed natural gas production in 2011 was about 66 Bcf/d. Additional LNG exports at 6 Bcf/d represents roughly 9 percent of current production and 12 Bcf/d represents roughly18 percent of current production.

DOE/FE requested that EIA analyze for each of the four LNG export scenarios four cases from the EIA AEO 2011. These scenarios reflect different perspectives on the domestic natural gas supply situation and the growth rate of the U.S. economy. These are:

1. The AEO 2011 Reference case;

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[9] U.S. EIA, "Effects of Increased Natural Gas Exports on Domestic Energy Markets," p. 20.

2. The High Shale EUR case (reflecting more optimistic assumptions about domestic natural gas supply prospects, with the EUR per shale gas well for new, undrilled wells assumed to be 50 percent higher than in the Reference case);

3. The Low Shale EUR case (reflecting less optimistic assumptions about domestic natural gas supply prospects, with the EUR per shale gas well for new, undrilled wells assumed to be 50 percent lower than in the Reference case); and

4. The High Economic Growth case (assuming the U.S. gross domestic product will grow at an average annual rate of 3.2 percent from 2009 to 2035, compared to 2.7 percent in the Reference case, which increases domestic energy demand).

In January 2012, EIA released the results of its analysis in a report entitled "Effect of Increased Natural Gas Exports on Domestic Energy Markets," hereafter referred to as the "EIA Study".

2. NERA Study

NERA relied on the EIA Study to characterize how U.S. natural gas supply, demand, and prices would respond if the specified levels of LNG exports were achieved. However, the EIA study was not intended to address the question of how large the demand for U.S. LNG exports would be under different wellhead prices in the United States. That became the first question that NERA had to answer: at what price could U.S. LNG exports be sold in the world market, and how much would this price change as the amount of exports offered into the world market increased?

NERA's analysis of global LNG markets leads to the conclusion that in many cases the world market would not accept the full amount assumed in the EIA scenarios at prices high enough to cover the U.S. wellhead price projected by EIA. In these cases, NERA replaced the export levels and price impacts found in the EIA scenarios with lower levels of exports (and *a fortiori* prices) estimated by the GNGM. These lower export levels were applied to the N_{ew}ERA model to generate macroeconomic impacts. In order to remain tied to the EIA analysis, the N_{ew}ERA model was calibrated to give the same natural gas price responses as EIA for the same assumptions about the level of LNG exports. This was done by incorporating in N_{ew}ERA the same assumptions about how U.S. natural gas supply and demand would be affected by changes in the U.S. natural gas wellhead price as implied by the NEMS model used in the EIA study.

C. Organization of the Report

This report begins by discussing what NERA was asked to do and the methodology followed by NERA. This discussion of methodology includes the key assumptions made by NERA in its analysis and a description of the models utilized. Then construction of scenarios for U.S. LNG exports is described, followed by presentation of the results and a discussion of their economic implications.

III. DESCRIPTION OF WORLDWIDE NATURAL GAS MARKETS AND NERA'S ANALYTICAL MODELS

A. Natural Gas Market Description

1. Worldwide

The global natural gas market consists of a collection of distinctive regional markets. Each regional market is characterized by its location, availability of indigenous resource, pipeline infrastructure, accessibility to natural gas from other regions of the world, and its rate of growth in natural gas demand. Some regions are connected to other regions by pipelines, others by LNG facilities, and some operate relatively autonomously.

In general, a region will meet its natural gas demand first with indigenous production, second with gas deliveries by pipelines connected to other regions, and third with LNG shipments. In 2010, natural gas consumption worldwide reached 113 Tcf. As shown in Figure 8, most natural gas demand in a region is met by natural gas production in the same region. In 2010, approximately 9.7 Tcf or almost 9% of demand was met by LNG.

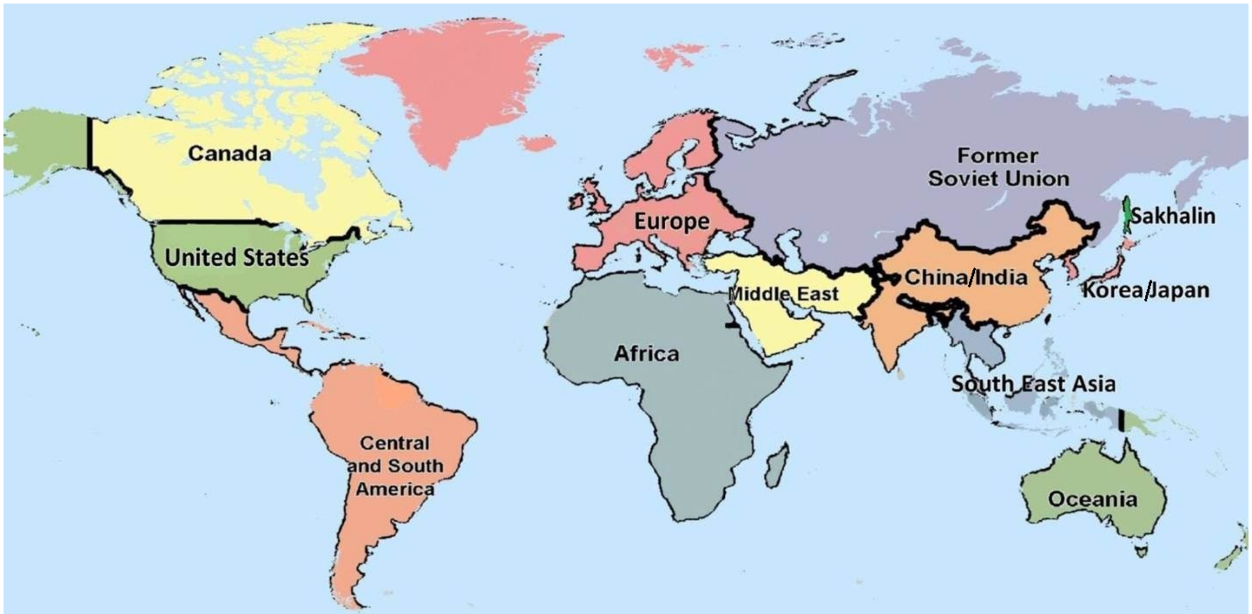
Figure 8: Global Natural Gas Demand and Production (Tcf)

	Production	Consumption
Africa	7.80	3.90
Canada	6.10	3.30
China/India	4.60	5.70
C&S America	6.80	6.60
Europe	9.50	19.20
FSU	28.87	24.30
Korea/Japan	0.20	5.00
Middle East	16.30	12.50
Oceania	2.10	1.20
Sakhalin	0.43	0.00
Southeast Asia	9.30	7.40
U.S.	21.10	23.80
Total World	113.10	112.90

Some regions are rich in natural gas resources and others are experiencing rapid growth in demand. The combination of these two characteristics determines whether the region operates as a net importer or exporter of natural gas. The characteristics of a regional market also have an impact on natural gas pricing mechanisms. The following describes the characteristics of the regional natural gas markets considered in this report.

We present our discussion in terms of regions because we have grouped countries into major exporting, importing, and demand regions for our modeling purposes. For our analysis, we grouped the world into 12 regions: U.S., Canada, Korea/Japan, China/India, Europe, Oceania, Southeast Asia, Africa, Central and South America, former Soviet Union, Middle East and Sakhalin. These regions are shown in Figure 9.

Figure 9: Regional Groupings for the Global Natural Gas Model



Japan and Korea are countries that have little indigenous natural gas resource and no prospects for gas pipelines connecting to other regions. Both countries depend almost entirely upon LNG imports to meet their natural gas demand. As a result, both countries are very dependent upon reliable sources of LNG. This is reflective in their contracting practices and willingness to have LNG prices tied to petroleum prices (petroleum is a potential substitute for natural gas). This dependence would become even more acute if Japan were to implement a policy to move away from nuclear power generation and toward greater reliance on natural gas-fired generation.

In contrast, China and India are countries that do have some indigenous natural gas resources, but these resources alone are insufficient to meet their natural gas demand. Both countries are situated such that additional natural gas pipelines from other regions of the world could possibly be built to meet a part of their natural gas needs, but such projects face geopolitical challenges. Natural gas demand in these countries is growing rapidly as a result of expanding economies, improving wealth and a desire to use cleaner burning fuels. LNG will be an important component of their natural gas supply portfolio. These countries demand more than they can produce and the pricing mechanism for their LNG purchases reflects this.

Europe also has insufficient indigenous natural gas production to meet its natural gas demand. It does, however, have extensive pipeline connections to both Africa and the Former Soviet Union ("FSU"). Despite having a gap between production and consumption, Europe's growth in natural gas demand is modest. As a result, LNG is one of several options for meeting natural gas demand. The competition among indigenous natural gas supplies, pipeline imports, and LNG imports has resulted in a market in which there is growing pressure to move away from petroleum index pricing toward natural gas index pricing.

FSU is one of the world's leading natural gas producers. It can easily accommodate its own internal natural gas demand in part because of its slow demand growth. It has ample natural gas supplies that it exports by pipeline (in most instances pipelines, if practical, are a more economical method to transport natural gas than LNG) to Europe and could potentially export by pipeline to China. FSU has subsidized pricing within its own region but has used its market power to insist upon petroleum index pricing for its exports.

The Middle East (primarily Qatar and Iran) has access to vast natural gas resources, which are inexpensive to produce. These resources are more than ample to supply a relatively small but growing demand for natural gas in the Middle East. Since the Middle East is located relatively far from other major natural gas demand regions (Asia and Europe), gas pipeline projects have not materialized, although they have been discussed. LNG represents one attractive means for Qatar to monetize its natural gas resource, and it has become the world's largest LNG producer. However, Qatar has decided to restrain its sales of LNG.

Southeast Asia and Australia are also regions with abundant low cost natural gas resources. They can in the near term (Southeast Asia with its rapid economic growth will require increasing natural gas volumes in the future) accommodate their domestic demand with additional volumes to export. Given the vast distances and the isolation by water, pipeline projects that move natural gas to primary Asian markets are not practical. As a result, LNG is a very attractive mean to monetize their resource.

The combined market of Central and South America is relatively small for natural gas. The region has managed to meet its demand with its own indigenous supplies. It has exported some LNG to European markets. Central and South America has untapped natural gas resources that could result in growing LNG exports.

The North American region has a large natural gas demand but has historically been able to satisfy its demand with indigenous resources. It has a small LNG import/export industry driven by specific niche markets. Thus, it has mostly functioned as a semi-autonomous market, separate from the rest of the world.

2. LNG Trade Patterns

LNG Trading patterns are determined by a number of criteria: short-term demand, availability of supplies, and proximity of supply projects to markets. A significant portion of LNG is traded on a long-term basis using dedicated supplies, transported with dedicated vessels to identified markets. Other LNG cargoes are traded on an open market moving to the highest valued customer. Southeast Asian and Australian suppliers often supply Asian markets, whereas African suppliers most often serve Europe. Because of their relative location, Middle East suppliers can and do ship to both Europe and Asia. Figure 10 lists 2010 LNG shipping totals with the leftmost column representing the exporters and the top row representing the importing regions.

Figure 10: 2010 LNG Trade (Tcf)

From\To	Africa	Canada	China/ India	C&S America	Europe	FSU	Korea/ Japan	Middle East	Oceania	Sakhalin	Southeast Asia	U.S.	**Total Exports**
Africa		0.03	0.05	0.31	1.33		0.24	0.21			0.07	0.31	**2.54**
Canada													**0.00**
China/India													**0.00**
C&S America		0.00		0.01	0.02		0.00					0.01	**0.05**
Europe				0.01	0.11		0.05	0.01			0.00		**0.18**
FSU													**0.00**
Korea/Japan													**0.00**
Middle East		0.01	0.44	0.08	1.15		1.28	0.10			0.15	0.08	**3.29**
Oceania			0.17				0.62				0.04		**0.83**
Sakhalin			0.02				0.39	0.00			0.02		**0.43**
Southeast Asia			0.14	0.06			1.92	0.01			0.21		**2.34**
U.S.							0.03						**0.03**
Total Imports	**0.00**	**0.04**	**0.81**	**0.47**	**2.61**	**0.00**	**4.53**	**0.34**	**0.00**	**0.00**	**0.49**	**0.40**	9.70

Source: "The LNG Industry 2010," GIIGNL.

3. Basis Differentials

The basis[10] between two different regional gas market hubs reflects the difference in the pricing mechanism for each regional market. If pricing for both market hubs were set by the same mechanism and there were no constraints in the transportation system, the basis would simply be the cost of transportation between the two market hubs. Different pricing mechanisms, however, set the price in each regional market, so the basis is often not set by transportation differences alone. For example, the basis between natural gas prices in Japan and Europe's natural gas prices reflects the differences in natural gas supply sources for both markets. Japan depends completely upon LNG as it source for natural gas and indexes the LNG price to crude. For Europe, LNG is only one of several potential sources of supply for natural gas, others being interregional pipelines and indigenous natural gas production. The pricing at the National Balancing Point ("NBP") reflects the competition for market share between these three sources. Because of its limited LNG terminals for export or import, North America pricing at Henry Hub has been for the most part set by competition between different North American supply sources of natural gas and has been independent of pricing in Japan and Europe. If the marginal supply source for natural gas in Europe and North America were to become LNG, then the pricing in the two regions would be set by LNG transportation differences.

B. NERA's Global Natural Gas Model

The GNGM is a partial-equilibrium model designed to estimate the amount of natural gas production, consumption, and trade by major world natural gas consuming and/or producing regions. The model maximizes the sum of consumers' and producers' surplus less transportation costs, subject to mass balancing constraints and regasification, liquefaction, and pipeline capacity constraints.

The model divides the world into the 12 regions described above. These regions are largely adapted from the EIA IEO regional definitions, with some modifications to address the LNG-intensive regions. The model's international natural gas consumption and production projections for these regions are based upon the EIA's AEO and IEO 2011 Reference cases.

The supply of natural gas in each region is represented by a constant elasticity of substitution ("CES") supply curve. The demand curve for natural gas has a similar functional form as the supply curve. As with the supply curves, the demand curve in each region is represented by a CES function (Appendix A).

C. N_{ew}ERA Macroeconomic Model

NERA developed the N_{ew}ERA model to forecast the impact of policy, regulatory, and economic factors on the energy sectors and the economy. When evaluating policies that have significant

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10 The basis is the difference in price between two different natural gas market hubs.

impacts on the entire economy, one needs to use a model that captures the effects as they ripple through all sectors of the economy and the associated feedback effects. The version of the N_{ew}ERA model used for this analysis includes a macroeconomic model with all sectors of the economy.

The macroeconomic model incorporates all production sectors, including liquefaction plants for LNG exports, and final demand of the economy. The consequences are transmitted throughout the economy as sectors respond until the economy reaches equilibrium. The production and consumption functions employed in the model enable gradual substitution of inputs in response to relative price changes, thus avoiding all-or-nothing solutions.

There are great uncertainties about how the U.S. natural gas market will evolve, and the N_{ew}ERA model is designed explicitly to address the key factors affecting future natural gas demand, supply, and prices. One of the major uncertainties is the availability of shale gas in the United States. To account for this uncertainty and the subsequent effect it could have on the domestic markets, the N_{ew}ERA model includes resource supply curves for U.S. natural gas. The model also accounts for foreign imports, in particular pipeline imports from Canada, and the potential build-up of liquefaction plants for LNG exports. N_{ew}ERA also has a supply (demand) curve for U.S. imports (exports) that represents how the global LNG market price would react to changes in U.S. imports or exports. On a practical level, there are also other important uncertainties about the ownership of LNG plants and how the LNG contracts will be formulated. These have important consequences on how much revenue can be earned by the U.S. and hence overall macroeconomic impacts. In the N_{ew}ERA model it is possible to represent these variations in domestic versus foreign ownership of assets and capture of export revenues to better understand the issues.

U.S. wellhead natural gas prices are not precisely the same in the GNGM and the U.S. N_{ew}ERA model. Supply curves in both models were calibrated to the EIA implicit supply curves, but the GNGM has a more simplified representation of U.S. natural gas supply and demand than the more detailed N_{ew}ERA model so that the two models solve for slightly different prices with the same levels of LNG exports. The differences are not material to any of the results in the study.

The N_{ew}ERA model includes other energy markets. In particular, it represents the domestic and international crude oil and refined petroleum markets.

We balance the international trade account in the N_{ew}ERA model by constraining changes in the current account deficit over the model horizon. The condition is that the net present value of the foreign indebtedness over the model horizon remains at the benchmark year level. This prevents distortions in economic effects that would result from perpetual increase in borrowing, but does not overly constrain the model by requiring current account balance in each year.

This treatment of the current account deficit does not mean that there cannot be trade benefits from LNG exports. Although trade will be in balance over time, the terms of trade shift in favor of the U.S. because of LNG exports. That is, by exporting goods of greater value to overseas customers, the U.S. is able to import larger quantities of goods than it would able to if the same domestic resources were devoted to producing exports of lesser value. Allowing high value exports to proceed has a similar effect on terms of trade as would an increase in the world price of existing exports or an increase in productivity in export industries. In all these cases, the U.S. gains more imported goods in exchange for the same amount of effort being devoted to production of goods for export. The opposite is also possible, in that a drop in the world price of U.S. exports or a subsidy that promoted exports of lesser value would move terms of trade against the U.S., in that with the same effort put into producing exports the U.S. would receive less imports in exchange and terms of trade would move against the U.S. The fact that LNG will be exported only if there is sufficient market demand ensures that terms of trade will improve if LNG exports take place.

The N_{ew}ERA model outputs include demand and supply of all goods and services, prices of all commodities, and terms of trade effects (including changes in imports and exports). The model outputs also include gross regional product, consumption, investment, disposable income and changes in income from labor, capital, and resources.

IV. DESCRIPTION OF SCENARIOS

EIA's analysis combined assumptions about levels of natural gas exports with assumptions about uncertain factors that will drive U.S. natural gas supply and demand to create 16 scenarios. EIA's analysis did not and was not intended to address the question of whether these quantities could be sold into world markets under the conditions assumed in each scenario. Since global demand for LNG exports from the United States also depends on a number of uncertain factors, NERA designed scenarios for global supply and demand to capture those uncertainties. The global scenarios were based on different sets of assumptions about natural gas supply and demand outside the United States. The combination of assumptions about maximum permitted levels of exports, U.S. supply and demand conditions, and global supply and demand conditions yielded 63 distinct scenarios to be considered.

The full range of scenarios that we considered included the different combinations of international supply and demand, availability of domestic natural gas, and LNG export capabilities. The remainder of this section discusses this range of scenarios.

A. How Worldwide Scenarios and U.S. Scenarios Were Designed

1. World Outlooks

The International scenarios were designed to examine the role of U.S. LNG in the world market (Figure 11). Before determining the macroeconomic impacts in the U.S., one must know the circumstances under which U.S. LNG would be absorbed into the world market, the level of exports that would be economic on the world market and the value (netback) of exported LNG in the U.S. In order to accomplish this, several International scenarios were developed that allowed for growing worldwide demand for natural gas and an increasing market for LNG. These were of more interest to this study because the alternative of lower worldwide demand would mean little or no U.S. LNG exports, which would have little or no impact on the U.S. economy.

Figure 11: International Scenarios

Case Name	Japan Nuclear Plants Retired	Korean Nuclear Plants Retired	Planned Liquefaction Capacity in Other Regions Is Built
International Reference	No	No	Yes
Demand Shock	Yes	No	Yes
Supply/Demand Shock	Yes	Yes	No

a. International Reference Case: A Plausible Baseline Forecast of Future Global Demand and Supply

The International Reference case is intended to provide a plausible baseline forecast for global natural gas demand, supply, and prices from today through the year 2035. The supply and demand volumes are based upon EIA IEO 2011 with countries aggregated to the regions in the NERA Global Natural Gas Model. The regional natural gas pricing is intended to model the pricing mechanisms in force in the regions today and their expected evolution in the future. Data to develop these pricing forecasts were derived from both the EIA and the International Energy Agency's World Energy Outlook 2011 ("IEA WEO").

Our specific assumptions for the global cases are described in Appendix A.

b. Uncertainties about Global Natural Gas Demand and Supply

To reflect some of the uncertainty in demand for U.S. LNG exports, we analyzed additional scenarios that potentially increased U.S. LNG exports. Increasing rather than decreasing exports is of more interest in this study because it is the greater level of LNG exports that would result in larger impact on the U.S. economy. The two additional International scenarios increase either world demand alone or increase world demand while simultaneously constraining the development of some new LNG supply sources outside the U.S. Both scenarios would result in a greater opportunity for U.S. LNG to be sold in the world market.

- The first additional scenario ("Demand Shock") creates an example of increased demand by assuming that Japan converts all its nuclear power generation to natural gas-fired generation. This scenario creates additional demand for LNG in the already tight Asian market. Because Japan lacks domestic natural gas resources, the incremental demand could only be served by additional LNG volumes.

- The second scenario ("Supply/Demand Shock") is intended to test a boundary limit on the international market for U.S. LNG exports. This scenario assumes that both Japan and Korea convert their nuclear demand to natural gas and on the supply side it is assumed that no new liquefaction projects that are currently in the planning stages will be built in Oceania, Southeast Asia, or Africa. The precise quantitative shifts assumed in world supply and demand are described in Appendix A.

Neither of these scenarios is intended to be a prediction of the future. Their apparent precision (Asian market) is only there because differential transportation costs make it necessary to be specific about where non-U.S. demand and supply are located in order to assess the potential demand for U.S. natural gas. Many other, and possibly more likely, scenarios could be constructed, and some would lead to higher and others to lower exports. The scenarios that we modeled are intended as only one possible illustration of conditions that could create higher demand for U.S. LNG exports.

2. U.S. Scenarios Address Three Factors

a. Decisions about the Upper Limit on Exports

One of the primary purposes of this study is to evaluate the impacts of different levels of natural gas exports. The levels of exports that are used in constructing the U.S. scenarios are the four levels specified by the DOE/FE as part of EIA's Study. In addition, the DOE requested that we add one additional level of exports, "Slowest," to address additional uncertainties about how rapidly liquefaction capacity could be built that were not captured by the EIA analysis. Lastly, we evaluated a No-Export constraint scenario, whereby we could determine the maximum quantity of exports that would be demanded based purely on the economics of the natural gas market and a No-Export capacity scenario to provide a point of comparison for impacts of LNG exports.

b. Uncertainties about U.S. Natural Gas Demand and Supply

The advances in drilling technology that created the current shale gas boom are still sufficiently recent that there remains significant uncertainty as to the long-term natural gas supply outlook for the U.S. In addition to the uncertain geological resource, there are also other uncertainties such as how much it will cost to extract the natural gas, and many regulatory uncertainties including concerns about seismic activity, and impacts on water supplies that may lead to limits on shale gas development.

On the demand side there has been a considerable shift to natural gas in the electric sector in recent years as a result of the low natural gas prices. Looking into the future, there are expected to be many retirements of existing coal-fired generators as a result of the low natural gas prices and new EPA regulations encouraging natural gas use. As a result, most new baseload capacity being added today is fueled with natural gas. Industrial demand for natural gas is also tied to price levels. The current low prices have increased projected outputs from some natural gas-intensive industries like chemicals manufacturing. The shift toward natural gas could be accelerated by pending and possible future air, water, and waste regulations and climate change policies. Thus, the potential exists for significant increases in natural gas demand across the U.S. economy.

Combining uncertainties about the U.S. outlooks for natural gas supply and demand results in a wide range of projections for the prices, at which natural gas may be available for export.

To reflect this uncertainty, the EIA, in its AEO 2011, included several sensitivity cases in addition to its Reference Case. For natural gas supply, the two most significant are the Low Shale EUR and High Shale EUR sensitivity cases. We also adopt these cases, in addition to the Reference Case supply conditions, in evaluating the potential for exports of natural gas.

B. Matrix of U.S. Scenarios

The full range of potential U.S. scenarios was constructed based on two factors: 1) U.S. supply and 2) LNG export quotas. There are three different U.S. supply outlooks:[11]

1. Reference ("USREF"): the AEO 2011 Reference case;

2. High Shale Estimated Ultimate Recovery ("HEUR") case: reflecting more optimistic assumptions about domestic natural gas supply prospects, with the EUR per shale gas well for new, undrilled wells assumed to be 50 percent higher than in the Reference case; and

3. Low Shale EUR case ("LEUR"): reflecting less optimistic assumptions about domestic natural gas supply prospects, with the EUR per shale gas well for new, undrilled wells assumed to be 50 percent lower than in the Reference case.[12]

As for the LNG export quotas, we considered six different LNG export quota trajectories, all starting in 2015:

1. Low/Slow ("LS"): 6 Bcf/d, phased in at a rate of 1 Bcf/d per year;

2. Low/Rapid ("LR"): 6 Bcf/d phased in at a rate of 3 Bcf/d per year;

3. High/Slow ("HS"): 12 Bcf/d phased in at a rate of 1 Bcf/d per year;

4. High/Rapid ("HR"): 12 Bcf/d phased in at a rate of 3 Bcf/d per year;

5. Low/Slowest ("LSS"): 6 Bcf/d phased in at a rate of 0.5 Bcf/d per year; and

6. No-Export Constraint: No limits on U.S. LNG export capacity were set and therefore our Global Natural Gas Model determined exports entirely based on the relative economics.

The combination of these two factors results in the matrix of 18 (3 supply forecasts for each of 6 export quota trajectories) potential U.S. scenarios in Figure 12.

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[11] We eliminate a fourth case, High Demand, run by EIA because the range of demand uncertainty is expected to be within the range spanned by the three cases.

[12] While the statement of work also described a supply outlook using EIA's High Economic Growth case, we found that the results would have been identical to those in the Reference case, and thus, we did not separately analyze that case.

Figure 12: Matrix of U.S. Scenarios

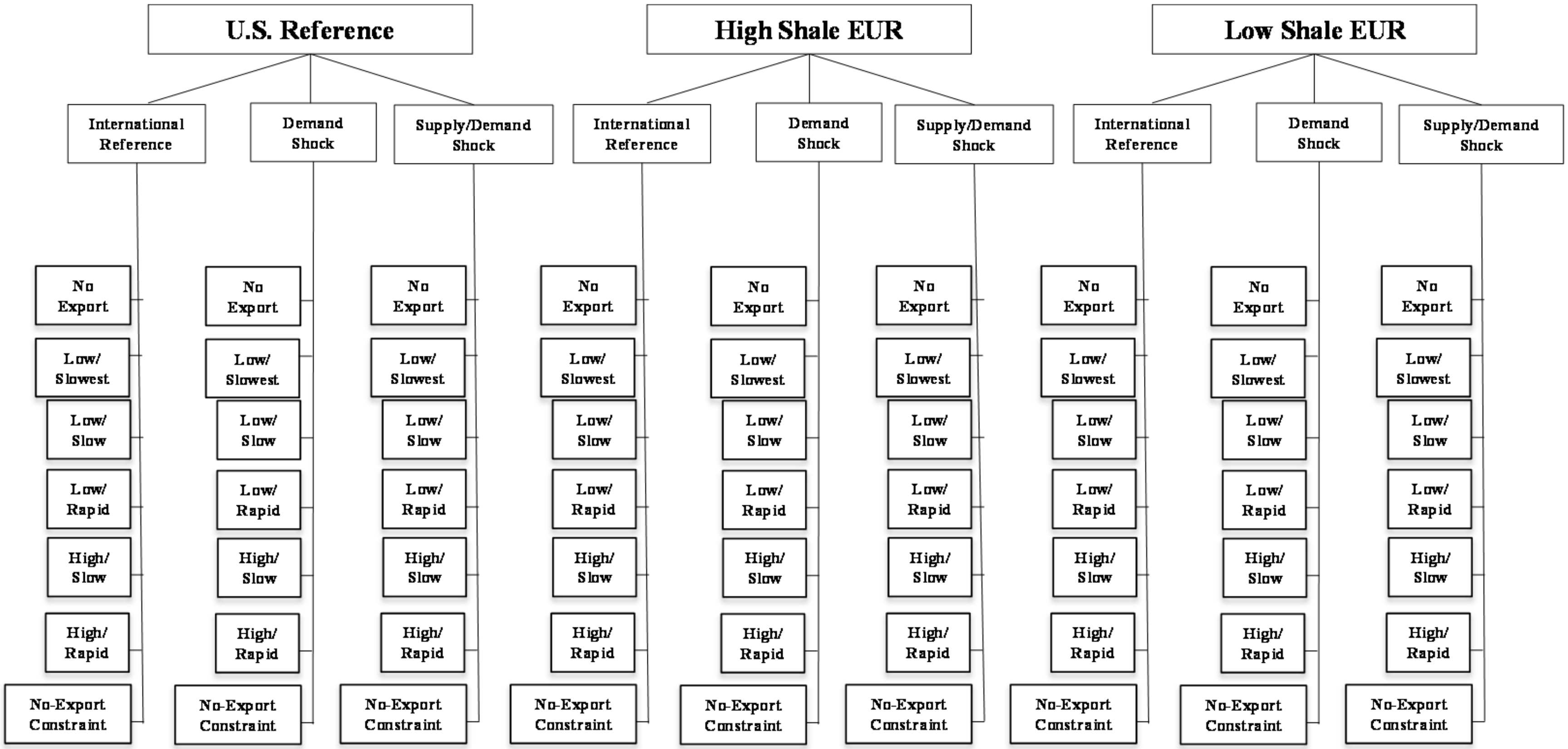
U.S. Supply	LNG Export Capacity	U.S. Supply	LNG Export Capacity	U.S. Supply	LNG Export Capacity
Reference	Low/Slow	High EUR	Low/Slow	Low EUR	Low/Slow
Reference	Low/Rapid	High EUR	Low/Rapid	Low EUR	Low/Rapid
Reference	High/Slow	High EUR	High/Slow	Low EUR	High/Slow
Reference	High/Rapid	High EUR	High/Rapid	Low EUR	High/Rapid
Reference	Low/Slowest	High EUR	Low/Slowest	Low EUR	Low/Slowest
Reference	Unlimited	High EUR	Unlimited	Low EUR	Unlimited

In addition, we created a "No-Export Capacity" scenario for each of the three U.S. supply cases.

C. Matrix of Worldwide Natural Gas Scenarios

NERA used its Global Natural Gas Model to analyze international impacts resulting from potential U.S. LNG exports. As shown in Figure 13, a matrix of scenarios combining the three worldwide scenarios with three U.S. supply scenarios and the seven rates of U.S. LNG capacity expansion resulted in a total of 63 different scenarios that were analyzed.

Figure 13: Tree of All 63 Scenarios



V. GLOBAL NATURAL GAS MODEL RESULTS

A. NERA Worldwide Supply and Demand Baseline

NERA's Baseline is based upon EIA's projected production and demand volumes from its 2011 IEO and AEO Reference cases with some modifications.

To develop a worldwide supply and consumption baseline, we first adjusted the IEO's estimates for production and consumption in the ten non-North American regions. Then we adjusted the IEO projections for two North American regions. For the ten non-North American regions, we computed the average of the IEO's estimate for worldwide production and demand excluding North American production, consumption and LNG imports. Then, we scaled the production in each of these ten regions individually by the ratio of this average and the original production in these ten regions. We used a similar methodology for determining demand in these ten regions.

Next, we calibrated both the U.S. imports from Canada and U.S. LNG imports. U.S. pipeline imports from Canada varied for each of the three U.S. supply cases: AEO reference, High Shale EUR, and Low Shale EUR. U.S. LNG imports were next calculated as the difference between total U.S. imports less pipeline imports. This calculation was repeated for each U.S. supply case. The calculated LNG imports are consistent with the official AEO numbers.

For LNG exporting regions, we checked that they had sufficient liquefaction capacity so that their calibrated production was less than or equal to their demand plus their liquefaction and inter-regional pipeline capacity. If not, we adjusted the region's liquefaction capacity so that this condition held with equality. For the Middle East, we imposed a limit on the level of 4.64 Tcf on its LNG exports. Since its liquefaction capacity exceeds its export limit, the Middle East supply must be less than or equal to its demand plus its LNG export limit. If this condition failed to hold, we adjusted Middle East supply until Middle East supply equaled its demand plus its LNG export limit.

In calibrating the FSU, NERA assumes that the recalibrated (as per the above adjustment made to the IEO data) production is correct and any oversupply created by the calibration of supply and demand is exported by pipeline.

For LNG importing regions, we checked to determine if, after performing the recalibration described above, the demand in each importing region was less than the sum of their domestic natural gas production, regasification capacity, and inter-regional pipeline capacity. In each region where this condition failed, we expanded its regasification capacity until this condition held with equality. Figure 14 reports the resulting natural gas productions to which we calibrated each region in our GNGM. Figure 15 reports the resulting natural gas demand to which we calibrated each region in our GNGM.

Figure 14: Baseline Natural Gas Production (Tcf)

	2010	2015	2020	2025	2030	2035
Africa	7.80	9.70	11.10	12.20	13.30	14.10
Canada	6.10	7.00	7.70	8.30	8.70	9.00
China/India	4.60	5.60	6.70	8.00	9.60	9.70
C&S America	6.80	7.90	8.30	9.20	10.50	11.70
Europe	9.50	8.10	7.40	7.50	7.90	8.30
FSU	28.87	30.05	32.12	34.89	37.77	39.94
Korea/Japan	0.20	0.20	0.20	0.20	0.20	0.20
Middle East	16.30	19.70	22.40	24.60	26.70	28.80
Oceania	2.10	2.60	3.10	3.80	4.80	5.70
Sakhalin	0.43	0.45	0.48	0.51	0.53	0.56
Southeast Asia	9.30	10.00	10.70	11.60	12.60	13.40
U.S.	21.10	22.40	23.40	24.00	25.10	26.40
World	113.10	123.70	133.60	144.80	157.70	167.80

Figure 15: Baseline Natural Gas Demand (Tcf)

	2010	2015	2020	2025	2030	2035
Africa	3.90	4.70	5.90	7.10	8.30	9.10
Canada	3.30	3.50	3.70	4.20	4.60	5.00
China/India	5.70	8.60	10.70	13.10	15.10	16.60
C&S America	6.60	7.40	8.90	10.50	12.20	14.40
Europe	19.20	19.80	20.40	20.90	22.00	23.20
FSU	24.30	24.30	24.50	24.90	25.80	26.50
Korea/Japan	5.00	5.20	5.30	5.70	5.90	5.90
Middle East	12.50	14.70	17.00	19.10	21.30	24.00
Oceania	1.20	1.30	1.50	1.80	2.00	2.20
Sakhalin	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
Southeast Asia	7.40	8.50	10.00	12.00	13.90	15.30
U.S.	23.80	25.10	25.30	25.10	25.90	26.50
World	112.90	123.10	133.20	144.40	157.00	168.70

NERA developed a set of world natural gas price projections based upon a number of data sources. The approach focuses on the wellhead price forecasts for net export regions and city gate price forecasts for net import regions.

U.S. wellhead natural gas prices are not precisely the same in the global natural gas model and the U.S. N_{ew}ERA model. Supply curves in both models were calibrated to the EIA implicit supply curves, but the GNGM has a more simplified representation of U.S. natural gas supply and demand than the more detailed N_{ew}ERA model so that the two models solve for slightly different prices with the same levels of LNG exports. The differences are not material to any of the results in the study.

In natural gas-abundant regions like the Middle East and Africa, the wellhead price is assumed to equal the natural gas development and lifting cost. City gate prices are estimated by adding a transportation cost to the wellhead prices. In the major Asian demand markets, natural gas prices are determined on a near oil-parity basis using crude oil price forecasts from IEA's WEO 2011. The resultant prices are highly consistent with the relevant historical pipeline import prices13 and LNG spot market prices as well as various oil and natural gas indices (*i.e.*, JCC, WTI, Henry Hub, AECO Hub indices, and UK National Balancing Point). U.S. wellhead and average city gate prices are adopted from AEO 2012 Early Release. Canadian wellhead prices are projected to initially be $0.35 less than the U.S. prices in the Reference case. The resulting city gate and wellhead prices are presented in Figure 16 and Figure 17.

[13] German BAFA natural gas import border price, Belgium Zeebrugge spot prices, TTF Natural Gas Futures contracts, *etc*.

Figure 16: Projected Wellhead Prices (2010$/MMBtu)

	2010	2015	2020	2025	2030	2035
Africa	$1.75	$1.89	$2.09	$2.31	$2.55	$2.81
Canada	$3.39	$3.72	$4.25	$5.20	$5.64	$6.68
China/India	$12.29	$12.86	$13.00	$13.25	$13.57	$13.51
C&S America	$2.00	$2.16	$2.39	$2.64	$2.91	$3.22
Europe	$9.04	$9.97	$10.80	$11.95	$12.39	$13.23
FSU	$4.25	$4.60	$5.08	$5.61	$6.19	$6.84
Korea/Japan	$14.59	$15.30	$15.47	$15.79	$16.19	$16.11
Middle East	$1.25	$1.35	$1.49	$1.65	$1.82	$2.01
Oceania	$1.75	$1.89	$2.09	$2.31	$2.55	$2.81
Sakhalin	$1.25	$1.35	$1.49	$1.65	$1.82	$2.01
Southeast Asia	$2.00	$2.16	$2.39	$2.64	$2.91	$3.22
U.S.	$3.72	$3.83	$4.28	$5.10	$5.48	$6.36

Figure 17: Projected City Gate Prices (2010$/MMBtu)

	2010	2015	2020	2025	2030	2035
Africa	$2.75	$2.89	$3.09	$3.31	$3.55	$3.81
Canada	$4.79	$5.12	$5.65	$6.60	$7.04	$8.08
China/India	$13.79	$14.36	$14.50	$14.75	$15.07	$15.01
C&S America	$4.50	$4.66	$4.89	$5.14	$5.41	$5.72
Europe	$10.04	$10.97	$11.80	$12.95	$13.39	$14.23
FSU	$5.25	$5.60	$6.08	$6.61	$7.19	$7.84
Korea/Japan	$15.09	$15.80	$15.97	$16.29	$16.69	$16.61
Middle East	$4.08	$4.18	$4.32	$4.48	$4.65	$4.84
Oceania	$3.25	$3.39	$3.59	$3.81	$4.05	$4.31
Sakhalin	$3.75	$3.85	$3.99	$4.15	$4.32	$4.51
Southeast Asia	$3.00	$3.16	$3.39	$3.64	$3.91	$4.22
U.S.	$4.72	$4.83	$5.28	$6.10	$6.48	$7.36

After calibrating the GNGM to the above prices and quantities, we allowed the model to solve for the least-cost method of transporting gas so that supplies and demands are met. Figure 18,

Figure 19, and Figure 20 display the pipeline flows between model regions, LNG exports, and LNG imports for all model years in the baseline.

Figure 18: Baseline Inter-Region Pipeline Flows (Tcf)

Origin	Destination	2010	2015	2020	2025	2030	2035
Africa	Europe	1.53	1.68	1.41	0.94	0.88	0.87
Canada	U.S.	2.33	2.33	1.40	0.74	0.64	0.04
FSU	China/India	0.07	0.34	1.18	1.55	1.59	1.83
FSU	Europe	4.55	5.88	7.21	9.22	10.38	10.84

Figure 19: Baseline LNG Exports (Tcf)

Exporter	2010	2015	2020	2025	2030	2035
Africa	2.38	3.46	4.02	4.45	4.12	3.77
C&S America	0.37	0.66	0.50	0.19	0.16	0.06
Sakhalin	0.44	0.48	0.49	0.52	0.55	0.59
Middle East	4.10	4.64	4.64	4.64	4.64	4.64
Oceania	0.74	1.28	1.63	2.02	2.60	3.04
Southeast Asia	1.64	1.42	0.85	-	-	-

Figure 20: Baseline LNG Imports (Tcf)

Importer	2010	2015	2020	2025	2030	2035
China/India	1.02	2.58	2.52	3.21	3.69	3.48
Europe	3.58	3.99	4.02	2.82	2.57	2.98
Korea/Japan	4.80	5.00	5.05	5.21	5.43	5.48
U.S.	0.37	0.37	0.50	0.36	0.16	0.06

B. Behavior of Market Participants

In a market in which existing suppliers are collecting profits, the potential entry of a new supplier creates an issue concerning how the existing suppliers should respond. Existing suppliers have three general strategy options:

1. Existing suppliers can voluntarily reduce their own production, conceding market share to the new entrant in order to maintain market prices.

2. Existing suppliers can act as price takers, adjusting their volume of sales until prices reach a new, lower equilibrium.

3. Existing suppliers can choose to produce at previously planned levels with the hope of discouraging the new potential supplier from entering the market by driving prices below levels acceptable to the new entrant.

How much the U.S. will be able to export, and at what price, depends critically on how other LNG producers like Qatar that are low cost producers but currently limiting exports would react to the appearance of a new competitor in the market. Our model of the world gas market is one of a single dominant supplier, which has the largest shares of LNG exports and is thought to be limiting output, and a competitive fringe whose production adjusts to market prices.[14] Our calculation of U.S. benefits from trade assumes that the dominant supplier would not change its plans for expanding production to counter U.S. entry into the market (strategy 3). Their continued production would leave no room for U.S. exports until prices were driven down far enough to stimulate sufficient additional demand to absorb economic exports from the U.S. Since the competitive fringe does reduce output (strategy 2) as prices fall due to U.S. LNG exports, there is an opportunity for the U.S. to enter the market but only by driving delivered LNG prices in key markets below what they are today. Should these countries respond instead by cutting production below planned levels to maintain prices, the U.S. could gain greater benefits and a larger market share. If the dominant supplier chooses to cut prices, then exporting LNG from the U.S. would become less attractive to investors.

Another consideration is the behavior of LNG consumers. At this point in time, countries like Japan and Korea appear to be paying a substantial premium over the price required to obtain supplies from regions that have not imposed limits on planned export capacity. At the same time, those countries are clearly looking into arrangements in the United States that would provide natural gas at a delivered cost substantially below prices they currently pay for LNG deliveries. This could be because they view the U.S. as a uniquely secure source of supply, or it could be that current high prices reported for imports into Japan and Korea are for contracts that will expire and be replaced by more competitively priced supplies. If countries like Japan and Korea became convinced that they could obtain secure supplies without long-term oil-based pricing contracts, and ceased paying a premium over marginal cost, the entire price structure could shift downward. Since the U.S. does not appear to be the world's lowest cost supplier, this could have serious consequences for the profitability of U.S. exports.

In this study, we address issues of exporter responses by assuming that there is a competitive market with exogenously determined export limits chosen by each exporting region and determined by their liquefaction capacity. This assumption allows us to explore different scenarios for supply from the rest of the world when the U.S. begins to export. This is a middle

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[14] We consider the dominant supplier to be Qatar, with a 31% share of the market in 2011, while also exercising some production restraint.

ground between assuming that the dominant producer will limit exports sufficiently to maintain the current premium apparent in the prices paid in regions like Japan and Korea, or that dominant exporters will remove production constraints because with U.S. entry their market shares fall to levels that do not justify propping up prices for the entire market.

It is outside the scope of this study to analyze alternative responses by other LNG suppliers in order to determine what would be in their best economic interest or how they might behave strategically to maximize their gains. This would require a different kind of model that addresses imperfect competition in global LNG markets and could explain the apparent ability of some large exporters to set prices for some importing countries at prices higher than the cost of production plus transportation.

C. Available LNG Liquefaction and Shipping Capacity

This analysis did not investigate the technical feasibility of building new liquefaction capacity in a timely fashion to support the level of exports the model found optimal. In all cases, the GNGM assumed no limits on either LNG liquefaction capacity additions outside the U.S. or world LNG shipping capacity. The only LNG export capacity limits were placed on the U.S. and the Middle East.

D. The Effects of U.S. LNG Exports on Regional Natural Gas Markets

When the U.S. exports LNG, the worldwide and domestic natural gas markets are affected in the following ways:

- The additional supplies from U.S. LNG exports cause a drop in city gate prices in the importing regions;
- The lower prices lead to increased natural gas consumption in the importing regions;
- Relative to the baseline forecast, U.S. LNG exports displace some LNG exports from other regions, which leads to lower production levels in many of the other exporting regions;
- U.S. LNG exports displace FSU pipeline exports to Europe and China, which leads to lower FSU production;
- Exporting regions with lower LNG or pipeline exports and hence lower production levels experience a drop in wellhead and city gate prices because of the lower demand for their gas;
- Natural gas production rises in the U.S. because there is additional demand for its gas;

- Wellhead natural gas prices rise in the U.S. because of the increased demand, which leads to higher city gate prices; and

- Higher U.S. prices cause a reduction in U.S. natural gas consumption.

Whether or not a region's exports would be displaced by U.S. LNG exports depend on several factors:

- The difference in delivered costs between an exporting region and the U.S.;

- The magnitude of the demand shock or increased demand; and

- The magnitude of the supply shock or reduction in world supply.

Because Africa and the Middle East are the lowest cost producers, U.S. LNG exports have the smallest effect on their exports. Also, the Middle East's exports are limited by our assumption that Qatar continues to limit its exports of natural gas at its announced levels. Thus, there are pent-up LNG exports, which mean that the Middle East can still export its same level of LNG even with a decline in international gas prices.

Since the cost of exports is higher in some other regions, they are more vulnerable to having their exports displaced by U.S. LNG exports. In the International Reference case, U.S. LNG exports displace LNG exports from all regions to some extent in many of the years. U.S. exports also cause reductions in inter-regional pipeline exports: FSU to Europe and China, as well as Africa to Europe.

In comparing the International Reference case to the Demand Shock and Supply/Demand Shock cases, we find that global LNG exports increase because the world demand for natural gas is greater. Like other regions, U.S. LNG exports increase, which means that they displace a greater number of exports. However, those regions that have some of their exports displaced still export more natural gas under the Demand Shock and Supply/Demand Shock scenarios than under the equivalent International Reference scenarios.

In the Supply/Demand Shock scenarios, Oceania, Southeast Asia, and Africa have their LNG exports restricted. This restriction leads to these regions receiving a netback price in excess of their wellhead prices. Thus, these regions have a margin that buffers them when the U.S. LNG exports try to enter the market. These regions can lower their export price for LNG some while still ensuring their netback price is greater than or equal to their wellhead price and maintain their level of LNG exports at the level that existed before the U.S. entered the market. However, Southeast Asia has a much smaller buffer than Oceania and Africa so when the U.S. enters the market it effectively displaces much of Southeast Asia's supply.

By 2030, demand for LNG becomes greater so low-cost producing regions such as Sakhalin and the Middle East experience no decline in LNG exports when the U.S. LNG exports enter the market.

When the U.S. enters the global LNG market, each region's supply, demand, wellhead price, and city gate price for natural gas respond as expected. More precisely, importing regions increase their demand for natural gas, and exporting regions either reduce or maintain their supply of natural gas. The wellhead and city gate prices for natural gas decline in all importing regions and remain the same in exporting regions except for in the U.S. and Canada, which are now able to export LNG.

E. Under What Conditions Would the U.S. Export LNG?

In order to understand the economic impacts on the U.S. resulting from LNG exports, it is necessary to understand the circumstances under which U.S. natural gas producers will find it profitable to export LNG. To accomplish this, we used GNGM to run a series of scenarios for all combinations of the three U.S. scenarios (Reference, High Shale EUR, and Low Shale EUR) and three international scenarios (International Reference, Demand Shock, and Supply/Demand Shock). In these runs, we varied the constraints on LNG export levels across seven settings (No-Exports, Low/Slowest, Low/Slow, Low/Rapid, High/Slow, High/Rapid, and Unconstrained). Based upon these 63 runs, we found the following:

- For the scenarios which combined the International Reference and U.S. Reference cases, there were no U.S. LNG exports. In part, this is due to the fact that the EIA scenarios upon which they are based assume that global natural gas demand is met by global supplies without U.S. LNG exports. This outcome also implies that U.S. LNG exports under a U.S. Reference scenario would not be lower cost than existing or planned sources of LNG in other regions of the world and thus do not displace them.
- When there is additional growth in global natural gas demand beyond that of the International Reference scenario, then the U.S. exports LNG to help meet this incremental demand. The degree to which the U.S. exports LNG depends upon the abundance and quality of the U.S. resource base.
- When the U.S. gas supplies are more abundant and lower cost than in the U.S. Reference case, the U.S. can competitively export LNG either to meet incremental global demand or to displace planned LNG supplies in other regions.
- Should the U.S. shale gas resource prove less abundant or cost effective, then U.S. LNG exports will be minimal under the most optimistic global scenario (Supply/Demand Shock).

In the next sections, we present the modeling results for each of the three U.S. cases that served as the basis for arriving at these conclusions.

1. Findings for the U.S. Reference Scenario

This section reports the level of U.S. LNG exports under the 21 scenarios (includes no LNG export scenario) that assume the U.S. Reference scenario. These scenarios consider different international assumptions about international demand and supply of natural gas as well as different assumptions about the U.S.'s ability to export LNG. Figure 21 reports the U.S.'s maximum export capacity for each LNG export capacity scenario.

Figure 21: U.S. LNG Export Capacity Limits (Tcf)

LNG Export Capacity Scenarios	2015	2020	2025	2030	2035
Low/Slowest	0.18	1.10	2.01	2.19	2.19
Low/Slow	0.37	2.19	2.19	2.19	2.19
Low/Rapid	1.10	2.19	2.19	2.19	2.19
High/Slow	0.37	2.19	4.02	4.38	4.38
High/Rapid	1.10	4.38	4.38	4.38	4.38
No Constraint	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A

Figure 22 reports the level of U.S. LNG exports. Viewing Figure 21and Figure 22, one can see the effect of the LNG export capacity limits on restraining U.S. exports and the effect of these limits under different assumptions about the International scenarios.

Figure 22: U.S. LNG Exports –U.S. Reference (Tcf)

Bold numbers indicate that the U.S. LNG export limit is binding

U.S. Scenario	International Scenario	LNG Export Capacity Scenarios	2015	2020	2025	2030	2035
U.S. Reference	Demand Shock	Low/Slowest	**0.18**	0.98	1.43	1.19	1.37
		Low/Slow	**0.37**	0.98	1.43	1.19	1.37
		Low/Rapid	1.02	0.98	1.43	1.19	1.37
		High/Slow	**0.37**	0.98	1.43	1.19	1.37
		High/Rapid	1.02	0.98	1.43	1.19	1.37
		No Constraint	1.02	0.98	1.43	1.19	1.37
	Supply/ Demand Shock	Low/Slowest	**0.18**	**1.10**	**2.01**	**2.19**	**2.19**
		Low/Slow	**0.37**	**2.19**	**2.19**	**2.19**	**2.19**
		Low/Rapid	**1.10**	**2.19**	**2.19**	**2.19**	**2.19**
		High/Slow	**0.37**	**2.19**	3.93	**4.38**	**4.38**
		High/Rapid	**1.10**	2.92	3.93	**4.38**	**4.38**
		No Constraint	2.17	2.92	3.93	4.54	5.75

Figure 22 omits the International Reference Scenario because when there are no international shocks that either raise world demand or lower world supply from baseline levels, then the U.S. does not export LNG. However, the U.S. does export LNG when higher levels of world demand are assumed and exports even greater amounts of LNG when both world demand increases and non-U.S. supply planned expansions are not built (units denoted as "under construction" are still assumed to be built).

Under the Demand Shock scenario from 2020 onward, the economic level of U.S. LNG exports do not reach export capacity limits. Therefore, the level of exports in the years 2020 through 2035 is the same for all LNG export capacity levels. Under Supply/Demand Shock scenario, however, the LNG export capacity limits are often binding.[15] The low U.S. LNG capacity export limits are binding for all rates of expansion (Low/Slowest, Low/slow, and Low/Rapid) for all years. For the high LNG export levels, some years are binding and some are not. Under the Supply/Demand Shock scenarios, LNG exports are always greater than or equal to LNG exports in the Demand Shock cases.

The U.S. LNG export capacity binds when the optimal level of exports as determined by the model (see the rows denoted "No Constraint") exceeds the LNG export capacity level. The difference between the value of LNG exports in the "No Constraint" row and a particular case with a LNG export capacity defines the quantity of exports that LNG export capacity prohibits from coming onto the world market. The greater this number, the more binding the LNG export capacity and the more valuable an LNG terminal would be. In 2025 for example, the U.S. would choose to export almost 4 Tcf of LNG, but if its export capacity limit followed one of the low level cases (Low/Slowest, Low/Slow, or Low/Rapid), there would be a shortfall of almost 2 Tcf of export capacity. On the other hand, if the export capacity followed one of the high level cases (High/Slow or High/Rapid), the U.S. would have about 0.4 Tcf of spare capacity.

15 The U.S. LNG export capacity binds when the market equilibrium level of exports as determined by the model exceeds the maximum LNG export capacity assumed in that scenario.

2. Findings for the U.S. High Shale EUR Scenario

Figure 23: U.S. LNG Export – High Shale EUR (Tcf)

Bold numbers indicate that the U.S. LNG export limit is binding

U.S. Scenario	International Scenario	LNG Export Capacity Scenarios	2015	2020	2025	2030	2035
High Shale EUR	International Reference	Low/Slowest	**0.18**	**1.10**	**2.01**	**2.19**	**2.19**
		Low/Slow	**0.37**	**2.19**	**2.19**	**2.19**	**2.19**
		Low/Rapid	**1.10**	**2.19**	**2.19**	**2.19**	**2.19**
		High/Slow	**0.37**	**2.19**	3.77	2.78	3.38
		High/Rapid	**1.10**	2.97	3.77	2.78	3.38
		No Constraint	2.23	2.97	3.77	2.78	3.38
	Demand Shock	Low/Slowest	**0.18**	**1.10**	**2.01**	**2.19**	**2.19**
		Low/Slow	**0.37**	**2.19**	**2.19**	**2.19**	**2.19**
		Low/Rapid	**1.10**	**2.19**	**2.19**	**2.19**	**2.19**
		High/Slow	**0.37**	**2.19**	**4.02**	**4.38**	**4.38**
		High/Rapid	**1.10**	3.94	**4.38**	**4.38**	**4.38**
		No Constraint	3.30	3.94	4.87	4.59	5.61
	Supply/ Demand Shock	Low/Slowest	**0.18**	**1.10**	**2.01**	**2.19**	**2.19**
		Low/Slow	**0.37**	**2.19**	**2.19**	**2.19**	**2.19**
		Low/Rapid	**1.10**	**2.19**	**2.19**	**2.19**	**2.19**
		High/Slow	**0.37**	**2.19**	**4.02**	**4.38**	**4.38**
		High/Rapid	**1.10**	**4.38**	**4.38**	**4.38**	**4.38**
		No Constraint	4.23	5.44	6.72	6.89	8.39

Analogous to Figure 22, Figure 23 shows LNG export levels for the U.S. High Shale EUR scenario and a combination of international and LNG export capacity scenarios. Under this highest level of U.S. natural gas supplies, it is cost-effective to export U.S. LNG with or without any international supply or demand shocks. In 2025, the LNG export capacity is binding in all but two cases: no international shock with either High/Slow or High/Rapid LNG export capacity limits. For all other scenarios, the export levels reflect the different U.S. LNG export capacity levels. The only exception is in the year 2020 for the High/Rapid scenario. Exports are even greater for the unconstrained cases with Demand Shocks and Supply/Demand Shocks.

The U.S. LNG export capacity limits become increasingly more binding as the international shocks lead to greater demand for U.S. LNG exports. Under the Supply/Demand shocks, the U.S. LNG export capacity limits bind in all years for the High Shale EUR case. By 2025, the capacity limits restrict between 2.3 and 4.5 Tcf of U.S. exports. Even with only a Demand shock, the U.S. LNG export capacity limits bind in all years for all limits except the High/Rapid case in 2020 in which U.S. LNG exports are only 0.4 Tcf below the U.S. LNG export capacity limit (Figure 21 and Figure 23) when the export capacity limit is 4.38 Tcf. Without any international shocks, the U.S. LNG export capacity limits bind in all years for the Low/Slowest, Low/Slow and Low/Rapid cases, and the U.S. LNG export capacity limits are non-binding for the High/Slow and High/Rapid cases after 2025.

3. Findings for the U.S. Low Shale EUR Scenario

Figure 24 shows all combinations of International scenarios and LNG export capacity scenarios in which the U.S. exports LNG for the U.S. Low Shale EUR scenario. With Low Shale EUR, U.S. supplies are more costly, and as a result, there are no U.S. LNG exports in either the International Reference or Demand Shock scenarios. For the Supply/Demand shock scenarios, U.S. LNG export capacity is binding only in some years in some cases.

Figure 24: U.S. LNG Export – Low Shale EUR (Tcf)

Bold numbers indicate that the U.S. LNG export limit is binding

U.S. Scenario	International Scenario	LNG Export Capacity Scenarios	2015	2020	2025	2030	2035
Low Shale EUR	Supply/ Demand Shock	Low/Slowest	0	0.78	0.90	0.27	0.52
		Low/Slow	0	0.78	0.90	0.27	0.52
		Low/Rapid	0	0.78	0.90	0.27	0.52
		High/Slow	0	0.78	0.90	0.27	0.52
		High/Rapid	0	0.78	0.90	0.27	0.52
		No Constraint	0	0.78	0.90	0.27	0.52

4. Netback Pricing and the Conditions for “Rents” or “Profits”

When LNG export capacity constrains exports, rents or profits are generated. These rents or profits are the difference in value between the netback and wellhead price. The netback price is the value of the LNG exports in the consuming market, less the costs incurred with transporting the natural gas from the wellhead to the consuming market. In the case of LNG, these costs consist of: pipeline transportation from the wellhead to the liquefaction plant, liquefaction costs, transportation costs by ship from the liquefaction plant to the regasification plant, regasification costs, and pipeline transportation from the regasification facility to the city gate.

The netback price can be either greater than or equal to the average wellhead price. It cannot be lower otherwise there would be no economic incentive to produce the natural gas. In cases where the U.S. LNG exports are below the LNG export capacity, the netback prices the U.S. receives for its exports equal the U.S. wellhead price. However, when the LNG export capacity binds so that LNG exports equal the LNG export capacity level, the U.S. market becomes disconnected from the world market, and the netback prices that the U.S. receives exceed its wellhead prices. In this event, the difference between the netback price and the wellhead price leads to a positive profit or rent.

5. LNG Exports: Relationship between Price and Volume

Figure 25 indicates the range of LNG exports and U.S. natural gas prices that were estimated across all 63 global scenarios, many of which had zero exports and therefore no price impacts.[16] Based on Figure 25, NERA selected 13 scenarios for detailed U.S. economic analysis. These 13 scenarios spanned the full range of potential impacts and provided discrete points within that range for discussion. In this section, we describe the analysis performed to select the 13 scenarios.

Because each of the 63 scenarios was characterized by both a U.S. and international dimension (as well as different U.S. LNG export capacity), shapes and colors were used to denote the different combinations:

- Shapes are used to differentiate among the different U.S. scenarios: U.S. Reference (diamond), High Shale EUR (triangle), and Low Shale EUR (square); and
- Colors are used to differentiate among the International cases: International Reference (red), Demand Shock (blue), and Supply/Demand Shock (yellow). In some instances, the same level of U.S. LNG exports and wellhead prices existed for multiple International cases. In these instances, the naturally combined color of the multiple cases is used (*e.g.*, a green symbol (combination of blue and yellow) if the Demand Shock and Supply/Demand Shock scenarios yield the same results.

Therefore, each point on Figure 25 conveys the U.S. and International scenarios, which may correspond to multiple LNG export capacity scenarios. For example, the northwest yellow square (0.9 Tcf of exports) corresponds to the High/Slow and High/Rapid LNG export capacity scenarios. In our detailed U.S. analysis, we only need to consider one of the multiple scenarios. Thus, we can greatly reduce the number of scenarios because Figure 25 suggests there are far fewer than 63 unique LNG export levels.

The yellow markers (scenarios that include the International Supply/Demand shock) yield the highest levels of LNG exports and U.S. natural gas prices and form the upper right hand boundary of impacts. The most northeast red, blue, and yellow markers for each shape represent the cases where LNG exports are unconstrained. For the scenarios where the LNG exports are below the export capacity limits, the marker represents multiple scenarios.

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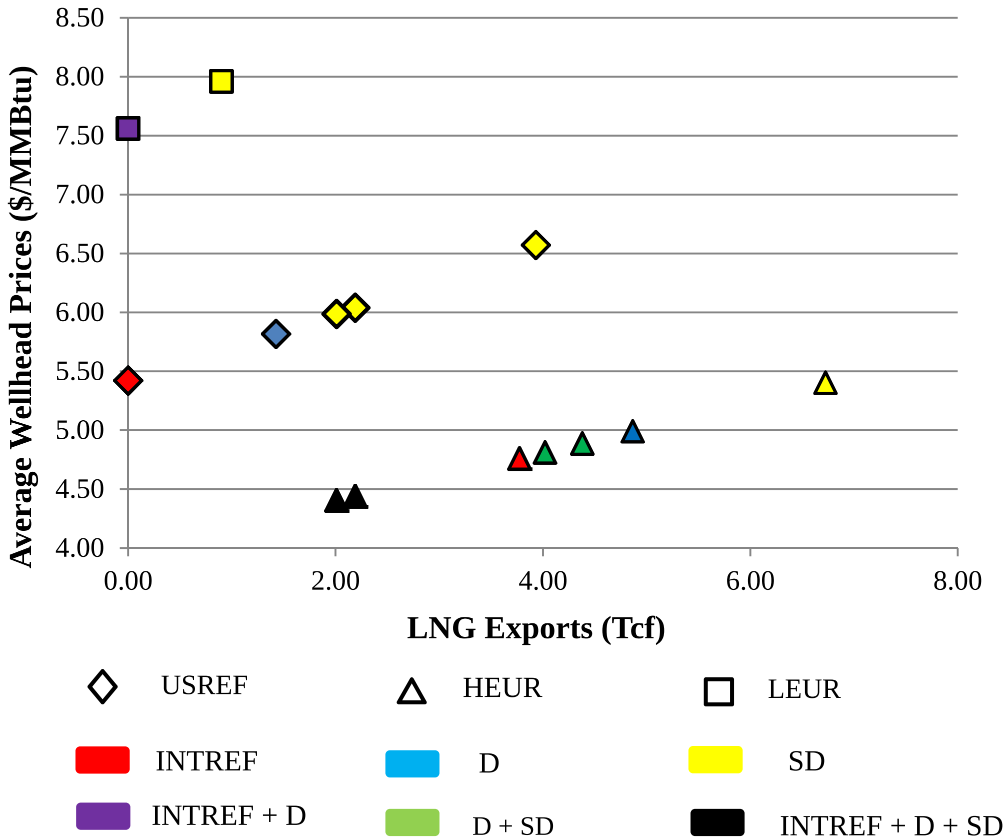
[16] In order to keep the discussion of macroeconomic impacts as concise as possible, this report does not discuss in detail all the scenarios that were run.

Figure 25: U.S. LNG Exports in 2025 Under Different Assumptions
(Note each point can correspond to multiple LNG export capacity scenarios.)



BCF/day = 2.74 * Tcf/Year

The triangles (scenarios that include the High EUR) form a line moving up and to the right, which essentially traces out the U.S. supply curve for LNG under the High EUR scenario. These scenarios combine the lowest U.S. natural gas prices with the highest levels of exports, as would be expected. With High EUR assumptions, U.S. natural gas supply can be increased at relatively low cost enabling larger levels of exports to be economic. For the detailed U.S. economic analysis, we used the High EUR cases to provide the high end of the range for U.S. LNG exports. Since the results are nearly identical between the Demand Shock and Supply and Demand Shock scenarios, we included the five export capacity scenarios under the Supply and Demand Shock because they yielded slightly higher exports.

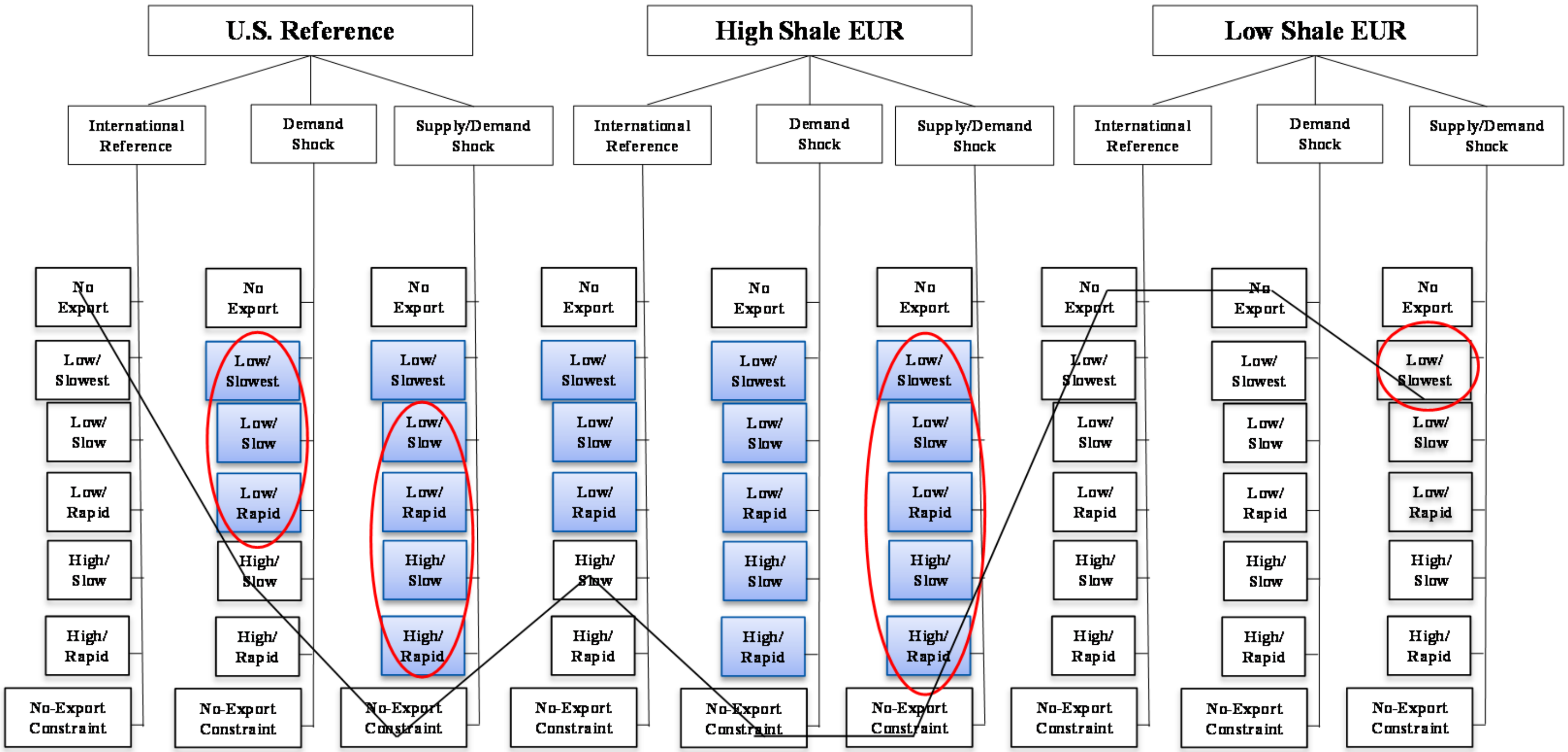
The supply curve traced out by the scenarios that include U.S. Reference case (represented by diamonds) are higher than in the High EUR cases because domestic gas is less plentiful. When only a Demand shock exists, the LNG export capacity limits are non-binding so the level of exports (the lone blue diamond) is the same for all six LNG export capacity scenarios under the U.S. Reference case. Raising the limits on LNG exports in the presence of the International

Demand Shock and Supply/Demand Shock, however, causes actual exports to increase and satisfy more of the higher world demand as exhibited by the series of yellow diamonds that move along a northeast line. In the U.S. Reference case, there are zero exports under International Reference assumptions as represented by the red diamond.

A line joining the squares in Figure 25 traces out the 2025 supply curve for the Low EUR case. The trajectory of the wellhead prices is the highest compared to other cases because of the high underlying baseline wellhead prices. Under the Low EUR baseline, the U.S. wellhead price is $7.56/Mcf in 2025, so that only with International Supply and Demand shocks is there sufficient global demand to bring about positive LNG exports at a price at least as high as the LEUR baseline. The combination of Low EUR and an international supply and demand shock leads to a combination of higher U.S. natural gas prices and lower exports than in the corresponding High EUR or U.S. Reference scenarios. Since exports are similar in the LEUR scenarios in which they exist, we only considered the most binding case (Low EUR with Supply/Demand Shock under the Low/Slowest LNG export capacity), in the detailed U.S. economic analysis. This scenario provides the low end of the export range.

F. Findings and Scenarios Chosen for N_{ew}ERA Model

Figure 26: Scenario Tree with Maximum Feasible Export Levels Highlighted in Blue and N_{ew}Era Scenarios Circled



The first use we made of the GNGM was to determine the level of exports in each of these scenarios that would be accepted by the world market at a price high enough to buy gas at the prevailing wellhead price in the United States, transport it to a liquefaction facility, and liquefy and load it onto a tanker. In some of the above cases, we found that there were no LNG exports because LNG exports would not be profitable. In many cases, we found that the amount of LNG exports that met this profitability test was below the LNG export capacity level assumed in that case. In others, we found that the assumed limit on exports would be binding. In a few cases, we found that the market if allowed would accept more than any of the export limits.

In Figure 26 under the U.S. Reference assumptions as well as in the International Reference case, we found that there would be no export volumes that could be sold profitably into the world market. In the case that combined High Shale EUR and International Reference, it was possible to achieve the Low/Rapid level of exports. After 2010, the exports approach the level of the High/Rapid constraint but never exceed it.

The line in Figure 26 designates the cases in which we observed the maximum level of exports for that combination of U.S. and International assumptions. Export levels and U.S. prices in any case falling below the line were identical to the case identified by the line. Thus, looking down the column for U.S. High EUR supply conditions combined with International Supply/Demand, we found that LNG exports and U.S. wellhead prices were the same with the High/Rapid export limits as with the more constraining High/Slow limits. We therefore did not analyze further any scenarios that fell below the line in Figure 26 and used the No-Export capacity cases to provide a benchmark to which the impacts of increased levels of exports could be compared.

Based on the results of these scenarios, we pared down the scenarios to analyze in the N_{ew}ERA macroeconomic model. Taking into account the possible world natural gas market dynamics, the GNGM model results suggest 21 scenarios in which there were some levels of LNG exports from the U.S. These scenarios were further reduced to 13 scenarios by taking the minimum level of exports across international outlooks. This was done because N_{ew}ERA model does not differentiate various international outlooks. For N_{ew}ERA, the critical issue is the level of U.S. LNG exports and U.S. natural gas production. Of the 13 N_{ew}ERA scenarios (circled in Figure 26), 7 scenarios reflected the U.S. Reference case, 5 reflected the High Shale EUR case with full U.S. LNG export capacity utilization and 1 from the Low EUR case with the lowest export expansion.

VI. U.S. ECONOMIC IMPACTS FROM N$_{EW}$ERA

A. Organization of the Findings

There are many factors that influence the amount of LNG exports from the U.S. into the world markets. These factors include supply and demand conditions in the world markets and the availability of shale gas in the U.S. The GNGM analysis, discussed in the previous section, found 13 export volume cases under different world gas market dynamics and U.S. natural gas resource outlooks. These cases are implemented as 13 N$_{ew}$Era scenarios[17] and are grouped as:

- Low/Slow and Low/Rapid DOE/FE export expansion volumes for the Reference natural gas resource outlook referred to as USREF_SD_LS and USREF_SD_LR;

- Low/Slow, Low/Rapid, High/Slow, High/Rapid and Low/Slowest GNGM export expansion volumes for the Reference natural gas resource outlook referred to as USREF_D_LS, USREF_D_LR, USREF_SD_HS, USREF_SD_HR and USREF_D_LSS;

- Low/Slow, Low/Rapid, High/Slow, High/Rapid and Low/Slowest DOE/FE export expansion volumes for the High Shale EUR natural gas resource outlook referred to as HEUR_SD_LS, HEUR_SD_LR, HEUR_SD_HS, HEUR_SD_HR and HEUR_SD_LSS; and

- Low/Slowest GNGM export expansion volumes for the Low Shale EUR natural gas resource outlook referred to as LEUR_SD_LSS

The Reference natural gas outlook scenarios were run against its No-Export volume baseline consistent with AEO 2011 Reference case (Bau_REF). Similarly, the High Shale EUR and Low Shale EUR scenarios were run against its No-Export volume baseline consistent with AEO 2011 High Shale EUR (Bau_HEUR) and AEO 2011 Low Shale EUR (Bau_LEUR) respectively.

This section discusses the impacts on the U.S. natural gas markets and the overall macroeconomic impacts for these 13 scenarios. The impacts are a result of implementing the export expansion scenarios against a baseline without any LNG exports. The economic benefits of the scenarios, as measured by different economic measures, are cross compared. We used economic measures such as welfare, aggregate consumption, disposable income, GDP, and loss of wage income to estimate the impact of the scenarios. The scenario results provide a range of outcomes that capture key sources of uncertainties in the international and the U.S. natural gas markets.

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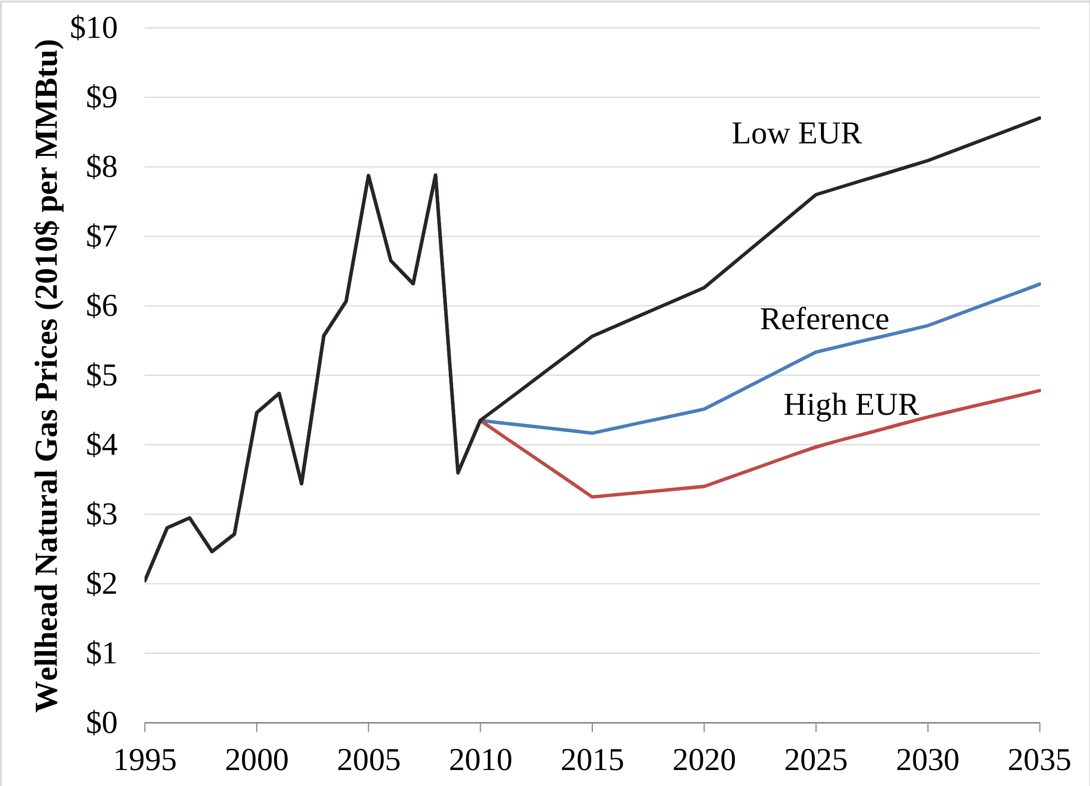
[17] NERA also ran 3 cases in which the LNG export capacity was assumed to be unlimited.

B. Natural Gas Market Impacts

1. Price, Production, and Demand

The wellhead natural gas price increases steadily in all three of the baseline cases (REF, High EUR and Low EUR). Under the REF case the wellhead price increases from $4.40/MMBtu in 2010 to $6.30/MMBtu while under the High EUR and the Low EUR cases the price increases to about $4.80/MMBtu (a 10% increase from the 2010 price) and $8.70/MMBtu (a 100% increase from 2010), respectively. Comparing the projected natural gas price under the three baseline cases with historical natural gas prices, we see that the prices exceed recent historical highs only under the Low EUR case beyond 2030 (see Figure 27). The natural gas price path and its response in the scenarios with LNG exports will depend on the availability and accessibility of natural gas resources. Additionally, the price changes will be influenced by the expansion rate of LNG exports. The lower level of supply under the Low EUR case results in a higher projected natural gas price while the High EUR case, with abundant shale gas, results in a lower projected natural gas price path.

Figure 27: Historical and Projected Wellhead Natural Gas Price Paths



Source: Energy Information Agency (EIA)

The extent of the natural gas price response to an expansion of LNG exports depends upon the supply and demand conditions and the corresponding baseline price. For a given baseline, the higher the level of LNG exports the greater the change in natural gas price. Similarly, the natural gas price rises much faster under a scenario that has a quicker rate of expansion of LNG exports.

From Figure 28 we can see that under the Low/Rapid expansion scenario, USREF_SD_LR, the price rises by 7.7% in 2015 while under the Low/Slow expansion scenario, USREF_SD_LS, the price rises by only 2.4% in 2015. The demand for LNG exports in the Low/Rapid scenario (1.1 Tcf) is much greater than in the Low/Slow scenarios (0.37 Tcf); hence, the pressure on the natural gas price in the Low/Rapid scenario is higher. However, post-2015 LNG export volumes are the same in both scenarios, thus leading to the same level of increase in the wellhead price. The wellhead price rises 14% by 2020 relative to the baseline and then tapers off to a 6.4% increase by 2035 under both scenarios.

For the same Reference case baseline, Bau_Ref, the wellhead natural gas price varies by export level scenarios. The NERA High/Rapid export scenario (USREF_SD_HR) leads to the largest price increases of about 20% in 2020 ($0.90/Mcf) and 14% in 2035 ($0.90/Mcf) relative to the Reference baseline. The increase in the wellhead price is the smallest for the NERA low export scenarios (USREF_D_LS, USREF_D_LR and USREF_D_LSS). The Low/Slowest export scenario, USREF_D_LSS, has a 2015 increase of about 1% ($0.05/Mcf) and a 2035 price increase of about 4% ($0.25/Mcf).

The price increase for the High EUR scenarios is similar to the increases in the EIA Study since the export volumes are the same.[18] The largest increase in price takes place under the High/Rapid scenario in 2020 (32% relative to the High EUR baseline). However, as quickly as the price rises in 2020 it only increases by 21% in 2025 and 13% in 2025 relative to the High EUR baseline.[19] To put the percentage change in context, Figure 29 shows the level value changes relative to the corresponding baseline. Given the lower baseline price under the High EUR case, the absolute increase in the natural gas prices is smaller under the High EUR scenarios than the Reference case scenarios. The price increase under the Low EUR scenario with the slowest export volume is only a 6% increase in price relative to the baseline, or about $0.40/Mcf.

A higher natural gas price in the scenarios has three primary impacts on the overall economy. First, it tends to increase the cost of producing goods and services that are dependent on natural gas, which leads to decreasing economic output. Second, the higher price of natural gas leads to an increase in export revenues, which improves the balance of payment position. Third, it provides wealth transfer in the form of take-or-pay tolling charges that support the income of the consumers. The overall macroeconomic impacts depend on the magnitudes of these three effects as discussed in the next section.

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[18] See Appendix D for comparison of natural gas prices.

[19] Since the results are shown for three baselines with three different prices, comparing percentage changes across these baseline cases can be misleading since they do not correspond to the same level value changes. In general, when comparing scenarios between Reference and High EUR cases, the level change would be smaller under the High EUR case for the same percentage increase in price.

Figure 28: Wellhead Natural Gas Price and Percentage Change for NERA Core Scenarios

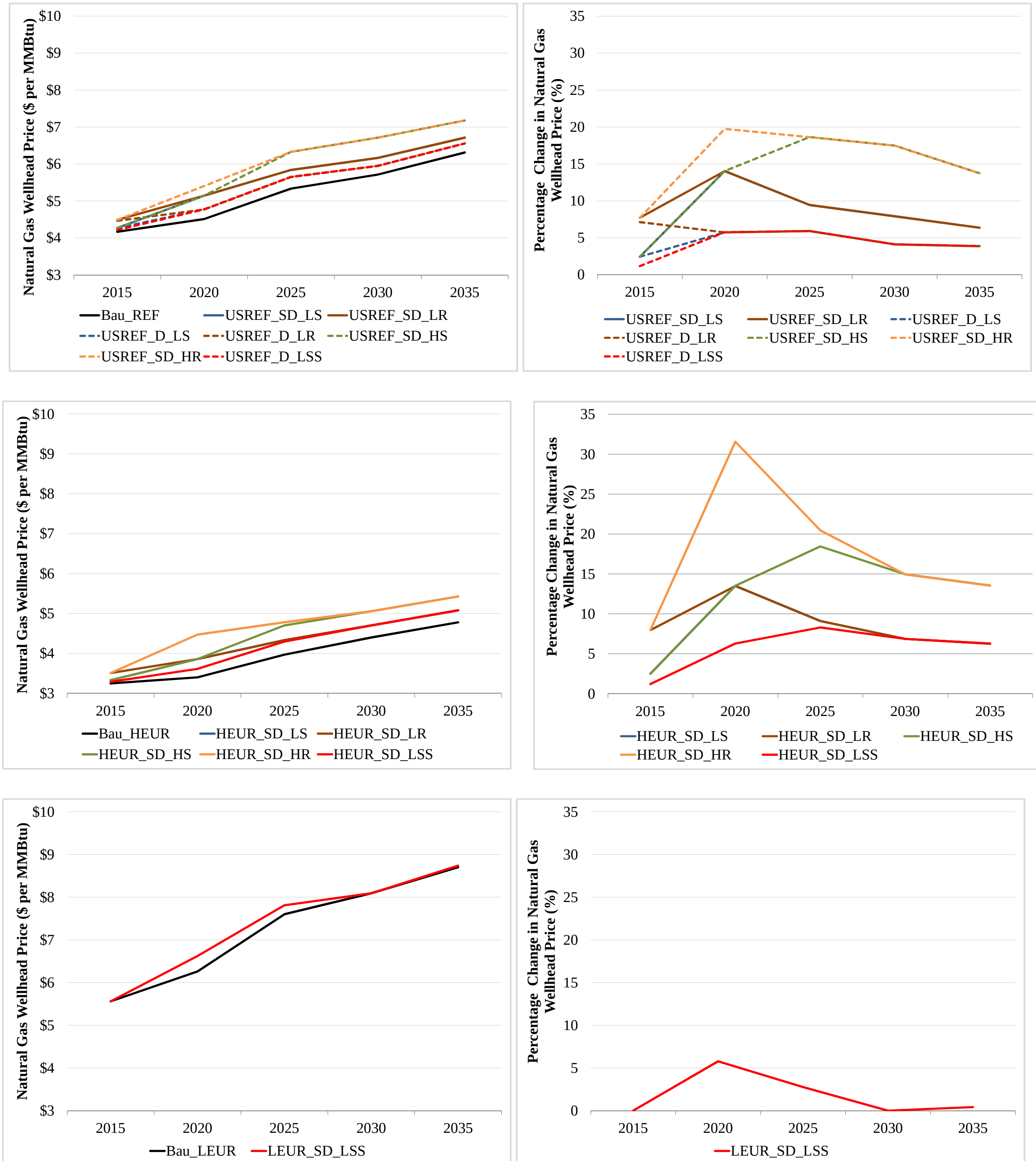


Figure 29: Change in Natural Gas Price Relative to the Corresponding Baseline of Zero LNG Exports (2010$/Mcf)

	2015	2020	2025	2030	2035
USREF_SD_LR	$0.33	$0.65	$0.52	$0.47	$0.41
USREF_SD_LS	$0.10	$0.65	$0.52	$0.47	$0.41
USREF_SD_HR	$0.33	$0.92	$1.02	$1.03	$0.89
USREF_SD_HS	$0.10	$0.65	$1.02	$1.03	$0.89
USREF_D_LR	$0.31	$0.27	$0.33	$0.24	$0.25
USREF_D_LS	$0.10	$0.27	$0.33	$0.24	$0.25
USREF_D_LSS	$0.05	$0.27	$0.33	$0.24	$0.25
HEUR_SD_HR	$0.27	$1.11	$0.84	$0.68	$0.67
HEUR_SD_HS	$0.08	$0.47	$0.75	$0.68	$0.67
HEUR_SD_LR	$0.27	$0.47	$0.37	$0.31	$0.31
HEUR_SD_LS	$0.08	$0.47	$0.37	$0.31	$0.31
HEUR_SD_LSS	$0.04	$0.22	$0.34	$0.31	$0.31
LEUR_SD_LSS	$0.00	$0.37	$0.22	$0.00	$0.04

Natural gas production increases under all three baseline cases to partially support the rise in export volumes in all of the scenarios. In the Reference case, the high scenarios (USREF_SD_HS and USREF_SD_HR) have production steadily increasing by about 10% in 2035 with production in the High/Slow scenario rising at a slower pace than in the High/Rapid scenario. In the low scenarios (USREF_SD_LS and USREF_SD_LR) and the slowest scenario (USREF_D_LSS), the production increases by about 5% and 3% in 2035, respectively (see the first two panels in Figure 30). The rise in production under the High EUR case scenarios is smaller than the corresponding Reference case scenarios.

The response in natural gas production depends upon the nature of the supply curve. Production is much more constrained in the short run as a result of drilling needs and other limitations. In the long run, gas producers are able to overcome these constraints. Hence there is more production response in the long run than in the short run.[20] Figure 30 shows that in 2015 the increase in production accounts for about 30% to 40% of the export volume, while in 2035 due to gas producers overcoming production constraints, the share of the increase in production in export volumes increases to about 60%.

[20] In the short run, the natural gas supply curve is much more inelastic than in the long run.

Figure 30: Natural Gas Production and Percentage Change for NERA Core Scenarios

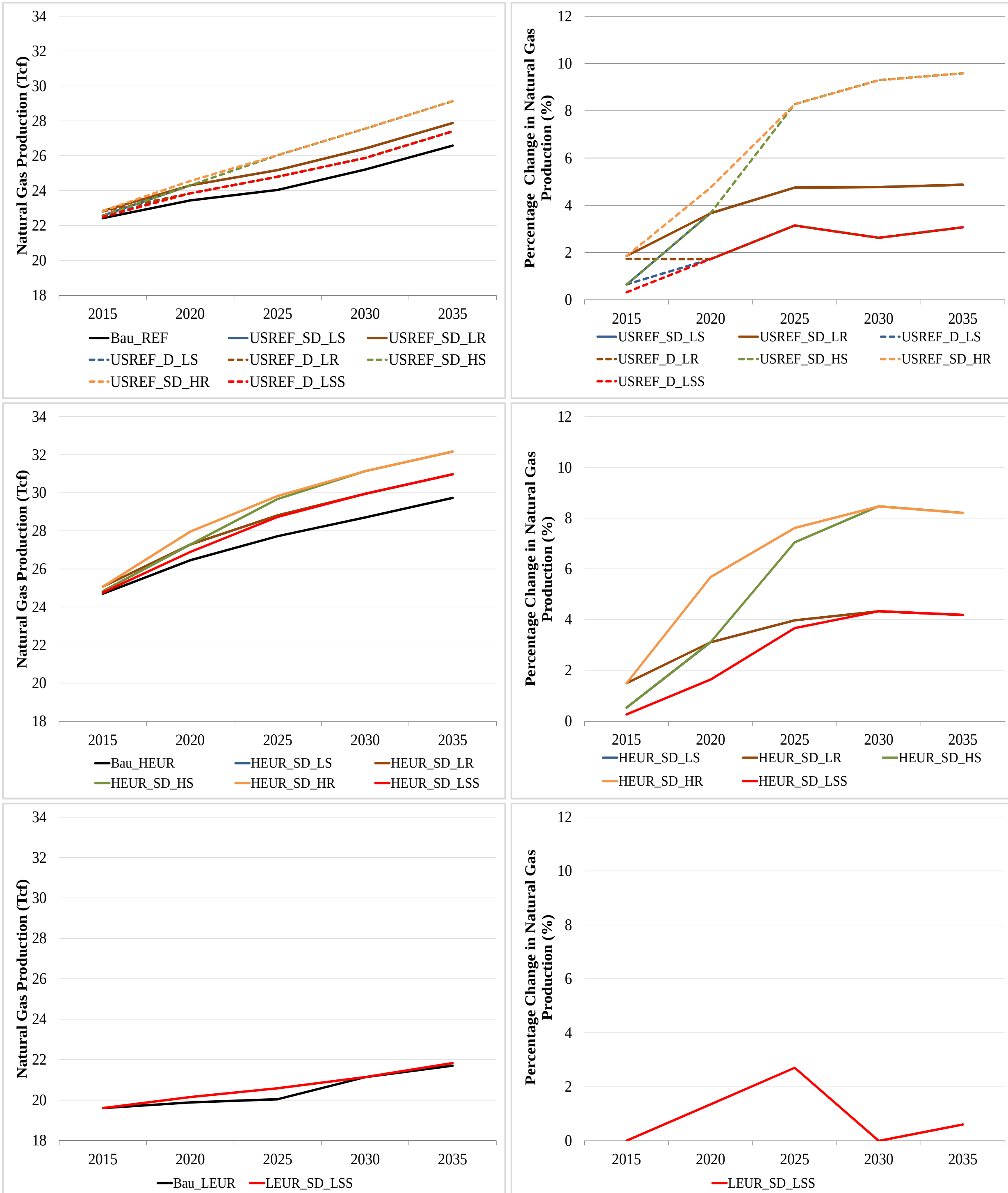


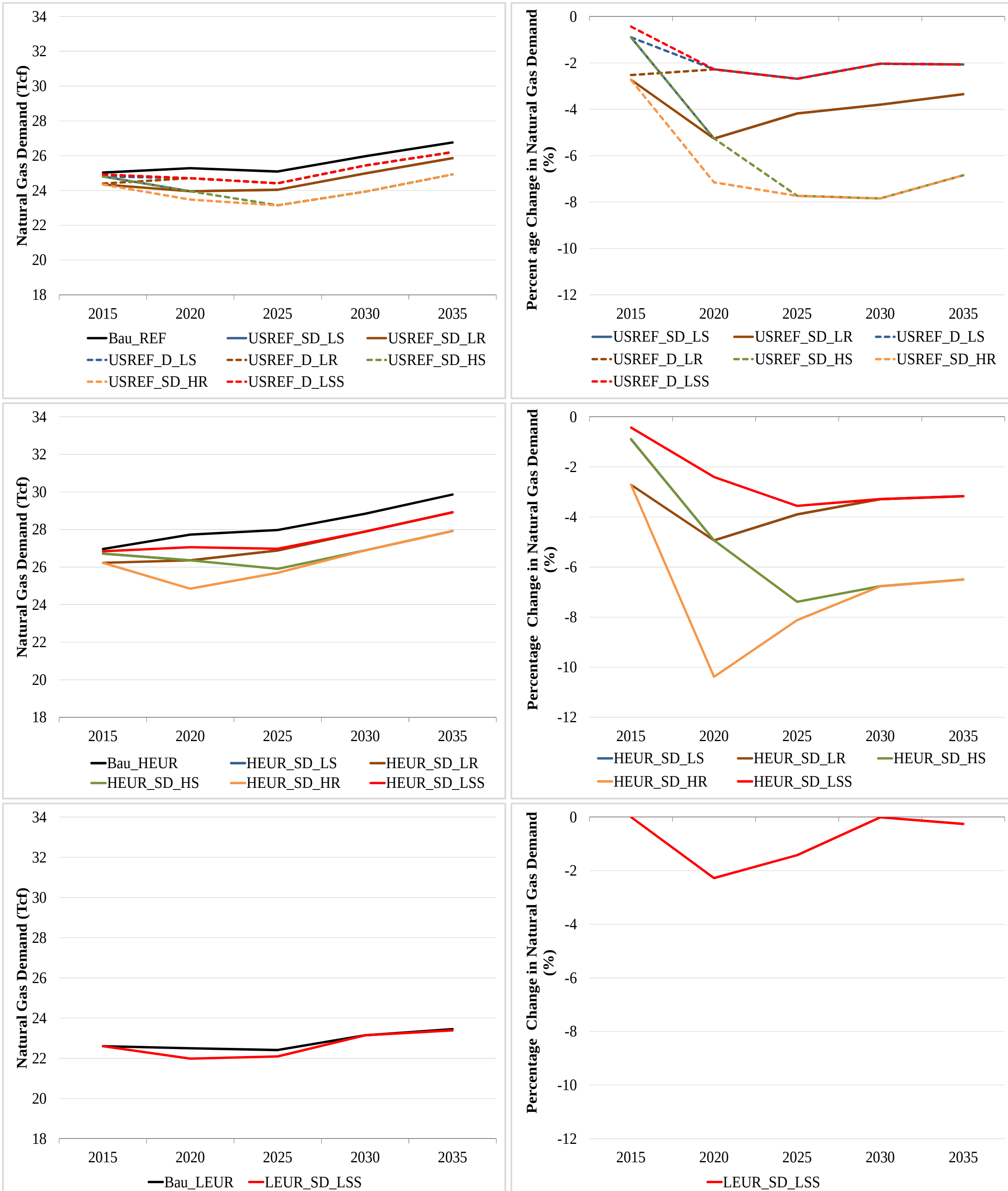
Figure 31: Change in Natural Gas Production Relative to the Corresponding Baseline (Tcf)

Scenario	Increase in Production (Tcf)					Ratio of Increase in Production to Export Volumes				
	2015	2020	2025	2030	2035	2015	2020	2025	2030	2035
USREF_SD_LR	0.42	0.86	1.14	1.20	1.29	38%	39%	52%	55%	59%
USREF_SD_LS	0.15	0.86	1.14	1.20	1.29	39%	39%	52%	55%	59%
USREF_SD_HR	0.42	1.11	1.99	2.34	2.55	38%	38%	51%	53%	58%
USREF_SD_HS	0.14	0.86	1.99	2.34	2.55	39%	39%	51%	54%	58%
USREF_D_LR	0.39	0.40	0.76	0.66	0.82	35%	41%	53%	56%	60%
USREF_D_LS	0.15	0.40	0.76	0.66	0.82	39%	41%	53%	56%	37%
USREF_D_LSS	0.07	0.40	0.76	0.66	0.82	40%	41%	53%	56%	60%
HEUR_SD_HR	0.37	1.50	2.11	2.43	2.44	34%	34%	48%	55%	56%
HEUR_SD_HS	0.13	0.82	1.95	2.43	2.44	35%	38%	49%	55%	56%
HEUR_SD_LR	0.37	0.82	1.10	1.24	1.24	34%	37%	50%	57%	57%
HEUR_SD_LS	0.13	0.82	1.10	1.24	1.24	35%	38%	50%	57%	57%
HEUR_SD_LSS	0.06	0.43	1.02	1.24	1.24	35%	39%	51%	57%	57%
LEUR_SD_LSS	0.00	0.27	0.54	0.00	0.13	0%	34%	63%	0%	69%

The increase in natural gas price has three main impacts on the production of goods and services that primarily depend upon natural gas as a fuel. First, the production processes would switch to fuels that are relatively cheaper. Second, the increase in fuel costs would result in a reduction in overall output. Lastly, the price increase would induce new technology that could more efficiently use natural gas. All of these impacts would reduce the demand for natural gas. The extent of this demand response depends on the ease of substituting away from natural gas in the production of goods and services. Pipeline imports into the U.S. are assumed to remain unchanged between scenarios within a given baseline case. Pipeline imports for the Reference, High EUR, and Low EUR cases are calibrated to the EIA's AEO 2011 projections. Figure 32 shows the natural gas demand changes for all cases and scenarios. The largest drop in natural gas demand occurs in 2020 when the natural gas price increases the most.

In the Reference and High EUR cases, the high scenarios are projected to have the largest demand response because overall prices are the highest. The largest drop in natural gas demand in 2020 for the Reference, High EUR, and Low EUR is about 8%, 10%, and 2%, respectively. In the long run (2035), natural gas demand drops by about 5% for the Reference and the High EUR cases while there is no response in demand under the Low EUR case. In general, the largest drop in natural gas demand corresponds to the year and scenario in which the price increase is the largest. For the High/Rapid scenario under the High EUR case, the largest drop occurs in 2020. Given that the implied price elasticity of demand is similar across all cases, the long-run demand impacts across cases tend to converge for the corresponding scenarios. Figure 32 shows the demand for all scenarios.

Figure 32: Natural Gas Demand and Percent Change for NERA Core Scenarios



C. Macroeconomic Impacts

1. Welfare

Expansion of natural gas exports changes the price of goods and services purchased by U.S. consumers. In addition, it also alters the income level of the consumers through increased wealth transfers in the form of tolling charges on LNG exports. These economic effects change the well-being of consumers as measured by equivalent variation in income. The equivalent variation measures the monetary impact that is equivalent to the change in consumers' utility from the price changes and provides an accurate measure of the impacts of a policy on consumers.[21]

We report the change in welfare relative to the baseline in Figure 33 for all the scenarios. A positive change in welfare means that the policy improves welfare from the perspective of the consumer. All export scenarios are welfare-improving for U.S. consumers. The welfare improvement is the largest under the high export scenarios even though the price impacts are also the largest. Under these export scenarios, the U.S. consumers[22] receive additional income from two sources. First, the LNG exports provide additional export revenues, and second, consumers who are owners of the liquefaction plants, receive take-or-pay tolling charges for the amount of LNG exports. These additional sources of income for U.S. consumers outweigh the loss associated with higher energy prices. Consequently, consumers, in aggregate, are better off as a result of opening up LNG exports.

Comparing welfare results across the scenarios, the change in welfare of the low export volume scenarios for the High EUR case is about half that of the corresponding scenarios for the Reference case (see Figure 33). The welfare impacts under the Reference case scenarios are higher than for corresponding High EUR case scenarios. Under the High EUR case, the wellhead price is much lower than the Reference case and therefore results in lower welfare impacts. Similarly in both the Reference and High EUR cases, the high export volume scenarios have much larger welfare impacts than the lower export volume scenarios. Again, the amount of wealth transfer under high export volume scenarios drives the higher welfare impacts. In fact, the U.S. consumers are better off in all of the export volume scenarios that were analyzed.

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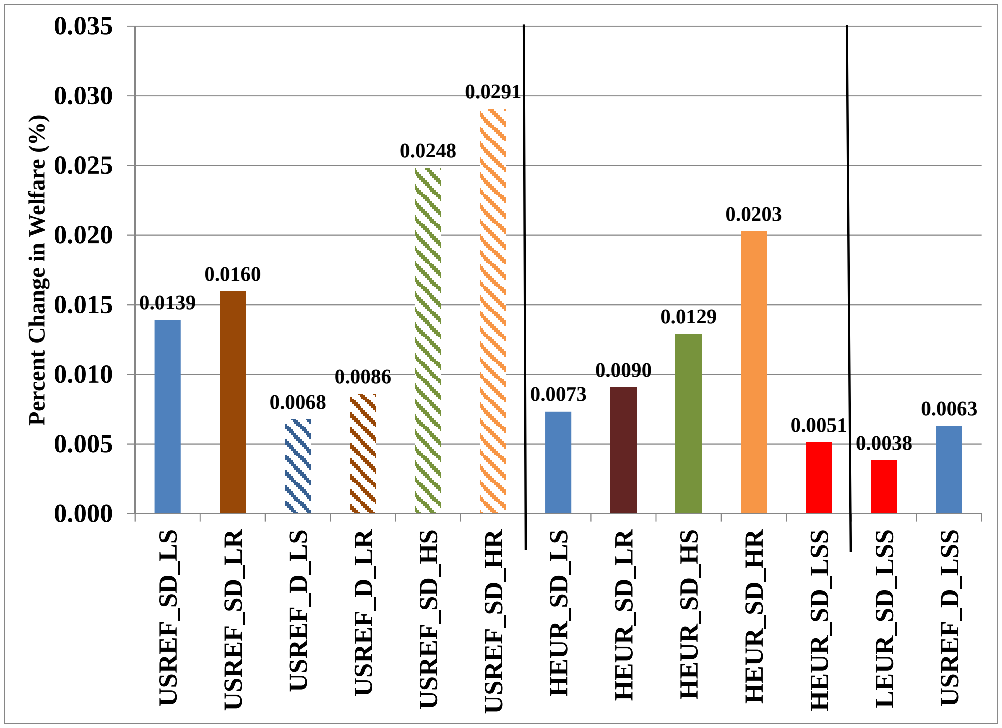
[21] *Intermediate Microeconomics: A Modern Approach*, Hal Varian, 7th Edition (December 2005), W.W. Norton & Company, pp. 255-256. "Another way to measure the impact of a price change in monetary terms is to ask how much money would have to be taken away from the consumer *before* the price change to leave him as well off as he would be *after* the price change. This is called the **equivalent variation** in income since it is the income change that is equivalent to the price change in terms of the change in utility." (emphasis in original).

[22] Consumers own all production processes and industries by virtue of owning stock in them.

Figure 33: Percentage Change in Welfare for NERA Core Scenarios[23]



2. GDP

GDP is another economic metric that is often used to evaluate the effectiveness of a policy by measuring the level of total economic activity in the economy. In the short run, the GDP impacts are positive as the economy benefits from investment in the liquefaction process, export revenues, resource income, and additional wealth transfer in the form of tolling charges. In the long run, GDP impacts are smaller but remain positive because of higher resource income.

A higher natural gas price does lead to higher energy costs and impacts industries that use natural gas extensively. However, the effects of higher price do not offset the positive impacts from wealth transfers and result in higher GDP over the model horizon in all scenarios. In the high scenarios and especially in periods with high natural gas prices, the export revenue stream increases while increasing the natural gas resource income as well. These effects combined with wealth transfer lead to the largest positive impacts on the GDP. In all scenarios, the impact on GDP is the largest in 2020 then drops as the export volumes stabilize. In a subsequent section, we discuss changes in different sources of household income.

Under the Reference case, the change in GDP in 2015 is between 0.01% for the Low/Slowest scenario to 0.05% in the High/Rapid scenario. The increase in GDP in the High EUR case is as large as 0.26% because resource income and LNG exports are the greatest. Overall, GDP

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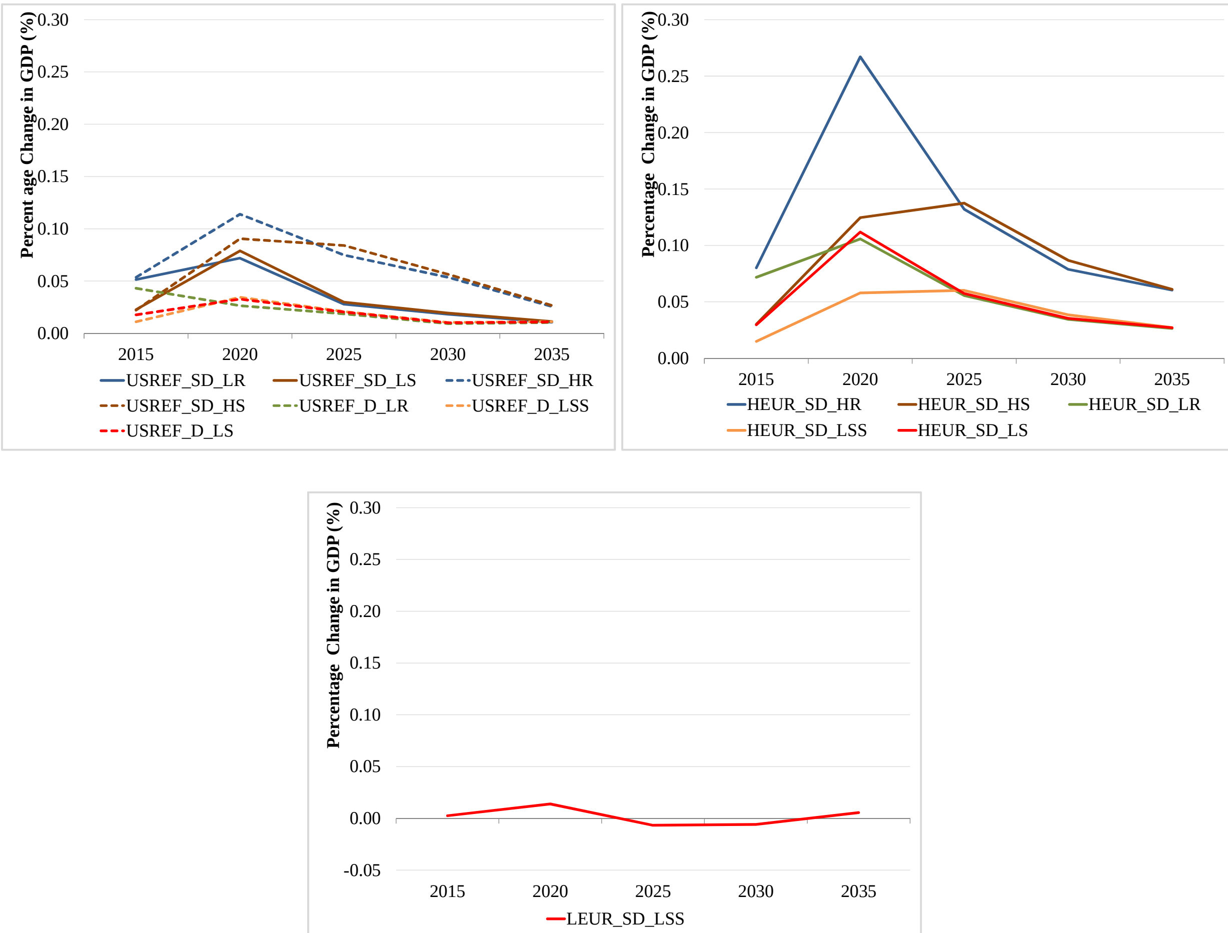
23 Welfare is calculated as a single number that represents in present value terms the amount that households are made better (worse) off over the entire time horizon from 2015 to 2035.

impacts are positive for all scenarios with higher impact in the short run and minimum impact in the long run.

Figure 34: Percentage Change in GDP for NERA Core Scenarios

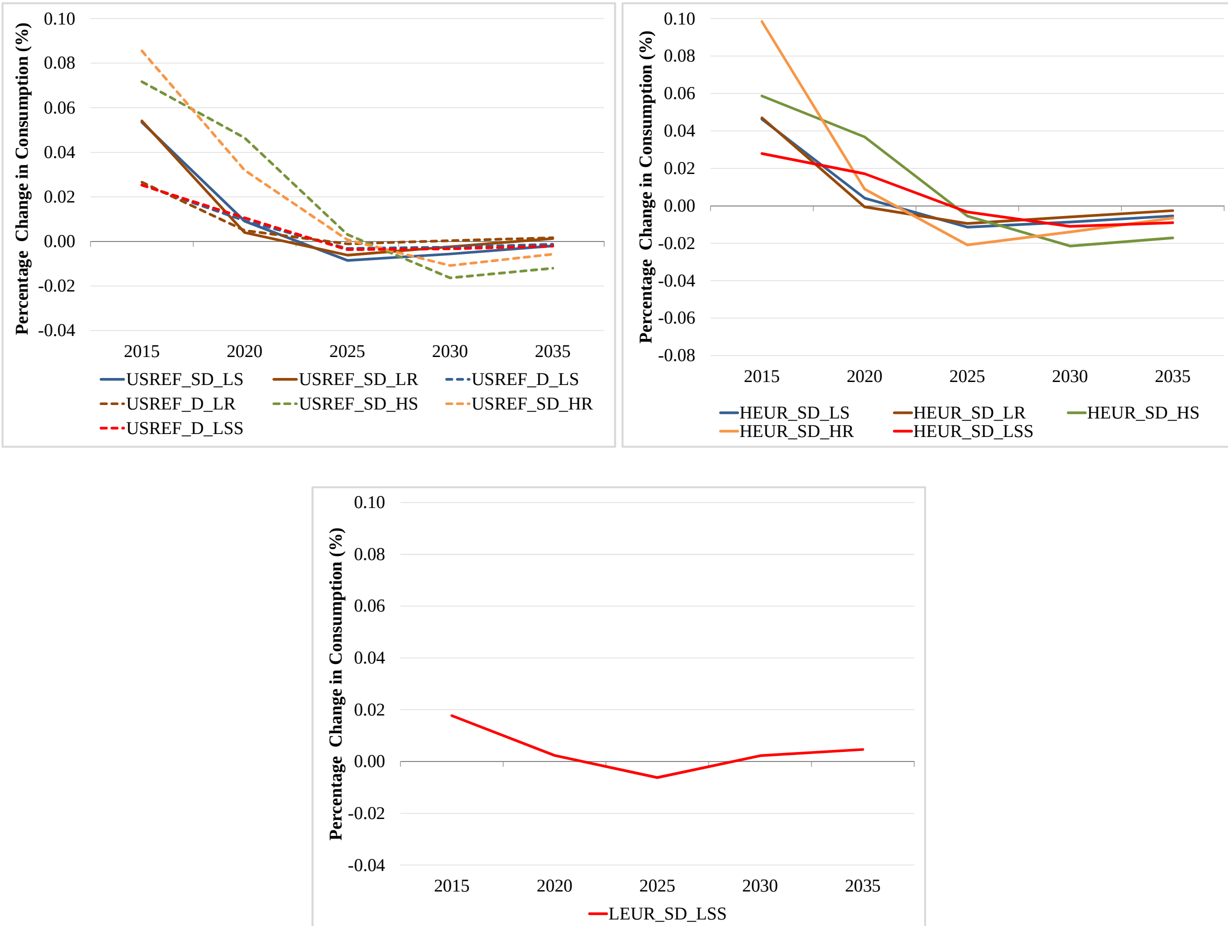


3. Aggregate Consumption

Aggregate consumption measures the total spending on goods and services in the economy. In 2015, consumption increases from the No-Export case between 0.02% for the low scenarios to 0.8% for the high scenarios. Consumption impacts for the High EUR scenarios also show similar impacts (Figure 35). Under the High/Rapid scenarios, the increase in consumption in 2015 is much greater (0.10%) because higher export volumes result in leading to much larger export revenue impacts. By 2035, consumption decreases by less than 0.02%.

Higher aggregate spending or consumption resulting from a policy suggests higher economic activity and more purchasing power for the consumers. The scenario results of the Reference case, seen in Figure 35, show that the consumption increases or remains unchanged until 2025 for almost all of the scenarios. These results suggest that the wealth transfer from exports of LNG provides net positive income for the consumers to spend after taking into account potential decreases in capital and wage income from reduced output.

Figure 35: Percentage Change in Consumption for NERA Core Scenarios



4. Aggregate Investment

Investment in the economy occurs to replace old capital and augment new capital formation. In this study, additional investment also takes place to convert current regasification plants to liquefaction plants and/or build new green-field liquefaction plants. The investment that is necessary to support the expansion of LNG exports is largest in 2015.[24] The investment outlay under each of the LNG export expansion scenarios is discussed in Appendix C. In 2015 and 2020, investment increases to support higher consumption (and production) of goods and services and investment in the liquefaction plants. As seen in Figure 36, investment increases for all scenarios, except for the Low/Rapid scenarios. Investment in 2015 could increase by as much as 0.10%. As the price of natural gas increases, the economy demands or produces fewer goods and services. This results in lower wages and capital income for consumers. Hence, under such economic conditions, consumers save less of their income for investment. The investment drop is the largest under the High EUR case for the High/Rapid scenario (-0.2%) where industrial

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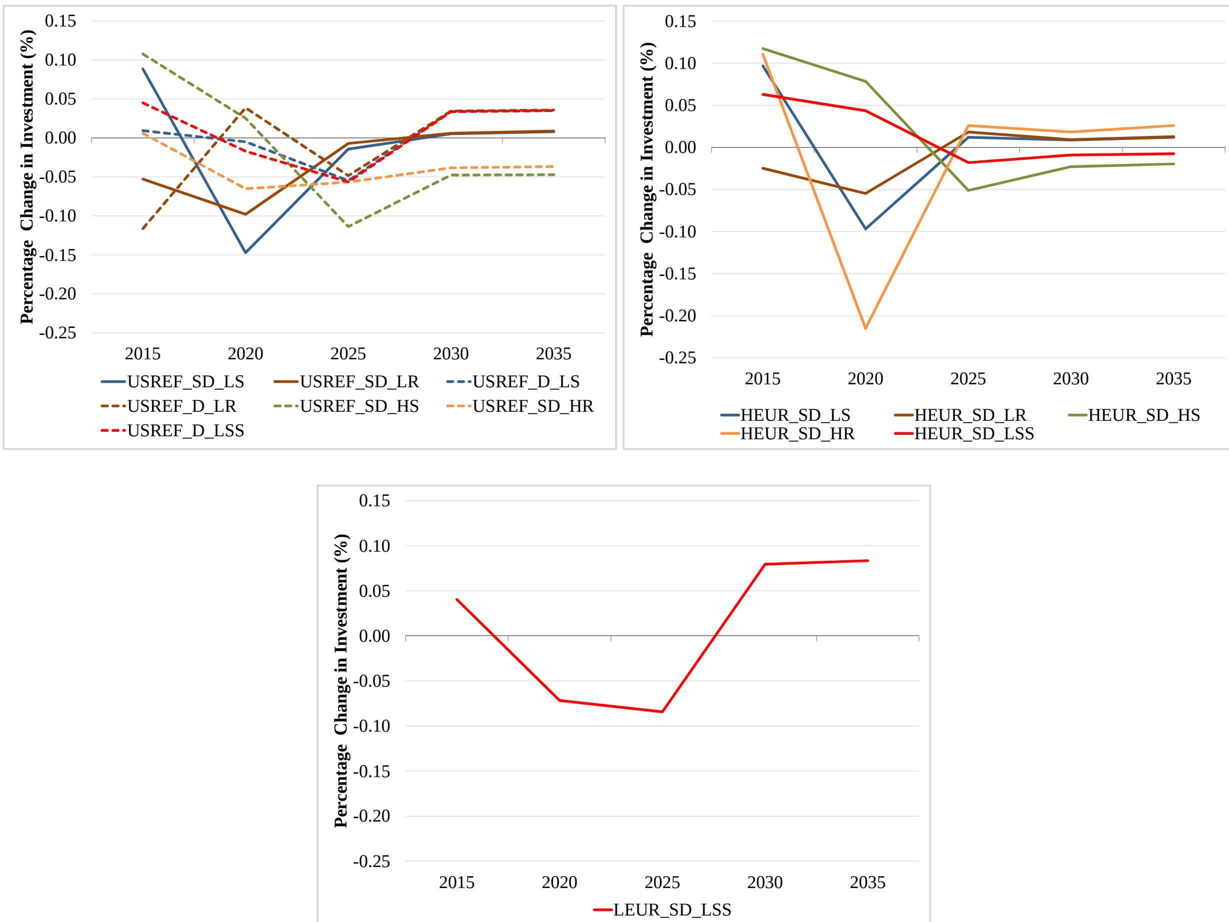
[24] Each model year represents a span of five years, thus the investment in 2015 represents an average annual investment between 2015 and 2019.

decline is the largest because of the increases in energy prices in general and the natural gas price in particular. As with consumption, the results for the low scenarios under the Reference and High EUR cases (with the same level of LNG exports) show similar investment changes. The range of change in investment over the long run (2030 through 2035) for all scenarios is between -0.05% and 0.08%.

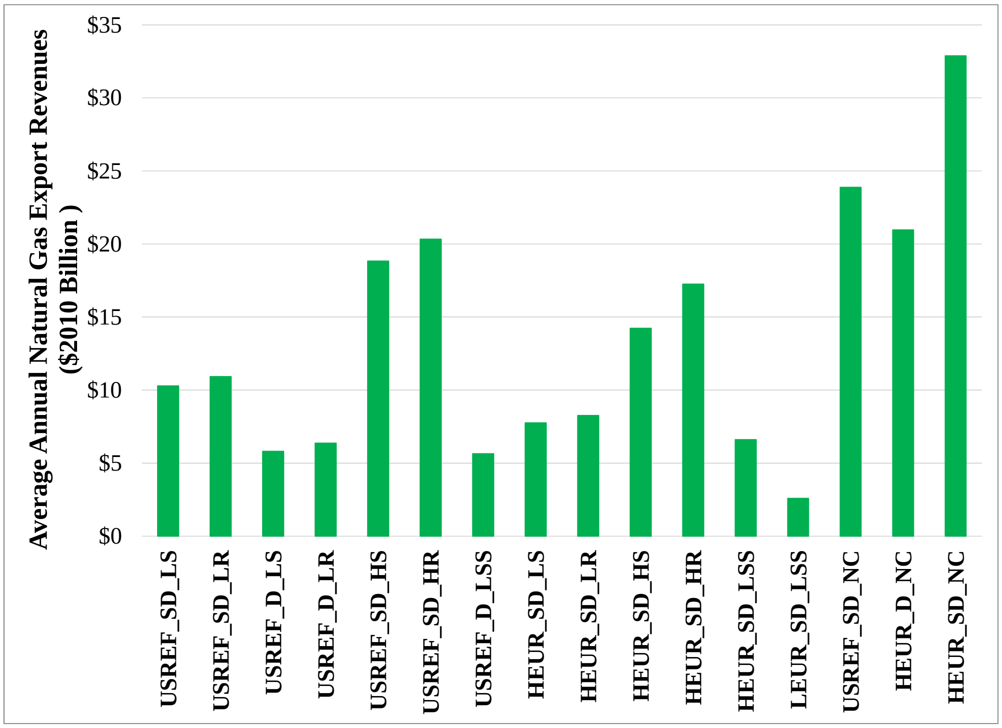
Figure 36: Percentage Change in Investment for NERA Core Scenarios



5. Natural Gas Export Revenues

As a result of higher levels of natural gas exports and increased natural gas prices, LNG export revenues offer an additional source of income. Depending on the baseline case and scenario used, the average annual increase in revenues from LNG exports ranges from about \$2.6 billion (2010\$) to almost \$32.9 billion (2010\$) as seen in Figure 37. Unsurprisingly, the high end of this range is from the unconstrained scenario, while the low end is the Low/Slowest scenario. The average revenue increase in all of the high scenarios for each baseline is roughly double the increase in the low scenarios. The difference in revenue increases between comparable rapid and slow scenarios is about 6% to 20%, with the low scenarios showing a smaller difference between their rapid and slow counterparts than the high scenarios.

Figure 37: Average Annual Increase in Natural Gas Export Revenues

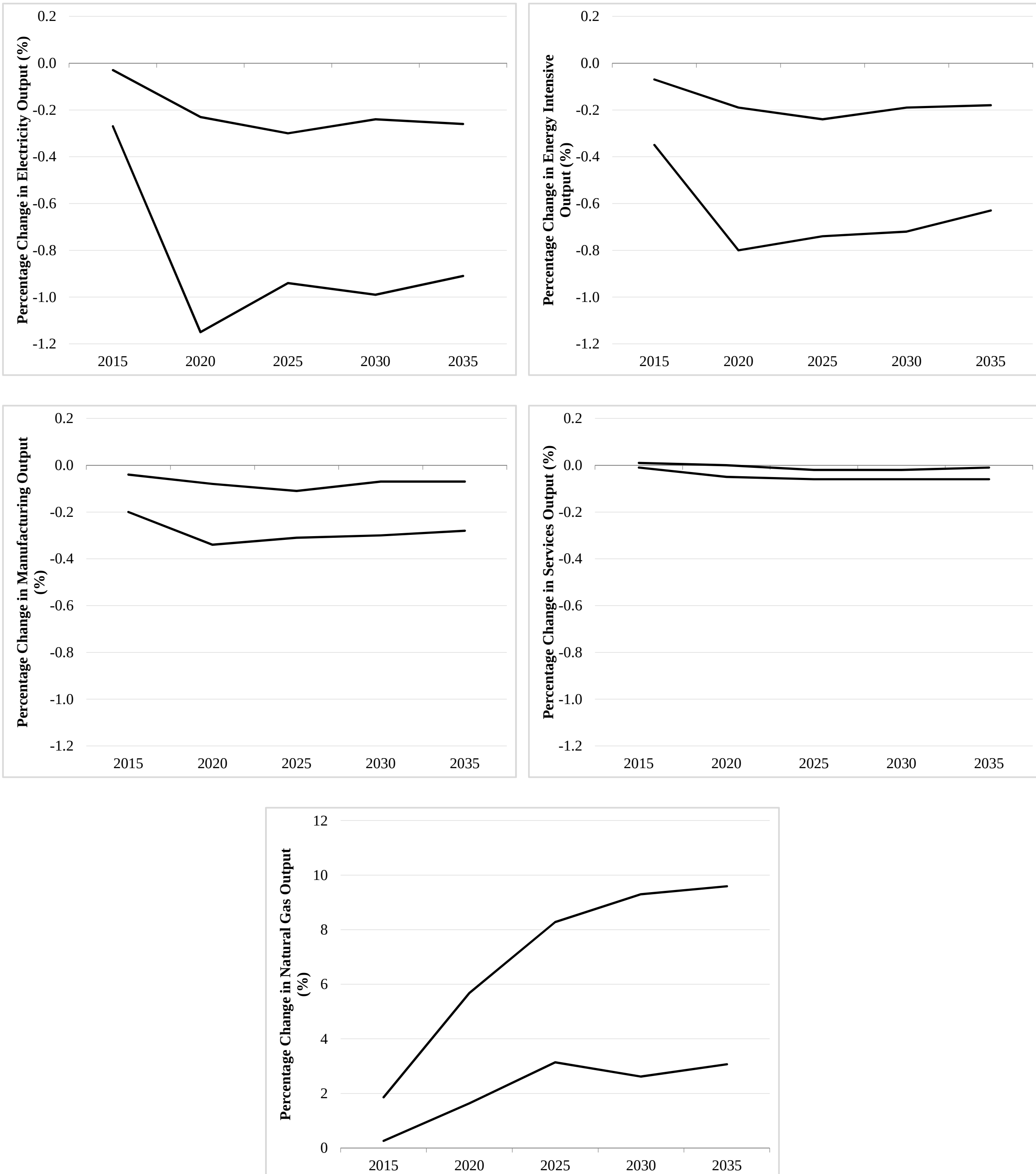


6. Range of Sectoral Output Changes for Some Key Economic Sectors

Changes in natural gas prices have real effects throughout the economy. Economic sectors such as the electricity sector, energy-intensive sectors ("EIS"), the manufacturing sector, and the services sector are dependent on natural gas as a fuel and are therefore vulnerable to natural gas price increases. These particular sectors will be disproportionately impacted leading to lower output. In contrast, natural gas producers and sellers will benefit from higher natural gas prices and output. These varying impacts will shift income patterns between economic sectors. The overall effect on the economy depends on the degree to which the economy adjusts by fuel switching, introducing new technologies, or mitigating costs by compensating parties that are disproportionately impacted.

Figure 38 illustrates the minimum and maximum range of changes in some economic sectors. The range of impacts on sectoral output varies considerably by sector. The electricity and EIS sectoral output changes are the largest across all scenarios. Maximum losses in electricity sector output could be between 0.2% and 1%, when compared across all scenarios while the decline in output of EIS could be between 0.2% and 0.8%. The manufacturing sector, being a modest consumer of natural gas, sees a fairly narrow range of plus or minus 0.5% loss in output around 0.2%. Since the services sector is not natural gas intensive (one-third of the natural gas is consumed by the commercial sector), the impact this sector's output is minimal.

Figure 38: Minimum and Maximum Output Changes for Some Key Economic Sectors

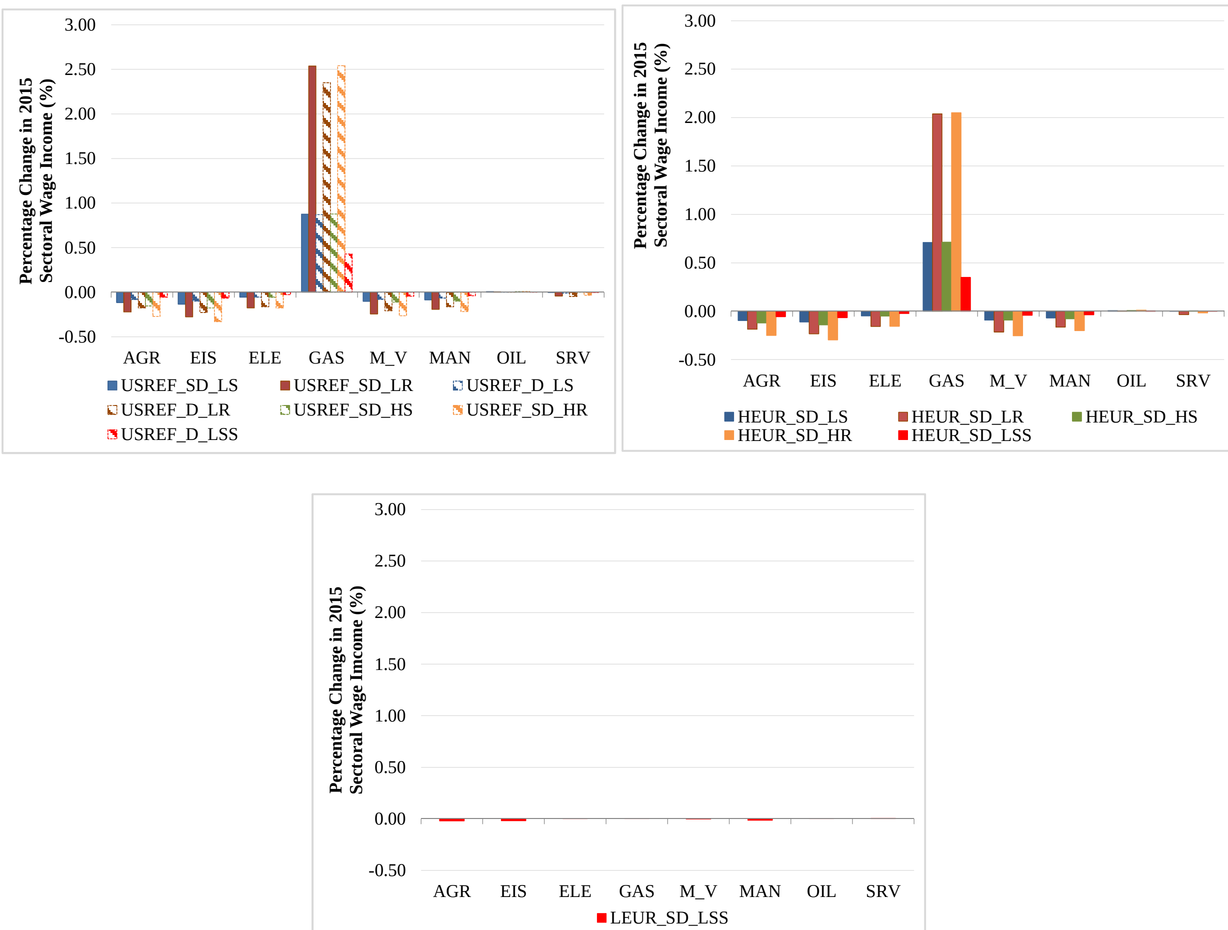


7. Wage Income and Other Components of Household Income

Sectoral output, discussed in the previous section, translates directly into changes in input levels for a given sector. In general, if the output of a sector increases so do the inputs associated with the production of this sector's goods and services. An increase in natural gas output leads to more wage income in the natural gas sector as domestic production increases. In the short run, industries are able to adjust to changes in demand for output by increasing employment if the sector expands or by reducing employment if the sector contracts.

Figure 39 shows the change in total wage income in 2015 for all scenarios. Wage income decreases in all industrial sectors except for the natural gas sector. Services and manufacturing sectors see the largest change in wage income in 2015 as these are sectors that are highly labor intensive.

Figure 39: Percentage Change in 2015 Sectoral Wage Income



As seen from the discussion above, the overall macroeconomic impacts are driven by the changes in the sources of household income. Households derive income from capital, labor, and resources. These value-added incomes also form a large share of GDP and aggregate consumption. Hence, to tie all the above impacts together, we illustrate the magnitude of each of the income subcomponents and how they relate to the overall macroeconomic impacts in Figure 40.

Figure 40: Changes in Subcomponents of GDP in 2020 and 2035

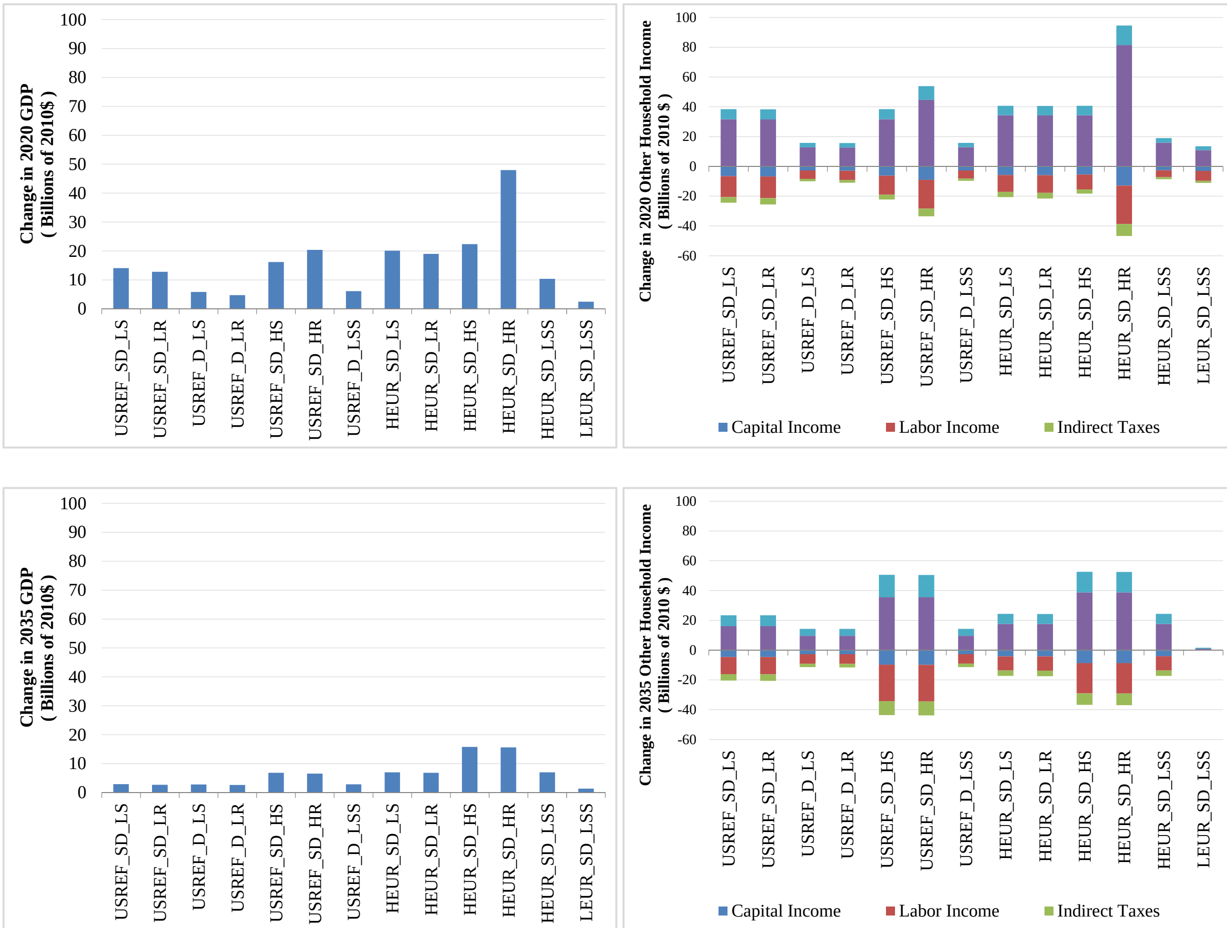


Figure 40 shows a snapshot of changes in GDP and household income components in 2020 and 2035. GDP impacts in 2020 provide the largest increase, while 2035 impacts provide a picture of the long run changes. Capital income, wage income, and indirect tax revenues drop in all scenarios, while resource income and net transfers associated with LNG export revenues increase in all scenarios. As previously discussed, capital and wage income declines are caused by high fuel prices leading to reductions in output and hence lower demand for input factors of production. However, there is positive income from higher resource value and net wealth transfer. This additional source of income is unique to the export expansion policy. This leads to the total increase in household income exceeding the total decrease. The net positive effect in real income translates into higher GDP and consumption.[25]

[25] The net transfer income increases even more in the case where the U.S. captures quota rents leading to a net benefit to the U.S. economy.

D. Impacts on Energy-Intensive Sectors

1. Output and Wage Income

The EIS sector includes the following 5 energy using subsectors identified in the IMPLAN[26] database:

1) Paper and pulp manufacturing (NAICS 322);

2) Chemical manufacturing (NAICS 326);

3) Glass manufacturing (NAICS 3272);

4) Cement manufacturing (NAICS 3273); and

5) Primary metal manufacturing (NAICS 331) that includes iron, steel and aluminum.[27]

As the name of this sector indicates, these industries are very energy intensive and are dependent on natural gas as a key input.[28]

The model results for EIS industrial output are shown in Figure 41 for all scenarios. Because of the heavy reliance on natural gas as input, the impact on the sector is driven by natural gas prices. Under the Reference case for the high scenarios, output declines by about 0.7% while under the High EUR case output declines by about 0.8% in 2020 and then settles at around 0.6%. The reduction in EIS output for the low scenarios is less than 0.4%. Under the Low EUR case and Low/Slowest export volume scenario EIS, output changes minimally. Overall, EIS reduction is less that 1.0%.

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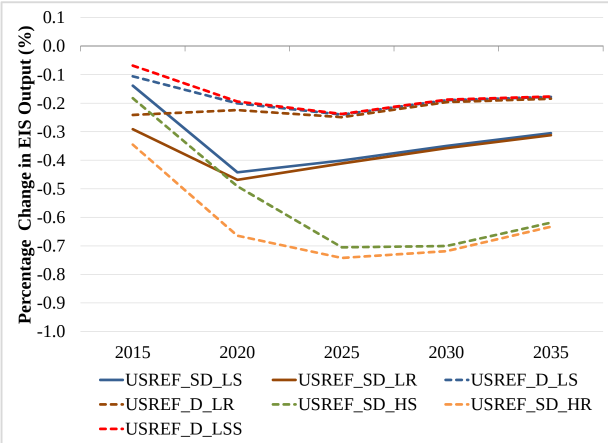
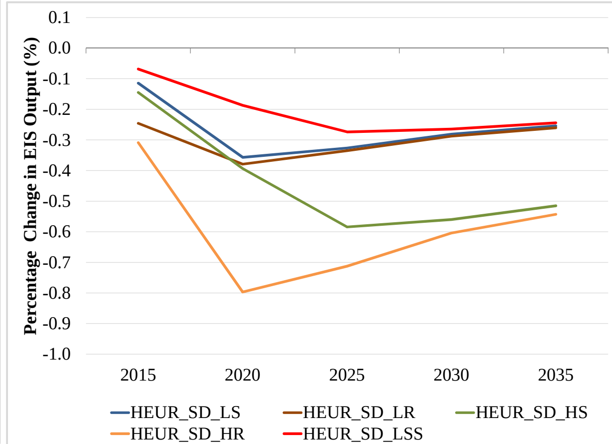
[26] IMPLAN dataset provides inter-industry production and financial transactions for all states of the U.S. (www.implan.com).

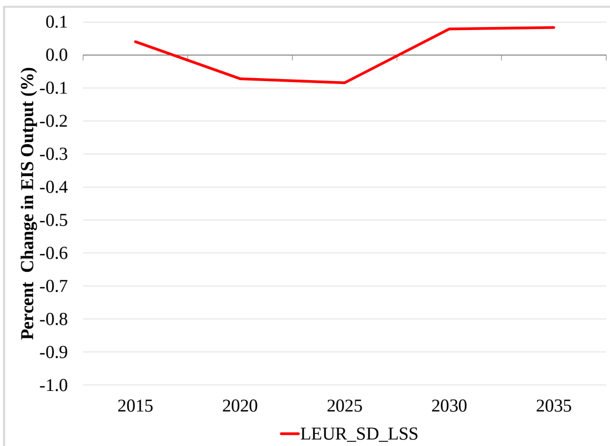
[27] The North American Industry Classification System ("NAICS") is the standard used to classify business establishments.

[28] For this study, we have represented the EIS sector based on a 3-digit classification that aggregates upstream and downstream industries within each class. Thus, in aggregating at this level the final energy intensity would be less than one would expect if only we were to aggregate only the downstream industries or at higher NAICS-digit levels.

Figure 41: Percentage Change in EIS Output for NERA Core Scenarios



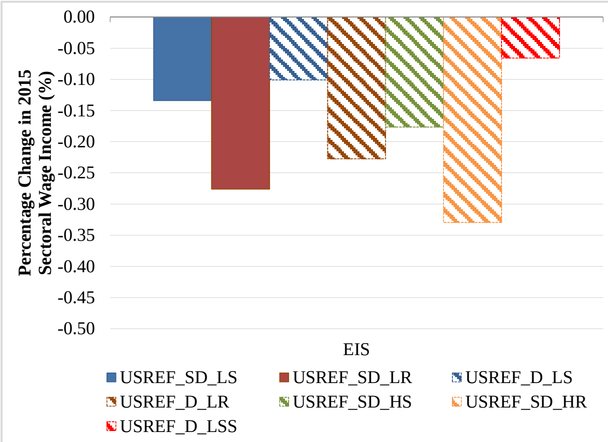


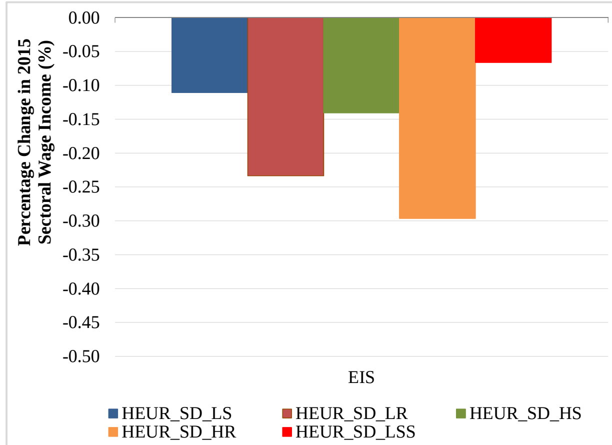


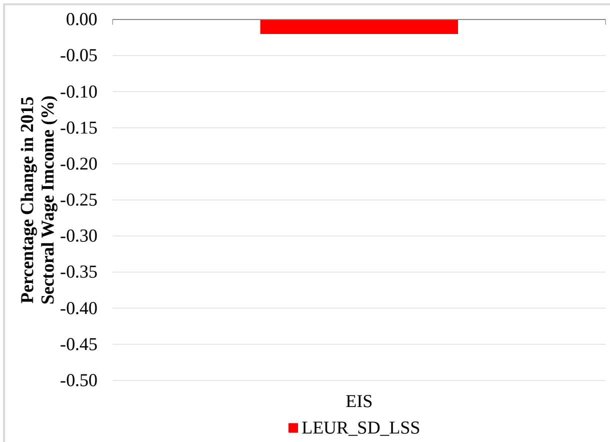
As mentioned in the previous sections, a reduction in sectoral output means intermediate input demand also is reduced. The EIS sector declines result in lower demand for labor, capital, energy, and other intermediate goods and services.

Figure 42 shows the changes in wage income in 2015. Under the Reference outlook, wage income would be about 0.10% to about 0.40% below baseline levels, which still represents real wage growth over time. The largest slowdown in the growth of wage income occurs in periods where reductions in EIS industrial output relative to baseline are the largest. Since the increase in natural gas prices is highest under the high/Rapid scenarios with the HEUR Shale gas outlook, the largest total labor compensation decrease in EIS occurs in that scenario, a decrease of about 0.70% in 2020 relative to baseline. Wage income never falls short of baseline levels by more than 1% in any year or any industry in any scenario.

Figure 42: Percentage Change in 2015 Energy Intensive Sector Wage Income for NERA Core Scenarios







2. Rate of Change

Even if this entire change in wage income in EIA represented a shift of jobs out of the sector, the change in EIS employment would be relatively small compared to normal turnover in the industries concerned and, under normal economic conditions, would not necessarily result in any change in aggregate employment other than a temporary increase in the number of workers between jobs. This can be seen by comparing the average annual change in employment to annual turnover rates by industry. The annual Job Openings and Labor Turnover (JOLTS) survey done by the Bureau of Labor Statistics[29] shows that the lowest annual quits rate observed, representing voluntary termination of employment in the worst year of the recession, was 6.9% for durable goods manufacturing. The largest change in wage income in the peak year of a scenario, with the largest increases in natural gas prices, is a reduction of about 5% in a 5-year period, or less than 1% per year. This is less than 15% of the normal turnover rate in that industry.

[29] "Job Openings and Labor Turnover," Bureau of Labor Statistics, January 2012, Table 16.

3. Harm is Likely to be Confined to Very Narrow Segments of Industry

To identify where higher natural gas prices might cause severe impacts such as plant closings (due to an inability to compete with overseas suppliers not experiencing similar natural gas price increases), it is necessary to look at much smaller slices of U.S. manufacturing. Fortunately, this was done in a study by an Interagency Task Force in 2007 that analyzed the impacts of proposed climate legislation, the Waxman-Markey bill (H.R.2454), on energy-intensive, trade-exposed industries ("EITE") using data from the 2007 Economic Census.[30] The cap-and-trade program in the Waxman-Markey bill would have caused increases in energy costs and impacts on EITE even broader than would the allowing of LNG exports because the Waxman-Markey bill applied to all fuels and increased the costs of fuels used for about 70% of electricity generation. Thus, the Task Force's data and conclusions are directly relevant.

The Interagency Report defined an industry's energy intensity as "its energy expenditures as a share of the value of its domestic production."[31] The measure of energy intensity used in the Interagency Report included all sources of energy, including electricity, coal, fuel oil, and natural gas. Thus, natural gas intensity will be even less than energy intensity.

The Interagency Report further defined an energy-intensive, trade-exposed industry (those that were "presumptively eligible" for emission allowance allocations under the Waxman-Markey bill) as ones where the industry's "energy intensity or its greenhouse gas intensity is at least 5 percent, and its trade intensity is at least 15 percent."[32]

The Interagency Report found:

> *According to the preliminary assessment of the nearly 500 six-digit manufacturing industries, 44 would be deemed "presumptively eligible" for allowance rebates under H.R. 2454 ["presumptive eligibility" screened out industries that did not have a significant exposure to foreign competition]. Of these, 12 are in the chemicals sector, 4 are in the paper sector, 13 are in the nonmetallic minerals sector (e.g., cement and glass manufacturers), and 8 are in the primary metals sector (e.g., aluminum and steel manufacturers). Many of these sectors are at or near the beginning of the value chain, and provide the basic materials needed for manufacturing advanced technologies. In addition to these 44 industries, the processing subsectors of a few mineral industries are also likely to be deemed "presumptively eligible." In total, in 2007, the "presumptively eligible" industries accounted for 12 percent of total manufacturing output and*

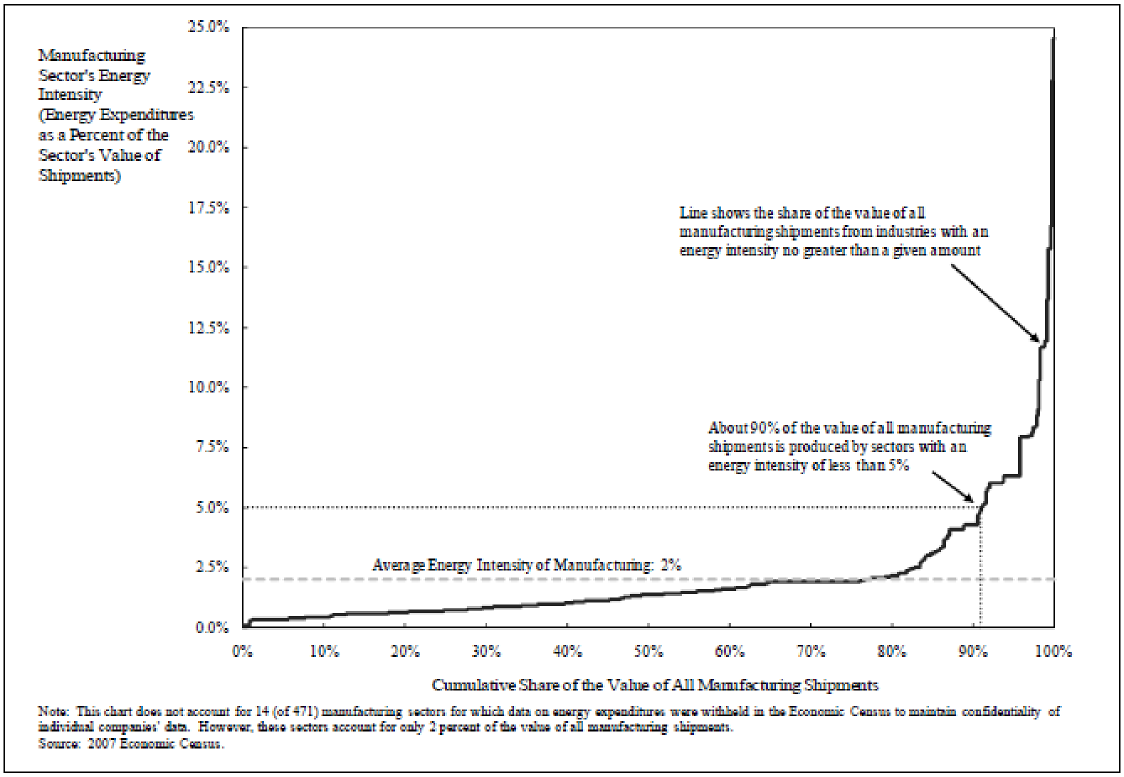
30 "The Effects of H.R.2454 on International Competitiveness and Emission Leakage in Energy-Intensive Trade-Exposed Industries," An Interagency Report Responding to a Request from Senators Bayh, Specter, Stabenow, McCaskill, and Brown December 2, 2009.

31 "The Effects of H.R. 2454 on International Competitiveness and Emission Leakage in Energy-Intensive Trade-Exposed Industries," p. 8.

32 "The Effects of H.R. 2454 on International Competitiveness and Emission Leakage in Energy-Intensive Trade-Exposed Industries," p. 8.

employed about 780,000 workers, or about 6 percent of manufacturing employment and half a percent of total U.S. non-farm employment. [Figure 1 shows that] most industrial sectors have energy intensities of less than 5 percent, and will therefore have minimal direct exposure to a climate policy's economic impacts.[33]

Figure 43: Interagency Report (Figure 1)



Source: "The Effects of H.R. 2454 on International Competitiveness and Emission Leakage in Energy-Intensive Trade-Exposed Industries," p. 7.

If we were to use the same criterion for EITE for natural gas, it would imply that an energy-intensive industry was one that would have expenditures on natural gas at the projected industrial price for natural gas greater than 5% of its value of output.

4. Vulnerable Industries are not High Value-Added Industries

A high value-added industry is one in which wage income and profits are a large share of revenues, implying that purchases of other material inputs and energy are a relatively small share. This implies that in a high value-added industry, increases in natural gas prices would have a relatively small impact on overall costs of production. Exactly that pattern is seen in Figure 44, which shows that the industries with the highest energy intensity are low margin

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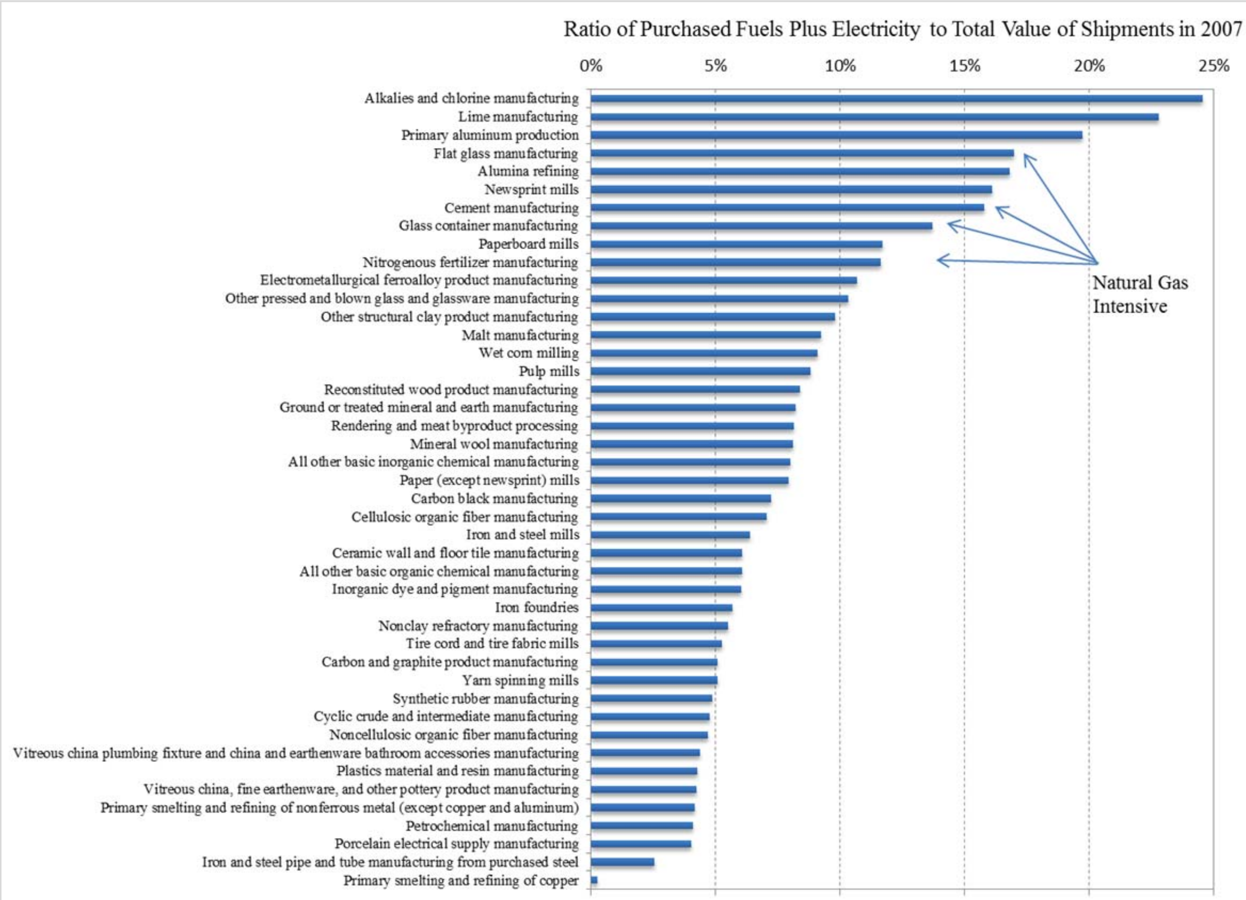
[33] "The Effects of H.R. 2454 on International Competitiveness and Emission Leakage in Energy-Intensive Trade-Exposed Industries," p. 9.

industries that use high heats for refining, smelting, or beneficiation processes, or else they are bulk chemical processes with low value-to-weight ratios and large amounts of natural gas used as a feedstock.

Figure 44: Energy Intensity of Industries "Presumptively Eligible" for Assistance under Waxman-Markey



Source: Based on information from Census.gov. Energy intensity is measured as the value of purchased fuels plus electricity divided by the total value of shipments.

For manufacturing as a whole in 2007,[34] the ratio of value added to the total value of shipments was 78%. In the nitrogenous fertilizer industry, as an example of a natural gas-intensive, trade-exposed industry, the ratio of value added to value of shipments was only 44%. It is also a small industry with a total of 3,920 employees nationwide in 2007.[35] The ratio of value added to value of shipments for the industries that would be classified as EITE under the Waxman-Markey criteria was approximately 41%.[36] Thus there is little evidence that trade-exposed industries that

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[34] The date of the most recent Economic Census that provides these detailed data is the year 2007.

[35] http://factfinder2.census.gov/faces/tableservices/jsf/pages/productview.xhtml?src=bkmk.

[36] Excludes two six-digit NAICS codes for which data was withheld to protect confidentiality, 331411 and 331419. Source: http://factfinder2.census.gov/faces/tableservices/jsf/pages/productview.xhtml?src=bkmk.

would experience the largest cost increases due to higher natural gas prices are high value-added industries.

The Interagency Study similarly observed:

> *On the whole, energy expenditures equal only 2 percent of the value of U.S. manufacturing's output (see Figure 1) and three-quarters of all manufacturing output is from industries with energy expenditures below 2 percent of the value of their output. Thus, the vast majority of U.S. industry will be relatively unaffected by a greenhouse gas cap-and-trade program.*[37]

The same conclusion should apply to the effects of price increases attributable to LNG exports.

5. Impacts on Energy-Intensive Industries at the Plant or 5- to 6-Digit NAICS Level

The issue of EITE industries was investigated exhaustively during Congressional deliberations on climate legislation in the last Congress. In particular, H.R.2454 (the Waxman-Markey bill) set out specific criteria for classification as EITE. A broad consensus developed among analysts that at the 2 to 4-digit level of NAICS classification there were no industries that fit those criteria for EITE, and that only at the 5- to 6-digit level would there be severe impacts on any specific industry.[38] The phrase "deep but narrow" was frequently used to characterize the nature of competitive impacts. Some examples of industries that did fit the criteria for EITE were 311251 (nitrogenous fertilizer) within the 31 (2-digit chemicals) industry and 331111 (iron and steel mills) within the 3311 (4-digit iron and steel) industry. Analysis in this report strongly suggests that competitive impacts of higher natural gas prices attributable to LNG exports will be very narrow, but it was not possible to model impacts on each of the potentially affected sectors.

E. Sensitivities

1. Lost Values from Quota Rents

When scarcity is created there is value associated with supplying an additional unit. In economic terms, a quantity restriction to create this scarcity is called a quota. By enacting a quota, one creates a price difference between the world supply price (netback price) and the domestic price. This generates economic rent referred to as the "quota rent." Mathematically, a quota rent is the quota amount times the difference between the world net back price and the domestic price. A quota rent provides an additional source of revenue to the seller.

The quota levels for the13 scenarios analyzed and discussed in this study correspond to the export volumes assumed in the EIA Study. We assume that the quota rents are held by foreign

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37 "The Effects of H.R. 2454 on International Competitiveness and Emission Leakage in Energy-Intensive Trade-Exposed Industries," p. 7.

38 Richard Morgenstern, *et al.*, RFF Workshop Report.

parties. That is, the rents do not recycle back into the U.S. economy. In this section, we look at how the welfare results would change if the quota rents were recycled back to the U.S.

Figure 45 shows the quota price in 2010 dollars per Mcf for all 13 scenarios determined in the GNGM. The quota price is the marginal price of the quota, or the quota rents divided by the level of exports. The quota price is zero for scenarios that have a non-binding quota constraint. That is, export volumes are less than the quota levels. All of the scenarios under the High EUR and Low EUR cases have binding quota constraints leading to a positive quota price. The quota price is highest in the scenarios in which the domestic natural gas price is the lowest (*i.e.*, the low scenarios for the High EUR outlook). The largest quota price results in the High EUR case with the Low/Slowest export expansion scenario (HEUR_SD_LSS). For this scenario, the quota price is around $3/Mcf.

Figure 45: Quota Price (2010$/Mcf)

Scenario	Quota Price (2010$/Mcf)				
	2015	2020	2025	2030	2035
USREF_SD_LS	1.24	0.52	1.11	1.2	1.62
USREF_SD_LR	1.09	0.52	1.11	1.2	1.62
USREF_D_LS	-	-	-	-	-
USREF_D_LR	-	-	-	-	-
USREF_SD_HS	1.24	0.52	-	0.08	0.67
USREF_SD_HR	0.74	-	-	0.08	0.67
USREF_D_LSS	0.46	-	-	-	-
HEUR_SD_LS	2.23	1.88	2.71	2.69	3.28
HEUR_SD_LR	1.8	1.88	2.71	2.69	3.28
HEUR_SD_HS	2.23	1.88	1.73	1.73	2.47
HEUR_SD_HR	1.8	0.52	1.53	1.73	2.47
HEUR_SD_LSS	2.34	2.63	2.81	2.69	3.28
LEUR_SD_LSS	-	-	-	-	-

Figure 46: Quota Rents (Billions of 2010$)

Scenario	Quota Rents* (Billions of 2010$)				
	2015	2020	2025	2030	2035
USREF_SD_LS	0.41	1.02	2.19	2.37	3.19
USREF_SD_LR	1.08	1.02	2.19	2.37	3.19
USREF_D_LS	-	-	-	-	-
USREF_D_LR	-	-	-	-	-
USREF_SD_HS	0.41	1.02	-	0.32	2.64
USREF_SD_HR	0.73	-	-	0.32	2.64
USREF_D_LSS	0.07	-	-	-	-
HEUR_SD_LS	0.74	3.71	5.34	5.30	6.46
HEUR_SD_LR	1.78	3.71	5.34	5.30	6.46
HEUR_SD_HS	0.74	3.71	6.26	6.82	9.74
HEUR_SD_HR	1.78	2.05	6.03	6.82	9.74
HEUR_SD_LSS	0.38	2.60	5.08	5.30	6.46
LEUR_SD_LSS	-	-	-	-	-

** The quota rents are based on net export volumes.*

The quota rents on the other hand, depend on the price and quantity. Even though the price is the highest under the low export scenarios, as seen in Figure 45, quota rents are the largest for the high export expansion scenarios. Under the high quota rent scenario, HEUR_SD_HR, the average annual quota rents range from $1.8 billion to $9.7 billion. Over the model horizon, 2015 through 2035, maximum total quota rents amount to about $130 billion (Figure 47). This is an important source of additional income that would have potential benefits to the U.S. economy. However, in the event that U.S. companies are unable to capture these rents, this source of additional income would not accrue to the U.S. economy.

Figure 47: Total Lost Values

Scenario	Total Lost Value from 2015-2035 (Billions of 2010$)	Average Annual Lost Value (Billions of 2010$)
USREF_SD_LS	$45.92	$1.84
USREF_SD_LR	$49.25	$1.97
USREF_D_LS	$0.00	$0.00
USREF_D_LR	$0.00	$0.00
USREF_SD_HS	$21.97	$0.88
USREF_SD_HR	$18.45	$0.74
USREF_D_LSS	$0.37	$0.01
HEUR_SD_LS	$107.78	$4.31
HEUR_SD_LR	$112.98	$4.52
HEUR_SD_HS	$136.32	$5.45
HEUR_SD_HR	$132.10	$5.28
HEUR_SD_LSS	$99.16	$3.97
LEUR_SD_LSS	$0.00	$0.00

2. A Larger Share of Quota Rents Increases U.S. Net Benefits

To understand how the macroeconomic impacts (or U.S. net benefits) would change if the quota rents were retained by U.S. companies, we performed sensitivities on two different scenarios – one with high quota price, HEUR_SD_LSS, and the other with high quota rents, HEUR_SD_HR. The sensitivities put an upper bound on the potential range of improvement in the net benefits to the U.S. consumers.

In the sensitivity runs, we assume that quota rents are returned to the U.S. consumers as a lump-sum wealth transfer from foreign entities.

Figure 48 shows the range of welfare changes for the sensitivities of the two scenarios. Under both scenarios, the welfare improves because the quota rents provide additional income to the household in the form of a wealth transfer. Consumers have more to spend on goods and services leading to higher welfare. The welfare in the Low/Slowest scenario improves by more than threefold, while under the High/Rapid scenario the improvement in welfare increases by twofold. The ability to extract quota rents unequivocally benefits U.S. consumers.

Figure 48: Change in Welfare with Different Quota Rents[39]

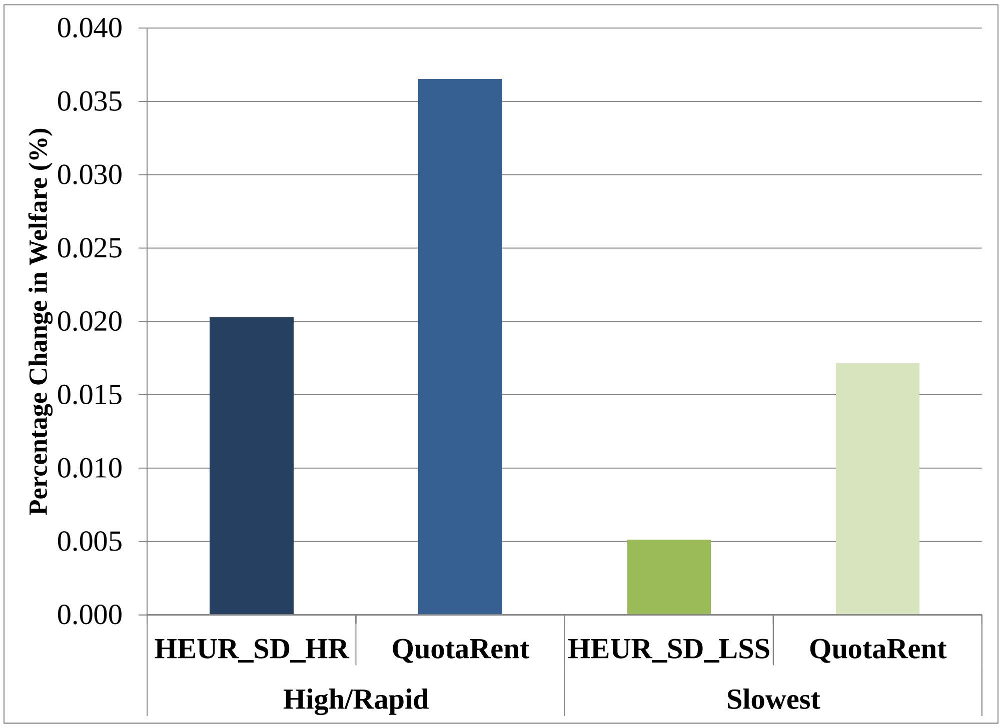
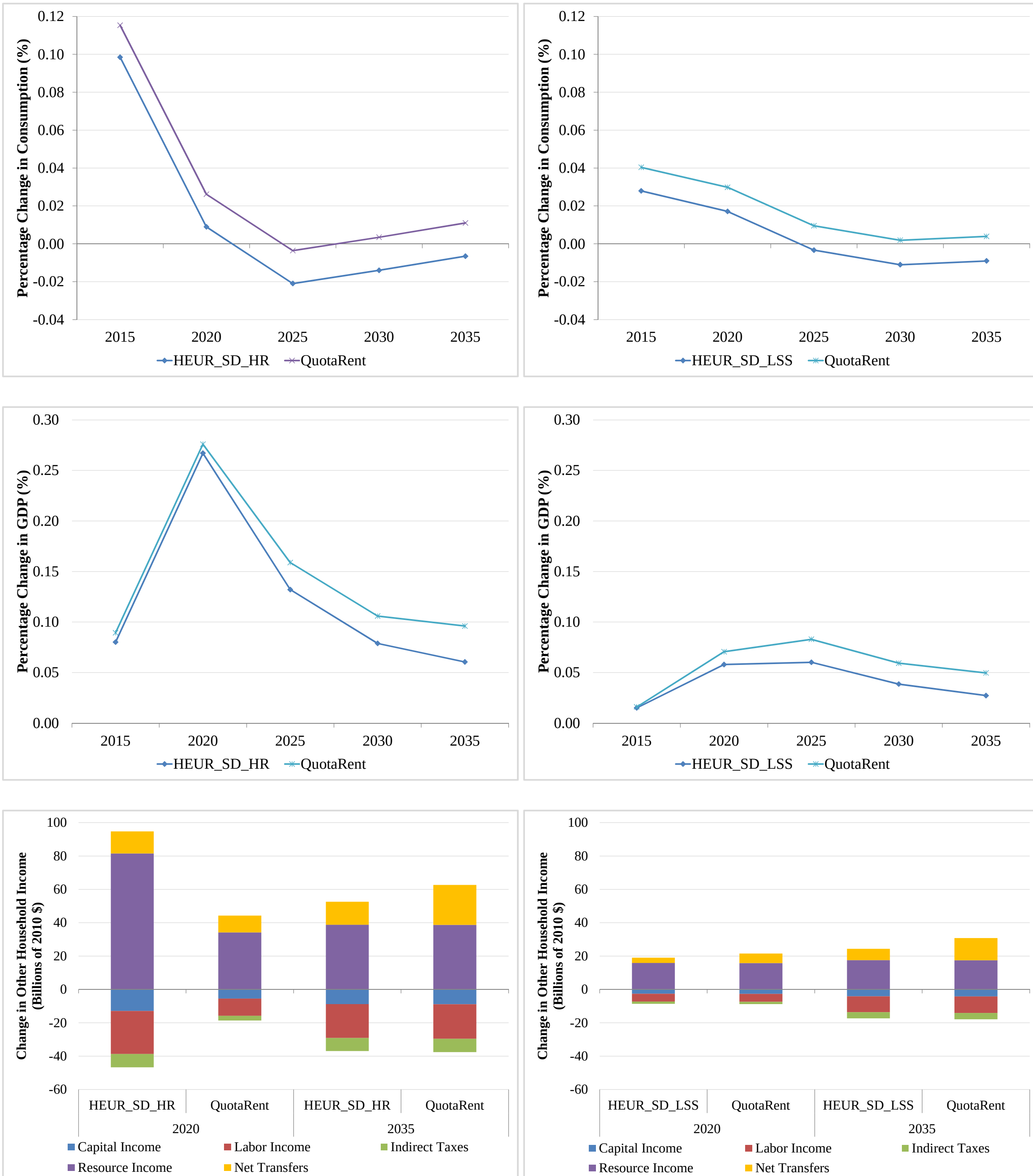


Figure 49 shows the change in impacts on aggregate consumption, GDP, and other household income for different quota rent sensitivities. The additional income from quota rents makes consumers wealthier, leading to increased expenditures on goods and services. This increase in economic activity leads to higher aggregate consumption and GDP. The impacts are highest when allowing for maximum quota rent transfer. The pattern of impacts is the same across the High/Rapid and Low/Slowest scenarios - the only difference is in the magnitude of the effect. The change under the Low/Slowest scenario is relatively smaller because of the smaller amount of transfers compared to the High/Rapid scenario. The consumption change under the maximum quota rent transfer scenario in 2015 is 50% higher than the scenario with no quota rent transfer. In this optimistic scenario, consumption changes are always positive throughout the model horizon for both scenarios. The charts below also highlight changes in other household incomes that add to GDP. While all other income source changes remain the same, only the net transfers change. As quota rents increase so does the change in net transfers leading to higher real income. As a result, higher quota rents lead to more imports, more consumption, higher GDP, and ultimately greater well-being of U.S. consumers.

[39] Welfare is calculated as a single number that represents in present value terms the amount that households are made better (worse) off over the entire time horizon from 2015 to 2035.

Figure 49: Macroeconomic Impacts for the High EUR – High/Rapid and Low/Slowest Scenario Sensitivities



VII. CONCLUSIONS

NERA developed a Global Natural Gas Model ("GNGM") and a general equilibrium model of the U.S. economy ("N$_{ew}$ERA Model") to evaluate feasible levels of LNG exports and their impacts on the U.S. economy. These two models allowed us to determine feasible export levels, characterize the international gas market conditions, and evaluate overall macroeconomic effects. Given the wide range in export expansion outcomes, it is not surprising to find great variation in the macroeconomic impacts and natural gas market changes. Nevertheless, several observations may be distilled from the patterns that emerged.

A. LNG Exports Are Only Feasible under Scenarios with High International Demand and/or Low U.S. Costs of Production

Under status quo conditions in the world and the U.S. (U.S. Reference and International Reference cases) there is no feasible level of exports possible from the U.S. Under the low natural price case (High Shale EUR), LNG exports from the U.S. are feasible. However, under a low shale gas outlook (Low Shale EUR), international demand has to increase along with a tightening of international supply for the U.S. to be an LNG exporter.

B. U.S. Natural Gas Prices Do Not Rise to World Prices

LNG exports will not drive the price of domestic natural gas to levels observed in countries that are willing to pay oil parity-based prices for LNG imports. U.S. exports will drive prices down in regions where U.S. supplies are competitive so that even export prices will come down at the same time that U.S. prices will rise.

Moreover, basis differentials due to transportation costs from the U.S. to high-priced regions of the world will still exist, and U.S. prices will never get closer to those prices than the cost of liquefaction plus the cost of transportation to and regasification in the final destination. Thus even in the scenarios with no binding export levels, the wellhead price in the U.S. is below the import price in Japan, where the U.S. sends some of its exports.

The largest change in international natural gas prices in 2015 and 2025 is about $0.33/MMBtu and $1/MMBtu, respectively. These increases occur only in highly stressed conditions or when global markets are willing to take the full quantities of export volumes at prices above marginal production cost in the U.S. plus liquefaction, transportation, and regasification costs incurred to get the LNG to market.

C. Consumer Well-being Improves in All Scenarios

The macroeconomic analysis shows that there are consistent net economic benefits across all the scenarios examined and that the benefits generally become larger as the amount of exports increases. These benefits are measured most accurately in a comprehensive measure of economic welfare of U.S. households that takes into account changes in their income from all sources and the cost of goods and services they buy. This measure gives a single indicator of relative overall well-being of the U.S. population, and it consistently ranks all the scenarios with

LNG exports above the scenario with No-Exports. Welfare improvement is highest under the high export volume scenarios because U.S. consumers benefit from an increase in wealth transfer and export revenues.

D. There Are Net Benefits to the U.S.

A related measure that shows how economic impacts are distributed over time is GDP. Like welfare, GDP also increases as a result of LNG exports. The most dramatic changes are in the short term, when investment in liquefaction capacity adds to export revenues and tolling charges to grow GDP. Under the Reference case, GDP increases could range from $5 billion to $20 billion. Under the High Shale case, GDP in 2020 could increase by $10 billion to $47 billion. Under the Low Shale case, GDP in 2020 could increase by $4.4 billion. Every scenario shows improvement in GDP over the No-Exports cases although in the long run the impact on GDP is relatively smaller than in the short run.

Although the patterns are not perfectly consistent across all scenarios, the increase in investment for liquefaction facilities and increased natural gas drilling and production provides, in general, near-term stimulus to the economy. At the same time, higher energy costs do create a small drag on economic output in the U.S. so that total worker compensation declines.

E. There Is a Shift in Resource Income between Economic Sectors

The U.S. has experienced many changes in trade patterns as a result of changing patterns of comparative advantage in global trade. Each of these has had winners and losers. Grain exports raised the income of farmers and transferred income from U.S. consumers to farmers, steel imports lowered the income of U.S. steel companies and lowered costs of steel for U.S. manufacturing, etc.

The U.S. economy will experience some shifts in output by industrial sectors as a result of LNG exports. Compared to the No-Exports case, incomes of natural gas producers will be greater, labor compensation in the natural gas sector will increase while other industrial sector output and labor compensation decreases. The natural gas sector could experience an increase in production by 0.4 Tcf to 1.5 Tcf by 2020 and 0.3 Tcf to 2.6 Tcf by 2035 to support LNG exports. The LNG exports could lead to an average annual increase in natural export revenues of $10 billion to $30 billion. Impacts on sectoral output vary. Manufacturing sector output decreases by less than 0.4% while EIS and electric sector output impacts could be about 1% in 2020 when the natural gas price is the highest. Changes in industry output and labor compensation are very small. Even energy-intensive sectors experience changes of 1% or less in output and labor compensation during the period when U.S. natural gas prices are projected to rise more rapidly than in a No-Exports case.

Harm is likely to be confined to narrow segments of the industry, and vulnerable industries are not high value-added industries. The electricity sector, energy-intensive sector, and natural gas-dependent goods and services producers will all be impacted by price rises. Conversely, natural gas suppliers will benefit. Labor wages will likewise decrease or increase, respectively, depending on the sector of the economy. The overall impact on the economy depends on the tradeoff between these sectors.

In terms of natural gas-dependent production, producers switch to cheaper fuels or use natural gas more efficiently as natural gas prices rise and production overall is reduced. Reductions in tax revenues are directly related to changes in sectoral output. Industrial output declines the most in scenarios that have the highest increase in natural gas and fuel costs.

The costs and benefits of natural gas price increases are shifted in two ways. Costs and benefits experienced by industries do not remain with the companies paying the higher energy bills or receiving higher revenues. Part of the cost of higher energy bills will be shifted forward onto consumers, in the form of higher prices for goods being produced. The percentage of costs shifted forward depends on two main factors: first, how demand for those goods responds to increases in price, and second, whether there are competitors who experience smaller cost increases. The remainder of the cost of higher energy bills is shifted backwards onto suppliers of inputs to those industries, to their workers, and to owners of the companies. As each supplier in the chain experiences lower revenue, its losses are also shifted back onto workers and owners.

Gains from trade are shifted in the same way. Another part of the increased income of natural gas producers comes from foreign sources. This added revenue from overseas goes immediately to natural gas producers and exporters but does not come from U.S. consumers. Therefore, it is a net benefit to the U.S. economy and is also shifted back to the workers and owners of businesses involved directly and indirectly in natural gas production and exports.

In the end, all the costs and benefits of any change in trade patterns or prices are shifted back to labor and capital income and to the value of resources in the ground, including natural gas resources. One of the primary reasons for development of computable general equilibrium models like N$_{ew}$ERA is to allow analysts to estimate how impacts are shifted back to the different sources of income and their ultimate effects on the economy at large. In conclusion, the range of aggregate macroeconomic results from this study suggests that LNG export has net benefits to the U.S. economy.

APPENDIX A - TABLES OF ASSUMPTIONS AND NON-PROPRIETARY INPUT DATA FOR GLOBAL NATURAL GAS MODEL

A. Region Assignment

Figure 50: Global Natural Gas Model Region Assignments

Region	Countries
Africa	Algeria, Angola, Egypt, Equatorial Guinea, Ghana, Libya, Morocco, Mozambique, Nigeria, Tunisia
Canada	Canada
China/India	China, Hong Kong, India
Central and South America	Andes, Argentina, Bolivia, Brazil, Central America and Caribbean, Chile, Dominican Republic, Mexico, Peru, Southern Cone, Trinidad & Tobago, Uruguay, Venezuela
Europe	Albania, Austria, Belgium, Croatia, Denmark, Estonia, France, Germany, Greece, Ireland, Italy, Netherlands, North Sea, Norway, Poland, Portugal, Romania, Spain, Sweden, Switzerland, Ukraine, United Kingdom
Former Soviet Union	Armenia, Azerbaijan, Belarus, Estonia, Georgia, Kazakhstan, Kyrgyzstan, Latvia, Lithuania, Moldova, Russia, Tajikistan, Turkmenistan, Ukraine, Uzbekistan
Korea/Japan	South Korea, Japan
Middle East	Abu Dhabi, Cyprus, Iran, Iraq, Israel, Jordan, Kuwait, Lebanon, Oman, Qatar, Saudi Arabia, Syria, Turkey, United Arab Emirates, Yemen
Oceania	Australia, New Zealand, Papua New Guinea
Sakhalin	Sakhalin Island
Southeast Asia	Brunei, Indonesia, Malaysia, Myanmar, Singapore, Taiwan, Thailand
U.S.	Puerto Rico, United States

B. EIA IEO 2011 Natural Gas Production and Consumption

Figure 51: EIA IEO 2011 Natural Gas Production (Tcf)

	2010	2015	2020	2025	2030	2035
Africa	7.80	9.70	11.10	12.20	13.30	14.10
Canada	6.10	7.00	7.70	8.30	8.70	9.00
China/India	4.60	5.60	6.70	8.00	9.60	9.70
C&S America	6.80	7.90	8.30	9.20	10.50	11.70
Europe	9.50	8.10	7.40	7.50	7.90	8.30
FSU	28.87	30.05	32.12	34.89	37.77	39.94
Korea/Japan	0.20	0.20	0.20	0.20	0.20	0.20
Middle East	16.30	19.70	22.40	24.60	26.70	28.80
Oceania	2.10	2.60	3.10	3.80	4.80	5.70
Sakhalin	0.43	0.45	0.48	0.51	0.53	0.56
Southeast Asia	9.30	10.00	10.70	11.60	12.60	13.40
U.S.	21.10	22.40	23.40	24.00	25.10	26.40
World	113.10	123.70	133.60	144.80	157.70	167.80

Figure 52: EIA IEO 2011 Natural Gas Consumption (Tcf)

	2010	2015	2020	2025	2030	2035
Africa	3.90	4.70	5.90	7.10	8.30	9.10
Canada	3.30	3.50	3.70	4.20	4.60	5.00
China/India	5.70	8.60	10.70	13.10	15.10	16.60
C&S America	6.60	7.40	8.90	10.50	12.20	14.40
Europe	19.20	19.80	20.40	20.90	22.00	23.20
FSU	24.30	24.30	24.50	24.90	25.80	26.50
Korea/Japan	5.00	5.20	5.30	5.70	5.90	5.90
Middle East	12.50	14.70	17.00	19.10	21.30	24.00
Oceania	1.20	1.30	1.50	1.80	2.00	2.20
Sakhalin	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
Southeast Asia	7.40	8.50	10.00	12.00	13.90	15.30
U.S.	23.80	25.10	25.30	25.10	25.90	26.50
Total World	112.90	123.10	133.20	144.40	157.00	168.70

C. Pricing Mechanisms in Each Region

1. Korea/Japan

Korea/Japan was assumed to continue to rely upon LNG to meet its natural gas demand. LNG was assumed to continue to be supplied under long-term contracts with index pricing tied to crude oil prices. It was assumed that with time, supplier competition would result in some softening in the LNG pricing relative to crude.[40] This Reference case assumes some growth in Korea/Japan demand but does not incorporate significant shifts away from nuclear energy to natural gas-fired generation.

2. China/India

LNG pricing for China/India is also assumed to be linked to crude oil prices but at a discount to Korea/Japan. The discount was intended to reflect that China/India, although short of natural gas supplies, have other sources of natural gas that LNG complements. As a result, we assumed that China/India would have some additional market leverage in negotiating contracting terms.

3. Europe

Europe receives natural gas from a variety of sources. The prices of some supplies are indexed to petroleum prices. Other sources are priced based upon regional gas-on-gas competition. In our analysis, we assumed that European natural gas prices would reflect a middle point with prices not tied directly either to petroleum or to local natural gas competition. We assumed that European prices would remain above the pricing levels forecast for North America but not as high as in Asia. Europe was also assumed to remain dependent upon imported supplies of natural gas to meet its moderately growing demand.

4. United States

The United States was assumed to follow the forecast for supply and demand and pricing as presented in the EIA's AEO 2011 Reference case.

5. Canada

The analysis assumed that Canada is part of an integrated North American natural gas market. As a consequence, Canadian pricing is linked to U.S. prices, and Canadian prices relate by a basis differential to U.S. prices. We assumed that Canadian production was sufficient to meet Canadian demand plus exports to the United States as forecast in the EIA AEO 2011. We did not allow for Canadian exports of LNG in the Reference case. Also, we held exports to the United States constant across different scenarios so as to be able to eliminate the secondary impacts of changing imports on the economic impacts of U.S. LNG on the U.S. economy.

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40 This is consistent with the IEO WEO 2011, which forecasts the LNG to Crude index will decline from 82% to 63% between now and 2035.

6. Africa, Oceania, and Southeast Asia

These three regions were assumed to produce natural gas from remote locations. The analysis assumed that these natural gas supplies could be produced economically today at a price between $1 and $2/MMBtu. The EIA's IEO 2011 was used as the basis for forecasting production volumes.

7. Middle East

Qatar is assumed to be the low-cost producer of LNG in the world. It is assumed that although Qatar has vast natural gas resources, it decides to continue to limit its annual LNG exports to 4.6 Tcf during the forecast horizon.

8. Former Soviet Union

The FSU was assumed to grow its natural gas supply at rates that far exceed its domestic demand. The resulting excess supplies were assumed to be exported mostly to Europe and, to a lesser degree, to China/India.

9. Central and South America

Central and South America was assumed to produce sufficient natural gas to meet its growing demand in every year during the forecast horizon. The region also has the potential for LNG exports that the model considered in determining worldwide LNG flows.

Figure 53: Projected Wellhead Prices ($/MMBtu)

	2010	2015	2020	2025	2030	2035
Africa	$1.75	$1.89	$2.09	$2.31	$2.55	$2.81
Canada	$3.39	$3.72	$4.25	$5.20	$5.64	$6.68
China/India	$12.29	$12.86	$13.00	$13.25	$13.57	$13.51
C&S America	$2.00	$2.16	$2.39	$2.64	$2.91	$3.22
Europe	$9.04	$9.97	$10.80	$11.95	$12.39	$13.23
FSU	$4.25	$4.60	$5.08	$5.61	$6.19	$6.84
Korea/Japan	$14.59	$15.30	$15.47	$15.79	$16.19	$16.11
Middle East	$1.25	$1.35	$1.49	$1.65	$1.82	$2.01
Oceania	$1.75	$1.89	$2.09	$2.31	$2.55	$2.81
Sakhalin	$1.25	$1.35	$1.49	$1.65	$1.82	$2.01
Southeast Asia	$2.00	$2.16	$2.39	$2.64	$2.91	$3.22
U.S.	$3.72	$3.83	$4.28	$5.10	$5.48	$6.36

Source: U.S. wellhead prices are from EIA AEO 2012 Early Release.

Figure 54: Projected City Gate Prices ($/MMBtu)

	2010	2015	2020	2025	2030	2035
Africa	$2.75	$2.89	$3.09	$3.31	$3.55	$3.81
Canada	$4.79	$5.12	$5.65	$6.60	$7.04	$8.08
China/India	$13.79	$14.36	$14.50	$14.75	$15.07	$15.01
C&S America	$4.50	$4.66	$4.89	$5.14	$5.41	$5.72
Europe	$10.04	$10.97	$11.80	$12.95	$13.39	$14.23
FSU	$5.25	$5.60	$6.08	$6.61	$7.19	$7.84
Korea/Japan	$15.09	$15.80	$15.97	$16.29	$16.69	$16.61
Middle East	$4.08	$4.18	$4.32	$4.48	$4.65	$4.84
Oceania	$3.25	$3.39	$3.59	$3.81	$4.05	$4.31
Sakhalin	$3.75	$3.85	$3.99	$4.15	$4.32	$4.51
Southeast Asia	$3.00	$3.16	$3.39	$3.64	$3.91	$4.22
U.S.	$4.72	$4.83	$5.28	$6.10	$6.48	$7.36

D. Cost to Move Natural Gas via Pipelines

Figure 55: Cost to Move Natural Gas through Intra- or Inter-Regional Pipelines ($/MMBtu)

From	To	Cost
Africa	Africa	$1.00
Africa	Europe	$1.00
Canada	Canada	$1.20
Canada	U.S.	$1.20
China/India	China/India	$1.50
FSU	FSU	$1.00
FSU	Europe	$1.00
FSU	China-India	$1.00
U.S.	U.S.	$1.00
U.S.	Canada	$1.00
C&S America	C&S America	$2.50
Middle East	Middle East	$2.83
Oceania	Oceania	$1.50
Korea/Japan	Korea/Japan	$0.50
Europe	Europe	$1.00
Sakhalin	Sakhalin	$0.50
Southeast Asia	Southeast Asia	$1.00

E. LNG Infrastructures and Associated Costs

1. Liquefaction

The world liquefaction plants data is based upon the International Group of LNG Importers' ("GIIGNL") 2010 LNG Industry report. The dataset includes 48 existing liquefaction facilities worldwide, totaling 13.58 Tcf of export capacity. The future liquefaction facility dataset, based upon *LNG Journal* (October 2011),[41] includes 32 LNG export projects and totals 10.59 Tcf of planned export capacity. This dataset covers worldwide liquefaction projects from 2011 to 2017. Beyond 2017, each region's liquefaction capacity is assumed to grow at the average annual growth rate of its natural gas supply.[42]

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41 LNG Journal, Oct 2011. Available at: http://lngjournal.com/lng/.

42 Rates are adopted from IEO 2011.

The liquefaction cost per MMBtu can be broken down into three components:

1. An operation and maintenance cost of $0.16;
2. A capital cost that depends on the location of the facility; and
3. A fuel use cost that varies with natural gas prices over time.

To derive the capital cost per MMBtu, we obtained a set of investment costs per million metric tons per annum ("MMTPA") by region (Figure 56).[43] The U.S.'s investment cost per MMTPA is competitive because most domestic projects convert existing idle regasification facilities to liquefaction facilities. This implies a 30% to 40% cost savings relative to greenfield projects. Offshore LNG export projects are more costly, raising the investment costs per unit of capacity in Southeast Asia and Oceania.

Figure 56: Liquefaction Plants Investment Cost by Region ($millions/ MMTPA Capacity)

	$Millions/MMTPA	Capital Cost ($/MMBtu produced)
Africa	$1,031	$3.05
Canada	$1,145	$3.39
C&S America	$802	$2.37
Europe	$802	$2.37
FSU	$802	$2.37
Middle East	$859	$2.54
Oceania	$1,317	$3.90
Sakhalin	$802	$2.37
Southeast Asia	$1,145	$3.39
U.S.	$544	$1.61

The total investment cost is then annualized assuming an average plant life of 25 years and a discount rate of 10%. The capital cost per MMBtu of LNG produced is obtained after applying a 72% capacity utilization factor to the capital cost per MMBtu of LNG capacity. Figure 57 shows the liquefaction fixed cost component in $/MMBtu LNG produced.

$$\text{Equivalent Annual Cost} = \frac{\text{Asset Price} \times \text{Discount Rate}}{1-(1+\text{Discount Rate})^{-\text{Number of Periods}}}$$

[43] From Paul Nicholson, a Marsh & McLennan company colleague (NERA is a subsidiary of Marsh & McClennan).

In the liquefaction process, 9% of the LNG is burned off. This fuel use cost is priced at the wellhead and included in the total liquefaction costs.

Figure 57: Liquefaction Costs per MMBtu by Region, 2010-2035

	2010	2015	2020	2025	2030	2035
Africa	$3.37	$3.38	$3.40	$3.42	$3.44	$3.46
Canada	$3.85	$3.88	$3.93	$4.02	$4.06	$4.15
C & S America	$2.71	$2.73	$2.75	$2.77	$2.79	$2.82
Europe	$3.35	$3.43	$3.50	$3.61	$3.65	$3.72
FSU	$2.65	$2.65	$2.67	$2.68	$2.70	$2.71
Middle East	$2.81	$2.82	$2.84	$2.85	$2.87	$2.88
Oceania	$4.22	$4.23	$4.25	$4.27	$4.29	$4.31
Sakhalin	$2.65	$2.65	$2.67	$2.68	$2.70	$2.71
Southeast Asia	$3.73	$3.74	$3.76	$3.79	$3.81	$3.84
U.S.	$2.13	$2.14	$2.18	$2.25	$2.28	$2.34

2. Regasification

The world regasification plants data is based upon the GIIGNL's annual LNG Industry report, 2010. The dataset includes 84 existing regasification facilities worldwide, totaling to a 28.41 Tcf annual import capacity. Korea and Japan together own 12.58 Tcf or 44% of today's world regasification capacities. The GNGM future regasification facility database includes data collected from multiple sources: the GLE Investment Database September 2011, LNG journal Oct 2011, and GIIGNL's 2010 LNG Industry report. It includes 46 LNG import projects, totaling to 12.12 Tcf of planned import capacity, and covers regasification projects from 2011 to 2020 worldwide. Beyond 2020, each region's regasification capacity is assumed to grow at the average annual growth rate of its natural gas demand.[44]

LNG regasification cost can also be broken down into three components: an operation and maintenance cost of $0.20/MMBtu, a fixed capital cost of $0.46/MMBtu, and a fuel use cost that varies with natural gas demand prices by region and time. The capital cost assumes a 40% capacity utilization factor, and the fuel use component assumes a 1.5% LNG loss in regasification. LNG regasification cost in GNGM is shown in Figure 58.

44 Rates adopted from IEO 2011.

Figure 58: Regasification Costs per MMBtu by Region 2010-2035

	2010	2015	2020	2025	2030	2035
C&S America	$0.73	$0.73	$0.73	$0.74	$0.74	$0.75
Canada	$0.73	$0.74	$0.75	$0.76	$0.77	$0.78
China/India	$0.87	$0.88	$0.88	$0.88	$0.89	$0.89
Europe	$0.81	$0.83	$0.84	$0.86	$0.86	$0.87
FSU	$0.74	$0.75	$0.75	$0.76	$0.77	$0.78
Korea/Japan	$0.89	$0.90	$0.90	$0.91	$0.91	$0.91
Middle East	$0.72	$0.72	$0.73	$0.73	$0.73	$0.73
Southeast Asia	$0.71	$0.71	$0.71	$0.72	$0.72	$0.72
U.S.	$0.73	$0.73	$0.74	$0.75	$0.76	$0.77

3. Shipping Cost

GNGM assumes that the shipping capacity constraint is non-binding. There are sufficient LNG carriers to service any potential future route in addition to existing routes.

Shipping cost consists of a tanker cost and a LNG boil-off cost, both of which are a function of the distance between the export and import regions. An extra Panama Canal toll of 13 cents roundtrip is applied to gulf-Asia Pacific shipments.[45] Tanker costs are based on a $65,000 rent per day and average tanker speed of 19.4 knots. Fuel use costs assume a 0.15% per day boil off rate and an average tanker capacity of 149,000 cubic meters of LNG. LNG boil-off cost is valued at city gate prices in importing regions. Shipping distances for existing routes are based upon the GIIGNL's 2010 LNG Industry report while distances for potential routes are calculated with the Sea Rates online widget.[46]

45 $0.13 roundtrip toll calculated based upon a 148,500 cubic meter tanker using approved 2011 rates published at http://www.pancanal.com/eng/maritime/tolls.html.

46 http://www.searates.com/reference/portdistance/.

Figure 59: 2010 Shipping Rates ($/MMBtu)

	Canada	China/ India	C&S America	Europe	Korea/ Japan	Oceania	SE Asia	U.S.
Africa		$1.76	$1.44	$0.46	$2.60		$1.70	$2.60
Canada		$1.51	$1.53		$1.23		$1.55	
China/ India								$2.81
C&S America	$1.53	$2.22	$1.26	$1.39	$2.73			$1.54
Europe								$1.27
FSU			$2.15			$2.39	$2.44	$1.17
Korea/ Japan								$2.54
Middle East		$0.96	$2.36	$1.30	$1.61		$1.15	$2.16
Oceania		$0.74	$2.38		$0.90		$0.63	$2.41
Sakhalin		$0.48			$0.26		$0.84	$2.50
Southeast Asia		$0.52			$0.66		$0.32	$2.63
U.S.		$2.81	$1.53	$1.27	$2.54		$2.61	

The Gulf Coast has a comparative disadvantage in accessing the Asia pacific market due to the long shipping distances and Panama Canal tolls.

4. LNG Pipeline Costs

A pair of pipeline transport costs is also included in LNG delivery process to account for the fact that pipelines are necessary to transport gas from wellheads to liquefaction facilities in supply regions and from regasification facilities to city gates in demand regions.

Figure 60: Costs to Move Natural Gas from Wellheads to Liquefaction Plants through Pipelines ($/MMBtu)

Region	Cost
Africa	$1.00
Canada	$0.70
China/India	$1.50
C&S America	$0.50
Europe	$1.00
FSU	$1.00
Korea/Japan	$1.00
Middle East	$1.42
Oceania	$0.50
Sakhalin	$0.50
Southeast Asia	$1.00
U.S.	$1.00

Figure 61: Costs to Move Natural Gas from Regasification Plants to City Gates through Pipelines ($/MMBtu)

Region	Cost
Africa	$1.00
Canada	$0.50
China/India	$1.50
C&S America	$0.50
Europe	$1.00
FSU	$1.00
Korea/Japan	$0.50
Middle East	$1.42
Oceania	$0.50
Sakhalin	$0.50
Southeast Asia	$1.00
U.S.	$1.00

5. Total LNG Costs

Costs involved in exporting LNG from the Gulf Coast to demand regions are aggregated in Figure 62. The largest cost components are liquefaction and shipping.

Figure 62: Total LNG Transport Cost, 2015 ($/MMBtu)

	China/India	Europe	Korea/Japan
Regas to city gate pipeline cost	$1.50	$1.00	$0.50
Regas cost	$0.88	$0.83	$0.90
Shipping cost	$2.87	$1.33	$2.60
Liquefaction cost	$2.14	$2.14	$2.14
Wellhead to liquefaction pipeline cost	$1.00	$1.00	$1.00
Total LNG transport cost	$8.39	$6.30	$7.14

F. Elasticity

1. Supply Elasticity

All regions are assumed to have a short-run supply elasticity of 0.2 in 2010 and a long-run elasticity of 0.4 in 2035. Elasticities in the intermediate years are interpolated with a straight line method. There are two exceptions to this rule.

The U.S. supply elasticity is computed based upon the price and production fluctuations under different scenarios in the EIA Study. The median elasticity in 2015 and 2035 is recorded and elasticities for the other years are extrapolated with a straight line method.

After numerous test runs, we found that African supply elasticity is appropriately set at 0.1 for all years. Supply elasticity in GNGM is:

Figure 63: Regional Supply Elasticity

	2010	2015	2020	2025	2030	2035
Africa	0.10	0.10	0.10	0.10	0.10	0.10
U.S.	0.17	0.24	0.33	0.46	0.65	0.90
All other regions	0.20	0.23	0.26	0.30	0.35	0.40

2. Demand Elasticity

All regions are assumed to have a short run demand elasticity of -0.10 in 2010 and a long run demand elasticity of -0.20 in 2035 except the U.S. The U.S. demand elasticity is derived based on average delivered price and consumption fluctuations reported in the EIA Study.

Figure 64: Regional Demand Elasticity

	2010	2015	2020	2025	2030	2035
U.S.	-0.33	-0.36	-0.39	-0.42	-0.46	-0.50
All other regions	-0.10	-0.11	-0.13	-0.15	-0.17	-0.20

G. Adders from Model Calibration[47]

Figure 65: Pipeline Cost Adders ($/MMBtu)

Exporters	Importers	2010	2015	2020	2025	2030	2035
Africa	Europe	$7.43	$8.23	$8.88	$9.83	$10.03	$10.62
Canada	Canada	$0.20	$0.20	$0.20	$0.20	$0.20	$0.20
Canada	U.S.	$0.30	$0.12				
FSU	China/India	$8.71	$8.93	$8.58	$8.30	$8.03	$7.31
FSU	Europe	$4.88	$5.47	$5.83	$6.46	$6.32	$6.52
Sakhalin	Sakhalin	$2.04	$2.04	$2.04	$2.04	$2.04	$2.04

47 Appendix B provides details on the generation of cost adders in GNGM.

Figure 66: LNG Cost Adders Applied to Shipping Routes ($/MMBtu)

Exporter	Importer	2010	2015	2020	2025	2030	2035
Africa	China/India	$3.59	$3.97	$3.89	$3.89	$3.93	$3.57
Africa	Europe	$1.73	$2.50	$3.11	$4.01	$4.18	$4.73
Africa	Korea/Japan	$5.09	$5.60	$5.54	$5.59	$5.70	$5.33
Canada	China/India	$5.91	$2.16	$1.71	$0.90	$0.72	-
Canada	Korea/Japan	$8.54	$4.93	$4.52	$3.77	$3.67	$2.44
C&S America	China/India	$4.06	$4.41	$4.29	$4.25	$4.24	$3.85
C&S America	Europe	$1.73	$2.43	$2.97	$3.78	$3.90	$4.36
C&S America	Korea/Japan	$5.89	$6.37	$6.28	$6.30	$6.37	$5.96
Sakhalin	China/India	$6.64	$7.09	$7.07	$7.16	$7.29	$7.01
Sakhalin	Korea/Japan	$9.19	$9.79	$9.81	$9.96	$10.17	$9.89
Middle East	China/India	$5.05	$5.49	$5.47	$5.55	$5.67	$5.40
Middle East	Europe	$1.55	$2.32	$2.96	$3.88	$4.11	$4.70
Middle East	Korea/Japan	$6.74	$7.31	$7.32	$7.46	$7.65	$7.37
U.S.	China/India	$1.51	$1.86	$1.60	$0.92	$0.80	$0.08
U.S.	Europe	-	$0.61	$1.02	$1.21	$1.21	$1.35
U.S.	Korea/Japan	$4.13	$4.62	$4.40	$3.78	$3.74	$3.00
Oceania	China/India	$4.26	$4.66	$4.58	$4.59	$4.64	$4.29
Oceania	Korea/Japan	$6.44	$6.99	$6.94	$7.01	$7.14	$6.77
Southeast Asia	China/India	$4.21	$4.59	$4.48	$4.46	$4.47	$4.08
Southeast Asia	Korea/Japan	$6.42	$6.94	$6.86	$6.91	$7.00	$6.58

H. Scenario Specifications

Figure 67: Domestic Scenario Conditions

	2010	2015	2020	2025	2030	2035
Reference Case						
Production (Tcf)	21.10	22.40	23.40	24.00	25.10	26.40
Wellhead price ($/MMBtu)	$3.72	$3.83	$4.28	$5.10	$5.48	$6.36
Pipeline imports from Canada (Tcf)	2.33	2.33	1.4	0.74	0.64	0.04
High EUR						
Production (Tcf)	21.21	24.68	26.37	27.52	28.61	30.19
Wellhead price ($/MMBtu)	$3.23	$2.90	$3.15	$3.72	$4.14	$4.80
Pipeline imports from Canada (Tcf)	2.18	2.01	0.87	0.01	-0.18	-0.68
Low EUR						
Production (Tcf)	20.93	19.61	19.88	20.06	21.13	21.67
Wellhead price ($/MMBtu)	$4.54	$5.65	$6.37	$7.72	$8.23	$8.85
Pipeline imports from Canada (Tcf)	2.45	2.66	2.06	1.96	1.93	1.66

Figure 68: Incremental Worldwide Natural Gas Demand under Two International Scenarios (in Tcf of Natural Gas Equivalents)

	2010	2015	2020	2025	2030	2035
Demand Shock						
Japan converts nuclear to gas	2.41	3.18	3.41	3.56	3.86	4.19
Supply& Demand Shock						
Japan and Korea convert nuclear to gas and limited international supply expansion	3.82	5.00	5.59	5.88	6.37	6.86

Sources: EIA IEO 2011 Nuclear energy consumption, reference case.

Figure 69: Scenario Export Capacity (Tcf)

	2010	2015	2020	2025	2030	2035
No Export	0	0	0	0	0	0
Low Slow	0	0.37	2.19	2.19	2.19	2.19
High Slow	0	0.37	2.19	4.02	4.38	4.38
Low Rapid	0	1.10	2.19	2.19	2.19	2.19
High Rapid	0	1.10	4.38	4.38	4.38	4.38
Low/Slowest	0	0.18	1.10	2.01	2.19	2.19
No Constraint	∞	∞	∞	∞	∞	∞

Source: EIA Study.

APPENDIX B – DESCRIPTION OF MODELS

A. Global Natural Gas Model

The GNGM is a partial-equilibrium model designed to estimate the amount of natural gas production, consumption, and trade by major world natural gas consuming and/or producing regions. The model maximizes the sum of consumers' and producers' surplus less transportation costs, subject to mass balancing constraints and regasification, liquefaction, and pipeline capacity constraints.

1. Model Calibration

The model is calibrated to match the EIA's IEO and AEO 2011 Reference Case natural gas production, consumption, wellhead, and delivered price forecasts, after adjusting the AEO and IEO production and consumption forecasts so that:

- World supply equaled world demand
- U.S. imports from Canada equaled total U.S. imports as defined by the AEO Reference case, less U.S. LNG imports as defined by the AEO Reference case
- Middle East LNG exports were capped at 4.64 Tcf, which meant that for the Middle East
    - Production ≤ Demand + Min(Liquefaction capacity, LNG export cap)
- FSU pipeline capacity satisfied the expression
    - Production ≤ Demand + pipeline export capacity
- Regasification capacity satisfied the expression for LNG importing regions:
    - Production ≤ Supply + Regasification Capacity
- Sufficient liquefaction capacity exists in LNG exporting regions
    - Production ≤ Demand + liquefaction capacity + pipeline export capacity

The GNGM assumes that the world natural gas market is composed of a perfectly competitive group of countries with a dominant supplier that limits exports. Therefore, if we simply added the competitive transportation costs to transport gas among regions, the model would not find the market values and would be unable to match the EIA's forecasts because the world natural gas market is not perfectly competitive and at its current scale includes important risks and transaction costs. For example, the city gate prices in the Korea/Japan region represent not only the cost of delivering LNG to this region but also this region's willingness to pay a premium above the market price to ensure a stable supply of imports.

Therefore to calibrate the GNGM to the EIA's price and volume forecasts, we had to introduce cost adders that represented the real world cost differentials, including these transaction costs. To derive these cost adders, we developed a least-squares algorithm that solved for these adders. The least-squares algorithm minimized the sum of the inter-region pipeline and LNG shipping cost adders subject to matching the EIA natural gas production, consumption, wellhead, and city gate prices for each region (see Appendix A for the resulting cost adders).

These pipeline and LNG shipping cost adders were added to the original pipeline and LNG shipping costs, respectively, to develop adjusted pipeline and LNG shipping costs. The GNGM made use of these adjusted transportation costs in all the model runs.

These adders can be interpreted in several ways consistent with their function in the GNGM:

- As transaction costs that could disappear as the world market became larger and more liquid, in the process shifting downward the demand curve for assured supplies in the regions where such a premium now exists
- As a leftover from long term contracts and therefore a rent to producers that will disappear as contracts expire and are renegotiated
- As a rent taken by natural gas utilities and traders within the consuming regions, that would either continue to be taken within importing countries or competed away if there were more potential suppliers

Under all of these interpretations, the amount of the adder would not be available to U.S. exporters, nor would it be translated into potentially higher netback prices to the U.S.

2. Input Data Assumptions for the Model Baseline

a. GNGM Regions

The GNGM regional mapping scheme is largely adapted from the EIA IEO regional definitions with modifications to address the LNG-intensive regions.

- OECD Regions: the OECD region of Americas maps to GNGM regions U.S., Canada and Central and South America; OECD Europe maps to GNGM Europe; OECD Asia maps to GNGM Korea-Japan and Oceania.

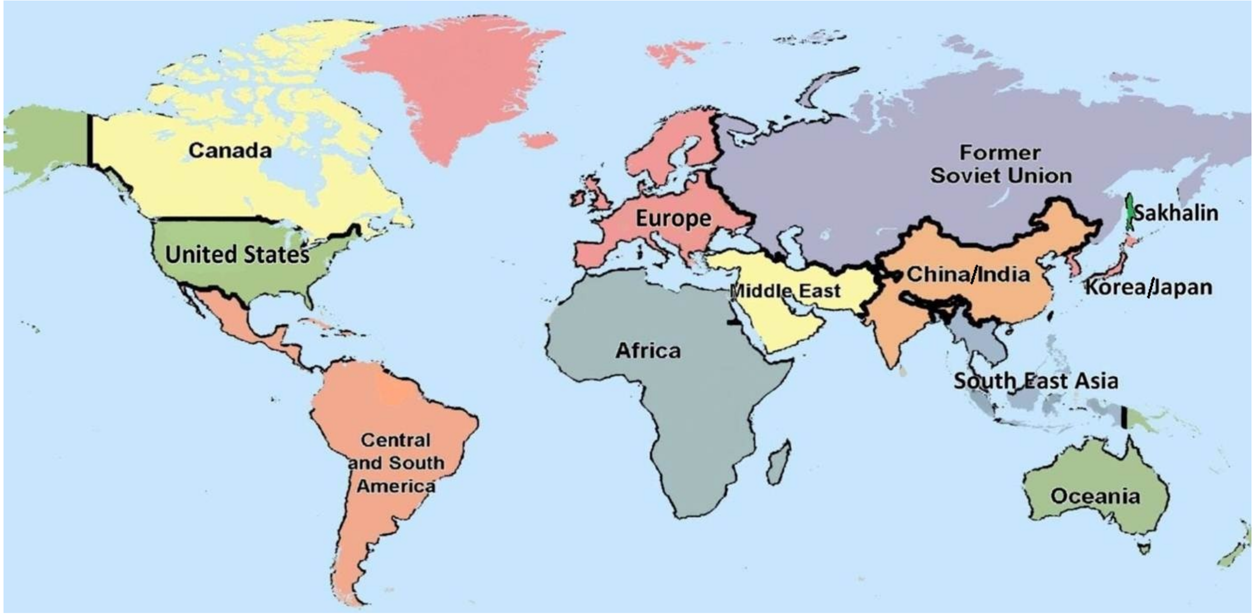
- Non-OECD Regions: the non-OECD regions of Eurasia and Europe map to GNGM regions Former Soviet Union and Sakhalin; Non-OECD Asia maps to China-India and Southeast Asia; Middle East maps to GNGM Middle East; Africa to GNGM Africa; Non-OECD Central and South America maps to GNGM Central and South America.

- Sakhalin is a Russian island just north of Japan. All Russian or FSU LNG exports in 2010 were produced in Sakhalin.[48] This island is characterized as a pure supply region with zero demand and adopted as a separate GNGM region from the rest of the FSU for its proximity to the demand regions. Its LNG production in 2010 is set equal to the

[48] "The LNG Industry 2010," GIIGNL. Available at: www.giignl.org/fr/home-page/publications.

FSU's LNG exports in 2010 and grows at a rate of 1.1% per annum for the subsequent years.[49]

Figure 70: Map of the Twelve Regions in the GNGM



b. Time Horizon

GNGM reads in forecast data from each year and outputs the optimized gas trade flows. The model's input data currently covers years 2010 through 2035, but can be readily extended given data availability. For this analysis, we solved the model in five-year time steps starting with 2010.

c. Projected World Natural Gas Production and Consumption

The model's international natural gas consumption and production projections are based upon the IEO 2011 reference case. GNGM assumes four different future U.S. natural gas markets: the AEO 2011 reference case is adopted as the baseline and three other U.S. futures are obtained with the following modifications.

- High Shale EUR: U.S. natural gas production and wellhead prices are replaced by AEO 2011 High Shale EUR projections. All other regions are held constant.
- Low Shale EUR: U.S. natural gas production and wellhead prices are replaced by AEO 2011 Low Shale EUR projections. All other regions are held constant.
- High Economic Growth: U.S. natural gas consumption is replaced by AEO 2011 High Economic Growth projections. All other regions are held constant.

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[49] The 1.1% per annum rate corresponds to IEO 2011 projected Russian natural gas production average annual growth rate for 2008 through 2035.

d. Gas Production and Consumption Prices

NERA has developed a set of world natural gas price projections based upon a number of data sources. The approach focuses on the wellhead price forecasts for net export regions and city gate price forecasts for net import regions. In naturally gas-abundant regions like the Middle East and Africa, the wellhead price is assumed to equal the natural gas extraction cost or lifting cost. City gate prices are estimated by adding a transportation cost to the wellhead prices.

In the major demand markets, natural gas prices are determined on an oil-parity basis using crude oil price forecasts from IEA's WEO 2011. The resultant prices are highly consistent with the relevant historical pipeline import prices[50] and LNG spot market prices as well as various oil and natural gas indices (*i.e.*, JCC, WTI, Henry Hub, AECO Hub indices, and UK National Balancing Point). U.S. wellhead and average city gate prices are adopted from AEO 2011. Canadian wellhead and city gate prices are projected to be $0.35 less than the U.S. prices in the reference case. A region-by-region price forecast description is presented in Section II.

e. Natural Gas Transport Options

Pipelines

GNGM assumes that all intra-regional pipeline capacity constraints are non-binding. Each region is able to transport its indigenously-produced natural gas freely within itself at an appropriate cost.

Four inter-regional pipeline routes are acknowledged in GNGM. The Africa-to-Europe route, including the Greenstream Pipeline, Trans-Mediterranean Pipeline, and Maghreb–Europe Gas Pipeline, is assigned a total capacity of 1.9 Tcf/year (connecting Northern Africa to Spain, Portugal, and Italy). The Turkmenistan–China Gas Pipeline, connecting FSU to China/India, has a maximum discharge of 1.41 Tcf/year. The FSU-Europe pipeline route has a total capacity of 8.3 Tcf/year in 2010 and grows to 10.8 Tcf/year in 2025. Lastly, the U.S.-Canada pipeline route is open and assumed to have unlimited capacity.

LNG Routes

GNGM sets two constraints on LNG transportation. Each export region is subjected to a liquefaction capacity constraint and each import region to a regasification capacity constraint. There are five components in transporting LNG (Figure 71), and capacity constraints on the wellhead to liquefaction pipeline, LNG tankers, and regasification to city gate pipeline are assumed to be non-binding.

LNG transportation costs are generally four to seven times higher than the pipeline alternative since, to satisfy natural gas demand with LNG, shipments incur five segments of costs: 1) pipeline shipping cost to move gas from the wellhead to the liquefaction facility, 2) liquefaction

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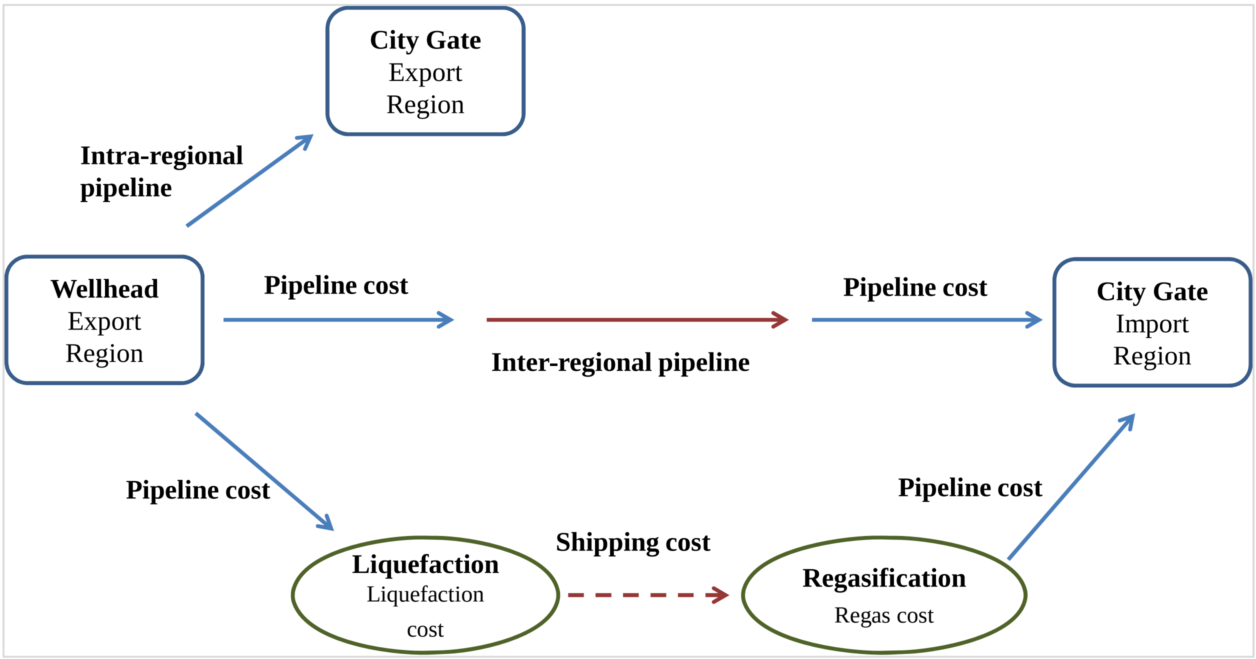
50 German BAFA natural gas import border price, Belgium Zeebrugge spot prices, TTF Natural Gas Futures contracts, *etc*.

cost, 3) shipping cost between the liquefaction to regasification facilities, 4) regasification cost and 5) the pipeline shipping cost to move gas from the regasification facility to the city gate terminal in the demand region. A detailed cost breakdown for each leg of this process is presented in Appendix A.

Figure 71: Natural Gas Transport Options



f. Fuel Supply Curves

The supply of natural gas in each region is represented by a CES supply curve (see Equation 1). The supply curve provides a relationship between the supply of gas (Q) and the wellhead price of gas (P). The elasticity of the supply curves dictates how the price of natural gas changes with changes in production.

Equation 1: CES Supply Curve

$$Q(t) / Q_{0,t} = (P(t) / P_{0,t})^{\text{elasticity of supply}}$$

Each supply curve is calibrated to the benchmark data points ($Q_{0.t}$, $P_{0.t}$) for each year t, where the benchmark data points represent those of the EIA's adjusted forecasts.[51] $Q_{0.t}$ represents the EIA's adjusted forecasted quantity of natural gas production for year t, and $P_{0.t}$ represents the EIA's forecasted wellhead price of gas for year t. The elasticity of supply for all regions is included in Figure 63.

[51] See Section IV.B for a discussion of how the EIA's forecasts are adjusted before the GNGM model is calibrated. Note, only quantities are adjusted.

g. Fuel Demand Curves

The demand curve for natural gas has a similar functional form as the supply curve. As with the supply curves, the demand curve in each region is represented by a CES function (see Equation 2). The demand curve provides a relationship between the demand for gas (Q) and the city gate price of gas (P). The demand curves dictate how the price of natural gas changes with changes in demand in each region.

Equation 2: CES Demand Curve

$$Q(t) / Q_{0,t} = (P(t) / P_{0,t})^{\text{elasticity of demand}}$$

Each demand curve is calibrated to the benchmark data points ($Q_{0.t}$, $P_{0.t}$) for each year t, where the benchmark data points represent those of the EIA's adjusted forecasts. $Q_{0.t}$ represents the EIA's adjusted forecasted demand for natural gas for year t and $P_{0.t}$ represents the EIA's forecasted city gate price of gas for year t. The elasticity of demand for all regions except the U.S. is based on the elasticities used in MIT's Emissions Prediction and Policy Analysis ("EPPA") model.[52] For the U.S., the demand elasticity was estimated by using the percentage changes in natural gas demand and city gate prices between the EIA's AEO 2011 Reference scenario and the different shale gas scenarios.

3. Model Formulation

The GNGM is formulated as a non-linear program. The following text describes at a high level the GNGM's non-linear objective function and linear constraints.

Maximize: Consumer Surplus + Producer Surplus – Transportation Costs

Subject to:

$$Supply(s) = \sum_{d} PipeGas(s,d) + LNG(s,d)$$

$$Demand(d) = \sum_{s} PipeGas(s,d) + LNG(s,d)$$

$$\sum_{d} LNG(s,d) \leq LiquefactionCapacity(s)$$

$$\sum_{s} LNG(s,d) \leq RegasificationCapacity(d)$$

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52 "The MIT Emissions Prediction and Policy Analysis ("EPPA") Model: Version 4," Sergey Paltsev, John M. Reilly, Henry D. Jacoby, Richard S. Eckaus, James McFarland, Marcus Sarofim, Malcolm Asadoorian and Mustafa Babiker, August 2004.

$$PipeGas(s,d) \leq PipelineCapacity(s,d)$$

$$PipeGas('Canada','USA') = BaselinePipeGas('Canada','USA')$$

Scenario Constraints

* Quota Constraint

$$\sum_{d} LNG('USA',d) \leq Quota$$

* Supply Shock

$$\sum_{d} LNG('Oceania',\mathrm{d}) + LNG('Africa',d) + LNG('SouthEastAsia',d) \leq MaxExports$$

Consumer Surplus = $\int CityGatePrice(d)\ x\ (\frac{Demand(d)}{Demand0(d)})^{(\frac{1}{ElasOfDemand(d)})}$

Producer Surplus= $\int WellheadPrice(s)\ x\ (\frac{Supply(s)}{Supply0(s)})^{(\frac{1}{ElasOfSupply(s)})}$

Transportation Costs =

$$\sum_{s,d} ShipCost(s,d)\ x\ LNG(s,d) + \sum_{s,d} PipeLineCost(s,d)\ x\ PipeGas(s,d) + \sum_{s,d} RegasCost(d)\ x\ LNG(s,d) + \sum_{s,d} LiquefactionCost(s)\ x\ LNG(s,d)$$

where,

LiquefactionCost(s) = Cost to liquefy natural gas in region s + transport the gas from the wellhead to the liquefaction facility within region s.

RegasCost(d) = Cost to re-gasify natural gas in region d + transport the gas from the regasification facility to the city gate within region d.

PipelineCost(s,d) = Cost to transport natural gas along a pipeline from supply region s to demand region d.

ShipCost(s,d) = Cost to ship natural gas from supply region s to demand region d.

Quota = Maximum allowable amount of U.S. LNG exports. This varies by time period and scenario.

The supply curves capture the technological issues (penetration rate, availability and cost) for natural gas in each region. The demand curves for natural gas capture the change in utility from consuming natural gas.

The main constraints are applied to all cases while scenario constraints are case specific. The demand shocks are modeled by changing the baseline level of natural gas demand ($Demand_0(d)$).

B. N$_{ew}$ERA Model

1. Overview of the N$_{ew}$ERA Macroeconomic Model

The N$_{ew}$ERA macro model is a forward-looking, dynamic, computable general equilibrium model of the United States. The model simulates all economic interactions in the U.S. economy, including those among industry, households, and the government. The economic interactions are based on the IMPLAN[53] 2008 database for a benchmark year, which includes regional detail on economic interactions among 440 different economic sectors. The macroeconomic and energy forecasts that are used to project the benchmark year going forward are calibrated to the most recent AEO produced by the Energy Information Administration (EIA). Because the model is calibrated to an internally-consistent energy forecast, the use of the model is particularly well-suited to analyze economic and energy policies and environmental regulations.

2. Model Data (IMPLAN and EIA)

The economic data is taken from the IMPLAN 2008 database which includes balanced Social Accounting Matrices for all states in 2008. These inter-industry matrices provide a snapshot of the economy. Since the IMPLAN database contains only economic values, we benchmark energy supply, demand, trade, and prices to EIA historical statistics to capture the physical energy flows. The integration of the EIA energy quantities and prices into the IMPLAN economic database results in a balanced energy-economy dataset.

Future economic growth is calibrated to macroeconomic (GDP), energy supply, energy demand, and energy price forecasts from the EIA's AEO 2011. Labor productivity, labor growth, and population forecasts from the Census Bureau are used to project labor endowments along the baseline and ultimately employment by industry.

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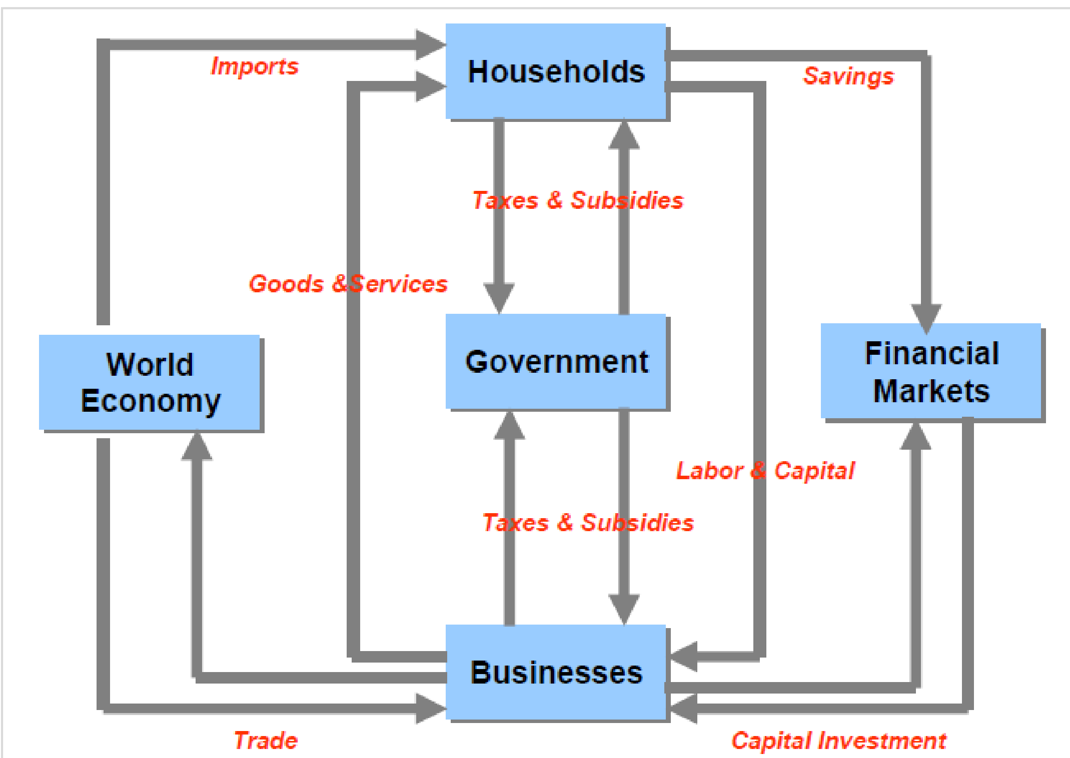
53 IMPLAN produces unique set of national structural matrices. The structural matrices form the bais for the inter-industry flows which we use to characterize the production, household, and government transactions, see www.implan.com.

3. Brief Discussion of Model Structure

The theoretical construct behind the N_{ew}ERA model is based on the circular flow of goods, services, and payments in the economy (every economic transaction has a buyer and a seller whereby goods/service go from a seller to a buyer and payment goes from the seller to the buyer). As shown in Figure 72, the model includes households, businesses, government, financial markets, and the rest of the world economy as they interact economically in the global economy. Households provide labor and capital to businesses, taxes to the government, and savings to financial markets, while also consuming goods and services and receiving government subsidies. Businesses produce goods and services, pay taxes to the government and use labor and capital. Businesses are both consumers and producers of capital for investment in the rest of the economy. Within the circular flow, equilibrium is found whereby goods and services consumed is equal to those produced and investments are optimized for the long term. Thus, supply is equal to demand in all markets.

The model assumes a perfect foresight, zero profit condition in production of goods and services, no changes in monetary policy, and full employment within the U.S. economy.

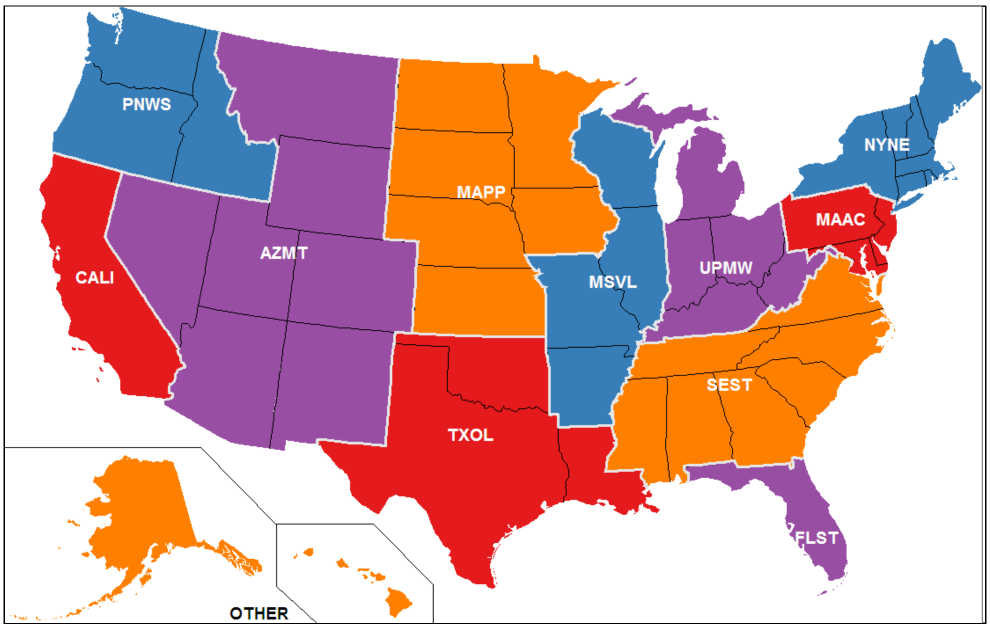
Figure 72: Circular Flow of Income



a. Regional Aggregation

The N_{ew}ERA macro model includes 11 regions: NYNE-New York and New England; MAAC-Mid-Atlantic Coast; UPMW-Upper Mid-West; SEST-South East; FLST-Florida; MSVL-Mississippi Valley; MAPP-Mid America; TXOL-Texas, Oklahoma, and Louisiana; AZMT-Arizona and Mountain states; CALI-California; and PNWS-Pacific Northwest.54 The aggregate model regions are built up from the 50 U.S. states' and the District of Columbia's economic data. The model is flexible enough to create other regional specifications, depending upon the need of the project. The 11 N_{ew}ERA regions and the States within each N_{ew}ERA region are shown in the following figure. For this Study we aggregate the 11 N_{ew}ERA regions into a single U.S. region.

Figure 73: N_{ew}ERA Macroeconomic Regions



b. Sectoral Aggregation

The N_{ew}ERA model includes 12 sectors: five energy (coal, natural gas, crude oil, electricity, and refined petroleum products) and seven non-energy sectors (services, manufacturing, energy-intensive, agriculture, commercial transportation excluding trucking, trucking, and motor vehicles). These sectors are aggregated up from the 440 IMPLAN sectors to 28 sectors, defined as the AEO sector in Figure 74. These 28 sectors' economic and energy data are consistent with IMPLAN and EIA, respectively. For this study, we further aggregate these 28 production sectors into 12 sectors. The mapping of the sectors is show below in Figure 72. The model has the flexibility to represent sectors at any level of aggregation.

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[54] Hawaii and Alaska are included in the PNWS region.

Figure 74: N$_{ew}$ERA Sectoral Representation

	NewERA	AEO	
Final Demand	C	C	Household consumption
	G	G	Government consumption
	I	I	Investment demand
Energy Sectors	COL	COL	Coal
	GAS	GAS	Natural gas
	OIL	OIL	Refined Petroleum Products
	CRU	CRU	Crude oil
	ELE	ELE	Electricity
Non-Energy Sectors	AGR	AGR	Agriculture
	TRN	TRN	Transportation
	TRK	TRK	Trucking
	M_V	M_V	Motor vehicle
	SRV	SRV	Services
	SRV	DWE	Dwellings
	EIS	PAP	Paper and Pulp
	EIS	CHM	Chemicals
	EIS	GLS	Glass Industry
	EIS	CMT	Cement Industry
	EIS	I_S	Primary Metals
	EIS	ALU	Alumina and Aluminum
	MAN	CNS	Construction
	MAN	MIN	Mining
	MAN	FOO	Food, Beverage and Tobacco Products
	MAN	FAB	Fabricated Metal Products
	MAN	MAC	Machinery
	MAN	CMP	Computer and Electronic Products
	MAN	TRQ	Transportation Equipment
	MAN	ELQ	Electrical Equip., Appliances, and Components
	MAN	WOO	Wood and furniture
	MAN	PLA	Plastics
	MAN	OMA	Other Manufacturing sectors

c. Production and Consumption Characterization

Behavior of households, industries, investment, and government is characterized by nested constant elasticity of substitution production or utility functions. Under such a CES structure, inputs substitute against each other in a nested form. The ease of substitutability is determined by the value of the elasticity of substitution between the inputs. The higher the value of the substitution elasticity between the inputs, the greater the possibility of tradeoffs.

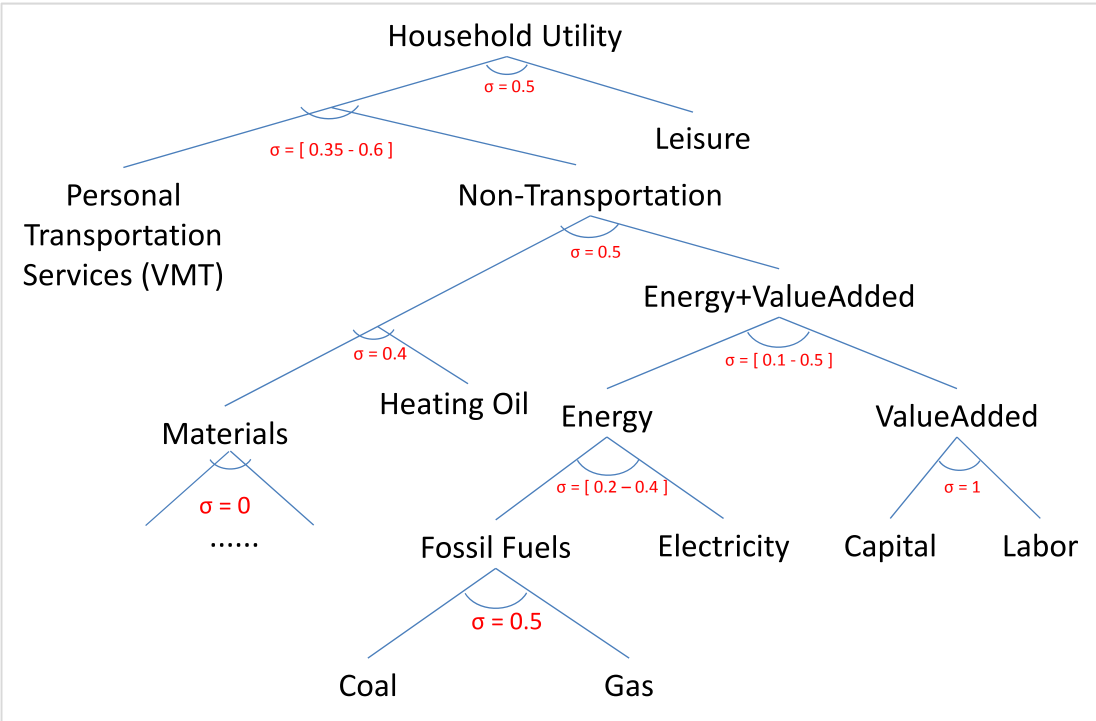
The CES nesting structure defines how inputs to a production activity compete with each other. In the generic production structure, intermediate inputs are aggregated in fixed proportion with a composite of energy and value-added inputs. The energy input aggregates fossil and non-fossil energy sources, and the value-added input combines capital and labor. Sectors with distinctive production characteristics are represented with structures different from the generic form. For alternative transportation fuels, such as ethanol and bio-diesel, inputs are demanded in fixed proportion. The characterization of nonrenewable resource supply adds a fixed resource that is calibrated to a declining resource base over time, so that it implies decreasing returns to scale.

This also implies rising marginal costs of production over time for exhaustible resources. The detailed nesting structure of the households and production sectors, with assumed elasticity of substitution parameters, are shown in figures below.

i. Households

Consumers are represented by a single representative household. The representative household derives utility from both consumption of goods and services, transportation services, and leisure. The utility is represented by a nested CES utility function. The elasticity of substitution parameters between goods are shown in Figure 75.

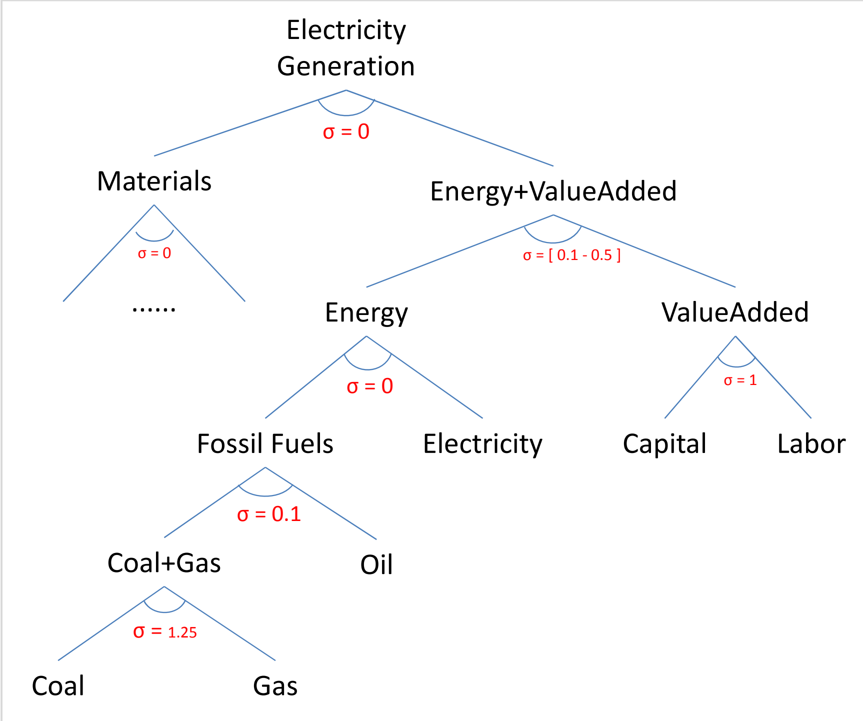
Figure 75: N$_{ew}$ERA Household Representation



ii. Electric Sector

We assume a simple representation of the electric sector. The electric sector models natural gas, coal, and oil-fired generation. The representation of the production is shown below.

Figure 76: N_{ew}ERA Electricity Sector Representation



iii. Other Sectors

The trucking and commercial transportation sector production structure is shown in Figure 77. The trucking sector uses diesel as transportation fuel. This sector has limited ability to substitute other fossil fuels. The other industrial sectors (agriculture, manufacturing, energy-intensive, motor vehicles) and the services sector production structure, with assumed elasticity of substitution, are shown in Figure 78.

Figure 77: N_{ew}ERA Trucking and Commercial Transportation Sector Representation

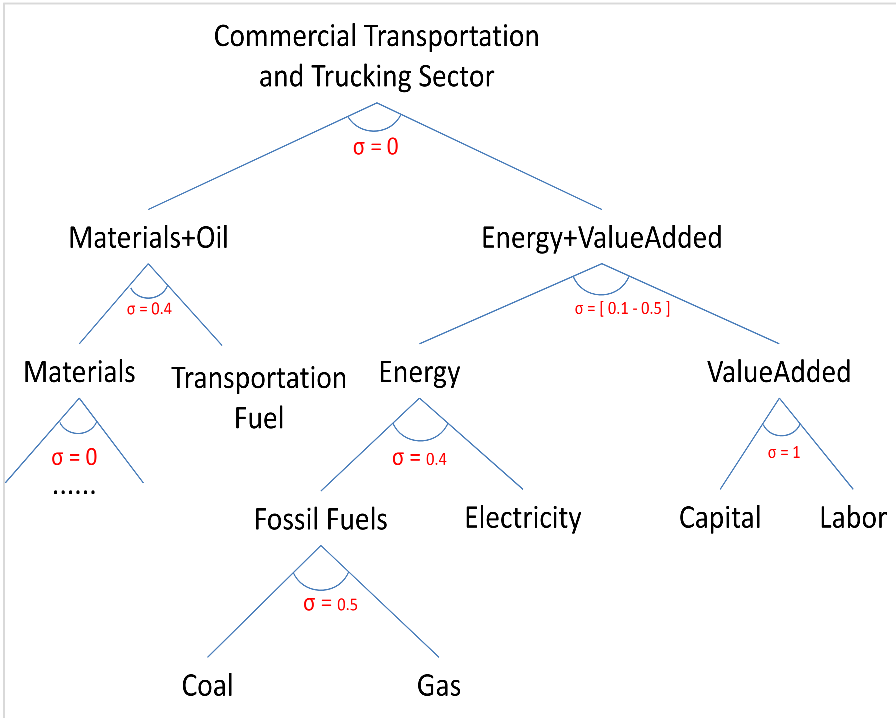
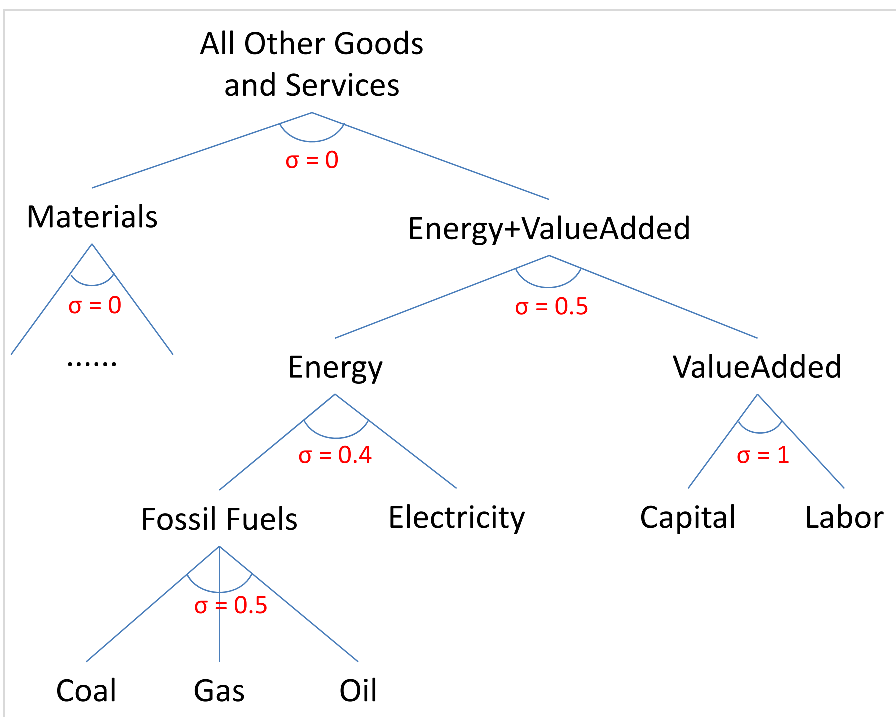


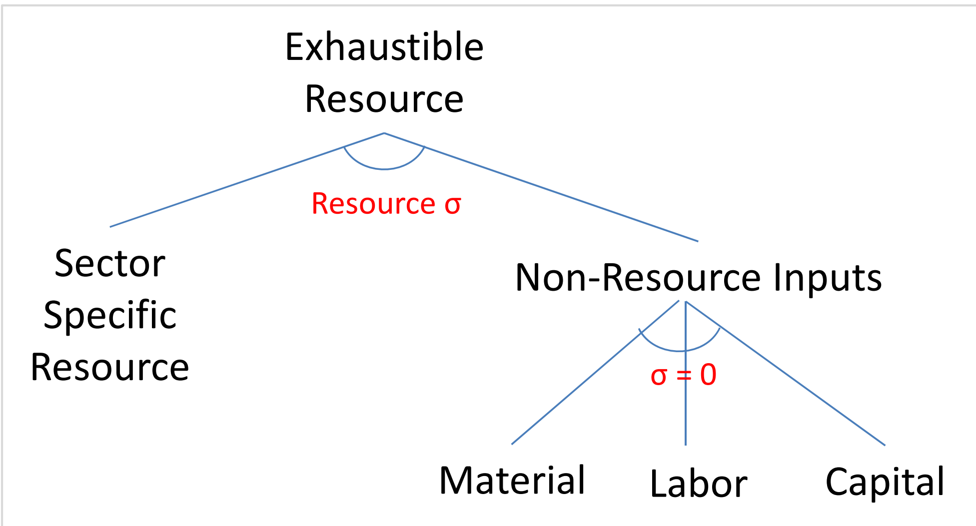
Figure 78: N_{ew}ERA Other Production Sector Representation



iv. Exhaustible Resource Sector

The simplest characterization of non-renewable resource supply adds a fixed resource that is calibrated to decline over time, so that the decreasing returns to scale implied for the non-resource inputs lead to rising marginal costs of production over time. The top level elasticity of substitution parameter is calibrated to be consistent with resource supply elasticity. We assume natural gas resource supply elasticity to be 0.25 in the short run (2010) and 1.5 in the long run (2050). Similarly, crude oil supply elasticity is assumed to be 0.3 in 2010 and 1.0 in 2050. Coal supply elasticity is assumed to be 0.4 in 2010 and 1.5 in 2050. The production structure of natural gas, crude oil, and coal is shown below.

Figure 79: N$_{ew}$ERA Resource Sector Representation



d. Trade Structure

All goods and services, except crude oil, are treated as Armington goods, which assumes that domestic and foreign goods are differentiated and thus, are imperfect substitutes. The level of imports depends upon the elasticity of substitution between the imported and domestic goods. The Armington elasticity among imported goods is assumed to be twice as large as the elasticity between domestic and aggregate imported goods, characterizing greater substitutability among imported goods.

We balance the international trade account in the N$_{ew}$ERA model by constraining changes in the current account deficit over the model horizon. The condition is that the net present value of the foreign indebtedness over the model horizon remains at the benchmark year level. This prevents distortions in economic effects that would result from perpetual increases in borrowing, but does not overly constrain the model by requiring current account balances in each year.

This treatment of the current account deficit does not mean that there cannot be trade benefits from LNG exports. Although trade will be in balance over time, the terms of trade shift in favor of the U.S. because of LNG exports. That is, by exporting goods of greater value to overseas customers, the U.S. is able to import larger quantities of goods than it would able to if the same domestic resources were devoted to producing exports of lesser value. Allowing high value exports to proceed has a similar effect on terms of trade as would an increase in the world price of existing exports or an increase in productivity in export industries. In all these cases, the U.S. gains more imported goods in exchange for the same amount of effort being devoted to production of goods for export. The opposite is also possible, in that a fall in the world price of U.S. exports or a subsidy that promoted exports of lesser value would move the terms of trade against the U.S., in that with the same effort put into producing exports the U.S. would receive less imports in exchange and terms of trade would move against the U.S. The fact that LNG will be exported only if there is sufficient market demand ensures that terms of trade will improve if LNG exports take place.

e. Investment Dynamics

Periods in the model are linked by capital and investment dynamics. Capital turnover in the model is represented by the standard process that capital at time t+1 equals capital at time t plus investment at time t minus depreciation. The model optimizes consumption and savings decisions in each period, taking account of changes in the economy over the entire model horizon with perfect foresight. The consumers forego consumption to save for current and future investment.

f. Model Assumptions

The underlying assumptions of labor growth and initial capital stock drive the economy over time in the model.

The model assumes full employment in the labor market. This assumption means total labor demand in a policy scenario would be the same as the baseline labor projection. The baseline labor projections are based on population growth and labor productivity forecasts over time. Hence, the labor projection can be thought to be a forecast of efficient labor units. The model assumes that labor is fungible across sectors. That is, labor can move freely out of a production sector into another sector without any adjustment costs or loss of productivity. Capital, on the other hand, is vintaged in the model. We assume two types of capital stock to portray the current technology and more advanced technologies that develop over time. A non-malleable capital (the clay) is used in fixed proportion in the existing production activity. The clay portion of the capital decays over time as new capital replaces it. A malleable capital (the putty) is used in new production activity. The putty capital in the new production activity can substitute against other inputs. The replacement of the clay capital depends upon the extent of use of new capital. This gradual capital turnover of the fixed capital stock and costs associated with it is represented by the putty-clay formulation.

Energy intensities are calibrated to the EIA projections. The differentiated energy intensities across regions result in different responses in energy supply and demand as energy price changes.

The N_{ew}ERA macroeconomic model includes a simple tax representation. The model includes only two types of input taxes: marginal tax rates on capital and labor. The tax rates are based on the NBER TAXSIM model. Other indirect taxes such as excise and sales are included in the output values and not explicitly modeled.

The N_{ew}ERA macro model is solved through 2050, starting from 2010 in five-year time intervals.

g. Some Key Model Features

There are great uncertainties about how the U.S. natural gas market will evolve, and the N_{ew}ERA model is designed explicitly to address the key factors affecting future natural gas demand supply, and prices. One of the major uncertainties is the availability of shale gas in the United States. To account for this uncertainty and the subsequent effect it could have on the domestic markets, the N_{ew}ERA model includes resource supply curves for U.S. natural gas. The model also accounts for foreign imports, in particular pipeline imports from Canada, and the potential build-up of liquefaction plants for LNG exports. N_{ew}ERA also has a supply (demand) curve for U.S. imports (exports) that represents how the global LNG market price would react to changes in U.S. imports or exports. On a practical level, there are also other important uncertainties about the ownership of LNG plants and how the LNG contracts will be formulated. These have important consequences on how much revenue can be earned by the U.S. and hence overall macroeconomic impacts. In the N_{ew}ERA model it is possible to represent these variations in domestic versus foreign ownership of assets and capture of export revenues to better understand the issues.

In addition, we assume that natural gas is a homogenous good, similar to crude oil price. Hence, if there was a no-export constraint on LNG exports, domestic natural gas price will converge with the world net-back price.

Consumption of electricity as a transportation fuel could also affect the natural gas market. The N_{ew}ERA model is able to simulate impacts on the supply and disposition of transportation fuels (petroleum-based, biofuels, and electricity), along with responses to the personal driving behavior of the consumer. The personal driving or personal transportation services in the model is represented by Vehicle Miles Traveled ("VMT"), which takes vehicles' capital, transportation fuels, and other driving expenditures as inputs. The model chooses among changes in consumption of transportation fuels, changes in vehicle fuel efficiency, and changes in the overall level of travel in response to changes in the transportation fuel prices.

h. Advantages of the Macro Model Framework

The N_{ew}ERA model incorporates EIA energy quantities and energy prices into the IMPLAN Social Accounting Matrices. This in-house developed approach results in a balanced energy-economy dataset that has internally consistent energy benchmark data, as well as IMPLAN consistent economic values.

The macro model incorporates all production sectors and final demanders of the economy and is linked through terms of trade. The effects of policies are transmitted throughout the economy as all sectors and agents in the economy respond until the economy reaches equilibrium. The ability of the model to track these effects and substitution possibilities across sectors and regions makes it a unique tool for analyzing policies, such as those involving energy and environmental regulations. These general equilibrium substitution effects, however, are not fully captured in a partial equilibrium framework or within an input-output modeling framework. The smooth production and consumption functions employed in this general equilibrium model enable gradual substitution of inputs in response to relative price changes, thus, avoiding all or nothing solutions.

Business investment decisions are informed by future policies and outlook. The forward looking characteristic of the model enables businesses and consumers to determine the optimal savings and investment while anticipating future policies with perfect foresight. The alternative approach on savings and investment decisions is to assume agents in the model are myopic, thus, have no expectations for the future. Though both approaches are equally unrealistic to a certain extent, the latter approach can lead the model to produce inconsistent or incorrect impacts from an announced future policy.

The CGE modeling tool such as the N_{ew}ERA macro model can analyze scenarios or policies that call for large shocks outside historical observation. Econometric models are unsuitable for policies that impose large impacts because these models' production and consumption functions remain invariant under the policy. In addition, econometric models assume that the future path depends on the past experience and therefore fail to capture how the economy might respond under a different and new environment. For example, an econometric model cannot represent changes in fuel efficiency in response to increases in energy prices. However, the N_{ew}ERA macro model can consistently capture future policy changes that envisage having large effects.

The N_{ew}ERA macro model is also a unique tool that can iterate over sequential policies to generate consistent equilibrium solutions starting from an internally consistent equilibrium baseline forecast (such as the AEO reference case). This ability of the model is particularly helpful to decompose macroeconomic effects of individual policies. For example, if one desires to perform economic analysis of a policy that includes multiple regulations, the N_{ew}ERA modeling framework can be used as a tool to layer in one regulation at a time to determine the incremental effects of each policy.

i. Model Outputs

The N_{ew}ERA model outputs include supply and demand of all goods and services, prices of all commodities, and terms of trade effects (including changes in imports and exports). The model outputs also include gross regional product, consumption, investment, disposable income, and changes in income from labor, capital, and resources.

APPENDIX C – TABLES AND MODEL RESULTS

In this section, we present the numerical results from both the Global Natural Gas Model and the U.S. macroeconomic model ("N_{ew}ERA") for all the scenarios that were run as part of the study.

A. Global Natural Gas Model

We evaluated a total of 63 cases with all possible combinations of the following:

- Three domestic outlooks: Reference ("USREF"), High Shale EUR ("HEUR"), Low Shale EUR ("LEUR"),
- Three international outlooks: Reference ("INTREF"), Demand Shock ("D"), Supply/Demand Shock ("SD"), and
- Seven quota schedules: No-Export Capacity ("NX"), Low/Slowest ("LSS"), Low/Slow ('LS"), Low/Rapid ("LR"), High/Slow ("HS"), High/Rapid ("HR"), No-Export Constraint ("NC").

Out of the 45 cases where a quota is enforced, 21 are feasible (*i.e.*, projected U.S. LNG exports are at a level comparable to the quota allotted for each year), as shown in Figure 80. Detailed results for each case are shown in Figure 81 through Figure 143.

The U.S. Reference, International Reference, and the No-Export Capacity cases (Figure 81) are the ultimate baselines to which all other GNGM cases are compared. It assumes no U.S. and Canadian export capacities. After allowing for North American exports in the baseline scenario (Figure 87), our model determines that the U.S. does not export LNG, despite unlimited liquefaction capacities. Running the International Reference outlook with all three domestic outlooks, GNGM found that the U.S. is only able to export under the High Shale EUR scenario (Figure 87, Figure 108, and Figure 129). The projected level of exports is short of the high quotas specified by the EIA, even in the High Shale EUR case. We have thus developed two international shocks that favor U.S. LNG export.

The No-Export Constraint series shows the optimal amounts of U.S. exports under each domestic and international outlook as determined in GNGM. Since GNGM assumes a perfectly-competitive natural gas market, all quota rents are zero if the No-Export Constraint is in effect. A positive rent is collected, however, when the country supplies less than its perfectly-competitive volumes – Figure 105 is one example. When the number of export licenses available is greater than the optimal export level as determined by the natural gas market, the remaining licenses are unutilized and export rent drops to zero (Figure 93). The quota rent per MMBtu reaches the maximum under the High Shale EUR, Supply/Demand Shock, Low/Slowest quota scenario, where the conditions for U.S. exports are most favorable. However, the quota is highly restrictive (Figure 117). A high marginal price on an additional unit of export quota is thus generated.

Figure 80: Scenario Tree with Feasible Cases Highlighted

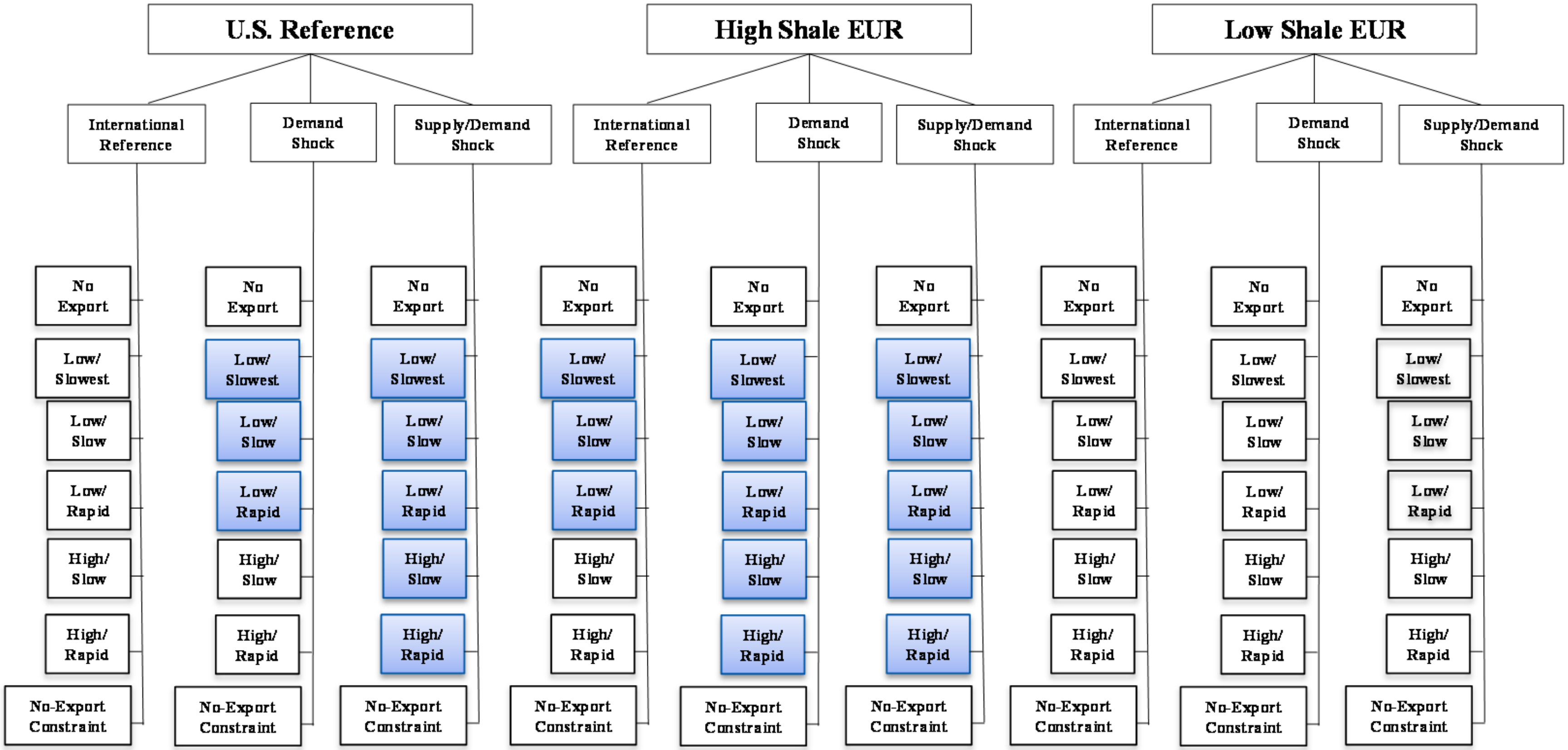


Figure 81: Detailed Results from Global Natural Gas Model, USREF_INTREF_NX

	EIA Ref	NERA Projections				
	2010	2015	2020	2025	2030	2035
Total Demand (Tcf)	**23.86**	**25.09**	**25.28**	**25.08**	**25.88**	**26.48**
Domestic Demand	23.86	25.09	25.28	25.08	25.88	26.48
Pipeline Exports to Canada	-	-	-	-	-	-
Total LNG Exports	-	-	-	-	-	-
China/India	-	-	-	-	-	-
Europe	-	-	-	-	-	-
Korea/Japan	-	-	-	-	-	-
Total Supply (Tcf)	**23.86**	**25.09**	**25.28**	**25.08**	**25.88**	**26.48**
Domestic Production	21.10	22.39	23.38	23.98	25.08	26.38
Pipeline Imports from Canada	2.33	2.33	1.40	0.74	0.64	0.04
Total LNG Imports	0.43	0.37	0.50	0.36	0.16	0.06
Africa	0.11	-	-	-	-	-
C & S America	0.21	0.37	0.50	0.19	0.16	0.06
Europe	0.03	-	-	-	-	-
Middle East	0.08	-	-	0.17	-	-
Wellhead Price (2010$/Mcf)	**$4.08**	**$4.23**	**$4.58**	**$5.42**	**$5.80**	**$6.41**
Netback Price (2010$/Mcf)	**-**	**$4.30**	**$4.45**	**$5.23**	**$5.38**	**$5.80**
Quota Rent (2010$/Mcf)	**-**	**$0.07**	**-**	**-**	**-**	**-**

Figure 82: Detailed Results from Global Natural Gas Model, USREF_INTREF_LSS

	EIA Ref	NERA Projections				
	2010	2015	2020	2025	2030	2035
Total Demand (Tcf)	**23.86**	**25.15**	**25.28**	**25.08**	**25.88**	**26.48**
Domestic Demand	23.86	25.00	25.28	25.08	25.88	26.48
Pipeline Exports to Canada	-	-	-	-	-	-
Total LNG Exports	-	0.14	-	-	-	-
China/India	-	-	-	-	-	-
Europe	-	0.14	-	-	-	-
Korea/Japan	-	-	-	-	-	-
Total Supply (Tcf)	**23.86**	**25.15**	**25.28**	**25.08**	**25.88**	**26.48**
Domestic Production	21.1	22.45	23.38	23.98	25.08	26.38
Pipeline Imports from Canada	2.33	2.33	1.40	0.74	0.64	0.04
Total LNG Imports	0.43	0.37	0.50	0.36	0.16	0.06
Africa	0.11	-	-	-	-	-
C & S America	0.21	0.37	0.50	0.19	0.16	0.06
Europe	0.03	-	-	-	-	-
Middle East	0.08	-	-	0.17	-	-
Wellhead Price (2010$/Mcf)	**$4.08**	**$4.28**	**$4.58**	**$5.42**	**$5.80**	**$6.41**
Netback Price (2010$//Mcf)	**-**	**$4.28**	**$4.33**	**$5.11**	**$5.13**	**$5.45**
Quota Rent (2010$//Mcf)	**-**	**-**	**-**	**-**	**-**	**-**

Figure 83: Detailed Results from Global Natural Gas Model, USREF_INTREF_LS

	EIA Ref	NERA Projections				
	2010	2015	2020	2025	2030	2035
Total Demand (Tcf)	**23.86**	**25.15**	**25.28**	**25.08**	**25.88**	**26.48**
Domestic Demand	23.86	25.00	25.28	25.08	25.88	26.48
Pipeline Exports to Canada	-	-	-	-	-	-
Total LNG Exports	-	0.14	-	-	-	-
China/India	-	-	-	-	-	-
Europe	-	0.14	-	-	-	-
Korea/Japan	-	-	-	-	-	-
Total Supply (Tcf)	**23.86**	**25.15**	**25.28**	**25.08**	**25.88**	**26.48**
Domestic Production	21.1	22.45	23.38	23.98	25.08	26.38
Pipeline Imports from Canada	2.33	2.33	1.40	0.74	0.64	0.04
Total LNG Imports	0.43	0.37	0.50	0.36	0.16	0.06
Africa	0.11	-	-	-	-	-
C & S America	0.21	0.37	0.50	0.19	0.16	0.06
Europe	0.03	-	-	-	-	-
Middle East	0.08	-	-	0.17	-	-
Wellhead Price (2010$//Mcf)	**$4.08**	**$4.28**	**$4.58**	**$5.42**	**$5.80**	**$6.41**
Netback Price (2010$//Mcf)	**-**	**$4.28**	**$4.33**	**$5.11**	**$5.13**	**$5.45**
Quota Rent (2010$//Mcf)	**-**	**-**	**-**	**-**	**-**	**-**

Figure 84: Detailed Results from Global Natural Gas Model, USREF_INTREF_LR

	EIA Ref	NERA Projections				
	2010	2015	2020	2025	2030	2035
Total Demand (Tcf)	**23.86**	**25.15**	**25.28**	**25.08**	**25.88**	**26.48**
Domestic Demand	23.86	25.00	25.28	25.08	25.88	26.48
Pipeline Exports to Canada	-	-	-	-	-	-
Total LNG Exports	-	0.14	-	-	-	-
China/India	-	-	-	-	-	-
Europe	-	0.14	-	-	-	-
Korea/Japan	-	-	-	-	-	-
Total Supply (Tcf)	**23.86**	**25.15**	**25.28**	**25.08**	**25.88**	**26.48**
Domestic Production	21.1	22.45	23.38	23.98	25.08	26.38
Pipeline Imports from Canada	2.33	2.33	1.40	0.74	0.64	0.04
Total LNG Imports	0.43	0.37	0.50	0.36	0.16	0.06
Africa	0.11	-	-	-	-	-
C & S America	0.21	0.37	0.50	0.19	0.16	0.06
Europe	0.03	-	-	-	-	-
Middle East	0.08	-	-	0.17	-	-
Wellhead Price (2010$/Mcf)	**$4.08**	**$4.28**	**$4.58**	**$5.42**	**$5.80**	**$6.41**
Netback Price (2010$//Mcf)	**-**	**$4.28**	**$4.33**	**$5.11**	**$5.13**	**$5.45**
Quota Rent (2010$/Mcf)	**-**	**-**	**-**	**-**	**-**	**-**

Figure 85: Detailed Results from Global Natural Gas Model, USREF_INTREF_HS

	EIA Ref	NERA Projections				
	2010	2015	2020	2025	2030	2035
Total Demand (Tcf)	**23.86**	**25.15**	**25.28**	**25.08**	**25.88**	**26.48**
Domestic Demand	23.86	25.00	25.28	25.08	25.88	26.48
Pipeline Exports to Canada	-	-	-	-	-	-
Total LNG Exports	-	0.14	-	-	-	-
China/India	-	-	-	-	-	-
Europe	-	0.14	-	-	-	-
Korea/Japan	-	-	-	-	-	-
Total Supply (Tcf)	**23.86**	**25.15**	**25.28**	**25.08**	**25.88**	**26.48**
Domestic Production	21.1	22.45	23.38	23.98	25.08	26.38
Pipeline Imports from Canada	2.33	2.33	1.40	0.74	0.64	0.04
Total LNG Imports	0.43	0.37	0.50	0.36	0.16	0.06
Africa	0.11	-	-	-	-	-
C & S America	0.21	0.37	0.50	0.19	0.16	0.06
Europe	0.03	-	-	-	-	-
Middle East	0.08	-	-	0.17	-	-
Wellhead Price (2010$/Mcf)	**$4.08**	**$4.28**	**$4.58**	**$5.42**	**$5.80**	**$6.41**
Netback Price (2010$/Mcf)	**-**	**$4.28**	**$4.33**	**$5.11**	**$5.13**	**$5.45**
Quota Rent (2010$/Mcf)	**-**	**-**	**-**	**-**	**-**	**-**

Figure 86: Detailed Results from Global Natural Gas Model, USREF_INTREF_HR

	EIA Ref	NERA Projections				
	2010	2015	2020	2025	2030	2035
Total Demand (Tcf)	**23.86**	**25.15**	**25.28**	**25.08**	**25.88**	**26.48**
Domestic Demand	23.86	25.00	25.28	25.08	25.88	26.48
Pipeline Exports to Canada	-	-	-	-	-	-
Total LNG Exports	-	0.14	-	-	-	-
China/India	-	-	-	-	-	-
Europe	-	0.14	-	-	-	-
Korea/Japan	-	-	-	-	-	-
Total Supply (Tcf)	**23.86**	**25.15**	**25.28**	**25.08**	**25.88**	**26.48**
Domestic Production	21.1	22.45	23.38	23.98	25.08	26.38
Pipeline Imports from Canada	2.33	2.33	1.40	0.74	0.64	0.04
Total LNG Imports	0.43	0.37	0.50	0.36	0.16	0.06
Africa	0.11	-	-	-	-	-
C & S America	0.21	0.37	0.50	0.19	0.16	0.06
Europe	0.03	-	-	-	-	-
Middle East	0.08	-	-	0.17	-	-
Wellhead Price (2010$/Mcf)	**$4.08**	**$4.28**	**$4.58**	**$5.42**	**$5.80**	**$6.41**
Netback Price (2010$/Mcf)	**-**	**$4.28**	**$4.33**	**$5.11**	**$5.13**	**$5.45**
Quota Rent (2010$/Mcf)	**-**	**-**	**-**	**-**	**-**	**-**

Figure 87: Detailed Results from Global Natural Gas Model, USREF_INTREF_NC

	EIA Ref	NERA Projections				
	2010	2015	2020	2025	2030	2035
Total Demand (Tcf)	**23.86**	**25.15**	**25.28**	**25.08**	**25.88**	**26.48**
Domestic Demand	23.86	25.00	25.28	25.08	25.88	26.48
Pipeline Exports to Canada	-	-	-	-	-	-
Total LNG Exports	-	0.14	-	-	-	-
China/India	-	-	-	-	-	-
Europe	-	0.14	-	-	-	-
Korea/Japan	-	-	-	-	-	-
Total Supply (Tcf)	**23.86**	**25.15**	**25.28**	**25.08**	**25.88**	**26.48**
Domestic Production	21.10	22.45	23.38	23.98	25.08	26.38
Pipeline Imports from Canada	2.33	2.33	1.40	0.74	0.64	0.04
Total LNG Imports	0.43	0.37	0.50	0.36	0.16	0.06
Africa	0.11	-	-	-	-	-
C & S America	0.21	0.37	0.50	0.19	0.16	0.06
Europe	0.03	-	-	-	-	-
Middle East	0.08	-	-	0.17	-	-
Wellhead Price (2010$/Mcf)	**$4.08**	**$4.28**	**$4.58**	**$5.42**	**$5.80**	**$6.41**
Netback Price (2010$/Mcf)	**-**	**$4.28**	**$4.33**	**$5.11**	**$5.13**	**$5.45**
Quota Rent (2010$/Mcf)	**-**	**-**	**-**	**-**	**-**	**-**

Figure 88: Detailed Results from Global Natural Gas Model, USREF_D_NX

	EIA Ref	NERA Projections				
	2010	2015	2020	2025	2030	2035
Total Demand (Tcf)	**23.86**	**25.09**	**25.28**	**25.08**	**25.88**	**26.48**
Domestic Demand	23.86	25.09	25.28	25.08	25.88	26.48
Pipeline Exports to Canada	-	-	-	-	-	-
Total LNG Exports	-	-	-	-	-	-
China/India	-	-	-	-	-	-
Europe	-	-	-	-	-	-
Korea/Japan	-	-	-	-	-	-
Total Supply (Tcf)	**23.86**	**25.09**	**25.28**	**25.08**	**25.88**	**26.48**
Domestic Production	21.1	22.39	23.38	23.98	25.08	26.38
Pipeline Imports from Canada	2.33	2.33	1.40	0.74	0.64	0.04
Total LNG Imports	0.43	0.37	0.50	0.36	0.16	0.06
Africa	0.11	-	-	-	-	-
C & S America	0.21	0.37	0.50	0.36	0.16	0.06
Europe	0.03	-	-	-	-	-
Middle East	0.08	-	-	-	-	-
Wellhead Price (2010$/Mcf)	**$4.08**	**$4.23**	**$4.58**	**$5.42**	**$5.80**	**$6.41**
Netback Price (2010$/Mcf)	**-**	**$4.85**	**$5.11**	**$6.23**	**$6.48**	**$7.18**
Quota Rent (2010$/Mcf)	**-**	**$0.62**	**$0.53**	**$0.81**	**$0.68**	**$0.77**

Figure 89: Detailed Results from Global Natural Gas Model, USREF_D_LSS

	EIA Ref	NERA Projections				
	2010	2015	2020	2025	2030	2035
Total Demand (Tcf)	**23.86**	**25.16**	**25.76**	**25.81**	**26.61**	**27.40**
Domestic Demand	23.86	24.98	24.80	24.51	25.43	26.04
Pipeline Exports to Canada	-	-	-	-	-	-
Total LNG Exports	-	0.18	0.96	1.30	1.19	1.37
China/India	-	0.06	0.26	0.40	0.38	0.41
Europe	-	0.07	0.25	0.47	0.39	0.50
Korea/Japan	-	0.06	0.45	0.43	0.41	0.46
Total Supply (Tcf)	**23.86**	**25.16**	**25.76**	**25.81**	**26.61**	**27.40**
Domestic Production	21.1	22.46	23.86	24.71	25.81	27.30
Pipeline Imports from Canada	2.33	2.33	1.40	0.74	0.64	0.04
Total LNG Imports	0.43	0.37	0.50	0.36	0.16	0.06
Africa	0.11	-	-	-	-	-
C & S America	0.21	0.37	0.50	0.36	0.16	0.06
Europe	0.03	-	-	-	-	-
Middle East	0.08	-	-	-	-	-
Wellhead Price (2010$/Mcf)	**$4.08**	**$4.29**	**$4.86**	**$5.78**	**$6.07**	**$6.66**
Netback Price (2010$/Mcf)	**-**	**$4.75**	**$4.86**	**$5.78**	**$6.07**	**$6.66**
Quota Rent (2010$/Mcf)	**-**	**$0.46**	**-**	**-**	**-**	**-**

Figure 90: Detailed Results from Global Natural Gas Model, USREF_D_LS

	EIA Ref	NERA Projections				
	2010	2015	2020	2025	2030	2035
Total Demand (Tcf)	**23.86**	**25.24**	**25.76**	**25.81**	**26.61**	**27.40**
Domestic Demand	23.86	24.87	24.80	24.51	25.43	26.04
Pipeline Exports to Canada	-	-	-	-	-	-
Total LNG Exports	-	0.37	0.96	1.30	1.19	1.37
China/India	-	0.11	0.26	0.40	0.38	0.41
Europe	-	0.15	0.24	0.47	0.39	0.50
Korea/Japan	-	0.11	0.46	0.43	0.41	0.46
Total Supply (Tcf)	**23.86**	**25.24**	**25.76**	**25.81**	**26.61**	**27.40**
Domestic Production	21.1	22.54	23.86	24.71	25.81	27.30
Pipeline Imports from Canada	2.33	2.33	1.40	0.74	0.64	0.04
Total LNG Imports	0.43	0.37	0.50	0.36	0.16	0.06
Africa	0.11	-	-	-	-	-
C & S America	0.21	0.37	0.50	0.36	0.16	0.06
Europe	0.03	-	-	-	-	-
Middle East	0.08	-	-	-	-	-
Wellhead Price (2010$/Mcf)	**$4.08**	**$4.35**	**$4.86**	**$5.78**	**$6.07**	**$6.66**
Netback Price (2010$/Mcf)	**-**	**$4.71**	**$4.86**	**$5.78**	**$6.07**	**$6.66**
Quota Rent (2010$/Mcf)	**-**	**$0.35**	**-**	**-**	**-**	**-**

Figure 91: Detailed Results from Global Natural Gas Model, USREF_D_LR

	EIA Ref	NERA Projections				
	2010	2015	2020	2025	2030	2035
Total Demand (Tcf)	**23.86**	**25.52**	**25.76**	**25.81**	**26.61**	**27.40**
Domestic Demand	23.86	24.50	24.80	24.51	25.43	26.04
Pipeline Exports to Canada	-	-	-	-	-	-
Total LNG Exports	-	1.02	0.96	1.30	1.19	1.37
China/India	-	0.22	0.26	0.40	0.38	0.41
Europe	-	0.55	0.24	0.47	0.39	0.50
Korea/Japan	-	0.25	0.46	0.43	0.41	0.46
Total Supply (Tcf)	**23.86**	**25.52**	**25.76**	**25.81**	**26.61**	**27.40**
Domestic Production	21.1	22.82	23.86	24.71	25.81	27.30
Pipeline Imports from Canada	2.33	2.33	1.40	0.74	0.64	0.04
Total LNG Imports	0.43	0.37	0.50	0.36	0.16	0.06
Africa	0.11	-	-	-	-	-
C & S America	0.21	0.37	0.50	0.36	0.16	0.06
Europe	0.03	-	-	-	-	-
Middle East	0.08	-	-	-	-	-
Wellhead Price (2010$/Mcf)	**$4.08**	**$4.58**	**$4.86**	**$5.78**	**$6.07**	**$6.66**
Netback Price (2010$/Mcf)	**-**	**$4.58**	**$4.86**	**$5.78**	**$6.07**	**$6.66**
Quota Rent (2010$/Mcf)	**-**	**-**	**-**	**-**	**-**	**-**

Figure 92: Detailed Results from Global Natural Gas Model, USREF_D_HS

	EIA Ref	NERA Projections				
	2010	2015	2020	2025	2030	2035
Total Demand (Tcf)	**23.86**	**25.24**	**25.76**	**25.81**	**26.61**	**27.40**
Domestic Demand	23.86	24.87	24.80	24.51	25.43	26.04
Pipeline Exports to Canada	-	-	-	-	-	-
Total LNG Exports	-	0.37	0.96	1.30	1.19	1.37
China/India	-	0.11	0.26	0.40	0.38	0.41
Europe	-	0.15	0.24	0.47	0.39	0.50
Korea/Japan	-	0.11	0.46	0.43	0.41	0.46
Total Supply (Tcf)	**23.86**	**25.24**	**25.76**	**25.81**	**26.61**	**27.40**
Domestic Production	21.1	22.54	23.86	24.71	25.81	27.30
Pipeline Imports from Canada	2.33	2.33	1.40	0.74	0.64	0.04
Total LNG Imports	0.43	0.37	0.50	0.36	0.16	0.06
Africa	0.11	-	-	-	-	-
C & S America	0.21	0.37	0.50	0.36	0.16	0.06
Europe	0.03	-	-	-	-	-
Middle East	0.08	-	-	-	-	-
Wellhead Price (2010$/Mcf)	**$4.08**	**$4.35**	**$4.86**	**$5.78**	**$6.07**	**$6.66**
Netback Price (2010$/Mcf)	**-**	**$4.71**	**$4.86**	**$5.78**	**$6.07**	**$6.66**
Quota Rent (2010$/Mcf)	**-**	**$0.35**	**-**	**-**	**-**	**-**

Figure 93: Detailed Results from Global Natural Gas Model, USREF_D_HR

	EIA Ref	NERA Projections				
	2010	2015	2020	2025	2030	2035
Total Demand (Tcf)	**23.86**	**25.52**	**25.76**	**25.81**	**26.61**	**27.40**
Domestic Demand	23.86	24.50	24.80	24.51	25.43	26.04
Pipeline Exports to Canada	-	-	-	-	-	-
Total LNG Exports	-	1.02	0.96	1.30	1.19	1.37
China/India	-	0.22	0.26	0.40	0.38	0.41
Europe	-	0.55	0.25	0.47	0.39	0.50
Korea/Japan	-	0.25	0.45	0.43	0.41	0.46
Total Supply (Tcf)	**23.86**	**25.52**	**25.76**	**25.81**	**26.61**	**27.40**
Domestic Production	21.10	22.82	23.86	24.71	25.81	27.30
Pipeline Imports from Canada	2.33	2.33	1.40	0.74	0.64	0.04
Total LNG Imports	0.43	0.37	0.50	0.36	0.16	0.06
Africa	0.11	-	-	-	-	-
C & S America	0.21	0.37	0.50	0.36	0.16	0.06
Europe	0.03	-	-	-	-	-
Middle East	0.08	-	-	-	-	-
Wellhead Price (2010$/Mcf)	**$4.08**	**$4.58**	**$4.86**	**$5.78**	**$6.07**	**$6.66**
Netback Price (2010$/Mcf)	**-**	**$4.58**	**$4.86**	**$5.78**	**$6.07**	**$6.66**
Quota Rent (2010$/Mcf)	**-**	**-**	**-**	**-**	**-**	**-**

Figure 94: Detailed Results from Global Natural Gas Model, USREF_D_NC

	EIA Ref	NERA Projections				
	2010	2015	2020	2025	2030	2035
Total Demand (Tcf)	**23.86**	**25.52**	**25.76**	**25.81**	**26.61**	**27.40**
Domestic Demand	23.86	24.50	24.80	24.51	25.43	26.04
Pipeline Exports to Canada	-	-	-	-	-	-
Total LNG Exports	-	1.02	0.96	1.30	1.19	1.37
China/India	-	0.22	0.26	0.40	0.38	0.41
Europe	-	0.55	0.24	0.47	0.39	0.50
Korea/Japan	-	0.25	0.46	0.43	0.41	0.46
Total Supply (Tcf)	**23.86**	**25.52**	**25.76**	**25.81**	**26.61**	**27.40**
Domestic Production	21.10	22.82	23.86	24.71	25.81	27.30
Pipeline Imports from Canada	2.33	2.33	1.40	0.74	0.64	0.04
Total LNG Imports	0.43	0.37	0.50	0.36	0.16	0.06
Africa	0.11	-	-	-	-	-
C & S America	0.21	0.37	0.50	0.36	0.16	0.06
Europe	0.03	-	-	-	-	-
Middle East	0.08	-	-	-	-	-
Wellhead Price (2010$/Mcf)	**$4.08**	**$4.58**	**$4.86**	**$5.78**	**$6.07**	**$6.66**
Netback Price (2010$/Mcf)	**-**	**$4.58**	**$4.86**	**$5.78**	**$6.07**	**$6.66**
Quota Rent (2010$/Mcf)	**-**	**-**	**-**	**-**	**-**	**-**

Figure 95: Detailed Results from Global Natural Gas Model, USREF_SD_NX

	EIA Ref	NERA Projections				
	2010	2015	2020	2025	2030	2035
Total Demand (Tcf)	**23.86**	**25.09**	**25.28**	**25.08**	**25.88**	**26.48**
Domestic Demand	23.86	25.09	25.28	25.08	25.88	26.48
Pipeline Exports to Canada	-	-	-	-	-	-
Total LNG Exports	-	-	-	-	-	-
China/India	-	-	-	-	-	-
Europe	-	-	-	-	-	-
Korea/Japan	-	-	-	-	-	-
Total Supply (Tcf)	**23.86**	**25.09**	**25.28**	**25.08**	**25.88**	**26.48**
Domestic Production	21.1	22.39	23.38	23.98	25.08	26.38
Pipeline Imports from Canada	2.33	2.33	1.40	0.74	0.64	0.04
Total LNG Imports	0.43	0.37	0.50	0.36	0.16	0.06
Africa	0.11	-	-	-	-	-
C & S America	0.21	0.37	0.50	0.36	0.16	0.06
Europe	0.03	-	-	-	-	-
Middle East	0.08	-	-	-	-	-
Wellhead Price (2010$/Mcf)	**$4.08**	**$4.23**	**$4.58**	**$5.42**	**$5.80**	**$6.41**
Netback Price (2010$/Mcf)	**-**	**$5.83**	**$9.20**	**$10.04**	**$8.63**	**$9.33**
Quota Rent (2010$/Mcf)	**-**	**$1.60**	**$4.62**	**$4.61**	**$2.83**	**$2.92**

Figure 96: Detailed Results from Global Natural Gas Model, USREF_SD_LSS

	EIA Ref	NERA Projections				
	2010	2015	2020	2025	2030	2035
Total Demand (Tcf)	**23.86**	**25.16**	**25.83**	**26.21**	**27.25**	**27.97**
Domestic Demand	23.86	24.98	24.73	24.20	25.06	25.78
Pipeline Exports to Canada	-	-	-	-	-	-
Total LNG Exports	-	0.18	1.10	2.01	2.19	2.19
China/India	-	0.06	0.24	0.51	0.55	0.46
Europe	-	0.06	0.24	0.48	0.14	0.37
Korea/Japan	-	0.06	0.62	1.02	1.50	1.36
Total Supply (Tcf)	**23.86**	**25.16**	**25.83**	**26.21**	**27.25**	**27.97**
Domestic Production	21.1	22.46	23.93	25.11	26.45	27.87
Pipeline Imports from Canada	2.33	2.33	1.40	0.74	0.64	0.04
Total LNG Imports	0.43	0.37	0.50	0.36	0.16	0.06
Africa	0.11	-	-	-	-	-
C & S America	0.21	0.37	0.50	0.36	0.16	0.06
Europe	0.03	-	-	-	-	-
Middle East	0.08	-	-	-	-	-
Wellhead Price (2010$/Mcf)	**$4.08**	**$4.29**	**$4.91**	**$5.99**	**$6.30**	**$6.82**
Netback Price (2010$/Mcf)	**-**	**$5.65**	**$6.29**	**$7.22**	**$7.50**	**$8.43**
Quota Rent (2010$/Mcf)	**-**	**$1.36**	**$1.38**	**$1.23**	**$1.20**	**$1.62**

Figure 97: Detailed Results from Global Natural Gas Model, USREF_SD_LS

	EIA Ref	NERA Projections				
	2010	2015	2020	2025	2030	2035
Total Demand (Tcf)	**23.86**	**25.24**	**26.38**	**26.32**	**27.25**	**27.97**
Domestic Demand	23.86	24.87	24.19	24.13	25.06	25.78
Pipeline Exports to Canada	-	-	-	-	-	-
Total LNG Exports	-	0.37	2.19	2.19	2.19	2.19
China/India	-	0.11	0.33	0.54	0.55	0.46
Europe	-	0.13	0.35	0.51	0.14	0.37
Korea/Japan	-	0.13	1.51	1.14	1.50	1.36
Total Supply (Tcf)	**23.86**	**25.24**	**26.38**	**26.32**	**27.25**	**27.97**
Domestic Production	21.1	22.54	24.48	25.22	26.45	27.87
Pipeline Imports from Canada	2.33	2.33	1.40	0.74	0.64	0.04
Total LNG Imports	0.43	0.37	0.50	0.36	0.16	0.06
Africa	0.11	-	-	-	-	-
C & S America	0.21	0.37	0.50	0.36	0.16	0.06
Europe	0.03	-	-	-	-	-
Middle East	0.08	-	-	-	-	-
Wellhead Price (2010$/Mcf)	**$4.08**	**$4.35**	**$5.25**	**$6.04**	**$6.30**	**$6.82**
Netback Price (2010$/Mcf)	**-**	**$5.59**	**$5.77**	**$7.15**	**$7.50**	**$8.43**
Quota Rent (2010$/Mcf)	**-**	**$1.24**	**$0.52**	**$1.11**	**$1.20**	**$1.62**

Figure 98: Detailed Results from Global Natural Gas Model, USREF_SD_LR

	EIA Ref	NERA Projections				
	2010	2015	2020	2025	2030	2035
Total Demand (Tcf)	**23.86**	**25.56**	**26.38**	**26.32**	**27.25**	**27.97**
Domestic Demand	23.86	24.46	24.19	24.13	25.06	25.78
Pipeline Exports to Canada	-	-	-	-	-	-
Total LNG Exports	-	1.10	2.19	2.19	2.19	2.19
China/India	-	0.26	0.33	0.54	0.55	0.46
Europe	-	0.43	0.35	0.51	0.14	0.37
Korea/Japan	-	0.40	1.51	1.14	1.50	1.36
Total Supply (Tcf)	**23.86**	**25.56**	**26.38**	**26.32**	**27.25**	**27.97**
Domestic Production	21.1	22.86	24.48	25.22	26.45	27.87
Pipeline Imports from Canada	2.33	2.33	1.40	0.74	0.64	0.04
Total LNG Imports	0.43	0.37	0.50	0.36	0.16	0.06
Africa	0.11	-	-	-	-	-
C & S America	0.21	0.37	0.50	0.36	0.16	0.06
Europe	0.03	-	-	-	-	-
Middle East	0.08	-	-	-	-	-
Wellhead Price (2010$/Mcf)	**$4.08**	**$4.61**	**$5.25**	**$6.04**	**$6.30**	**$6.82**
Netback Price (2010$/Mcf)	**-**	**$5.35**	**$5.77**	**$7.15**	**$7.50**	**$8.43**
Quota Rent (2010$/Mcf)	**-**	**$0.74**	**$0.52**	**$1.11**	**$1.20**	**$1.62**

Figure 99: Detailed Results from Global Natural Gas Model, USREF_SD_HS

	EIA Ref	NERA Projections				
	2010	2015	2020	2025	2030	2035
Total Demand (Tcf)	**23.86**	**25.24**	**26.38**	**27.32**	**28.65**	**29.50**
Domestic Demand	23.86	24.87	24.19	23.39	24.27	25.12
Pipeline Exports to Canada	-	-	-	-	-	-
Total LNG Exports	-	0.37	2.19	3.93	4.38	4.38
China/India	-	0.11	0.33	0.83	0.93	0.75
Europe	-	0.13	0.35	0.77	0.27	0.59
Korea/Japan	-	0.13	1.51	2.34	3.17	3.03
Total Supply (Tcf)	**23.86**	**25.24**	**26.38**	**27.32**	**28.65**	**29.50**
Domestic Production	21.1	22.54	24.48	26.22	27.85	29.40
Pipeline Imports from Canada	2.33	2.33	1.40	0.74	0.64	0.04
Total LNG Imports	0.43	0.37	0.50	0.36	0.16	0.06
Africa	0.11	-	-	-	-	-
C & S America	0.21	0.37	0.50	0.36	0.16	0.06
Europe	0.03	-	-	-	-	-
Middle East	0.08	-	-	-	-	-
Wellhead Price (2010$/Mcf)	**$4.08**	**$4.35**	**$5.25**	**$6.57**	**$6.82**	**$7.24**
Netback Price (2010$/Mcf)	**-**	**$5.59**	**$5.77**	**$6.57**	**$6.91**	**$7.91**
Quota Rent (2010$/Mcf)	**-**	**$1.24**	**$0.52**	**-**	**$0.08**	**$0.67**

Figure 100: Detailed Results from Global Natural Gas Model, USREF_SD_HR

	EIA Ref	NERA Projections				
	2010	2015	2020	2025	2030	2035
Total Demand (Tcf)	**23.86**	**25.56**	**26.75**	**27.32**	**28.65**	**29.50**
Domestic Demand	23.86	24.46	23.83	23.39	24.27	25.12
Pipeline Exports to Canada	-	-	-	-	-	-
Total LNG Exports	-	1.10	2.92	3.93	4.38	4.38
China/India	-	0.26	0.46	0.83	0.93	0.75
Europe	-	0.43	0.74	0.77	0.27	0.59
Korea/Japan	-	0.40	1.72	2.34	3.17	3.03
Total Supply (Tcf)	**23.86**	**25.56**	**26.75**	**27.32**	**28.65**	**29.50**
Domestic Production	21.10	22.86	24.85	26.22	27.85	29.40
Pipeline Imports from Canada	2.33	2.33	1.40	0.74	0.64	0.04
Total LNG Imports	0.43	0.37	0.50	0.36	0.16	0.06
Africa	0.11	-	-	-	-	-
C & S America	0.21	0.37	0.50	0.36	0.16	0.06
Europe	0.03	-	-	-	-	-
Middle East	0.08	-	-	-	-	-
Wellhead Price (2010$/Mcf)	**$4.08**	**$4.61**	**$5.49**	**$6.57**	**$6.82**	**$7.24**
Netback Price (2010$/Mcf)	**-**	**$5.35**	**$5.49**	**$6.57**	**$6.91**	**$7.91**
Quota Rent (2010$/Mcf)	**-**	**$0.74**	**-**	**-**	**$0.08**	**$0.67**

Figure 101: Detailed Results from Global Natural Gas Model, USREF_SD_NC

	EIA Ref	NERA Projections				
	2010	2015	2020	2025	2030	2035
Total Demand (Tcf)	**23.86**	**26.02**	**26.75**	**27.32**	**28.76**	**30.47**
Domestic Demand	23.86	23.85	23.83	23.39	24.21	24.73
Pipeline Exports to Canada	-	-	-	-	-	-
Total LNG Exports	-	2.17	2.92	3.93	4.54	5.75
China/India	-	0.39	0.39	0.83	0.97	1.04
Europe	-	0.99	0.41	0.77	0.29	0.74
Korea/Japan	-	0.80	2.12	2.34	3.28	3.97
Total Supply (Tcf)	**23.86**	**26.02**	**26.75**	**27.32**	**28.76**	**30.47**
Domestic Production	21.10	23.32	24.85	26.22	27.96	30.37
Pipeline Imports from Canada	2.33	2.33	1.40	0.74	0.64	0.04
Total LNG Imports	0.43	0.37	0.50	0.36	0.16	0.06
Africa	0.11	-	-	-	-	-
C & S America	0.21	0.37	0.50	0.36	0.16	0.06
Europe	0.03	-	-	-	-	-
Middle East	0.08	-	-	-	-	-
Wellhead Price (2010$/Mcf)	**$4.08**	**$5.02**	**$5.49**	**$6.57**	**$6.86**	**$7.50**
Netback Price (2010$/Mcf)	**-**	**$5.02**	**$5.49**	**$6.57**	**$6.86**	**$7.50**
Quota Rent (2010$/Mcf)	**-**	**-**	**-**	**-**	**-**	**-**

Figure 102: Detailed Results from Global Natural Gas Model, HEUR_INTREF_NX

	EIA Ref	NERA Projections				
	2010	2015	2020	2025	2030	2035
Total Demand (Tcf)	**23.86**	**26.98**	**27.66**	**27.82**	**28.78**	**30.39**
Domestic Demand	23.86	26.98	27.66	27.82	28.60	29.71
Pipeline Exports to Canada	-	-	-	-	0.18	0.68
Total LNG Exports	-	-	-	-	-	-
China/India	-	-	-	-	-	-
Europe	-	-	-	-	-	-
Korea/Japan	-	-	-	-	-	-
Total Supply (Tcf)	**23.86**	**26.98**	**27.66**	**27.82**	**28.78**	**30.39**
Domestic Production	21.1	24.60	26.29	27.45	28.62	30.33
Pipeline Imports from Canada	2.33	2.01	0.87	0.01	-	-
Total LNG Imports	0.43	0.37	0.50	0.36	0.16	0.06
Africa	0.11	-	-	-	-	-
C & S America	0.21	0.37	0.50	0.19	0.16	0.06
Europe	0.03	-	-	-	-	-
Middle East	0.08	-	-	0.17	-	-
Wellhead Price (2010$/Mcf)	**$4.08**	**$3.27**	**$3.43**	**$4.03**	**$4.47**	**$4.88**
Netback Price (2010$/Mcf)	**-**	**$4.30**	**$4.45**	**$5.23**	**$5.38**	**$5.80**
Quota Rent (2010$/Mcf)	**-**	**$1.03**	**$1.02**	**$1.21**	**$0.91**	**$0.92**

Figure 103: Detailed Results from Global Natural Gas Model, HEUR_INTREF_LSS

	EIA Ref	NERA Projections				
	2010	2015	2020	2025	2030	2035
Total Demand (Tcf)	**23.86**	**27.06**	**28.23**	**28.99**	**30.18**	**31.91**
Domestic Demand	23.86	26.88	27.13	26.98	27.81	29.04
Pipeline Exports to Canada	-	-	-	-	0.18	0.68
Total LNG Exports	-	0.18	1.10	2.01	2.19	2.19
China/India	-	-	0.11	0.65	0.74	0.69
Europe	-	0.18	0.99	1.02	1.30	1.35
Korea/Japan	-	-	0.00	0.34	0.14	0.15
Total Supply (Tcf)	**23.86**	**27.06**	**28.23**	**28.99**	**30.18**	**31.91**
Domestic Production	21.1	24.68	26.86	28.62	30.02	31.85
Pipeline Imports from Canada	2.33	2.01	0.87	0.01	-	-
Total LNG Imports	0.43	0.37	0.50	0.36	0.16	0.06
Africa	0.11	-	-	-	-	0.06
C & S America	0.21	0.37	0.49	-	0.16	-
Europe	0.03	-	-	-	-	-
Middle East	0.08	-	0.01	0.36	-	-
Wellhead Price (2010$/Mcf)	**$4.08**	**$3.31**	**$3.66**	**$4.41**	**$4.82**	**$5.16**
Netback Price (2010$/Mcf)	**-**	**$4.24**	**$4.23**	**$4.94**	**$5.00**	**$5.48**
Quota Rent (2010$/Mcf)	**-**	**$0.93**	**$0.57**	**$0.53**	**$0.18**	**$0.32**

Figure 104: Detailed Results from Global Natural Gas Model, HEUR_INTREF_LS

	EIA Ref	NERA Projections				
	2010	2015	2020	2025	2030	2035
Total Demand (Tcf)	**23.86**	**27.15**	**28.80**	**29.09**	**30.18**	**31.91**
Domestic Demand	23.86	26.78	26.61	26.90	27.81	29.04
Pipeline Exports to Canada	-	-	-	-	0.18	0.68
Total LNG Exports	-	0.37	2.19	2.19	2.19	2.19
China/India	-	-	0.38	0.70	0.74	0.69
Europe	-	0.37	1.71	1.12	1.30	1.35
Korea/Japan	-	-	0.10	0.37	0.14	0.15
Total Supply (Tcf)	**23.86**	**27.15**	**28.80**	**29.09**	**30.18**	**31.91**
Domestic Production	21.1	24.77	27.43	28.72	30.02	31.85
Pipeline Imports from Canada	2.33	2.01	0.87	0.01	-	-
Total LNG Imports	0.43	0.37	0.50	0.36	0.16	0.06
Africa	0.11	-	-	-	-	0.06
C & S America	0.21	0.37	0.41	-	0.16	-
Europe	0.03	-	-	-	-	-
Middle East	0.08	-	0.09	0.36	-	-
Wellhead Price (2010$/Mcf)	**$4.08**	**$3.36**	**$3.89**	**$4.44**	**$4.82**	**$5.16**
Netback Price (2010$/Mcf)	**-**	**$4.21**	**$4.13**	**$4.92**	**$5.00**	**$5.48**
Quota Rent (2010$/Mcf)	**-**	**$0.85**	**$0.24**	**$0.48**	**$0.18**	**$0.32**

Figure 105: Detailed Results from Global Natural Gas Model, HEUR_INTREF_LR

	EIA Ref	NERA Projections				
	2010	**2015**	**2020**	**2025**	**2030**	**2035**
Total Demand (Tcf)	**23.86**	**27.47**	**28.80**	**29.09**	**30.18**	**31.91**
Domestic Demand	23.86	26.37	26.61	26.90	27.81	29.04
Pipeline Exports to Canada	-	-	-	-	0.18	0.68
Total LNG Exports	-	1.10	2.19	2.19	2.19	2.19
China/India	-	-	0.38	0.70	0.74	0.69
Europe	-	1.10	1.71	1.12	1.30	1.35
Korea/Japan	-	-	0.10	0.37	0.14	0.15
Total Supply (Tcf)	**23.86**	**27.47**	**28.80**	**29.09**	**30.18**	**31.91**
Domestic Production	21.10	25.09	27.43	28.72	30.02	31.85
Pipeline Imports from Canada	2.33	2.01	0.87	0.01	-	-
Total LNG Imports	0.43	0.37	0.50	0.36	0.16	0.06
Africa	0.11	-	-	-	-	0.06
C & S America	0.21	0.37	0.41	-	0.16	-
Europe	0.03	-	-	-	-	-
Middle East	0.08	-	0.09	0.36	-	-
Wellhead Price (2010$/Mcf)	**$4.08**	**$3.55**	**$3.89**	**$4.44**	**$4.82**	**$5.16**
Netback Price (2010$/Mcf)	**-**	**$4.08**	**$4.13**	**$4.92**	**$5.00**	**$5.48**
Quota Rent (2010$/Mcf)	**-**	**$0.53**	**$0.24**	**$0.48**	**$0.18**	**$0.32**

Figure 106: Detailed Results from Global Natural Gas Model, HEUR_INTREF_HS

	EIA Ref	NERA Projections				
	2010	2015	2020	2025	2030	2035
Total Demand (Tcf)	**23.86**	**27.15**	**28.80**	**30.04**	**30.56**	**32.75**
Domestic Demand	23.86	26.78	26.61	26.26	27.60	28.69
Pipeline Exports to Canada	-	-	-	-	0.18	0.68
Total LNG Exports	-	0.37	2.19	3.77	2.78	3.38
China/India	-	-	0.38	1.06	0.89	1.01
Europe	-	0.37	1.71	1.99	1.73	2.22
Korea/Japan	-	-	0.10	0.72	0.16	0.16
Total Supply (Tcf)	**23.86**	**27.15**	**28.80**	**30.04**	**30.56**	**32.75**
Domestic Production	21.1	24.77	27.43	29.67	30.40	32.69
Pipeline Imports from Canada	2.33	2.01	0.87	0.01	-	-
Total LNG Imports	0.43	0.37	0.50	0.36	0.16	0.06
Africa	0.11	-	-	-	-	0.06
C & S America	0.21	0.37	0.41	-	0.16	-
Europe	0.03	-	-	-	-	-
Middle East	0.08	-	0.09	0.36	-	-
Wellhead Price (2010$/Mcf)	**$4.08**	**$3.36**	**$3.89**	**$4.76**	**$4.91**	**$5.31**
Netback Price (2010$/Mcf)	**-**	**$4.21**	**$4.13**	**$4.76**	**$4.91**	**$5.31**
Quota Rent (2010$/Mcf)	**-**	**$0.85**	**$0.24**	**-**	**-**	**-**

Figure 107: Detailed Results from Global Natural Gas Model, HEUR_INTREF_HR

	EIA Ref	NERA Projections				
	2010	2015	2020	2025	2030	2035
Total Demand (Tcf)	**23.86**	**27.47**	**29.21**	**30.04**	**30.56**	**32.75**
Domestic Demand	23.86	26.37	26.24	26.26	27.60	28.69
Pipeline Exports to Canada	-	-	-	-	0.18	0.68
Total LNG Exports	-	1.10	2.97	3.77	2.78	3.38
China/India	-	-	0.72	1.06	0.89	1.01
Europe	-	1.10	1.96	1.99	1.73	2.22
Korea/Japan	-	-	0.28	0.72	0.16	0.16
Total Supply (Tcf)	**23.86**	**27.47**	**29.21**	**30.04**	**30.56**	**32.75**
Domestic Production	21.1	25.09	27.84	29.67	30.40	32.69
Pipeline Imports from Canada	2.33	2.01	0.87	0.01	-	-
Total LNG Imports	0.43	0.37	0.50	0.36	0.16	0.06
Africa	0.11	-	-	-	-	0.06
C & S America	0.21	0.37	0.35	-	0.16	-
Europe	0.03	-	-	-	-	-
Middle East	0.08	-	0.15	0.36	-	-
Wellhead Price (2010$/Mcf)	**$4.08**	**$3.55**	**$4.07**	**$4.76**	**$4.91**	**$5.31**
Netback Price (2010$/Mcf)	**-**	**$4.08**	**$4.07**	**$4.76**	**$4.91**	**$5.31**
Quota Rent (2010$/Mcf)	**-**	**$0.53**	**-**	**-**	**-**	**-**

Figure 108: Detailed Results from Global Natural Gas Model, HEUR_INTREF_NC

	EIA Ref	NERA Projections				
	2010	2015	2020	2025	2030	2035
Total Demand (Tcf)	**23.86**	**27.98**	**29.21**	**30.04**	**30.56**	**32.75**
Domestic Demand	23.86	25.76	26.24	26.26	27.60	28.69
Pipeline Exports to Canada	-	-	-	-	0.18	0.68
Total LNG Exports	-	2.23	2.97	3.77	2.78	3.38
China/India	-	0.08	0.71	1.06	0.89	1.01
Europe	-	2.14	1.99	1.99	1.73	2.22
Korea/Japan	-	0.00	0.27	0.72	0.16	0.16
Total Supply (Tcf)	**23.86**	**27.98**	**29.21**	**30.04**	**30.56**	**32.75**
Domestic Production	21.10	25.60	27.84	29.67	30.40	32.69
Pipeline Imports from Canada	2.33	2.01	0.87	0.01	-	-
Total LNG Imports	0.43	0.37	0.50	0.36	0.16	0.06
Africa	0.11	-	-	-	-	0.06
C & S America	0.21	0.37	0.35	-	0.16	-
Europe	0.03	-	-	-	-	-
Middle East	0.08	-	0.15	0.36	-	-
Wellhead Price (2010$/Mcf)	**$4.08**	**$3.86**	**$4.07**	**$4.76**	**$4.91**	**$5.31**
Netback Price (2010$/Mcf)	**-**	**$3.86**	**$4.07**	**$4.76**	**$4.91**	**$5.31**
Quota Rent (2010$/Mcf)	**-**	**-**	**-**	**-**	**-**	**-**

Figure 109: Detailed Results from Global Natural Gas Model, HEUR_D_NX

	EIA Ref	NERA Projections				
	2010	2015	2020	2025	2030	2035
Total Demand (Tcf)	**23.86**	**26.98**	**27.66**	**27.82**	**28.78**	**30.39**
Domestic Demand	23.86	26.98	27.66	27.82	28.60	29.71
Pipeline Exports to Canada	-	-	-	-	0.18	0.68
Total LNG Exports	-	-	-	-	-	-
China/India	-	-	-	-	-	-
Europe	-	-	-	-	-	-
Korea/Japan	-	-	-	-	-	-
Total Supply (Tcf)	**23.86**	**26.98**	**27.66**	**27.82**	**28.78**	**30.39**
Domestic Production	21.1	24.60	26.29	27.45	28.62	30.33
Pipeline Imports from Canada	2.33	2.01	0.87	0.01	-	-
Total LNG Imports	0.43	0.37	0.50	0.36	0.16	0.06
Africa	0.11	-	-	-	-	-
C & S America	0.21	0.37	0.50	0.36	0.16	0.06
Europe	0.03	-	-	-	-	-
Middle East	0.08	-	0.00	-	-	-
Wellhead Price (2010$/Mcf)	**$4.08**	**$3.27**	**$3.43**	**$4.03**	**$4.47**	**$4.88**
Netback Price (2010$/Mcf)	**-**	**$4.85**	**$5.10**	**$6.23**	**$6.48**	**$7.18**
Quota Rent (2010$/Mcf)	**-**	**$1.58**	**$1.67**	**$2.20**	**$2.01**	**$2.30**

Figure 110: Detailed Results from Global Natural Gas Model, HEUR_D_LSS

	EIA Ref	NERA Projections				
	2010	2015	2020	2025	2030	2035
Total Demand (Tcf)	**23.86**	**27.06**	**28.23**	**28.99**	**30.18**	**31.91**
Domestic Demand	23.86	26.88	27.13	26.98	27.81	29.04
Pipeline Exports to Canada	-	-	-	-	0.18	0.68
Total LNG Exports	-	0.18	1.10	2.01	2.19	2.19
China/India	-	0.06	0.28	0.59	0.68	0.63
Europe	-	0.07	0.28	0.75	0.72	0.84
Korea/Japan	-	0.06	0.54	0.67	0.79	0.72
Total Supply (Tcf)	**23.86**	**27.06**	**28.23**	**28.99**	**30.18**	**31.91**
Domestic Production	21.1	24.68	26.86	28.62	30.02	31.85
Pipeline Imports from Canada	2.33	2.01	0.87	0.01	-	-
Total LNG Imports	0.43	0.37	0.50	0.36	0.16	0.06
Africa	0.11	-	-	-	-	-
C & S America	0.21	0.37	0.50	0.36	0.16	0.06
Europe	0.03	-	-	-	-	-
Middle East	0.08	-	-	-	-	-
Wellhead Price (2010$/Mcf)	**$4.08**	**$3.31**	**$3.66**	**$4.41**	**$4.82**	**$5.16**
Netback Price (2010$/Mcf)	**-**	**$4.75**	**$4.80**	**$5.55**	**$5.61**	**$6.31**
Quota Rent (2010$/Mcf)	**-**	**$1.44**	**$1.15**	**$1.15**	**$0.80**	**$1.15**

Figure 111: Detailed Results from Global Natural Gas Model, HEUR_D_LS

	EIA Ref	NERA Projections				
	2010	2015	2020	2025	2030	2035
Total Demand (Tcf)	**23.86**	**27.15**	**28.80**	**29.09**	**30.18**	**31.91**
Domestic Demand	23.86	26.78	26.61	26.90	27.81	29.04
Pipeline Exports to Canada	-	-	-	-	0.18	0.68
Total LNG Exports	-	0.37	2.19	2.19	2.19	2.19
China/India	-	0.11	0.47	0.64	0.68	0.63
Europe	-	0.15	0.63	0.81	0.72	0.84
Korea/Japan	-	0.11	1.10	0.73	0.79	0.72
Total Supply (Tcf)	**23.86**	**27.15**	**28.80**	**29.09**	**30.18**	**31.91**
Domestic Production	21.1	24.77	27.43	28.72	30.02	31.85
Pipeline Imports from Canada	2.33	2.01	0.87	0.01	-	-
Total LNG Imports	0.43	0.37	0.50	0.36	0.16	0.06
Africa	0.11	-	-	-	-	-
C & S America	0.21	0.37	0.50	0.36	0.16	0.06
Europe	0.03	-	-	-	-	-
Middle East	0.08	-	-	-	-	-
Wellhead Price (2010$/Mcf)	**$4.08**	**$3.36**	**$3.89**	**$4.44**	**$4.82**	**$5.16**
Netback Price (2010$/Mcf)	**-**	**$4.71**	**$4.60**	**$5.51**	**$5.61**	**$6.31**
Quota Rent (2010$/Mcf)	**-**	**$1.35**	**$0.71**	**$1.07**	**$0.80**	**$1.15**

Figure 112: Detailed Results from Global Natural Gas Model, HEUR_D_LR

	EIA Ref	NERA Projections				
	2010	2015	2020	2025	2030	2035
Total Demand (Tcf)	**23.86**	**27.47**	**28.80**	**29.09**	**30.18**	**31.91**
Domestic Demand	23.86	26.37	26.61	26.90	27.81	29.04
Pipeline Exports to Canada	-	-	-	-	0.18	0.68
Total LNG Exports	-	1.10	2.19	2.19	2.19	2.19
China/India	-	0.23	0.47	0.64	0.68	0.63
Europe	-	0.61	0.63	0.81	0.72	0.84
Korea/Japan	-	0.26	1.10	0.73	0.79	0.72
Total Supply (Tcf)	**23.86**	**27.47**	**28.80**	**29.09**	**30.18**	**31.91**
Domestic Production	21.1	25.09	27.43	28.72	30.02	31.85
Pipeline Imports from Canada	2.33	2.01	0.87	0.01	-	-
Total LNG Imports	0.43	0.37	0.50	0.36	0.16	0.06
Africa	0.11	-	-	-	-	-
C & S America	0.21	0.37	0.50	0.36	0.16	0.06
Europe	0.03	-	-	-	-	-
Middle East	0.08	-	-	-	-	-
Wellhead Price (2010$/Mcf)	**$4.08**	**$3.55**	**$3.89**	**$4.44**	**$4.82**	**$5.16**
Netback Price (2010$/Mcf)	**-**	**$4.56**	**$4.60**	**$5.51**	**$5.61**	**$6.31**
Quota Rent (2010$/Mcf)	**-**	**$1.01**	**$0.71**	**$1.07**	**$0.80**	**$1.15**

Figure 113: Detailed Results from Global Natural Gas Model, HEUR_D_HS

	EIA Ref	NERA Projections				
	2010	2015	2020	2025	2030	2035
Total Demand (Tcf)	**23.86**	**27.15**	**28.80**	**30.18**	**31.61**	**33.46**
Domestic Demand	23.86	26.78	26.61	26.16	27.05	28.40
Pipeline Exports to Canada	-	-	-	-	0.18	0.68
Total LNG Exports	-	0.37	2.19	4.02	4.38	4.38
China/India	-	0.11	0.47	1.08	1.28	1.18
Europe	-	0.15	0.63	1.54	1.61	1.67
Korea/Japan	-	0.11	1.10	1.41	1.49	1.52
Total Supply (Tcf)	**23.86**	**27.15**	**28.80**	**30.18**	**31.61**	**33.46**
Domestic Production	21.1	24.77	27.43	29.81	31.45	33.40
Pipeline Imports from Canada	2.33	2.01	0.87	0.01	-	-
Total LNG Imports	0.43	0.37	0.50	0.36	0.16	0.06
Africa	0.11	-	-	-	-	-
C & S America	0.21	0.37	0.50	0.01	0.16	0.06
Europe	0.03	-	-	-	-	-
Middle East	0.08	-	-	0.35	-	-
Wellhead Price (2010$/Mcf)	**$4.08**	**$3.36**	**$3.89**	**$4.81**	**$5.18**	**$5.44**
Netback Price (2010$/Mcf)	**-**	**$4.71**	**$4.60**	**$5.08**	**$5.24**	**$5.77**
Quota Rent (2010$/Mcf)	**-**	**$1.35**	**$0.71**	**$0.27**	**$0.07**	**$0.33**

Figure 114: Detailed Results from Global Natural Gas Model, HEUR_D_HR

	EIA Ref	NERA Projections				
	2010	2015	2020	2025	2030	2035
Total Demand (Tcf)	**23.86**	**27.47**	**29.73**	**30.40**	**31.61**	**33.46**
Domestic Demand	23.86	26.37	25.79	26.02	27.05	28.40
Pipeline Exports to Canada	-	-	-	-	0.18	0.68
Total LNG Exports	-	1.10	3.94	4.38	4.38	4.38
China/India	-	0.23	0.71	1.13	1.28	1.18
Europe	-	0.61	1.57	1.69	1.61	1.67
Korea/Japan	-	0.26	1.66	1.56	1.49	1.52
Total Supply (Tcf)	**23.86**	**27.47**	**29.73**	**30.40**	**31.61**	**33.46**
Domestic Production	21.1	25.09	28.36	30.03	31.45	33.40
Pipeline Imports from Canada	2.33	2.01	0.87	0.01	-	-
Total LNG Imports	0.43	0.37	0.50	0.36	0.16	0.06
Africa	0.11	-	-	-	-	-
C & S America	0.21	0.37	0.50	0.00	0.16	0.06
Europe	0.03	-	-	-	-	-
Middle East	0.08	-	-	0.36	-	-
Wellhead Price (2010$/Mcf)	**$4.08**	**$3.55**	**$4.30**	**$4.89**	**$5.18**	**$5.44**
Netback Price (2010$/Mcf)	**-**	**$4.56**	**$4.30**	**$5.04**	**$5.24**	**$5.77**
Quota Rent (2010$/Mcf)	**-**	**$1.01**	**-**	**$0.15**	**$0.07**	**$0.33**

Figure 115: Detailed Results from Global Natural Gas Model, HEUR_D_NC

	EIA Ref	NERA Projections				
	2010	2015	2020	2025	2030	2035
Total Demand (Tcf)	**23.86**	**28.47**	**29.73**	**30.69**	**31.75**	**34.35**
Domestic Demand	23.86	25.18	25.79	25.83	26.98	28.06
Pipeline Exports to Canada	-	-	-	-	0.18	0.68
Total LNG Exports	-	3.30	3.94	4.87	4.59	5.61
China/India	-	0.43	0.70	1.20	1.33	1.52
Europe	-	2.30	1.79	1.88	1.71	2.19
Korea/Japan	-	0.58	1.45	1.79	1.55	1.90
Total Supply (Tcf)	**23.86**	**28.47**	**29.73**	**30.69**	**31.75**	**34.35**
Domestic Production	21.10	26.09	28.36	30.32	31.59	34.29
Pipeline Imports from Canada	2.33	2.01	0.87	0.01	-	-
Total LNG Imports	0.43	0.37	0.50	0.36	0.16	0.06
Africa	0.11	-	-	-	-	0.06
C & S America	0.21	0.37	0.50	-	0.16	-
Europe	0.03	-	-	-	-	-
Middle East	0.08	-	-	0.36	-	-
Wellhead Price (2010$/Mcf)	**$4.08**	**$4.18**	**$4.30**	**$4.99**	**$5.21**	**$5.60**
Netback Price (2010$/Mcf)	**-**	**$4.18**	**$4.30**	**$4.99**	**$5.21**	**$5.60**
Quota Rent (2010$/Mcf)	**-**	**-**	**-**	**-**	**-**	**-**

Figure 116: Detailed Results from Global Natural Gas Model, HEUR_SD_NX

	EIA Ref	NERA Projections				
	2010	2015	2020	2025	2030	2035
Total Demand (Tcf)	**23.86**	**26.98**	**27.66**	**27.82**	**28.78**	**30.39**
Domestic Demand	23.86	26.98	27.66	27.82	28.60	29.71
Pipeline Exports to Canada	-	-	-	-	0.18	0.68
Total LNG Exports	-	-	-	-	-	-
China/India	-	-	-	-	-	-
Europe	-	-	-	-	-	-
Korea/Japan	-	-	-	-	-	-
Total Supply (Tcf)	**23.86**	**26.98**	**27.66**	**27.82**	**28.78**	**30.39**
Domestic Production	21.1	24.60	26.29	27.45	28.62	30.33
Pipeline Imports from Canada	2.33	2.01	0.87	0.01	-	-
Total LNG Imports	0.43	0.37	0.50	0.36	0.16	0.06
Africa	0.11	-	-	-	-	-
C & S America	0.21	0.37	0.50	0.36	0.16	0.06
Europe	0.03	-	-	-	-	-
Middle East	0.08	-	-	-	-	-
Wellhead Price (2010$/Mcf)	**$4.08**	**$3.27**	**$3.43**	**$4.03**	**$4.47**	**$4.88**
Netback Price (2010$/Mcf)	**-**	**$5.83**	**$9.20**	**$10.04**	**$8.63**	**$9.33**
Quota Rent (2010$/Mcf)	**-**	**$2.56**	**$5.77**	**$6.01**	**$4.16**	**$4.45**

Figure 117: Detailed Results from Global Natural Gas Model, HEUR_SD_LSS

	EIA Ref	NERA Projections				
	2010	2015	2020	2025	2030	2035
Total Demand (Tcf)	**23.86**	**27.06**	**28.23**	**28.99**	**30.18**	**31.91**
Domestic Demand	23.86	26.88	27.13	26.98	27.81	29.04
Pipeline Exports to Canada	-	-	-	-	0.18	0.68
Total LNG Exports	-	0.18	1.10	2.01	2.19	2.19
China/India	-	0.06	0.23	0.51	0.55	0.46
Europe	-	0.06	0.24	0.48	0.14	0.37
Korea/Japan	-	0.06	0.63	1.02	1.50	1.36
Total Supply (Tcf)	**23.86**	**27.06**	**28.23**	**28.99**	**30.18**	**31.91**
Domestic Production	21.10	24.68	26.86	28.62	30.02	31.85
Pipeline Imports from Canada	2.33	2.01	0.87	0.01	-	-
Total LNG Imports	0.43	0.37	0.50	0.36	0.16	0.06
Africa	0.11	-	-	-	-	-
C & S America	0.21	0.37	0.50	0.36	0.16	0.06
Europe	0.03	-	-	-	-	-
Middle East	0.08	-	-	-	-	-
Wellhead Price (2010$/Mcf)	**$4.08**	**$3.31**	**$3.66**	**$4.41**	**$4.82**	**$5.16**
Netback Price (2010$/Mcf)	**-**	**$5.65**	**$6.29**	**$7.22**	**$7.50**	**$8.43**
Quota Rent (2010$/Mcf)	**-**	**$2.34**	**$2.63**	**$2.81**	**$2.69**	**$3.28**

Figure 118: Detailed Results from Global Natural Gas Model, HEUR_SD_LS

	EIA Ref	NERA Projections				
	2010	2015	2020	2025	2030	2035
Total Demand (Tcf)	**23.86**	**27.15**	**28.80**	**29.09**	**30.18**	**31.91**
Domestic Demand	23.86	26.78	26.61	26.90	27.81	29.04
Pipeline Exports to Canada	-	-	-	-	0.18	0.68
Total LNG Exports	-	0.37	2.19	2.19	2.19	2.19
China/India	-	0.11	0.33	0.54	0.55	0.46
Europe	-	0.13	0.35	0.51	0.14	0.37
Korea/Japan	-	0.13	1.51	1.14	1.50	1.36
Total Supply (Tcf)	**23.86**	**27.15**	**28.80**	**29.09**	**30.18**	**31.91**
Domestic Production	21.1	24.77	27.43	28.72	30.02	31.85
Pipeline Imports from Canada	2.33	2.01	0.87	0.01	-	-
Total LNG Imports	0.43	0.37	0.50	0.36	0.16	0.06
Africa	0.11	-	-	-	-	-
C & S America	0.21	0.37	0.50	0.36	0.16	0.06
Europe	0.03	-	-	-	-	-
Middle East	0.08	-	-	-	-	-
Wellhead Price (2010$/Mcf)	**$4.08**	**$3.36**	**$3.89**	**$4.44**	**$4.82**	**$5.16**
Netback Price (2010$/Mcf)	**-**	**$5.59**	**$5.77**	**$7.15**	**$7.50**	**$8.43**
Quota Rent (2010$/Mcf)	**-**	**$2.23**	**$1.88**	**$2.71**	**$2.69**	**$3.28**

Figure 119: Detailed Results from Global Natural Gas Model, HEUR_SD_LR

	EIA Ref	NERA Projections				
	2010	2015	2020	2025	2030	2035
Total Demand (Tcf)	**23.86**	**27.47**	**28.80**	**29.09**	**30.18**	**31.91**
Domestic Demand	23.86	26.37	26.61	26.90	27.81	29.04
Pipeline Exports to Canada	-	-	-	-	0.18	0.68
Total LNG Exports	-	1.10	2.19	2.19	2.19	2.19
China/India	-	0.26	0.33	0.54	0.55	0.46
Europe	-	0.43	0.35	0.51	0.14	0.37
Korea/Japan	-	0.40	1.51	1.14	1.50	1.36
Total Supply (Tcf)	**23.86**	**27.47**	**28.80**	**29.09**	**30.18**	**31.91**
Domestic Production	21.1	25.09	27.43	28.72	30.02	31.85
Pipeline Imports from Canada	2.33	2.01	0.87	0.01	-	-
Total LNG Imports	0.43	0.37	0.50	0.36	0.16	0.06
Africa	0.11	-	-	-	-	-
C & S America	0.21	0.37	0.50	0.36	0.16	0.06
Europe	0.03	-	-	-	-	-
Middle East	0.08	-	-	-	-	-
Wellhead Price (2010$/Mcf)	**$4.08**	**$3.55**	**$3.89**	**$4.44**	**$4.82**	**$5.16**
Netback Price (2010$/Mcf)	**-**	**$5.35**	**$5.77**	**$7.15**	**$7.50**	**$8.43**
Quota Rent (2010$/Mcf)	**-**	**$1.80**	**$1.88**	**$2.71**	**$2.69**	**$3.28**

Figure 120: Detailed Results from Global Natural Gas Model, HEUR_SD_HS

	EIA Ref	NERA Projections				
	2010	2015	2020	2025	2030	2035
Total Demand (Tcf)	**23.86**	**27.15**	**28.80**	**30.18**	**31.61**	**33.46**
Domestic Demand	23.86	26.78	26.61	26.16	27.05	28.40
Pipeline Exports to Canada	-	-	-	-	0.18	0.68
Total LNG Exports	-	0.37	2.19	4.02	4.38	4.38
China/India	-	0.11	0.33	0.84	0.93	0.75
Europe	-	0.13	0.35	0.78	0.27	0.59
Korea/Japan	-	0.13	1.51	2.39	3.17	3.03
Total Supply (Tcf)	**23.86**	**27.15**	**28.80**	**30.18**	**31.61**	**33.46**
Domestic Production	21.1	24.77	27.43	29.81	31.45	33.40
Pipeline Imports from Canada	2.33	2.01	0.87	0.01	-	-
Total LNG Imports	0.43	0.37	0.50	0.36	0.16	0.06
Africa	0.11	-	-	-	-	-
C & S America	0.21	0.37	0.50	0.36	0.16	0.06
Europe	0.03	-	-	-	-	-
Middle East	0.08	-	-	-	-	-
Wellhead Price (2010$/Mcf)	**$4.08**	**$3.36**	**$3.89**	**$4.81**	**$5.18**	**$5.44**
Netback Price (2010$/Mcf)	**-**	**$5.59**	**$5.77**	**$6.54**	**$6.91**	**$7.91**
Quota Rent (2010$/Mcf)	**-**	**$2.23**	**$1.88**	**$1.73**	**$1.73**	**$2.47**

Figure 121: Detailed Results from Global Natural Gas Model, HEUR_SD_HR

	EIA Ref	NERA Projections				
	2010	2015	2020	2025	2030	2035
Total Demand (Tcf)	**23.86**	**27.47**	**29.97**	**30.40**	**31.61**	**33.46**
Domestic Demand	23.86	26.37	25.59	26.02	27.05	28.40
Pipeline Exports to Canada	-	-	-	-	0.18	0.68
Total LNG Exports	-	1.10	4.38	4.38	4.38	4.38
China/India	-	0.26	0.55	0.91	0.93	0.75
Europe	-	0.43	0.65	0.83	0.27	0.59
Korea/Japan	-	0.40	3.18	2.63	3.17	3.03
Total Supply (Tcf)	**23.86**	**27.47**	**29.97**	**30.40**	**31.61**	**33.46**
Domestic Production	21.1	25.09	28.60	30.03	31.45	33.40
Pipeline Imports from Canada	2.33	2.01	0.87	0.01	-	-
Total LNG Imports	0.43	0.37	0.50	0.36	0.16	0.06
Africa	0.11	-	-	-	-	-
C & S America	0.21	0.37	0.50	0.36	0.16	0.06
Europe	0.03	-	-	-	-	-
Middle East	0.08	-	-	-	-	-
Wellhead Price (2010$/Mcf)	**$4.08**	**$3.55**	**$4.41**	**$4.89**	**$5.18**	**$5.44**
Netback Price (2010$/Mcf)	**-**	**$5.35**	**$4.93**	**$6.41**	**$6.91**	**$7.91**
Quota Rent (2010$/Mcf)	**-**	**$1.80**	**$0.52**	**$1.53**	**$1.73**	**$2.47**

Figure 122: Detailed Results from Global Natural Gas Model, HEUR_SD_NC

	EIA Ref	NERA Projections				
	2010	2015	2020	2025	2030	2035
Total Demand (Tcf)	**23.86**	**28.91**	**30.54**	**31.84**	**33.29**	**36.38**
Domestic Demand	23.86	24.68	25.10	25.11	26.22	27.31
Pipeline Exports to Canada	-	-	-	-	0.18	0.68
Total LNG Exports	-	4.23	5.44	6.72	6.89	8.39
China/India	-	0.51	0.69	1.60	1.75	2.00
Europe	-	2.23	1.04	1.09	0.57	1.18
Korea/Japan	-	1.49	3.71	4.03	4.57	5.21
Total Supply (Tcf)	**23.86**	**28.91**	**30.54**	**31.84**	**33.29**	**36.38**
Domestic Production	21.10	26.53	29.17	31.47	33.13	36.32
Pipeline Imports from Canada	2.33	2.01	0.87	0.01	-	-
Total LNG Imports	0.43	0.37	0.50	0.36	0.16	0.06
Africa	0.11	-	-	-	-	-
C & S America	0.21	0.37	0.50	0.36	0.16	0.06
Europe	0.03	-	-	-	-	-
Middle East	0.08	-	-	0.00	-	-
Wellhead Price (2010$/Mcf)	**$4.08**	**$4.47**	**$4.68**	**$5.40**	**$5.61**	**$5.97**
Netback Price (2010$/Mcf)	**-**	**$4.47**	**$4.68**	**$5.40**	**$5.61**	**$5.97**
Quota Rent (2010$/Mcf)	**-**	**-**	**-**	**-**	**-**	**-**

Figure 123: Detailed Results from Global Natural Gas Model, LEUR_INTREF_NX

	EIA Ref	NERA Projections				
	2010	2015	2020	2025	2030	2035
Total Demand (Tcf)	**23.86**	**22.77**	**22.54**	**22.21**	**22.79**	**23.15**
Domestic Demand	23.86	22.77	22.54	22.21	22.79	23.15
Pipeline Exports to Canada	-	-	-	-	-	-
Total LNG Exports	-	-	-	-	-	-
China/India	-	-	-	-	-	-
Europe	-	-	-	-	-	-
Korea/Japan	-	-	-	-	-	-
Total Supply (Tcf)	**23.86**	**22.77**	**22.54**	**22.21**	**22.79**	**23.15**
Domestic Production	21.1	19.74	19.98	19.89	20.70	21.43
Pipeline Imports from Canada	2.33	2.66	2.06	1.96	1.93	1.66
Total LNG Imports	0.43	0.37	0.50	0.36	0.16	0.06
Africa	0.11	-	-	-	-	-
C & S America	0.21	0.37	0.50	0.19	0.16	0.06
Europe	0.03	-	-	-	-	-
Middle East	0.08	-	-	0.17	-	-
Wellhead Price ($2010/Mcf)	**$4.08**	**$5.85**	**$6.49**	**$7.56**	**$7.97**	**$8.70**
Netback Price ($2010/Mcf)	**-**	**$4.30**	**$4.45**	**$5.23**	**$5.38**	**$5.80**
Quota Rent ($2010/Mcf)	**-**	**-**	**-**	**-**	**-**	**-**

Figure 124: Detailed Results from Global Natural Gas Model, LEUR_INTREF_LSS

	EIA Ref	NERA Projections				
	2010	2015	2020	2025	2030	2035
Total Demand (Tcf)	**23.86**	**22.77**	**22.54**	**22.21**	**22.79**	**23.15**
Domestic Demand	23.86	22.77	22.54	22.21	22.79	23.15
Pipeline Exports to Canada	-	-	-	-	-	-
Total LNG Exports	-	-	-	-	-	-
China/India	-	-	-	-	-	-
Europe	-	-	-	-	-	-
Korea/Japan	-	-	-	-	-	-
Total Supply (Tcf)	**23.86**	**22.77**	**22.54**	**22.21**	**22.79**	**23.15**
Domestic Production	21.1	19.74	19.98	19.89	20.70	21.43
Pipeline Imports from Canada	2.33	2.66	2.06	1.96	1.93	1.66
Total LNG Imports	0.43	0.37	0.50	0.36	0.16	0.06
Africa	0.11	-	-	-	-	-
C & S America	0.21	0.37	0.50	0.19	0.16	0.06
Europe	0.03	-	-	-	-	-
Middle East	0.08	-	-	0.17	-	-
Wellhead Price ($2010/Mcf)	**$4.08**	**$5.85**	**$6.49**	**$7.56**	**$7.97**	**$8.70**
Netback Price ($2010/Mcf)	**-**	**$4.30**	**$4.45**	**$5.23**	**$5.38**	**$5.80**
Quota Rent ($2010/Mcf)	**-**	**-**	**-**	**-**	**-**	**-**

Figure 125: Detailed Results from Global Natural Gas Model, LEUR_INTREF_LS

	EIA Ref	NERA Projections				
	2010	2015	2020	2025	2030	2035
Total Demand (Tcf)	**23.86**	**22.77**	**22.54**	**22.21**	**22.79**	**23.15**
Domestic Demand	23.86	22.77	22.54	22.21	22.79	23.15
Pipeline Exports to Canada	-	-	-	-	-	-
Total LNG Exports	-	-	-	-	-	-
China/India	-	-	-	-	-	-
Europe	-	-	-	-	-	-
Korea/Japan	-	-	-	-	-	-
Total Supply (Tcf)	**23.86**	**22.77**	**22.54**	**22.21**	**22.79**	**23.15**
Domestic Production	21.1	19.74	19.98	19.89	20.70	21.43
Pipeline Imports from Canada	2.33	2.66	2.06	1.96	1.93	1.66
Total LNG Imports	0.43	0.37	0.50	0.36	0.16	0.06
Africa	0.11	-	-	-	-	-
C & S America	0.21	0.37	0.50	0.19	0.16	0.06
Europe	0.03	-	-	-	-	-
Middle East	0.08	-	-	0.17	-	-
Wellhead Price ($2010/Mcf)	**$4.08**	**$5.85**	**$6.49**	**$7.56**	**$7.97**	**$8.70**
Netback Price ($2010/Mcf)	**-**	**$4.30**	**$4.45**	**$5.23**	**$5.38**	**$5.80**
Quota Rent ($2010/Mcf)	**-**	**-**	**-**	**-**	**-**	**-**

Figure 126: Detailed Results from Global Natural Gas Model, LEUR_INTREF_LR

	EIA Ref	NERA Projections				
	2010	2015	2020	2025	2030	2035
Total Demand (Tcf)	**23.86**	**22.77**	**22.54**	**22.21**	**22.79**	**23.15**
Domestic Demand	23.86	22.77	22.54	22.21	22.79	23.15
Pipeline Exports to Canada	-	-	-	-	-	-
Total LNG Exports	-	-	-	-	-	-
China/India	-	-	-	-	-	-
Europe	-	-	-	-	-	-
Korea/Japan	-	-	-	-	-	-
Total Supply (Tcf)	**23.86**	**22.77**	**22.54**	**22.21**	**22.79**	**23.15**
Domestic Production	21.1	19.74	19.98	19.89	20.70	21.43
Pipeline Imports from Canada	2.33	2.66	2.06	1.96	1.93	1.66
Total LNG Imports	0.43	0.37	0.50	0.36	0.16	0.06
Africa	0.11	-	-	-	-	-
C & S America	0.21	0.37	0.50	0.19	0.16	0.06
Europe	0.03	-	-	-	-	-
Middle East	0.08	-	-	0.17	-	-
Wellhead Price ($2010/Mcf)	**$4.08**	**$5.85**	**$6.49**	**$7.56**	**$7.97**	**$8.70**
Netback Price ($2010/Mcf)	**-**	**$4.30**	**$4.45**	**$5.23**	**$5.38**	**$5.80**
Quota Rent ($2010/Mcf)	**-**	**-**	**-**	**-**	**-**	**-**

Figure 127: Detailed Results from Global Natural Gas Model, LEUR_INTREF_HS

	EIA Ref	NERA Projections				
	2010	2015	2020	2025	2030	2035
Total Demand (Tcf)	**23.86**	**22.77**	**22.54**	**22.21**	**22.79**	**23.15**
Domestic Demand	23.86	22.77	22.54	22.21	22.79	23.15
Pipeline Exports to Canada	-	-	-	-	-	-
Total LNG Exports	-	-	-	-	-	-
China/India	-	-	-	-	-	-
Europe	-	-	-	-	-	-
Korea/Japan	-	-	-	-	-	-
Total Supply (Tcf)	**23.86**	**22.77**	**22.54**	**22.21**	**22.79**	**23.15**
Domestic Production	21.1	19.74	19.98	19.89	20.70	21.43
Pipeline Imports from Canada	2.33	2.66	2.06	1.96	1.93	1.66
Total LNG Imports	0.43	0.37	0.50	0.36	0.16	0.06
Africa	0.11	-	-	-	-	-
C & S America	0.21	0.37	0.50	0.19	0.16	0.06
Europe	0.03	-	-	-	-	-
Middle East	0.08	-	-	0.17	-	-
Wellhead Price ($2010/Mcf)	**$4.08**	**$5.85**	**$6.49**	**$7.56**	**$7.97**	**$8.70**
Netback Price ($2010/Mcf)	**-**	**$4.30**	**$4.45**	**$5.23**	**$5.38**	**$5.80**
Quota Rent ($2010/Mcf)	**-**	**-**	**-**	**-**	**-**	**-**

Figure 128: Detailed Results from Global Natural Gas Model, LEUR_INTREF_HR

	EIA Ref	NERA Projections				
	2010	2015	2020	2025	2030	2035
Total Demand (Tcf)	**23.86**	**22.77**	**22.54**	**22.21**	**22.79**	**23.15**
Domestic Demand	23.86	22.77	22.54	22.21	22.79	23.15
Pipeline Exports to Canada	-	-	-	-	-	-
Total LNG Exports	-	-	-	-	-	-
China/India	-	-	-	-	-	-
Europe	-	-	-	-	-	-
Korea/Japan	-	-	-	-	-	-
Total Supply (Tcf)	**23.86**	**22.77**	**22.54**	**22.21**	**22.79**	**23.15**
Domestic Production	21.1	19.74	19.98	19.89	20.70	21.43
Pipeline Imports from Canada	2.33	2.66	2.06	1.96	1.93	1.66
Total LNG Imports	0.43	0.37	0.50	0.36	0.16	0.06
Africa	0.11	-	-	-	-	-
C & S America	0.21	0.37	0.50	0.19	0.16	0.06
Europe	0.03	-	-	-	-	-
Middle East	0.08	-	-	0.17	-	-
Wellhead Price ($2010/Mcf)	**$4.08**	**$5.85**	**$6.49**	**$7.56**	**$7.97**	**$8.70**
Netback Price ($2010/Mcf)	**-**	**$4.30**	**$4.45**	**$5.23**	**$5.38**	**$5.80**
Quota Rent ($2010/Mcf)	**-**	**-**	**-**	**-**	**-**	**-**

Figure 129: Detailed Results from Global Natural Gas Model, LEUR_INTREF_NC

	EIA Ref	NERA Projections				
	2010	2015	2020	2025	2030	2035
Total Demand (Tcf)	**23.86**	**22.77**	**22.54**	**22.21**	**22.79**	**23.15**
Domestic Demand	23.86	22.77	22.54	22.21	22.79	23.15
Pipeline Exports to Canada	-	-	-	-	-	-
Total LNG Exports	-	-	-	-	-	-
China/India	-	-	-	-	-	-
Europe	-	-	-	-	-	-
Korea/Japan	-	-	-	-	-	-
Total Supply (Tcf)	**23.86**	**22.77**	**22.54**	**22.21**	**22.79**	**23.15**
Domestic Production	21.1	19.74	19.98	19.89	20.70	21.43
Pipeline Imports from Canada	2.33	2.66	2.06	1.96	1.93	1.66
Total LNG Imports	0.43	0.37	0.50	0.36	0.16	0.06
Africa	0.11	-	-	-	-	-
C & S America	0.21	0.37	0.50	0.19	0.16	0.06
Europe	0.03	-	-	-	-	-
Middle East	0.08	-	-	0.17	-	-
Wellhead Price ($2010/Mcf)	**$4.08**	**$5.85**	**$6.49**	**$7.56**	**$7.97**	**$8.70**
Netback Price ($2010/Mcf)	**-**	**$4.30**	**$4.45**	**$5.23**	**$5.38**	**$5.80**
Quota Rent ($2010/Mcf)	**-**	**-**	**-**	**-**	**-**	**-**

Figure 130: Detailed Results from Global Natural Gas Model, LEUR_D_NX

	EIA Ref	NERA Projections				
	2010	2015	2020	2025	2030	2035
Total Demand (Tcf)	**23.86**	**22.77**	**22.54**	**22.21**	**22.79**	**23.15**
Domestic Demand	23.86	22.77	22.54	22.21	22.79	23.15
Pipeline Exports to Canada	-	-	-	-	-	-
Total LNG Exports	-	-	-	-	-	-
China/India	-	-	-	-	-	-
Europe	-	-	-	-	-	-
Korea/Japan	-	-	-	-	-	-
Total Supply (Tcf)	**23.86**	**22.77**	**22.54**	**22.21**	**22.79**	**23.15**
Domestic Production	21.1	19.74	19.98	19.89	20.70	21.43
Pipeline Imports from Canada	2.33	2.66	2.06	1.96	1.93	1.66
Total LNG Imports	0.43	0.37	0.50	0.36	0.16	0.06
Africa	0.11	-	-	-	-	-
C & S America	0.21	0.37	0.50	0.36	0.16	0.06
Europe	0.03	-	-	-	-	-
Middle East	0.08	-	-	-	-	-
Wellhead Price ($2010/Mcf)	**$4.08**	**$5.85**	**$6.49**	**$7.56**	**$7.97**	**$8.70**
Netback Price ($2010/Mcf)	**-**	**$4.85**	**$5.10**	**$6.23**	**$6.48**	**$7.18**
Quota Rent ($2010/Mcf)	**-**	**-**	**-**	**-**	**-**	**-**

Figure 131: Detailed Results from Global Natural Gas Model, LEUR_D_LSS

	EIA Ref	NERA Projections				
	2010	2015	2020	2025	2030	2035
Total Demand (Tcf)	**23.86**	**22.77**	**22.54**	**22.21**	**22.79**	**23.15**
Domestic Demand	23.86	22.77	22.54	22.21	22.79	23.15
Pipeline Exports to Canada	-	-	-	-	-	-
Total LNG Exports	-	-	-	-	-	-
China/India	-	-	-	-	-	-
Europe	-	-	-	-	-	-
Korea/Japan	-	-	-	-	-	-
Total Supply (Tcf)	**23.86**	**22.77**	**22.54**	**22.21**	**22.79**	**23.15**
Domestic Production	21.1	19.74	19.98	19.89	20.70	21.43
Pipeline Imports from Canada	2.33	2.66	2.06	1.96	1.93	1.66
Total LNG Imports	0.43	0.37	0.50	0.36	0.16	0.06
Africa	0.11	-	-	-	-	-
C & S America	0.21	0.37	0.50	0.36	0.16	0.06
Europe	0.03	-	-	-	-	-
Middle East	0.08	-	-	-	-	-
Wellhead Price ($2010/Mcf)	**$4.08**	**$5.85**	**$6.49**	**$7.56**	**$7.97**	**$8.70**
Netback Price ($2010/Mcf)	**-**	**$4.85**	**$5.10**	**$6.23**	**$6.48**	**$7.18**
Quota Rent ($2010/Mcf)	**-**	**-**	**-**	**-**	**-**	**-**

Figure 132: Detailed Results from Global Natural Gas Model, LEUR_D_LS

	EIA Ref	NERA Projections				
	2010	2015	2020	2025	2030	2035
Total Demand (Tcf)	**23.86**	**22.77**	**22.54**	**22.21**	**22.79**	**23.15**
Domestic Demand	23.86	22.77	22.54	22.21	22.79	23.15
Pipeline Exports to Canada	-	-	-	-	-	-
Total LNG Exports	-	-	-	-	-	-
China/India	-	-	-	-	-	-
Europe	-	-	-	-	-	-
Korea/Japan	-	-	-	-	-	-
Total Supply (Tcf)	**23.86**	**22.77**	**22.54**	**22.21**	**22.79**	**23.15**
Domestic Production	21.1	19.74	19.98	19.89	20.70	21.43
Pipeline Imports from Canada	2.33	2.66	2.06	1.96	1.93	1.66
Total LNG Imports	0.43	0.37	0.50	0.36	0.16	0.06
Africa	0.11	-	-	-	-	-
C & S America	0.21	0.37	0.50	0.36	0.16	0.06
Europe	0.03	-	-	-	-	-
Middle East	0.08	-	-	-	-	-
Wellhead Price ($2010/Mcf)	**$4.08**	**$5.85**	**$6.49**	**$7.56**	**$7.97**	**$8.70**
Netback Price ($2010/Mcf)	**-**	**$4.85**	**$5.10**	**$6.23**	**$6.48**	**$7.18**
Quota Rent ($2010/Mcf)	**-**	**-**	**-**	**-**	**-**	**-**

Figure 133: Detailed Results from Global Natural Gas Model, LEUR_D_LR

	EIA Ref	NERA Projections				
	2010	2015	2020	2025	2030	2035
Total Demand (Tcf)	**23.86**	**22.77**	**22.54**	**22.21**	**22.79**	**23.15**
Domestic Demand	23.86	22.77	22.54	22.21	22.79	23.15
Pipeline Exports to Canada	-	-	-	-	-	-
Total LNG Exports	-	-	-	-	-	-
China/India	-	-	-	-	-	-
Europe	-	-	-	-	-	-
Korea/Japan	-	-	-	-	-	-
Total Supply (Tcf)	**23.86**	**22.77**	**22.54**	**22.21**	**22.79**	**23.15**
Domestic Production	21.1	19.74	19.98	19.89	20.70	21.43
Pipeline Imports from Canada	2.33	2.66	2.06	1.96	1.93	1.66
Total LNG Imports	0.43	0.37	0.50	0.36	0.16	0.06
Africa	0.11	-	-	-	-	-
C & S America	0.21	0.37	0.50	0.36	0.16	0.06
Europe	0.03	-	-	-	-	-
Middle East	0.08	-	-	-	-	-
Wellhead Price ($2010/Mcf)	**$4.08**	**$5.85**	**$6.49**	**$7.56**	**$7.97**	**$8.70**
Netback Price ($2010/Mcf)	**-**	**$4.85**	**$5.10**	**$6.23**	**$6.48**	**$7.18**
Quota Rent ($2010/Mcf)	**-**	**-**	**-**	**-**	**-**	**-**

Figure 134: Detailed Results from Global Natural Gas Model, LEUR_D_HS

	EIA Ref	NERA Projections				
	2010	2015	2020	2025	2030	2035
Total Demand (Tcf)	**23.86**	**22.77**	**22.54**	**22.21**	**22.79**	**23.15**
Domestic Demand	23.86	22.77	22.54	22.21	22.79	23.15
Pipeline Exports to Canada	-	-	-	-	-	-
Total LNG Exports	-	-	-	-	-	-
China/India	-	-	-	-	-	-
Europe	-	-	-	-	-	-
Korea/Japan	-	-	-	-	-	-
Total Supply (Tcf)	**23.86**	**22.77**	**22.54**	**22.21**	**22.79**	**23.15**
Domestic Production	21.1	19.74	19.98	19.89	20.70	21.43
Pipeline Imports from Canada	2.33	2.66	2.06	1.96	1.93	1.66
Total LNG Imports	0.43	0.37	0.50	0.36	0.16	0.06
Africa	0.11	-	-	-	-	-
C & S America	0.21	0.37	0.50	0.36	0.16	0.06
Europe	0.03	-	-	-	-	-
Middle East	0.08	-	-	-	-	-
Wellhead Price ($2010/Mcf)	**$4.08**	**$5.85**	**$6.49**	**$7.56**	**$7.97**	**$8.70**
Netback Price ($2010/Mcf)	**-**	**$4.85**	**$5.10**	**$6.23**	**$6.48**	**$7.18**
Quota Rent ($2010/Mcf)	**-**	**-**	**-**	**-**	**-**	**-**

Figure 135: Detailed Results from Global Natural Gas Model, LEUR_D_HR

	EIA Ref	NERA Projections				
	2010	2015	2020	2025	2030	2035
Total Demand (Tcf)	**23.86**	**22.77**	**22.54**	**22.21**	**22.79**	**23.15**
Domestic Demand	23.86	22.77	22.54	22.21	22.79	23.15
Pipeline Exports to Canada	-	-	-	-	-	-
Total LNG Exports	-	-	-	-	-	-
China/India	-	-	-	-	-	-
Europe	-	-	-	-	-	-
Korea/Japan	-	-	-	-	-	-
Total Supply (Tcf)	**23.86**	**22.77**	**22.54**	**22.21**	**22.79**	**23.15**
Domestic Production	21.1	19.74	19.98	19.89	20.70	21.43
Pipeline Imports from Canada	2.33	2.66	2.06	1.96	1.93	1.66
Total LNG Imports	0.43	0.37	0.50	0.36	0.16	0.06
Africa	0.11	-	-	-	-	-
C & S America	0.21	0.37	0.50	0.36	0.16	0.06
Europe	0.03	-	-	-	-	-
Middle East	0.08	-	-	-	-	-
Wellhead Price ($2010/Mcf)	**$4.08**	**$5.85**	**$6.49**	**$7.56**	**$7.97**	**$8.70**
Netback Price ($2010/Mcf)	**-**	**$4.85**	**$5.10**	**$6.23**	**$6.48**	**$7.18**
Quota Rent ($2010/Mcf)	**-**	**-**	**-**	**-**	**-**	**-**

Figure 136: Detailed Results from Global Natural Gas Model, LEUR_D_NC

	EIA Ref	NERA Projections				
	2010	2015	2020	2025	2030	2035
Total Demand (Tcf)	**23.86**	**22.77**	**22.54**	**22.21**	**22.79**	**23.15**
Domestic Demand	23.86	22.77	22.54	22.21	22.79	23.15
Pipeline Exports to Canada	-	-	-	-	-	-
Total LNG Exports	-	-	-	-	-	-
China/India	-	-	-	-	-	-
Europe	-	-	-	-	-	-
Korea/Japan	-	-	-	-	-	-
Total Supply (Tcf)	**23.86**	**22.77**	**22.54**	**22.21**	**22.79**	**23.15**
Domestic Production	21.1	19.74	19.98	19.89	20.70	21.43
Pipeline Imports from Canada	2.33	2.66	2.06	1.96	1.93	1.66
Total LNG Imports	0.43	0.37	0.50	0.36	0.16	0.06
Africa	0.11	-	-	-	-	-
C & S America	0.21	0.37	0.50	0.36	0.16	0.06
Europe	0.03	-	-	-	-	-
Middle East	0.08	-	-	-	-	-
Wellhead Price ($2010/Mcf)	**$4.08**	**$5.85**	**$6.49**	**$7.56**	**$7.97**	**$8.70**
Netback Price ($2010/Mcf)	**-**	**$4.85**	**$5.10**	**$6.23**	**$6.48**	**$7.18**
Quota Rent ($2010/Mcf)	**-**	**-**	**-**	**-**	**-**	**-**

Figure 137: Detailed Results from Global Natural Gas Model, LEUR_SD_NX

	EIA Ref	NERA Projections				
	2010	2015	2020	2025	2030	2035
Total Demand (Tcf)	**23.86**	**22.77**	**22.54**	**22.21**	**22.79**	**23.15**
Domestic Demand	23.86	22.77	22.54	22.21	22.79	23.15
Pipeline Exports to Canada	-	-	-	-	-	-
Total LNG Exports	-	-	-	-	-	-
China/India	-	-	-	-	-	-
Europe	-	-	-	-	-	-
Korea/Japan	-	-	-	-	-	-
Total Supply (Tcf)	**23.86**	**22.77**	**22.54**	**22.21**	**22.79**	**23.15**
Domestic Production	21.1	19.74	19.98	19.89	20.70	21.43
Pipeline Imports from Canada	2.33	2.66	2.06	1.96	1.93	1.66
Total LNG Imports	0.43	0.37	0.50	0.36	0.16	0.06
Africa	0.11	-	-	-	-	-
C & S America	0.21	0.37	0.50	0.36	0.16	0.06
Europe	0.03	-	-	-	-	-
Middle East	0.08	-	-	-	-	-
Wellhead Price ($2010/Mcf)	**$4.08**	**$5.85**	**$6.49**	**$7.56**	**$7.97**	**$8.70**
Netback Price ($2010/Mcf)	**-**	**$5.83**	**$9.20**	**$10.04**	**$8.63**	**$9.33**
Quota Rent ($2010/Mcf)	**-**	**-**	**$2.70**	**$2.47**	**$0.66**	**$0.63**

Figure 138: Detailed Results from Global Natural Gas Model, LEUR_SD_LSS

	EIA Ref	NERA Projections				
	2010	2015	2020	2025	2030	2035
Total Demand (Tcf)	**23.86**	**22.77**	**22.91**	**22.69**	**22.95**	**23.49**
Domestic Demand	23.86	22.77	22.12	21.78	22.68	22.97
Pipeline Exports to Canada	-	-	-	-	-	-
Total LNG Exports	-	-	0.78	0.90	0.27	0.52
China/India	-	-	-	-	0.13	-
Europe	-	-	-	0.46	0.01	0.14
Korea/Japan	-	-	0.78	0.44	0.13	0.37
Total Supply (Tcf)	**23.86**	**22.77**	**22.91**	**22.69**	**22.95**	**23.49**
Domestic Production	21.1	19.74	20.35	20.37	20.86	21.77
Pipeline Imports from Canada	2.33	2.66	2.06	1.96	1.93	1.66
Total LNG Imports	0.43	0.37	0.50	0.36	0.16	0.06
Africa	0.11	-	-	-	-	-
C & S America	0.21	0.37	0.50	0.36	0.16	0.06
Europe	0.03	-	-	-	-	-
Middle East	0.08	-	-	-	-	-
Wellhead Price ($2010/Mcf)	**$4.08**	**$5.85**	**$6.86**	**$7.96**	**$8.07**	**$8.86**
Netback Price ($2010/Mcf)	**-**	**$5.71**	**$6.86**	**$7.96**	**$8.07**	**$8.86**
Quota Rent ($2010/Mcf)	**-**	**-**	**-**	**-**	**-**	**-**

Figure 139: Detailed Results from Global Natural Gas Model, LEUR_SD_LS

	EIA Ref	NERA Projections				
	2010	2015	2020	2025	2030	2035
Total Demand (Tcf)	**23.86**	**22.77**	**22.91**	**22.69**	**22.95**	**23.49**
Domestic Demand	23.86	22.77	22.12	21.78	22.68	22.97
Pipeline Exports to Canada	-	-	-	-	-	-
Total LNG Exports	-	-	0.78	0.90	0.27	0.52
China/India	-	-	-	-	0.13	-
Europe	-	-	-	0.46	0.01	0.14
Korea/Japan	-	-	0.78	0.44	0.13	0.37
Total Supply (Tcf)	**23.86**	**22.77**	**22.91**	**22.69**	**22.95**	**23.49**
Domestic Production	21.1	19.74	20.35	20.37	20.86	21.77
Pipeline Imports from Canada	2.33	2.66	2.06	1.96	1.93	1.66
Total LNG Imports	0.43	0.37	0.50	0.36	0.16	0.06
Africa	0.11	-	-	-	-	-
C & S America	0.21	0.37	0.50	0.36	0.16	0.06
Europe	0.03	-	-	-	-	-
Middle East	0.08	-	-	-	-	-
Wellhead Price ($2010/Mcf)	**$4.08**	**$5.85**	**$6.86**	**$7.96**	**$8.07**	**$8.86**
Netback Price ($2010/Mcf)	**-**	**$5.71**	**$6.86**	**$7.96**	**$8.07**	**$8.86**
Quota Rent ($2010/Mcf)	**-**	**-**	**-**	**-**	**-**	**-**

Figure 140: Detailed Results from Global Natural Gas Model, LEUR_SD_LR

	EIA Ref	NERA Projections				
	2010	2015	2020	2025	2030	2035
Total Demand (Tcf)	**23.86**	**22.77**	**22.91**	**22.69**	**22.95**	**23.49**
Domestic Demand	23.86	22.77	22.12	21.78	22.68	22.97
Pipeline Exports to Canada	-	-	-	-	-	-
Total LNG Exports	-	-	0.78	0.90	0.27	0.52
China/India	-	-	-	-	0.13	-
Europe	-	-	-	0.46	0.01	0.14
Korea/Japan	-	-	0.78	0.44	0.13	0.37
Total Supply (Tcf)	**23.86**	**22.77**	**22.91**	**22.69**	**22.95**	**23.49**
Domestic Production	21.1	19.74	20.35	20.37	20.86	21.77
Pipeline Imports from Canada	2.33	2.66	2.06	1.96	1.93	1.66
Total LNG Imports	0.43	0.37	0.50	0.36	0.16	0.06
Africa	0.11	-	-	-	-	-
C & S America	0.21	0.37	0.50	0.36	0.16	0.06
Europe	0.03	-	-	-	-	-
Middle East	0.08	-	-	-	-	-
Wellhead Price ($2010/Mcf)	**$4.08**	**$5.85**	**$6.86**	**$7.96**	**$8.07**	**$8.86**
Netback Price ($2010/Mcf)	**-**	**$5.71**	**$6.86**	**$7.96**	**$8.07**	**$8.86**
Quota Rent ($2010/Mcf)	**-**	**-**	**-**	**-**	**-**	**-**

Figure 141: Detailed Results from Global Natural Gas Model, LEUR_SD_HS

	EIA Ref	NERA Projections				
	2010	2015	2020	2025	2030	2035
Total Demand (Tcf)	**23.86**	**22.77**	**22.91**	**22.69**	**22.95**	**23.49**
Domestic Demand	23.86	22.77	22.12	21.78	22.68	22.97
Pipeline Exports to Canada	-	-	-	-	-	-
Total LNG Exports	-	-	0.78	0.90	0.27	0.52
China/India	-	-	-	-	0.13	-
Europe	-	-	-	0.46	0.01	0.14
Korea/Japan	-	-	0.78	0.44	0.13	0.37
Total Supply (Tcf)	**23.86**	**22.77**	**22.91**	**22.69**	**22.95**	**23.49**
Domestic Production	21.1	19.74	20.35	20.37	20.86	21.77
Pipeline Imports from Canada	2.33	2.66	2.06	1.96	1.93	1.66
Total LNG Imports	0.43	0.37	0.50	0.36	0.16	0.06
Africa	0.11	-	-	-	-	-
C & S America	0.21	0.37	0.50	0.36	0.16	0.06
Europe	0.03	-	-	-	-	-
Middle East	0.08	-	-	-	-	-
Wellhead Price ($2010/Mcf)	**$4.08**	**$5.85**	**$6.86**	**$7.96**	**$8.07**	**$8.86**
Netback Price ($2010/Mcf)	**-**	**$5.71**	**$6.86**	**$7.96**	**$8.07**	**$8.86**
Quota Rent ($2010/Mcf)	**-**	**-**	**-**	**-**	**-**	**-**

Figure 142: Detailed Results from Global Natural Gas Model, LEUR_SD_HR

	EIA Ref	NERA Projections				
	2010	2015	2020	2025	2030	2035
Total Demand (Tcf)	**23.86**	**22.77**	**22.91**	**22.69**	**22.95**	**23.49**
Domestic Demand	23.86	22.77	22.12	21.78	22.68	22.97
Pipeline Exports to Canada	-	-	-	-	-	-
Total LNG Exports	-	-	0.78	0.90	0.27	0.52
China/India	-	-	-	-	0.13	-
Europe	-	-	-	0.46	0.01	0.14
Korea/Japan	-	-	0.78	0.44	0.13	0.37
Total Supply (Tcf)	**23.86**	**22.77**	**22.91**	**22.69**	**22.95**	**23.49**
Domestic Production	21.1	19.74	20.35	20.37	20.86	21.77
Pipeline Imports from Canada	2.33	2.66	2.06	1.96	1.93	1.66
Total LNG Imports	0.43	0.37	0.50	0.36	0.16	0.06
Africa	0.11	-	-	-	-	-
C & S America	0.21	0.37	0.50	0.36	0.16	0.06
Europe	0.03	-	-	-	-	-
Middle East	0.08	-	-	-	-	-
Wellhead Price ($2010/Mcf)	**$4.08**	**$5.85**	**$6.86**	**$7.96**	**$8.07**	**$8.86**
Netback Price ($2010/Mcf)	**-**	**$5.71**	**$6.86**	**$7.96**	**$8.07**	**$8.86**
Quota Rent ($2010/Mcf)	**-**	**-**	**-**	**-**	**-**	**-**

Figure 143: Detailed Results from Global Natural Gas Model, LEUR_SD_NC

	EIA Ref	NERA Projections				
	2010	2015	2020	2025	2030	2035
Total Demand (Tcf)	**23.86**	**22.77**	**22.91**	**22.69**	**22.95**	**23.49**
Domestic Demand	23.86	22.77	22.12	21.78	22.68	22.97
Pipeline Exports to Canada	-	-	-	-	-	-
Total LNG Exports	-	-	0.78	0.90	0.27	0.52
China/India	-	-	-	-	0.13	-
Europe	-	-	-	0.46	0.01	0.14
Korea/Japan	-	-	0.78	0.44	0.13	0.37
Total Supply (Tcf)	**23.86**	**22.77**	**22.91**	**22.69**	**22.95**	**23.49**
Domestic Production	21.1	19.74	20.35	20.37	20.86	21.77
Pipeline Imports from Canada	2.33	2.66	2.06	1.96	1.93	1.66
Total LNG Imports	0.43	0.37	0.50	0.36	0.16	0.06
Africa	0.11	-	-	-	-	-
C & S America	0.21	0.37	0.50	0.36	0.16	0.06
Europe	0.03	-	-	-	-	-
Middle East	0.08	-	-	-	-	-
Wellhead Price ($2010/Mcf)	**$4.08**	**$5.85**	**$6.86**	**$7.96**	**$8.07**	**$8.86**
Netback Price ($2010/Mcf)	**-**	**$5.71**	**$6.86**	**$7.96**	**$8.07**	**$8.86**
Quota Rent ($2010/Mcf)	**-**	**-**	**-**	**-**	**-**	**-**

B. N_{ew}ERA Model Results

The following figures (Figure 144 through Figure 164) contain detailed macroeconomic outputs for all modeled baselines, scenarios, and sensitivities. For each figure, the "Level Values" section depicts the numerical results from the scenario or baseline, and the "Percentage Change" section shows the percentage change in the Level Values for a given scenario relative to its baseline case. Figure 144 through Figure 162 contain detailed results for the scenarios. Figure 163 through Figure 164 contain results for the sensitivity tests. All tables use the following acronyms defined in the following list:

AGR – agriculture sector
COL – coal sector
CRU – crude oil sector
EIS – energy-intensive sector
ELE – electricity sector
GAS – natural gas sector
M_V – motor vehicle manufacturing sector
MAN – other manufacturing sector
OIL – refining sector
SRV – commercial sector
TRK – commercial trucking sector
TRN – other commercial transportation sector
C – household sector
G – government sector

Figure 144: Detailed Results for U.S. Reference Baseline Case

Reference Baseline Case (USREF)								
	Description		Units	**2015**	**2020**	**2025**	**2030**	**2035**
Level Values								
Macro	Gross Domestic Product		Billion 2010$	$15,883	$17,862	$20,277	$22,880	$25,756
	Consumption		Billion 2010$	$12,404	$13,969	$15,972	$18,153	$20,521
	Investment		Billion 2010$	$2,467	$2,791	$3,161	$3,517	$3,977
Natural Gas	Wellhead Price		2010$ per Mcf	$4.29	$4.65	$5.49	$5.89	$6.50
	Production		Tcf	22.42	23.44	24.04	25.21	26.58
	Exports		Tcf	-	-	-	-	-
	Pipeline Imports		Tcf	2.61	1.84	1.05	0.76	0.17
	Total Demand		Tcf	25.03	25.28	25.09	25.97	26.76
	Sectoral Demand	AGR	Tcf	0.16	0.16	0.16	0.16	0.17
		COL	Tcf	-	-	-	-	-
		CRU	Tcf	-	-	-	-	-
		EIS	Tcf	3.33	3.35	3.27	3.16	3.08
		ELE	Tcf	6.94	6.82	6.65	7.35	7.93
		GAS	Tcf	-	-	-	-	-
		M_V	Tcf	0.20	0.18	0.17	0.18	0.18
		MAN	Tcf	4.23	4.32	4.34	4.41	4.54
		OIL	Tcf	1.32	1.41	1.36	1.40	1.38
		SRV	Tcf	2.44	2.53	2.58	2.67	2.79
		TRK	Tcf	0.47	0.48	0.49	0.53	0.56
		TRN	Tcf	0.22	0.22	0.23	0.24	0.26
		C	Tcf	4.80	4.84	4.84	4.84	4.82
		G	Tcf	0.93	0.96	0.99	1.02	1.06
	Export Revenues [1]		Billion 2010$	$0.00	$0.00	$0.00	$0.00	$0.00
Percentage Change								
Macro	Gross Domestic Product		%					
	Gross Capital Income		%					
	Gross Labor Income		%					
	Gross Resource Income		%					
	Consumption		%					
	Investment		%					
Natural Gas	Wellhead Price		%					
	Production		%					
	Pipeline Imports		%					
	Total Demand		%					
	Sectoral Demand	AGR	%					
		COL	%					
		CRU	%					
		EIS	%					
		ELE	%					
		GAS	%					
		M_V	%					
		MAN	%					
		OIL	%					
		SRV	%					
		TRK	%					
		TRN	%					
		C	%					
[1]	Export revenues are based on LNG exports net of liquefaction loss.							

Figure 145: Detailed Results for High Shale EUR Baseline Case

High Shale EUR Baseline Case (HEUR)								
	Description		Units	**2015**	**2020**	**2025**	**2030**	**2035**
Level Values								
Macro	Gross Domestic Product		Billion 2010$	$15,960	$17,964	$20,411	$23,002	$25,902
	Consumption		Billion 2010$	$12,429	$13,999	$16,013	$18,184	$20,565
	Investment		Billion 2010$	$2,483	$2,811	$3,177	$3,532	$3,995
Natural Gas	Wellhead Price		2010$ per Mcf	$3.35	$3.50	$4.09	$4.53	$4.92
	Production		Tcf	24.69	26.46	27.72	28.70	29.73
	Exports		Tcf	-	-	-	-	-
	Pipeline Imports		Tcf	2.26	1.27	0.25	0.14	0.14
	Total Demand		Tcf	26.96	27.73	27.97	28.84	29.86
	Sectoral Demand	AGR	Tcf	0.16	0.16	0.16	0.17	0.17
		COL	Tcf	-	-	-	-	-
		CRU	Tcf	-	-	-	-	-
		EIS	Tcf	3.47	3.58	3.55	3.48	3.39
		ELE	Tcf	8.27	8.38	8.35	8.90	9.69
		GAS	Tcf	-	-	-	-	-
		M_V	Tcf	0.21	0.20	0.19	0.19	0.20
		MAN	Tcf	4.44	4.64	4.75	4.87	5.01
		OIL	Tcf	1.32	1.40	1.37	1.44	1.40
		SRV	Tcf	2.53	2.65	2.75	2.85	2.97
		TRK	Tcf	0.48	0.51	0.55	0.60	0.65
		TRN	Tcf	0.23	0.24	0.26	0.28	0.30
		C	Tcf	4.89	4.96	5.00	4.99	4.95
		G	Tcf	0.97	1.01	1.05	1.09	1.13
	Export Revenues 1		Billion 2010$	$0.00	$0.00	$0.00	$0.00	$0.00
Percentage Change								
Macro	Gross Domestic Product		%					
	Gross Capital Income		%					
	Gross Labor Income		%					
	Gross Resource Income		%					
	Consumption		%					
	Investment		%					
Natural Gas	Wellhead Price		%					
	Production		%					
	Pipeline Imports		%					
	Total Demand		%					
	Sectoral Demand	AGR	%					
		COL	%					
		CRU	%					
		EIS	%					
		ELE	%					
		GAS	%					
		M_V	%					
		MAN	%					
		OIL	%					
		SRV	%					
		TRK	%					
		TRN	%					
		C	%					
1	Export revenues are based on LNG exports net of liquefaction loss.							

Figure 146: Detailed Results for Low Shale EUR Baseline Case

Low Shale EUR Baseline Case (LEUR)								
	Description		Units	**2015**	**2020**	**2025**	**2030**	**2035**
Level Values								
Macro	Gross Domestic Product		Billion 2010$	$15,790	$17,716	$20,061	$22,693	$25,567
	Consumption		Billion 2010$	$12,379	$13,920	$15,862	$18,093	$20,476
	Investment		Billion 2010$	$2,442	$2,759	$3,138	$3,493	$3,953
Natural Gas	Wellhead Price		2010$ per Mcf	$5.73	$6.45	$7.83	$8.33	$8.96
	Production		Tcf	19.60	19.88	20.04	21.13	21.70
	Exports		Tcf	-	-	-	-	-
	Pipeline Imports		Tcf	3.00	2.61	2.37	2.01	1.75
	Total Demand		Tcf	22.60	22.50	22.41	23.14	23.45
	Sectoral Demand	AGR	Tcf	0.16	0.16	0.16	0.16	0.16
		COL	Tcf	-	-	-	-	-
		CRU	Tcf	-	-	-	-	-
		EIS	Tcf	3.18	3.15	3.02	2.86	2.76
		ELE	Tcf	5.23	5.00	5.16	5.91	6.12
		GAS	Tcf	-	-	-	-	-
		M_V	Tcf	0.19	0.17	0.16	0.16	0.16
		MAN	Tcf	3.99	3.99	3.92	3.95	4.00
		OIL	Tcf	1.32	1.41	1.39	1.36	1.39
		SRV	Tcf	2.32	2.37	2.38	2.45	2.55
		TRK	Tcf	0.45	0.46	0.47	0.49	0.51
		TRN	Tcf	0.21	0.21	0.22	0.23	0.24
		C	Tcf	4.68	4.68	4.64	4.63	4.59
		G	Tcf	0.89	0.90	0.91	0.94	0.97
	Export Revenues 1		Billion 2010$	$0.00	$0.00	$0.00	$0.00	$0.00
Percentage Change								
Macro	Gross Domestic Product		%					
	Gross Capital Income		%					
	Gross Labor Income		%					
	Gross Resource Income		%					
	Consumption		%					
	Investment		%					
Natural Gas	Wellhead Price		%					
	Production		%					
	Pipeline Imports		%					
	Total Demand		%					
	Sectoral Demand	AGR	%					
		COL	%					
		CRU	%					
		EIS	%					
		ELE	%					
		GAS	%					
		M_V	%					
		MAN	%					
		OIL	%					
		SRV	%					
		TRK	%					
		TRN	%					
		C	%					
1	Export revenues are based on LNG exports net of liquefaction loss.							

Figure 147: Detailed Results for USREF_D_LSS

Scenario: USREF_D_LSS								
	Description		Units	**2015**	**2020**	**2025**	**2030**	**2035**
			Level Values					
Macro	Gross Domestic Product		Billion 2010$	$15,884	$17,868	$20,281	$22,883	$25,759
	Consumption		Billion 2010$	$12,408	$13,971	$15,972	$18,152	$20,520
	Investment		Billion 2010$	$2,468	$2,790	$3,160	$3,518	$3,978
Natural Gas	Wellhead Price		2010$ per Mcf	$4.34	$4.92	$5.82	$6.13	$6.75
	Production		Tcf	22.49	23.84	24.80	25.87	27.40
	Exports		Tcf	0.18	0.98	1.43	1.19	1.37
	Pipeline Imports		Tcf	2.61	1.84	1.05	0.76	0.17
	Total Demand		Tcf	24.92	24.71	24.41	25.44	26.20
	Sectoral Demand	AGR	Tcf	0.16	0.15	0.16	0.16	0.16
		COL	Tcf	-	-	-	-	-
		CRU	Tcf	-	-	-	-	-
		EIS	Tcf	3.30	3.24	3.16	3.09	3.00
		ELE	Tcf	6.91	6.65	6.45	7.18	7.74
		GAS	Tcf	-	-	-	-	-
		M_V	Tcf	0.20	0.18	0.17	0.17	0.18
		MAN	Tcf	4.21	4.20	4.20	4.31	4.43
		OIL	Tcf	1.31	1.37	1.32	1.37	1.35
		SRV	Tcf	2.43	2.48	2.53	2.63	2.74
		TRK	Tcf	0.47	0.47	0.49	0.52	0.55
		TRN	Tcf	0.22	0.22	0.23	0.24	0.26
		C	Tcf	4.79	4.77	4.76	4.77	4.75
		G	Tcf	0.93	0.95	0.96	1.00	1.04
	Export Revenues [1]		Billion 2010$	$0.72	$4.47	$7.72	$6.76	$8.58
			Percentage Change					
Macro	Gross Domestic Product		%	0.01	0.03	0.02	0.01	0.01
	Gross Capital Income		%	(0.01)	(0.07)	(0.08)	(0.06)	(0.05)
	Gross Labor Income		%	(0.01)	(0.05)	(0.07)	(0.05)	(0.04)
	Gross Resource Income		%	2.37	8.70	7.64	4.95	4.62
	Consumption		%	0.03	0.01	(0.00)	(0.00)	(0.00)
	Investment		%	0.05	(0.02)	(0.06)	0.03	0.04
Natural Gas	Wellhead Price		%	1.17	5.75	5.93	4.12	3.88
	Production		%	0.32	1.73	3.15	2.63	3.07
	Pipeline Imports		%					
	Total Demand		%	(0.43)	(2.28)	(2.68)	(2.03)	(2.07)
	Sectoral Demand	AGR	%	(0.66)	(3.11)	(3.44)	(2.51)	(2.46)
		COL	%					
		CRU	%					
		EIS	%	(0.65)	(3.07)	(3.41)	(2.50)	(2.45)
		ELE	%	(0.43)	(2.46)	(3.00)	(2.34)	(2.43)
		GAS	%					
		M_V	%	(0.42)	(2.23)	(2.70)	(2.06)	(2.10)
		MAN	%	(0.58)	(2.83)	(3.18)	(2.33)	(2.30)
		OIL	%	(0.59)	(2.89)	(3.21)	(2.34)	(2.30)
		SRV	%	(0.28)	(1.61)	(2.02)	(1.56)	(1.61)
		TRK	%	(0.17)	(1.03)	(1.45)	(1.16)	(1.26)
		TRN	%	(0.18)	(1.06)	(1.49)	(1.20)	(1.29)
		C	%	(0.23)	(1.38)	(1.76)	(1.36)	(1.42)
1	Export revenues are based on LNG exports net of liquefaction loss.							

Figure 148: Detailed Results for USREF_D_LS

Scenario: USREF_D_LS								
	Description		Units	**2015**	**2020**	**2025**	**2030**	**2035**
Level Values								
Macro	Gross Domestic Product		Billion 2010$	$15,886	$17,867	$20,281	$22,883	$25,759
	Consumption		Billion 2010$	$12,408	$13,970	$15,972	$18,152	$20,520
	Investment		Billion 2010$	$2,467	$2,791	$3,160	$3,518	$3,978
Natural Gas	Wellhead Price		2010$ per Mcf	$4.40	$4.92	$5.82	$6.13	$6.75
	Production		Tcf	22.56	23.84	24.80	25.87	27.40
	Exports		Tcf	0.37	0.98	1.43	1.19	1.37
	Pipeline Imports		Tcf	2.61	1.84	1.05	0.76	0.17
	Total Demand		Tcf	24.81	24.71	24.41	25.44	26.20
	Sectoral Demand	AGR	Tcf	0.15	0.15	0.16	0.16	0.16
		COL	Tcf	-	-	-	-	-
		CRU	Tcf	-	-	-	-	-
		EIS	Tcf	3.28	3.24	3.16	3.09	3.00
		ELE	Tcf	6.88	6.65	6.45	7.18	7.74
		GAS	Tcf	-	-	-	-	-
		M_V	Tcf	0.20	0.18	0.17	0.17	0.18
		MAN	Tcf	4.18	4.20	4.20	4.31	4.43
		OIL	Tcf	1.30	1.37	1.32	1.37	1.35
		SRV	Tcf	2.42	2.48	2.53	2.63	2.74
		TRK	Tcf	0.47	0.47	0.49	0.52	0.55
		TRN	Tcf	0.22	0.22	0.23	0.24	0.26
		C	Tcf	4.77	4.77	4.76	4.77	4.75
		G	Tcf	0.92	0.95	0.96	1.00	1.04
	Export Revenues [1]		Billion 2010$	$1.51	$4.47	$7.72	$6.76	$8.58
Percentage Change								
Macro	Gross Domestic Product		%	0.02	0.03	0.02	0.01	0.01
	Gross Capital Income		%	(0.03)	(0.07)	(0.08)	(0.06)	(0.05)
	Gross Labor Income		%	(0.02)	(0.05)	(0.07)	(0.05)	(0.04)
	Gross Resource Income		%	5.00	8.68	7.64	4.95	4.62
	Consumption		%	0.03	0.01	(0.00)	(0.00)	(0.00)
	Investment		%	0.01	(0.00)	(0.05)	0.03	0.04
Natural Gas	Wellhead Price		%	2.44	5.75	5.93	4.12	3.88
	Production		%	0.65	1.72	3.15	2.63	3.07
	Pipeline Imports		%					
	Total Demand		%	(0.90)	(2.28)	(2.69)	(2.03)	(2.07)
	Sectoral Demand	AGR	%	(1.34)	(3.12)	(3.44)	(2.51)	(2.46)
		COL	%					
		CRU	%					
		EIS	%	(1.31)	(3.07)	(3.41)	(2.50)	(2.45)
		ELE	%	(0.91)	(2.46)	(3.00)	(2.34)	(2.43)
		GAS	%					
		M_V	%	(0.85)	(2.23)	(2.70)	(2.06)	(2.10)
		MAN	%	(1.19)	(2.83)	(3.18)	(2.33)	(2.30)
		OIL	%	(1.21)	(2.89)	(3.21)	(2.34)	(2.30)
		SRV	%	(0.59)	(1.61)	(2.02)	(1.56)	(1.61)
		TRK	%	(0.35)	(1.03)	(1.45)	(1.17)	(1.26)
		TRN	%	(0.36)	(1.07)	(1.49)	(1.20)	(1.29)
		C	%	(0.50)	(1.38)	(1.76)	(1.36)	(1.42)
1	Export revenues are based on LNG exports net of liquefaction loss.							

Figure 149: Detailed Results for USREF_D_LR

Scenario: USREF_D_LR								
	Description		Units	**2015**	**2020**	**2025**	**2030**	**2035**
Level Values								
Macro	Gross Domestic Product		Billion 2010$	$15,890	$17,866	$20,280	$22,882	$25,758
	Consumption		Billion 2010$	$12,408	$13,970	$15,972	$18,153	$20,521
	Investment		Billion 2010$	$2,464	$2,792	$3,160	$3,518	$3,978
Natural Gas	Wellhead Price		2010$ per Mcf	$4.60	$4.92	$5.82	$6.13	$6.75
	Production		Tcf	22.81	23.84	24.80	25.87	27.40
	Exports		Tcf	1.02	0.98	1.43	1.19	1.37
	Pipeline Imports		Tcf	2.61	1.84	1.05	0.76	0.17
	Total Demand		Tcf	24.40	24.71	24.41	25.44	26.20
	Sectoral Demand	AGR	Tcf	0.15	0.15	0.16	0.16	0.16
		COL	Tcf	-	-	-	-	-
		CRU	Tcf	-	-	-	-	-
		EIS	Tcf	3.21	3.24	3.16	3.09	3.00
		ELE	Tcf	6.77	6.65	6.45	7.18	7.74
		GAS	Tcf	-	-	-	-	-
		M_V	Tcf	0.19	0.18	0.17	0.17	0.18
		MAN	Tcf	4.09	4.20	4.20	4.31	4.43
		OIL	Tcf	1.27	1.37	1.32	1.37	1.35
		SRV	Tcf	2.40	2.48	2.53	2.63	2.74
		TRK	Tcf	0.47	0.47	0.49	0.52	0.55
		TRN	Tcf	0.22	0.22	0.23	0.24	0.26
		C	Tcf	4.73	4.77	4.76	4.77	4.75
		G	Tcf	0.91	0.95	0.96	1.00	1.04
	Export Revenues [1]		Billion 2010$	$4.35	$4.47	$7.72	$6.76	$8.58
Percentage Change								
Macro	Gross Domestic Product		%	0.04	0.03	0.02	0.01	0.01
	Gross Capital Income		%	(0.09)	(0.08)	(0.09)	(0.06)	(0.05)
	Gross Labor Income		%	(0.07)	(0.06)	(0.07)	(0.05)	(0.04)
	Gross Resource Income		%	14.69	8.61	7.62	4.94	4.62
	Consumption		%	0.03	0.00	(0.00)	0.00	0.00
	Investment		%	(0.12)	0.04	(0.05)	0.03	0.04
Natural Gas	Wellhead Price		%	7.13	5.74	5.93	4.12	3.88
	Production		%	1.73	1.72	3.14	2.62	3.07
	Pipeline Imports		%					
	Total Demand		%	(2.52)	(2.28)	(2.69)	(2.03)	(2.07)
	Sectoral Demand	AGR	%	(3.72)	(3.13)	(3.45)	(2.52)	(2.46)
		COL	%					
		CRU	%					
		EIS	%	(3.62)	(3.09)	(3.42)	(2.51)	(2.46)
		ELE	%	(2.57)	(2.46)	(3.00)	(2.34)	(2.43)
		GAS	%					
		M_V	%	(2.37)	(2.24)	(2.70)	(2.07)	(2.10)
		MAN	%	(3.30)	(2.83)	(3.18)	(2.34)	(2.31)
		OIL	%	(3.42)	(2.89)	(3.21)	(2.34)	(2.30)
		SRV	%	(1.70)	(1.61)	(2.02)	(1.56)	(1.61)
		TRK	%	(0.99)	(1.04)	(1.45)	(1.17)	(1.26)
		TRN	%	(1.01)	(1.08)	(1.49)	(1.20)	(1.30)
		C	%	(1.46)	(1.38)	(1.76)	(1.35)	(1.42)
1	Export revenues are based on LNG exports net of liquefaction loss.							

Figure 150: Detailed Results for USREF_SD_LS

Scenario: USREF_SD_LS								
	Description		Units	**2015**	**2020**	**2025**	**2030**	**2035**
Level Values								
Macro	Gross Domestic Product		Billion 2010$	$15,886	$17,876	$20,283	$22,885	$25,759
	Consumption		Billion 2010$	$12,411	$13,970	$15,971	$18,152	$20,520
	Investment		Billion 2010$	$2,469	$2,787	$3,161	$3,517	$3,977
Natural Gas	Wellhead Price		2010$ per Mcf	$4.40	$5.30	$6.01	$6.35	$6.92
	Production		Tcf	22.56	24.30	25.18	26.41	27.88
	Exports		Tcf	0.37	2.19	2.19	2.19	2.19
	Pipeline Imports		Tcf	2.61	1.84	1.05	0.76	0.17
	Total Demand		Tcf	24.81	23.95	24.04	24.98	25.86
	Sectoral Demand	AGR	Tcf	0.15	0.15	0.15	0.16	0.16
		COL	Tcf	-	-	-	-	-
		CRU	Tcf	-	-	-	-	-
		EIS	Tcf	3.28	3.11	3.10	3.02	2.95
		ELE	Tcf	6.88	6.43	6.34	7.03	7.62
		GAS	Tcf	-	-	-	-	-
		M_V	Tcf	0.20	0.17	0.16	0.17	0.18
		MAN	Tcf	4.18	4.04	4.12	4.22	4.37
		OIL	Tcf	1.30	1.32	1.29	1.34	1.33
		SRV	Tcf	2.42	2.43	2.50	2.59	2.71
		TRK	Tcf	0.47	0.47	0.48	0.51	0.55
		TRN	Tcf	0.22	0.22	0.22	0.24	0.25
		C	Tcf	4.78	4.68	4.71	4.72	4.71
		G	Tcf	0.92	0.92	0.95	0.99	1.03
	Export Revenues [1]		Billion 2010$	$1.51	$10.76	$12.21	$12.90	$14.04
Percentage Change								
Macro	Gross Domestic Product		%	0.02	0.08	0.03	0.02	0.01
	Gross Capital Income		%	(0.02)	(0.17)	(0.14)	(0.11)	(0.09)
	Gross Labor Income		%	(0.02)	(0.13)	(0.11)	(0.09)	(0.08)
	Gross Resource Income		%	4.97	21.48	12.23	9.64	7.64
	Consumption		%	0.05	0.01	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.00)
	Investment		%	0.09	(0.15)	(0.01)	0.01	0.01
Natural Gas	Wellhead Price		%	2.44	14.04	9.45	7.92	6.37
	Production		%	0.65	3.67	4.75	4.77	4.87
	Pipeline Imports		%					
	Total Demand		%	(0.90)	(5.26)	(4.18)	(3.80)	(3.35)
	Sectoral Demand	AGR	%	(1.37)	(7.14)	(5.35)	(4.68)	(3.97)
		COL	%					
		CRU	%					
		EIS	%	(1.35)	(7.03)	(5.31)	(4.65)	(3.96)
		ELE	%	(0.90)	(5.67)	(4.66)	(4.36)	(3.91)
		GAS	%					
		M_V	%	(0.88)	(5.15)	(4.19)	(3.86)	(3.40)
		MAN	%	(1.21)	(6.51)	(4.92)	(4.35)	(3.73)
		OIL	%	(1.21)	(6.64)	(4.98)	(4.36)	(3.71)
		SRV	%	(0.59)	(3.76)	(3.16)	(2.92)	(2.61)
		TRK	%	(0.35)	(2.42)	(2.27)	(2.19)	(2.05)
		TRN	%	(0.38)	(2.49)	(2.34)	(2.26)	(2.10)
		C	%	(0.47)	(3.24)	(2.76)	(2.55)	(2.30)
1	Export revenues are based on LNG exports net of liquefaction loss.							

Figure 151: Detailed Results for USREF_SD_LR

Scenario: USREF_SD_LR								
	Description		Units	**2015**	**2020**	**2025**	**2030**	**2035**
Level Values								
Macro	Gross Domestic Product		Billion 2010$	$15,891	$17,874	$20,282	$22,885	$25,758
	Consumption		Billion 2010$	$12,411	$13,970	$15,971	$18,152	$20,521
	Investment		Billion 2010$	$2,465	$2,788	$3,161	$3,517	$3,977
Natural Gas	Wellhead Price		2010$ per Mcf	$4.62	$5.30	$6.01	$6.35	$6.92
	Production		Tcf	22.83	24.30	25.18	26.41	27.88
	Exports		Tcf	1.10	2.19	2.19	2.19	2.19
	Pipeline Imports		Tcf	2.61	1.84	1.05	0.76	0.17
	Total Demand		Tcf	24.35	23.95	24.04	24.98	25.86
	Sectoral Demand	AGR	Tcf	0.15	0.15	0.15	0.16	0.16
		COL	Tcf	-	-	-	-	-
		CRU	Tcf	-	-	-	-	-
		EIS	Tcf	3.19	3.11	3.10	3.02	2.95
		ELE	Tcf	6.75	6.43	6.34	7.03	7.62
		GAS	Tcf	-	-	-	-	-
		M_V	Tcf	0.19	0.17	0.16	0.17	0.18
		MAN	Tcf	4.08	4.04	4.12	4.22	4.37
		OIL	Tcf	1.27	1.32	1.29	1.34	1.33
		SRV	Tcf	2.39	2.43	2.50	2.59	2.71
		TRK	Tcf	0.46	0.47	0.48	0.51	0.55
		TRN	Tcf	0.22	0.22	0.22	0.24	0.25
		C	Tcf	4.72	4.68	4.71	4.72	4.71
		G	Tcf	0.91	0.92	0.95	0.99	1.03
	Export Revenues [1]		Billion 2010$	$4.72	$10.76	$12.21	$12.90	$14.04
Percentage Change								
Macro	Gross Domestic Product		%	0.05	0.07	0.03	0.02	0.01
	Gross Capital Income		%	(0.09)	(0.18)	(0.14)	(0.12)	(0.09)
	Gross Labor Income		%	(0.08)	(0.14)	(0.11)	(0.09)	(0.08)
	Gross Resource Income		%	15.94	21.40	12.22	9.63	7.64
	Consumption		%	0.05	0.00	(0.01)	(0.00)	0.00
	Investment		%	(0.05)	(0.10)	(0.01)	0.01	0.01
Natural Gas	Wellhead Price		%	7.73	14.03	9.44	7.92	6.37
	Production		%	1.86	3.67	4.75	4.77	4.87
	Pipeline Imports		%					
	Total Demand		%	(2.73)	(5.26)	(4.18)	(3.80)	(3.35)
	Sectoral Demand	AGR	%	(4.04)	(7.15)	(5.36)	(4.68)	(3.98)
		COL	%					
		CRU	%					
		EIS	%	(3.94)	(7.05)	(5.32)	(4.66)	(3.97)
		ELE	%	(2.77)	(5.67)	(4.66)	(4.36)	(3.91)
		GAS	%					
		M_V	%	(2.58)	(5.15)	(4.20)	(3.86)	(3.40)
		MAN	%	(3.59)	(6.50)	(4.93)	(4.36)	(3.73)
		OIL	%	(3.69)	(6.64)	(4.98)	(4.36)	(3.71)
		SRV	%	(1.83)	(3.77)	(3.16)	(2.92)	(2.61)
		TRK	%	(1.07)	(2.43)	(2.27)	(2.20)	(2.05)
		TRN	%	(1.10)	(2.50)	(2.34)	(2.26)	(2.11)
		C	%	(1.55)	(3.25)	(2.76)	(2.55)	(2.29)
1	Export revenues are based on LNG exports net of liquefaction loss.							

Figure 152: Detailed Results for USREF_SD_HS

Scenario: USREF_SD_HS								
	Description		Units	**2015**	**2020**	**2025**	**2030**	**2035**
Level Values								
Macro	Gross Domestic Product		Billion 2010$	$15,886	$17,878	$20,294	$22,893	$25,763
	Consumption		Billion 2010$	$12,413	$13,976	$15,973	$18,150	$20,518
	Investment		Billion 2010$	$2,469	$2,792	$3,158	$3,515	$3,975
Natural Gas	Wellhead Price		2010$ per Mcf	$4.40	$5.30	$6.52	$6.92	$7.40
	Production		Tcf	22.56	24.30	26.03	27.55	29.13
	Exports		Tcf	0.37	2.19	3.93	4.38	4.38
	Pipeline Imports		Tcf	2.61	1.84	1.05	0.76	0.17
	Total Demand		Tcf	24.80	23.95	23.15	23.93	24.93
	Sectoral Demand	AGR	Tcf	0.15	0.15	0.15	0.15	0.15
		COL	Tcf	-	-	-	-	-
		CRU	Tcf	-	-	-	-	-
		EIS	Tcf	3.28	3.11	2.95	2.86	2.83
		ELE	Tcf	6.88	6.44	6.08	6.69	7.30
		GAS	Tcf	-	-	-	-	-
		M_V	Tcf	0.20	0.17	0.16	0.16	0.17
		MAN	Tcf	4.18	4.04	3.94	4.01	4.19
		OIL	Tcf	1.30	1.32	1.24	1.28	1.28
		SRV	Tcf	2.42	2.43	2.43	2.51	2.64
		TRK	Tcf	0.47	0.47	0.47	0.50	0.53
		TRN	Tcf	0.22	0.22	0.22	0.23	0.25
		C	Tcf	4.78	4.68	4.59	4.58	4.59
		G	Tcf	0.92	0.92	0.92	0.95	1.00
	Export Revenues [1]		Billion 2010$	$1.51	$10.76	$23.75	$28.08	$30.03
Percentage Change								
Macro	Gross Domestic Product		%	0.02	0.09	0.08	0.06	0.03
	Gross Capital Income		%	(0.02)	(0.16)	(0.24)	(0.24)	(0.20)
	Gross Labor Income		%	(0.02)	(0.12)	(0.19)	(0.19)	(0.16)
	Gross Resource Income		%	4.89	21.45	24.76	21.89	16.93
	Consumption		%	0.07	0.05	0.00	(0.02)	(0.01)
	Investment		%	0.11	0.03	(0.11)	(0.05)	(0.05)
Natural Gas	Wellhead Price		%	2.42	14.04	18.65	17.49	13.75
	Production		%	0.65	3.67	8.28	9.30	9.59
	Pipeline Imports		%					
	Total Demand		%	(0.90)	(5.26)	(7.73)	(7.84)	(6.84)
	Sectoral Demand	AGR	%	(1.41)	(7.17)	(9.83)	(9.58)	(8.08)
		COL	%					
		CRU	%					
		EIS	%	(1.39)	(7.08)	(9.73)	(9.52)	(8.05)
		ELE	%	(0.89)	(5.66)	(8.61)	(8.97)	(7.97)
		GAS	%					
		M_V	%	(0.89)	(5.17)	(7.76)	(7.94)	(6.95)
		MAN	%	(1.22)	(6.52)	(9.09)	(8.95)	(7.60)
		OIL	%	(1.21)	(6.64)	(9.17)	(8.97)	(7.56)
		SRV	%	(0.58)	(3.75)	(5.91)	(6.09)	(5.38)
		TRK	%	(0.36)	(2.42)	(4.26)	(4.61)	(4.25)
		TRN	%	(0.40)	(2.50)	(4.37)	(4.72)	(4.36)
		C	%	(0.45)	(3.21)	(5.18)	(5.36)	(4.76)
1	Export revenues are based on LNG exports net of liquefaction loss.							

Figure 153: Detailed Results for USREF_SD_HR

Scenario: USREF_SD_HR								
	Description		Units	2015	2020	2025	2030	2035
Level Values								
Macro	Gross Domestic Product		Billion 2010$	$15,891	$17,882	$20,292	$22,893	$25,762
	Consumption		Billion 2010$	$12,415	$13,974	$15,972	$18,151	$20,519
	Investment		Billion 2010$	$2,467	$2,789	$3,160	$3,516	$3,975
Natural Gas	Wellhead Price		2010$ per Mcf	$4.62	$5.57	$6.52	$6.91	$7.40
	Production		Tcf	22.83	24.55	26.03	27.55	29.13
	Exports		Tcf	1.10	2.92	3.93	4.38	4.38
	Pipeline Imports		Tcf	2.61	1.84	1.05	0.76	0.17
	Total Demand		Tcf	24.35	23.48	23.15	23.93	24.93
	Sectoral Demand	AGR	Tcf	0.15	0.14	0.15	0.15	0.15
		COL	Tcf	-	-	-	-	-
		CRU	Tcf	-	-	-	-	-
		EIS	Tcf	3.19	3.03	2.95	2.86	2.83
		ELE	Tcf	6.75	6.30	6.08	6.69	7.30
		GAS	Tcf	-	-	-	-	-
		M_V	Tcf	0.19	0.17	0.16	0.16	0.17
		MAN	Tcf	4.08	3.94	3.94	4.01	4.19
		OIL	Tcf	1.27	1.29	1.24	1.28	1.28
		SRV	Tcf	2.39	2.40	2.43	2.51	2.64
		TRK	Tcf	0.46	0.46	0.47	0.50	0.53
		TRN	Tcf	0.22	0.22	0.22	0.23	0.25
		C	Tcf	4.73	4.63	4.59	4.58	4.59
		G	Tcf	0.91	0.91	0.92	0.95	1.00
	Export Revenues [1]		Billion 2010$	$4.71	$15.07	$23.75	$28.08	$30.03
Percentage Change								
Macro	Gross Domestic Product		%	0.05	0.11	0.07	0.05	0.03
	Gross Capital Income		%	(0.09)	(0.24)	(0.25)	(0.24)	(0.20)
	Gross Labor Income		%	(0.07)	(0.19)	(0.20)	(0.19)	(0.16)
	Gross Resource Income		%	15.86	30.34	24.68	21.87	16.92
	Consumption		%	0.09	0.03	0.00	(0.01)	(0.01)
	Investment		%	0.01	(0.07)	(0.06)	(0.04)	(0.04)
Natural Gas	Wellhead Price		%	7.71	19.75	18.64	17.48	13.75
	Production		%	1.86	4.75	8.28	9.29	9.59
	Pipeline Imports		%					
	Total Demand		%	(2.73)	(7.15)	(7.73)	(7.84)	(6.84)
	Sectoral Demand	AGR	%	(4.09)	(9.69)	(9.85)	(9.59)	(8.09)
		COL	%					
		CRU	%					
		EIS	%	(3.99)	(9.55)	(9.76)	(9.53)	(8.06)
		ELE	%	(2.76)	(7.69)	(8.61)	(8.97)	(7.97)
		GAS	%					
		M_V	%	(2.60)	(7.00)	(7.76)	(7.95)	(6.95)
		MAN	%	(3.61)	(8.81)	(9.09)	(8.95)	(7.60)
		OIL	%	(3.69)	(8.99)	(9.18)	(8.97)	(7.56)
		SRV	%	(1.82)	(5.15)	(5.91)	(6.09)	(5.38)
		TRK	%	(1.08)	(3.34)	(4.27)	(4.61)	(4.26)
		TRN	%	(1.13)	(3.44)	(4.39)	(4.73)	(4.37)
		C	%	(1.52)	(4.43)	(5.18)	(5.35)	(4.76)
1	Export revenues are based on LNG exports net of liquefaction loss.							

Figure 154: Detailed Results for USREF_SD_NC

Scenario: USREF_SD_NC								
	Description		Units	2015	2020	2025	2030	2035
Level Values								
Macro	Gross Domestic Product		Billion 2010$	$15,900	$17,880	$20,292	$22,896	$25,773
	Consumption		Billion 2010$	$12,415	$13,973	$15,973	$18,153	$20,520
	Investment		Billion 2010$	$2,461	$2,791	$3,161	$3,520	$3,980
Natural Gas	Wellhead Price		2010$ per Mcf	$5.01	$5.57	$6.52	$6.96	$7.73
	Production		Tcf	23.19	24.55	26.03	27.63	29.90
	Exports		Tcf	2.17	2.92	3.93	4.54	5.75
	Pipeline Imports		Tcf	2.61	1.84	1.05	0.76	0.17
	Total Demand		Tcf	23.64	23.47	23.15	23.85	24.33
	Sectoral Demand	AGR	Tcf	0.14	0.14	0.15	0.15	0.15
		COL	Tcf	-	-	-	-	-
		CRU	Tcf	-	-	-	-	-
		EIS	Tcf	3.06	3.03	2.95	2.85	2.75
		ELE	Tcf	6.55	6.30	6.08	6.67	7.09
		GAS	Tcf	-	-	-	-	-
		M_V	Tcf	0.19	0.17	0.16	0.16	0.17
		MAN	Tcf	3.93	3.94	3.94	4.00	4.08
		OIL	Tcf	1.22	1.29	1.24	1.27	1.25
		SRV	Tcf	2.34	2.40	2.43	2.50	2.59
		TRK	Tcf	0.46	0.46	0.47	0.50	0.53
		TRN	Tcf	0.21	0.22	0.22	0.23	0.24
		C	Tcf	4.64	4.63	4.59	4.57	4.51
		G	Tcf	0.89	0.91	0.92	0.95	0.98
	Export Revenues [1]		Billion 2010$	$10.08	$15.06	$23.75	$29.29	$41.23
Percentage Change								
Macro	Gross Domestic Product		%	0.11	0.10	0.07	0.07	0.07
	Gross Capital Income		%	(0.20)	(0.25)	(0.25)	(0.24)	(0.24)
	Gross Labor Income		%	(0.17)	(0.19)	(0.20)	(0.19)	(0.20)
	Gross Resource Income		%	34.72	30.19	24.65	22.89	23.81
	Consumption		%	0.09	0.03	0.01	0.00	(0.00)
	Investment		%	(0.21)	0.02	(0.01)	0.10	0.09
Natural Gas	Wellhead Price		%	16.69	19.72	18.63	18.26	18.97
	Production		%	3.46	4.74	8.27	9.62	12.48
	Pipeline Imports		%					
	Total Demand		%	0.00	0.00	0.00	(0.00)	0.00
	Sectoral Demand	AGR	%	(5.57)	(7.15)	(7.74)	(8.14)	(9.09)
		COL	%	(8.17)	(9.71)	(9.86)	(9.96)	(10.69)
		CRU	%					
		EIS	%					
		ELE	%	(7.97)	(9.59)	(9.78)	(9.91)	(10.65)
		GAS	%	(5.64)	(7.69)	(8.61)	(9.31)	(10.56)
		M_V	%					
		MAN	%	(5.24)	(7.00)	(7.76)	(8.24)	(9.19)
		OIL	%	(7.25)	(8.81)	(9.09)	(9.29)	(10.06)
		SRV	%	(7.48)	(8.99)	(9.18)	(9.31)	(10.04)
		TRK	%	(3.78)	(5.15)	(5.91)	(6.33)	(7.19)
		TRN	%	(2.22)	(3.35)	(4.27)	(4.79)	(5.69)
		C	%	(2.28)	(3.47)	(4.40)	(4.92)	(5.83)
1	Export revenues are based on LNG exports net of liquefaction loss.							

Figure 155: Detailed Results for HEUR_D_NC

Scenario: HEUR_D_NC								
	Description		Units	2015	2020	2025	2030	2035
Level Values								
Macro	Gross Domestic Product		Billion 2010$	$16,000	$18,002	$20,442	$23,023	$25,929
	Consumption		Billion 2010$	$12,441	$14,000	$16,012	$18,184	$20,565
	Investment		Billion 2010$	$2,475	$2,812	$3,176	$3,537	$4,001
Natural Gas	Wellhead Price		2010$ per Mcf	$4.31	$4.46	$5.04	$5.25	$5.82
	Production		Tcf	25.66	27.83	30.04	31.24	32.82
	Exports		Tcf	3.30	3.94	4.87	4.59	5.61
	Pipeline Imports		Tcf	2.26	1.27	0.25	0.14	0.14
	Total Demand		Tcf	24.63	25.16	25.42	26.79	27.35
	Sectoral Demand	AGR	Tcf	0.14	0.14	0.15	0.15	0.15
		COL	Tcf	-	-	-	-	-
		CRU	Tcf	-	-	-	-	-
		EIS	Tcf	3.04	3.13	3.14	3.18	3.05
		ELE	Tcf	7.54	7.54	7.50	8.17	8.74
		GAS	Tcf	-	-	-	-	-
		M_V	Tcf	0.19	0.18	0.17	0.18	0.18
		MAN	Tcf	3.93	4.10	4.23	4.47	4.53
		OIL	Tcf	1.16	1.23	1.22	1.32	1.27
		SRV	Tcf	2.39	2.48	2.57	2.70	2.78
		TRK	Tcf	0.47	0.49	0.52	0.57	0.62
		TRN	Tcf	0.22	0.23	0.24	0.27	0.29
		C	Tcf	4.65	4.70	4.71	4.77	4.68
		G	Tcf	0.90	0.94	0.97	1.02	1.05
	Export Revenues [1]		Billion 2010$	$13.18	$16.30	$22.77	$22.33	$30.25
Percentage Change								
Macro	Gross Domestic Product		%	0.25	0.21	0.15	0.09	0.10
	Gross Capital Income		%	(0.31)	(0.32)	(0.29)	(0.20)	(0.21)
	Gross Labor Income		%	(0.24)	(0.23)	(0.22)	(0.15)	(0.16)
	Gross Resource Income		%	63.40	45.34	33.90	21.40	24.37
	Consumption		%	0.10	0.01	(0.01)	0.00	0.00
	Investment		%	(0.31)	0.06	(0.03)	0.14	0.15
Natural Gas	Wellhead Price		%	28.73	27.46	23.37	15.80	18.15
	Production		%	3.93	5.19	8.38	8.85	10.41
	Pipeline Imports		%					
	Total Demand		%	(0.00)	(0.00)	(0.00)	(0.00)	(0.00)
	Sectoral Demand	AGR	%	(8.64)	(9.26)	(9.10)	(7.11)	(8.42)
		COL	%	(12.74)	(12.66)	(11.72)	(8.79)	(10.02)
		CRU	%					
		EIS	%					
		ELE	%	(12.44)	(12.52)	(11.63)	(8.77)	(9.99)
		GAS	%	(8.80)	(9.99)	(10.17)	(8.15)	(9.86)
		M_V	%					
		MAN	%	(8.20)	(9.14)	(9.19)	(7.25)	(8.53)
		OIL	%	(11.47)	(11.61)	(10.89)	(8.22)	(9.45)
		SRV	%	(11.88)	(11.91)	(11.04)	(8.26)	(9.48)
		TRK	%	(5.65)	(6.35)	(6.61)	(5.27)	(6.32)
		TRN	%	(3.18)	(3.96)	(4.57)	(3.88)	(4.78)
		C	%	(3.24)	(4.10)	(4.70)	(4.00)	(4.91)
1	Export revenues are based on LNG exports net of liquefaction loss.							

Figure 156: Detailed Results for HEUR_SD_LSS

Scenario: HEUR_SD_LSS								
	Description		Units	**2015**	**2020**	**2025**	**2030**	**2035**
Level Values								
Macro	Gross Domestic Product		Billion 2010$	$15,963	$17,974	$20,423	$23,011	$25,909
	Consumption		Billion 2010$	$12,433	$14,001	$16,013	$18,182	$20,563
	Investment		Billion 2010$	$2,484	$2,812	$3,176	$3,531	$3,995
Natural Gas	Wellhead Price		2010$ per Mcf	$3.39	$3.72	$4.43	$4.84	$5.23
	Production		Tcf	24.76	26.89	28.73	29.95	30.97
	Exports		Tcf	0.18	1.10	2.01	2.19	2.19
	Pipeline Imports		Tcf	2.26	1.27	0.25	0.14	0.14
	Total Demand		Tcf	26.84	27.06	26.98	27.89	28.92
	Sectoral Demand	AGR	Tcf	0.16	0.15	0.16	0.16	0.16
		COL	Tcf	-	-	-	-	-
		CRU	Tcf	-	-	-	-	-
		EIS	Tcf	3.45	3.46	3.39	3.34	3.26
		ELE	Tcf	8.23	8.16	8.02	8.56	9.33
		GAS	Tcf	-	-	-	-	-
		M_V	Tcf	0.21	0.19	0.18	0.18	0.19
		MAN	Tcf	4.41	4.49	4.55	4.68	4.83
		OIL	Tcf	1.31	1.36	1.31	1.38	1.35
		SRV	Tcf	2.53	2.61	2.68	2.78	2.90
		TRK	Tcf	0.48	0.51	0.54	0.59	0.64
		TRN	Tcf	0.22	0.24	0.25	0.27	0.30
		C	Tcf	4.88	4.90	4.89	4.89	4.85
		G	Tcf	0.96	0.99	1.02	1.06	1.10
	Export Revenues [1]		Billion 2010$	$0.57	$3.80	$8.25	$9.83	$10.62
Percentage Change								
Macro	Gross Domestic Product		%	0.02	0.06	0.06	0.04	0.03
	Gross Capital Income		%	(0.01)	(0.06)	(0.10)	(0.09)	(0.08)
	Gross Labor Income		%	(0.01)	(0.04)	(0.07)	(0.07)	(0.06)
	Gross Resource Income		%	2.58	10.21	11.75	9.10	8.13
	Consumption		%	0.03	0.02	(0.00)	(0.01)	(0.01)
	Investment		%	0.06	0.04	(0.02)	(0.01)	(0.01)
Natural Gas	Wellhead Price		%	1.20	6.29	8.29	6.87	6.27
	Production		%	0.26	1.64	3.66	4.33	4.18
	Pipeline Imports		%					
	Total Demand		%	(0.43)	(2.41)	(3.56)	(3.29)	(3.17)
	Sectoral Demand	AGR	%	(0.68)	(3.35)	(4.61)	(4.07)	(3.79)
		COL	%					
		CRU	%					
		EIS	%	(0.67)	(3.30)	(4.57)	(4.05)	(3.77)
		ELE	%	(0.43)	(2.61)	(4.00)	(3.78)	(3.73)
		GAS	%					
		M_V	%	(0.43)	(2.40)	(3.60)	(3.35)	(3.22)
		MAN	%	(0.60)	(3.07)	(4.29)	(3.81)	(3.57)
		OIL	%	(0.60)	(3.14)	(4.36)	(3.84)	(3.58)
		SRV	%	(0.26)	(1.59)	(2.53)	(2.41)	(2.34)
		TRK	%	(0.15)	(0.98)	(1.73)	(1.76)	(1.76)
		TRN	%	(0.17)	(1.01)	(1.77)	(1.80)	(1.80)
		C	%	(0.20)	(1.32)	(2.15)	(2.08)	(2.02)
1	Export revenues are based on LNG exports net of liquefaction loss.							

Figure 157: Detailed Results for HEUR_SD_LS

Scenario: HEUR_SD_LS								
	Description		Units	**2015**	**2020**	**2025**	**2030**	**2035**
Level Values								
Macro	Gross Domestic Product		Billion 2010$	$15,965	$17,984	$20,422	$23,011	$25,909
	Consumption		Billion 2010$	$12,435	$14,000	$16,012	$18,182	$20,564
	Investment		Billion 2010$	$2,485	$2,808	$3,177	$3,532	$3,996
Natural Gas	Wellhead Price		2010$ per Mcf	$3.43	$3.98	$4.46	$4.84	$5.23
	Production		Tcf	24.82	27.28	28.82	29.95	30.97
	Exports		Tcf	0.37	2.19	2.19	2.19	2.19
	Pipeline Imports		Tcf	2.26	1.27	0.25	0.14	0.14
	Total Demand		Tcf	26.72	26.36	26.88	27.89	28.92
	Sectoral Demand	AGR	Tcf	0.15	0.15	0.16	0.16	0.16
		COL	Tcf	-	-	-	-	-
		CRU	Tcf	-	-	-	-	-
		EIS	Tcf	3.42	3.34	3.38	3.34	3.26
		ELE	Tcf	8.20	7.93	7.99	8.56	9.33
		GAS	Tcf	-	-	-	-	-
		M_V	Tcf	0.21	0.19	0.18	0.18	0.19
		MAN	Tcf	4.38	4.35	4.53	4.68	4.83
		OIL	Tcf	1.30	1.31	1.30	1.38	1.35
		SRV	Tcf	2.52	2.56	2.67	2.78	2.90
		TRK	Tcf	0.48	0.50	0.54	0.59	0.64
		TRN	Tcf	0.22	0.23	0.25	0.27	0.30
		C	Tcf	4.87	4.82	4.88	4.89	4.85
		G	Tcf	0.96	0.97	1.02	1.06	1.10
	Export Revenues [1]		Billion 2010$	$1.18	$8.07	$9.06	$9.83	$10.62
Percentage Change								
Macro	Gross Domestic Product		%	0.03	0.11	0.06	0.04	0.03
	Gross Capital Income		%	(0.02)	(0.15)	(0.12)	(0.09)	(0.08)
	Gross Labor Income		%	(0.01)	(0.11)	(0.09)	(0.07)	(0.06)
	Gross Resource Income		%	5.44	22.13	12.88	9.08	8.12
	Consumption		%	0.05	0.00	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)
	Investment		%	0.10	(0.10)	0.01	0.01	0.01
Natural Gas	Wellhead Price		%	2.52	13.51	9.11	6.86	6.27
	Production		%	0.53	3.11	3.97	4.33	4.18
	Pipeline Imports		%					
	Total Demand		%	(0.89)	(4.93)	(3.89)	(3.29)	(3.17)
	Sectoral Demand	AGR	%	(1.38)	(6.79)	(5.05)	(4.08)	(3.79)
		COL	%					
		CRU	%					
		EIS	%	(1.35)	(6.70)	(5.02)	(4.06)	(3.78)
		ELE	%	(0.90)	(5.34)	(4.37)	(3.79)	(3.73)
		GAS	%					
		M_V	%	(0.88)	(4.88)	(3.94)	(3.35)	(3.22)
		MAN	%	(1.23)	(6.25)	(4.69)	(3.82)	(3.57)
		OIL	%	(1.24)	(6.41)	(4.77)	(3.84)	(3.58)
		SRV	%	(0.55)	(3.31)	(2.77)	(2.41)	(2.34)
		TRK	%	(0.32)	(2.05)	(1.90)	(1.76)	(1.76)
		TRN	%	(0.33)	(2.09)	(1.96)	(1.81)	(1.81)
		C	%	(0.43)	(2.78)	(2.37)	(2.08)	(2.02)
1	Export revenues are based on LNG exports net of liquefaction loss.							

Figure 158: Detailed Results for HEUR_SD_LR

Scenario: HEUR_SD_LR								
	Description		Units	**2015**	**2020**	**2025**	**2030**	**2035**
Level Values								
Macro	Gross Domestic Product		Billion 2010$	$15,972	$17,983	$20,422	$23,010	$25,909
	Consumption		Billion 2010$	$12,435	$13,999	$16,012	$18,182	$20,564
	Investment		Billion 2010$	$2,482	$2,809	$3,178	$3,532	$3,996
Natural Gas	Wellhead Price		2010$ per Mcf	$3.61	$3.97	$4.46	$4.84	$5.23
	Production		Tcf	25.06	27.28	28.82	29.94	30.97
	Exports		Tcf	1.10	2.19	2.19	2.19	2.19
	Pipeline Imports		Tcf	2.26	1.27	0.25	0.14	0.14
	Total Demand		Tcf	26.23	26.36	26.88	27.89	28.92
	Sectoral Demand	AGR	Tcf	0.15	0.15	0.16	0.16	0.16
		COL	Tcf	-	-	-	-	-
		CRU	Tcf	-	-	-	-	-
		EIS	Tcf	3.33	3.34	3.37	3.34	3.26
		ELE	Tcf	8.04	7.93	7.99	8.56	9.33
		GAS	Tcf	-	-	-	-	-
		M_V	Tcf	0.20	0.19	0.18	0.18	0.19
		MAN	Tcf	4.27	4.35	4.53	4.68	4.83
		OIL	Tcf	1.27	1.31	1.30	1.38	1.35
		SRV	Tcf	2.49	2.56	2.67	2.78	2.90
		TRK	Tcf	0.48	0.50	0.54	0.59	0.64
		TRN	Tcf	0.22	0.23	0.25	0.27	0.30
		C	Tcf	4.82	4.82	4.88	4.89	4.85
		G	Tcf	0.95	0.97	1.02	1.06	1.10
	Export Revenues [1]		Billion 2010$	$3.69	$8.07	$9.06	$9.83	$10.62
Percentage Change								
Macro	Gross Domestic Product		%	0.07	0.11	0.06	0.03	0.03
	Gross Capital Income		%	(0.09)	(0.16)	(0.12)	(0.09)	(0.08)
	Gross Labor Income		%	(0.07)	(0.11)	(0.09)	(0.07)	(0.06)
	Gross Resource Income		%	17.33	22.05	12.86	9.07	8.11
	Consumption		%	0.05	(0.00)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.00)
	Investment		%	(0.02)	(0.05)	0.02	0.01	0.01
Natural Gas	Wellhead Price		%	7.97	13.49	9.11	6.86	6.27
	Production		%	1.49	3.10	3.97	4.32	4.18
	Pipeline Imports		%					
	Total Demand		%	(2.71)	(4.94)	(3.90)	(3.29)	(3.17)
	Sectoral Demand	AGR	%	(4.08)	(6.80)	(5.06)	(4.08)	(3.80)
		COL	%					
		CRU	%					
		EIS	%	(3.98)	(6.71)	(5.03)	(4.07)	(3.79)
		ELE	%	(2.76)	(5.35)	(4.37)	(3.78)	(3.73)
		GAS	%					
		M_V	%	(2.60)	(4.88)	(3.94)	(3.36)	(3.22)
		MAN	%	(3.67)	(6.25)	(4.69)	(3.82)	(3.58)
		OIL	%	(3.78)	(6.41)	(4.76)	(3.84)	(3.58)
		SRV	%	(1.71)	(3.32)	(2.78)	(2.41)	(2.34)
		TRK	%	(0.96)	(2.05)	(1.90)	(1.76)	(1.76)
		TRN	%	(0.98)	(2.11)	(1.96)	(1.81)	(1.81)
		C	%	(1.42)	(2.78)	(2.36)	(2.07)	(2.02)

[1] Export revenues are based on LNG exports net of liquefaction loss.

Figure 159: Detailed Results for HEUR_SD_HS

Scenario: HEUR_SD_HS								
	Description		Units	**2015**	**2020**	**2025**	**2030**	**2035**
Level Values								
Macro	Gross Domestic Product		Billion 2010$	$15,965	$17,986	$20,439	$23,022	$25,918
	Consumption		Billion 2010$	$12,437	$14,004	$16,013	$18,180	$20,561
	Investment		Billion 2010$	$2,486	$2,813	$3,175	$3,531	$3,994
Natural Gas	Wellhead Price		2010$ per Mcf	$3.43	$3.98	$4.84	$5.21	$5.59
	Production		Tcf	24.82	27.28	29.67	31.13	32.17
	Exports		Tcf	0.37	2.19	4.02	4.38	4.38
	Pipeline Imports		Tcf	2.26	1.27	0.25	0.14	0.14
	Total Demand		Tcf	26.72	26.36	25.90	26.89	27.92
	Sectoral Demand	AGR	Tcf	0.15	0.15	0.15	0.15	0.16
		COL	Tcf	-	-	-	-	-
		CRU	Tcf	-	-	-	-	-
		EIS	Tcf	3.42	3.34	3.22	3.20	3.13
		ELE	Tcf	8.20	7.93	7.66	8.21	8.95
		GAS	Tcf	-	-	-	-	-
		M_V	Tcf	0.21	0.19	0.17	0.18	0.18
		MAN	Tcf	4.38	4.35	4.33	4.49	4.64
		OIL	Tcf	1.30	1.31	1.24	1.32	1.30
		SRV	Tcf	2.52	2.56	2.60	2.70	2.82
		TRK	Tcf	0.48	0.50	0.53	0.58	0.63
		TRN	Tcf	0.22	0.23	0.25	0.27	0.29
		C	Tcf	4.87	4.82	4.77	4.78	4.75
		G	Tcf	0.96	0.97	0.99	1.03	1.07
	Export Revenues [1]		Billion 2010$	$1.18	$8.07	$18.05	$21.15	$22.70
Percentage Change								
Macro	Gross Domestic Product		%	0.03	0.12	0.14	0.09	0.06
	Gross Capital Income		%	(0.02)	(0.14)	(0.21)	(0.19)	(0.17)
	Gross Labor Income		%	(0.01)	(0.10)	(0.16)	(0.14)	(0.13)
	Gross Resource Income		%	5.38	22.12	26.64	20.29	17.95
	Consumption		%	0.06	0.04	(0.01)	(0.02)	(0.02)
	Investment		%	0.12	0.08	(0.05)	(0.02)	(0.02)
Natural Gas	Wellhead Price		%	2.51	13.51	18.45	14.96	13.55
	Production		%	0.52	3.11	7.05	8.47	8.21
	Pipeline Imports		%					
	Total Demand		%	(0.89)	(4.93)	(7.39)	(6.76)	(6.50)
	Sectoral Demand	AGR	%	(1.40)	(6.82)	(9.52)	(8.33)	(7.73)
		COL	%					
		CRU	%					
		EIS	%	(1.38)	(6.74)	(9.44)	(8.29)	(7.70)
		ELE	%	(0.89)	(5.33)	(8.28)	(7.76)	(7.62)
		GAS	%					
		M_V	%	(0.88)	(4.90)	(7.47)	(6.88)	(6.60)
		MAN	%	(1.24)	(6.26)	(8.87)	(7.82)	(7.31)
		OIL	%	(1.24)	(6.41)	(9.00)	(7.86)	(7.32)
		SRV	%	(0.55)	(3.30)	(5.33)	(5.01)	(4.85)
		TRK	%	(0.32)	(2.04)	(3.66)	(3.68)	(3.66)
		TRN	%	(0.35)	(2.11)	(3.75)	(3.77)	(3.75)
		C	%	(0.41)	(2.75)	(4.55)	(4.34)	(4.20)
1	Export revenues are based on LNG exports net of liquefaction loss.							

Figure 160: Detailed Results for HEUR_SD_HR

Scenario: HEUR_SD_HR								
	Description		Units	**2015**	**2020**	**2025**	**2030**	**2035**
Level Values								
Macro	Gross Domestic Product		Billion 2010$	$15,973	$18,012	$20,438	$23,021	$25,918
	Consumption		Billion 2010$	$12,442	$14,000	$16,010	$18,181	$20,564
	Investment		Billion 2010$	$2,486	$2,805	$3,178	$3,532	$3,996
Natural Gas	Wellhead Price		2010$ per Mcf	$3.61	$4.61	$4.93	$5.21	$5.59
	Production		Tcf	25.06	27.96	29.83	31.13	32.17
	Exports		Tcf	1.10	4.38	4.38	4.38	4.38
	Pipeline Imports		Tcf	2.26	1.27	0.25	0.14	0.14
	Total Demand		Tcf	26.23	24.85	25.70	26.89	27.92
	Sectoral Demand	AGR	Tcf	0.15	0.14	0.15	0.15	0.16
		COL	Tcf	-	-	-	-	-
		CRU	Tcf	-	-	-	-	-
		EIS	Tcf	3.33	3.08	3.18	3.19	3.13
		ELE	Tcf	8.04	7.44	7.59	8.21	8.95
		GAS	Tcf	-	-	-	-	-
		M_V	Tcf	0.20	0.18	0.17	0.18	0.18
		MAN	Tcf	4.27	4.03	4.29	4.49	4.64
		OIL	Tcf	1.27	1.21	1.23	1.32	1.30
		SRV	Tcf	2.49	2.46	2.59	2.70	2.82
		TRK	Tcf	0.48	0.49	0.53	0.57	0.63
		TRN	Tcf	0.22	0.23	0.24	0.27	0.29
		C	Tcf	4.82	4.66	4.74	4.78	4.75
		G	Tcf	0.95	0.93	0.98	1.03	1.07
	Export Revenues [1]		Billion 2010$	$3.69	$18.71	$20.00	$21.15	$22.70
Percentage Change								
Macro	Gross Domestic Product		%	0.08	0.27	0.13	0.08	0.06
	Gross Capital Income		%	(0.07)	(0.34)	(0.26)	(0.20)	(0.17)
	Gross Labor Income		%	(0.06)	(0.25)	(0.19)	(0.15)	(0.13)
	Gross Resource Income		%	17.27	52.53	29.53	20.22	17.92
	Consumption		%	0.10	0.01	(0.02)	(0.01)	(0.01)
	Investment		%	0.11	(0.22)	0.03	0.02	0.03
Natural Gas	Wellhead Price		%	7.96	31.57	20.46	14.95	13.54
	Production		%	1.49	5.68	7.61	8.46	8.20
	Pipeline Imports		%					
	Total Demand		%	(2.71)	(10.38)	(8.12)	(6.77)	(6.50)
	Sectoral Demand	AGR	%	(4.14)	(14.12)	(10.46)	(8.36)	(7.75)
		COL	%					
		CRU	%					
		EIS	%	(4.05)	(13.92)	(10.39)	(8.32)	(7.73)
		ELE	%	(2.75)	(11.20)	(9.08)	(7.76)	(7.62)
		GAS	%					
		M_V	%	(2.64)	(10.24)	(8.20)	(6.90)	(6.60)
		MAN	%	(3.71)	(13.02)	(9.71)	(7.83)	(7.31)
		OIL	%	(3.77)	(13.34)	(9.87)	(7.86)	(7.32)
		SRV	%	(1.70)	(7.15)	(5.87)	(5.01)	(4.85)
		TRK	%	(0.97)	(4.47)	(4.05)	(3.69)	(3.66)
		TRN	%	(1.01)	(4.57)	(4.18)	(3.79)	(3.76)
		C	%	(1.36)	(6.06)	(5.03)	(4.33)	(4.19)
[1]	Export revenues are based on LNG exports net of liquefaction loss.							

Figure 161: Detailed Results for HEUR_SD_NC

Scenario: HEUR_SD_NC								
	Description		Units	2015	2020	2025	2030	2035
Level Values								
Macro	Gross Domestic Product		Billion 2010$	$16,017	$18,025	$20,462	$23,039	$25,948
	Consumption		Billion 2010$	$12,447	$14,002	$16,012	$18,184	$20,565
	Investment		Billion 2010$	$2,473	$2,812	$3,177	$3,538	$4,002
Natural Gas	Wellhead Price		2010$ per Mcf	$4.68	$4.98	$5.55	$5.71	$6.41
	Production		Tcf	25.87	28.24	30.81	32.43	34.24
	Exports		Tcf	4.23	5.44	6.72	6.89	8.39
	Pipeline Imports		Tcf	2.26	1.27	0.25	0.14	0.14
	Total Demand		Tcf	23.91	24.07	24.34	25.67	25.99
	Sectoral Demand	AGR	Tcf	0.13	0.13	0.14	0.14	0.14
		COL	Tcf	-	-	-	-	-
		CRU	Tcf	-	-	-	-	-
		EIS	Tcf	2.91	2.95	2.97	3.02	2.87
		ELE	Tcf	7.32	7.19	7.15	7.78	8.23
		GAS	Tcf	-	-	-	-	-
		M_V	Tcf	0.19	0.17	0.16	0.17	0.17
		MAN	Tcf	3.77	3.88	4.02	4.25	4.28
		OIL	Tcf	1.11	1.17	1.15	1.25	1.20
		SRV	Tcf	2.34	2.41	2.49	2.61	2.67
		TRK	Tcf	0.46	0.48	0.51	0.56	0.60
		TRN	Tcf	0.22	0.22	0.24	0.26	0.28
		C	Tcf	4.58	4.57	4.59	4.64	4.53
		G	Tcf	0.88	0.90	0.94	0.99	1.01
	Export Revenues [1]		Billion 2010$	$18.35	$25.13	$34.58	$36.49	$49.83
Percentage Change								
Macro	Gross Domestic Product		%	0.35	0.34	0.25	0.16	0.18
	Gross Capital Income		%	(0.42)	(0.47)	(0.42)	(0.32)	(0.33)
	Gross Labor Income		%	(0.33)	(0.34)	(0.32)	(0.25)	(0.26)
	Gross Resource Income		%	88.35	70.57	52.78	36.18	41.62
	Consumption		%	0.14	0.02	(0.01)	0.00	0.00
	Investment		%	(0.41)	0.04	0.01	0.18	0.18
Natural Gas	Wellhead Price		%	39.81	42.27	35.75	26.06	30.14
	Production		%	4.78	6.75	11.16	12.97	15.18
	Pipeline Imports		%					
	Total Demand		%	(0.00)	(0.00)	(0.00)	(0.00)	(0.00)
	Sectoral Demand	AGR	%	(11.32)	(13.18)	(12.97)	(10.98)	(12.98)
		COL	%	(16.58)	(17.87)	(16.58)	(13.50)	(15.34)
		CRU	%					
		EIS	%					
		ELE	%	(16.19)	(17.66)	(16.46)	(13.45)	(15.30)
		GAS	%	(11.50)	(14.17)	(14.43)	(12.54)	(15.11)
		M_V	%					
		MAN	%	(10.73)	(13.00)	(13.07)	(11.18)	(13.14)
		OIL	%	(14.93)	(16.41)	(15.42)	(12.64)	(14.50)
		SRV	%	(15.45)	(16.82)	(15.63)	(12.69)	(14.54)
		TRK	%	(7.51)	(9.21)	(9.55)	(8.24)	(9.89)
		TRN	%	(4.25)	(5.81)	(6.66)	(6.10)	(7.55)
		C	%	(4.35)	(6.01)	(6.86)	(6.29)	(7.74)
1	Export revenues are based on LNG exports net of liquefaction loss.							

Figure 162: Detailed Results for LEUR_SD_LSS

Scenario: LEUR_SD_LSS								
	Description		Units	**2015**	**2020**	**2025**	**2030**	**2035**
Level Values								
Macro	Gross Domestic Product		Billion 2010$	$15,791	$17,719	$20,060	$22,691	$25,568
	Consumption		Billion 2010$	$12,382	$13,920	$15,861	$18,093	$20,477
	Investment		Billion 2010$	$2,443	$2,757	$3,135	$3,495	$3,956
Natural Gas	Wellhead Price		2010$ per Mcf	$5.73	$6.82	$8.04	$8.33	$9.00
	Production		Tcf	19.60	20.15	20.58	21.13	21.83
	Exports		Tcf	-	0.78	0.86	-	0.19
	Pipeline Imports		Tcf	3.00	2.61	2.37	2.01	1.75
	Total Demand		Tcf	22.60	21.98	22.09	23.14	23.39
	Sectoral Demand	AGR	Tcf	0.16	0.15	0.16	0.16	0.16
		COL	Tcf	-	-	-	-	-
		CRU	Tcf	-	-	-	-	-
		EIS	Tcf	3.18	3.05	2.96	2.86	2.75
		ELE	Tcf	5.23	4.88	5.08	5.91	6.10
		GAS	Tcf	-	-	-	-	-
		M_V	Tcf	0.19	0.16	0.15	0.16	0.16
		MAN	Tcf	3.99	3.88	3.86	3.95	3.99
		OIL	Tcf	1.32	1.37	1.37	1.36	1.38
		SRV	Tcf	2.32	2.33	2.35	2.45	2.54
		TRK	Tcf	0.45	0.45	0.47	0.49	0.51
		TRN	Tcf	0.21	0.21	0.22	0.23	0.24
		C	Tcf	4.68	4.61	4.59	4.63	4.58
		G	Tcf	0.88	0.89	0.90	0.94	0.97
	Export Revenues [1]		Billion 2010$	$0.00	$4.93	$6.41	$0.00	$1.58
Percentage Change								
Macro	Gross Domestic Product		%	0.00	0.01	(0.01)	(0.01)	0.01
	Gross Capital Income		%	0.00	(0.08)	(0.06)	(0.01)	(0.00)
	Gross Labor Income		%	0.00	(0.06)	(0.05)	(0.00)	(0.00)
	Gross Resource Income		%	(0.02)	7.82	3.12	(0.06)	0.43
	Consumption		%	0.02	0.00	(0.01)	0.00	0.00
	Investment		%	0.04	(0.07)	(0.08)	0.08	0.08
Natural Gas	Wellhead Price		%	(0.00)	5.78	2.75	(0.00)	0.42
	Production		%	(0.00)	1.35	2.70	(0.01)	0.60
	Pipeline Imports		%					
	Total Demand		%	(0.00)	(2.28)	(1.42)	(0.01)	(0.25)
	Sectoral Demand	AGR	%	(0.02)	(3.06)	(1.78)	(0.03)	(0.30)
		COL	%					
		CRU	%					
		EIS	%	(0.02)	(3.01)	(1.76)	(0.04)	(0.31)
		ELE	%	0.01	(2.46)	(1.56)	(0.00)	(0.29)
		GAS	%					
		M_V	%	(0.00)	(2.19)	(1.44)	(0.01)	(0.25)
		MAN	%	(0.02)	(2.76)	(1.64)	(0.00)	(0.27)
		OIL	%	0.00	(2.81)	(1.62)	(0.00)	(0.28)
		SRV	%	0.00	(1.70)	(1.14)	(0.01)	(0.21)
		TRK	%	(0.00)	(1.11)	(0.89)	(0.01)	(0.17)
		TRN	%	(0.01)	(1.14)	(0.91)	(0.02)	(0.19)
		C	%	0.02	(1.50)	(1.04)	0.00	(0.19)
1	Export revenues are based on LNG exports net of liquefaction loss.							

Figure 163: Detailed Results for HEUR_SD_LSS_QR

Scenario: HEUR_SD_LSS_QR								
	Description		Units	**2015**	**2020**	**2025**	**2030**	**2035**
Level Values								
Macro	Gross Domestic Product		Billion 2010$	$15,963	$17,976	$20,428	$23,016	$25,915
	Consumption		Billion 2010$	$12,434	$14,003	$16,015	$18,184	$20,566
	Investment		Billion 2010$	$2,484	$2,812	$3,176	$3,531	$3,995
Natural Gas	Wellhead Price		2010$ per Mcf	$3.39	$3.72	$4.43	$4.84	$5.23
	Production		Tcf	24.76	26.89	28.73	29.94	30.97
	Exports		Tcf	0.18	1.10	2.01	2.19	2.19
	Pipeline Imports		Tcf	2.26	1.27	0.25	0.14	0.14
	Total Demand		Tcf	26.84	27.06	26.97	27.89	28.92
	Sectoral Demand	AGR	Tcf	0.16	0.15	0.16	0.16	0.16
		COL	Tcf	-	-	-	-	-
		CRU	Tcf	-	-	-	-	-
		EIS	Tcf	3.45	3.46	3.39	3.34	3.26
		ELE	Tcf	8.23	8.16	8.02	8.56	9.33
		GAS	Tcf	-	-	-	-	-
		M_V	Tcf	0.21	0.19	0.18	0.18	0.19
		MAN	Tcf	4.41	4.49	4.55	4.68	4.83
		OIL	Tcf	1.31	1.36	1.31	1.38	1.35
		SRV	Tcf	2.53	2.61	2.68	2.78	2.90
		TRK	Tcf	0.48	0.51	0.54	0.59	0.64
		TRN	Tcf	0.22	0.24	0.25	0.27	0.30
		C	Tcf	4.88	4.90	4.89	4.89	4.85
		G	Tcf	0.96	0.99	1.02	1.06	1.10
	Export Revenues [1]		Billion 2010$	$0.57	$3.80	$8.25	$9.83	$10.62
Percentage Change								
Macro	Gross Domestic Product		%	0.02	0.07	0.08	0.06	0.05
	Gross Capital Income		%	(0.01)	(0.07)	(0.10)	(0.09)	(0.08)
	Gross Labor Income		%	(0.01)	(0.05)	(0.07)	(0.07)	(0.07)
	Gross Resource Income		%	2.51	10.16	11.70	9.06	8.09
	Consumption		%	0.04	0.03	0.01	0.00	0.00
	Investment		%	0.06	0.04	(0.02)	(0.01)	(0.01)
Natural Gas	Wellhead Price		%	1.19	6.27	8.28	6.86	6.26
	Production		%	0.26	1.63	3.66	4.32	4.18
	Pipeline Imports		%					
	Total Demand		%	(0.43)	(2.41)	(3.56)	(3.29)	(3.17)
	Sectoral Demand	AGR	%	(0.70)	(3.37)	(4.64)	(4.09)	(3.82)
		COL	%					
		CRU	%					
		EIS	%	(0.70)	(3.34)	(4.61)	(4.08)	(3.81)
		ELE	%	(0.43)	(2.60)	(3.99)	(3.78)	(3.73)
		GAS	%					
		M_V	%	(0.45)	(2.42)	(3.63)	(3.38)	(3.25)
		MAN	%	(0.61)	(3.09)	(4.31)	(3.83)	(3.59)
		OIL	%	(0.60)	(3.14)	(4.36)	(3.84)	(3.58)
		SRV	%	(0.26)	(1.59)	(2.53)	(2.41)	(2.34)
		TRK	%	(0.16)	(0.99)	(1.74)	(1.77)	(1.77)
		TRN	%	(0.19)	(1.03)	(1.79)	(1.82)	(1.82)
		C	%	(0.19)	(1.31)	(2.14)	(2.06)	(2.01)
1	Export revenues are based on LNG exports net of liquefaction loss.							

Figure 164: Detailed Results for HEUR_SD_HR_QR

Scenario: HEUR_SD_HR_QR								
	Description		Units	**2015**	**2020**	**2025**	**2030**	**2035**
Level Values								
Macro	Gross Domestic Product		Billion 2010$	$15,974	$18,013	$20,443	$23,027	$25,927
	Consumption		Billion 2010$	$12,444	$14,003	$16,013	$18,184	$20,567
	Investment		Billion 2010$	$2,486	$2,804	$3,178	$3,532	$3,996
Natural Gas	Wellhead Price		2010$ per Mcf	$3.61	$4.61	$4.93	$5.21	$5.59
	Production		Tcf	25.06	27.96	29.83	31.13	32.17
	Exports		Tcf	1.10	4.38	4.38	4.38	4.38
	Pipeline Imports		Tcf	2.26	1.27	0.25	0.14	0.14
	Total Demand		Tcf	26.22	24.85	25.70	26.89	27.92
	Sectoral Demand	AGR	Tcf	0.15	0.14	0.15	0.15	0.16
		COL	Tcf	-	-	-	-	-
		CRU	Tcf	-	-	-	-	-
		EIS	Tcf	3.33	3.08	3.18	3.19	3.13
		ELE	Tcf	8.04	7.44	7.59	8.21	8.95
		GAS	Tcf	-	-	-	-	-
		M_V	Tcf	0.20	0.18	0.17	0.18	0.18
		MAN	Tcf	4.27	4.03	4.29	4.48	4.64
		OIL	Tcf	1.27	1.21	1.23	1.32	1.30
		SRV	Tcf	2.49	2.46	2.59	2.70	2.82
		TRK	Tcf	0.48	0.49	0.53	0.57	0.63
		TRN	Tcf	0.22	0.23	0.24	0.27	0.29
		C	Tcf	4.82	4.66	4.75	4.78	4.75
		G	Tcf	0.95	0.93	0.98	1.03	1.07
	Export Revenues [1]		Billion 2010$	$3.68	$18.70	$20.00	$21.15	$22.70
Percentage Change								
Macro	Gross Domestic Product		%	0.09	0.28	0.16	0.11	0.10
	Gross Capital Income		%	(0.07)	(0.34)	(0.26)	(0.20)	(0.18)
	Gross Labor Income		%	(0.06)	(0.25)	(0.19)	(0.15)	(0.14)
	Gross Resource Income		%	17.17	52.44	29.47	20.17	17.87
	Consumption		%	0.12	0.03	(0.00)	0.00	0.01
	Investment		%	0.11	(0.22)	0.02	0.01	0.02
Natural Gas	Wellhead Price		%	7.94	31.55	20.45	14.94	13.53
	Production		%	1.49	5.68	7.61	8.45	8.20
	Pipeline Imports		%					
	Total Demand		%	(2.72)	(10.38)	(8.12)	(6.77)	(6.50)
	Sectoral Demand	AGR	%	(4.17)	(14.15)	(10.50)	(8.40)	(7.79)
		COL	%					
		CRU	%					
		EIS	%	(4.09)	(13.96)	(10.43)	(8.37)	(7.77)
		ELE	%	(2.74)	(11.19)	(9.08)	(7.76)	(7.61)
		GAS	%					
		M_V	%	(2.68)	(10.27)	(8.23)	(6.94)	(6.64)
		MAN	%	(3.73)	(13.03)	(9.73)	(7.85)	(7.33)
		OIL	%	(3.77)	(13.33)	(9.87)	(7.86)	(7.32)
		SRV	%	(1.69)	(7.15)	(5.87)	(5.01)	(4.85)
		TRK	%	(0.98)	(4.48)	(4.06)	(3.70)	(3.68)
		TRN	%	(1.04)	(4.59)	(4.19)	(3.81)	(3.78)
		C	%	(1.34)	(6.04)	(5.01)	(4.31)	(4.17)
1	Export revenues are based on LNG exports net of liquefaction loss.							

APPENDIX D - COMPARISON WITH EIA STUDY

NERA's modeling of shifts in natural gas price, production, and demand are built off an attempt to replicate EIA's price path. This was an important step to ensure that the NERA model output was consistent with the EIA's model. Of particular importance was the ability to replicate EIA's natural gas prices as closely as possible since it is a key driver of macroeconomic impacts. In this process, we ran the exact export scenarios reflected in the EIA Study. We ran Low/Slow, Low/High, High/Slow, and High/Rapid export expansion scenarios for the Reference, High Shale, and Low Shale outlooks. In total we ran 16 EIA consistent scenarios to compare model results. NERA Reference shale gas case scenarios are referenced as NERA_REF_LS, NERA_REF_LR, NERA_REF_HS, and NERA_REF_HR. Similarly, the High Shale and Low Shale case outlook for the NERA Study is referenced as NERA_HEUR_LS, NERA_HEUR_LR, NERA_HEUR_HS, NERA_HEUR_HR, NERA_LEUR_LS, NERA_LEUR_LR, NERA_LEUR_HS, NERA_LEUR_HR, respectively. The corresponding EIA scenarios are referenced as EIA_REF_LS, EIA_REF_LR, EIA_REF_HS, EIA_REF_HR, EIA_HEUR_LS, EIA_HEUR_LR, EIA_HEUR_HS, EIA_HEUR_HR, EIA_LEUR_LS, EIA_LEUR_LR, NERA_LEUR_HS, and NERA_LEUR_HR.

The natural gas supply curve in the NERA model was calibrated to EIA's natural gas supply curve in order to produce a response similar to the EIA High/Rapid scenario for the respective baselines. While the results of this price calibration scenario were nearly duplicated, other macroeconomic scenarios exhibited some differences between the NERA and EIA model runs. These variances are due primarily to differences in the model structure and modeling characteristics such as sectoral price elasticity of demand, supply elasticity, and other behavioral model parameters.

For changes in natural gas prices, the most apparent difference between the EIA and NERA model runs is seen in the High/Slow scenario. This is true for the Reference, High EUR and Low EUR baselines as seen in Figure 165, Figure 166, and Figure 167.These differences arise because we first estimate the implied price elasticity of natural gas supply to replicate the High/Rapid case and then adopt that elasticity for the other scenario runs.

Figure 165: Reference Case Natural Gas Price Percentage Changes

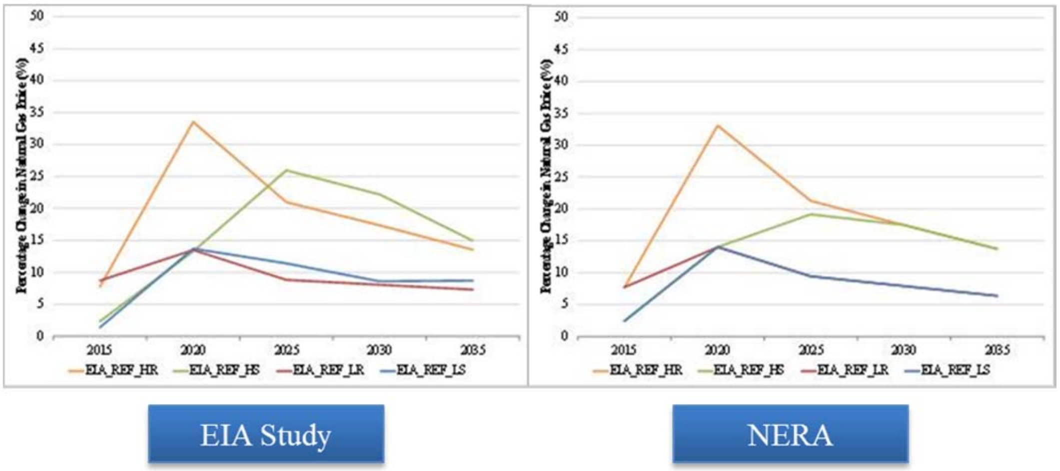


Figure 166: High EUR Natural Gas Price Percentage Changes

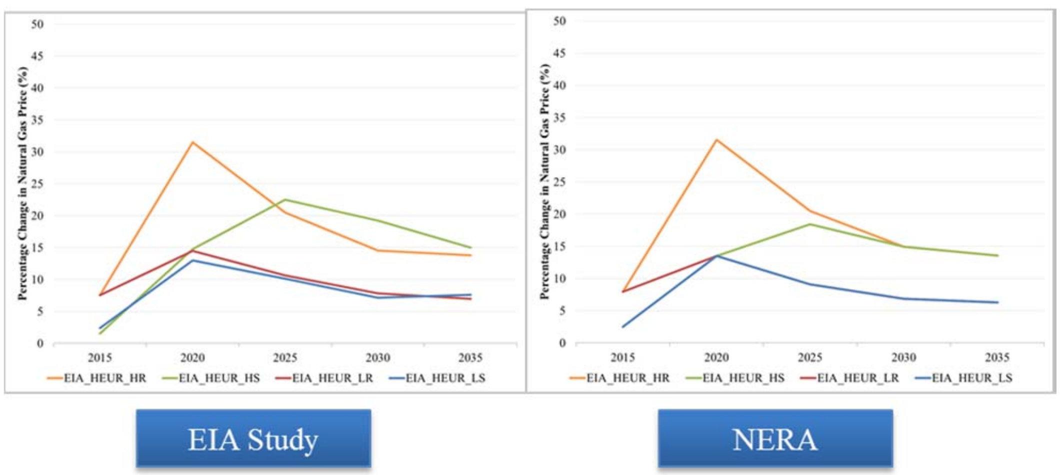
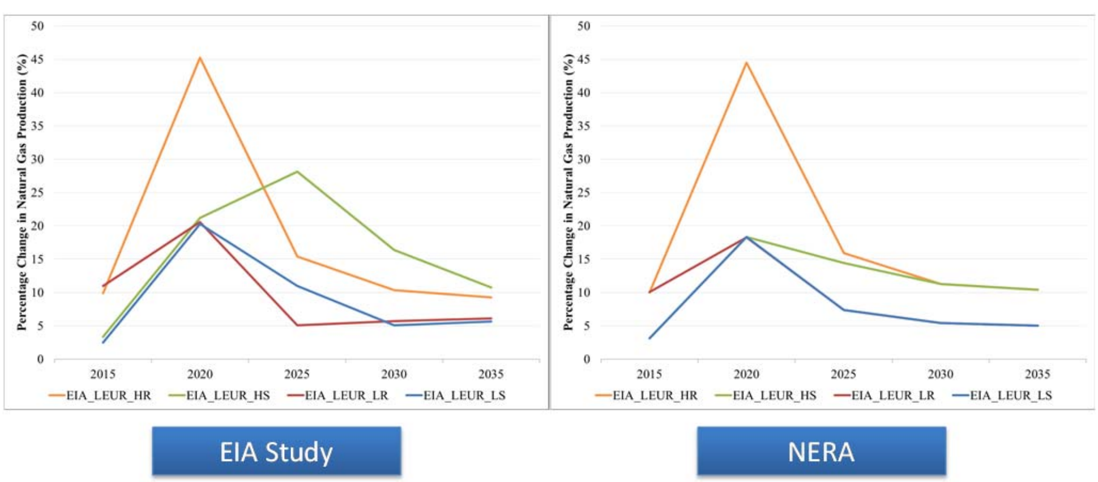


Figure 167: Low EUR Natural Gas Price Percentage Changes



The prices seen in the EIA High/Slow scenario in each baseline case deviate primarily in 2025, but also in 2030, in the range of 5% to 10% higher than the price change seen in the NERA High/Slow scenario. The low/slow scenario also shows small, but noticeable, differentials between the EIA and NERA model runs, particularly with the Reference and Low EUR baselines in 2025. Other than these differences, the general paths of price development in the NERA model runs tend to closely follow those estimated in the EIA study.

Changes in levels of natural gas demand and production show greater differences between the EIA and NERA runs than those seen in price. As briefly mentioned above, and elaborated on to a greater extent below, much of these variances result from the different elasticities used in the models and the overall model structures. The similar paths, but different magnitudes, of demand and production changes compared to the closely matched price changes reveal implied elasticities as a major source of variance. Figure 169 shows the implied supply elasticities for each case in 2015, 2025, and 2035.

The EIA Study assumed four different export scenarios for three different natural gas resources estimates (Reference, High Shale EUR, and Low Shale EUR). The scenarios for each baseline provide sufficient information about natural gas prices and supply quantities to be able to examine the natural gas supply curves. The supply curves are characterized by prices, quantities and the curvature. The current study makes all effort to simulate the EIA's supply curves despite the differences in the model construct. Figure 168 shows the EIA Study and NERA study supply curves for years 2020 and 2035 for the three natural gas resource outlooks.

Examining the curves suggests that the short-run supply curves (2020) are more inelastic than the long-run (2035) supply curves in both studies. The flattening of the supply curves is due to the fact that production and resource constraints are less binding over time. Under the High EUR case, 30 to 34 Tcf of natural gas can be supplied within a price range of $5 to $6/Mcf in the long run. However, under the Low EUR case, less natural gas can be supplied at a much higher price.

The EIA Study supply curves are shown as solid lines and the NERA supply curves are shown as dotted lines. Although the long-run supply curves are fairly close to one another, the short-run NERA supply curves are more inelastic. Given the supply curves, for a given change in quantity supplied, natural gas production in NERA model is relatively more price responsive in 2020 than in the EIA Study. The differences in the underlying assumption of the implied supply elasticities in 2020 drive this shape of the supply curve.

Figure 168: Natural Gas Supply Curves

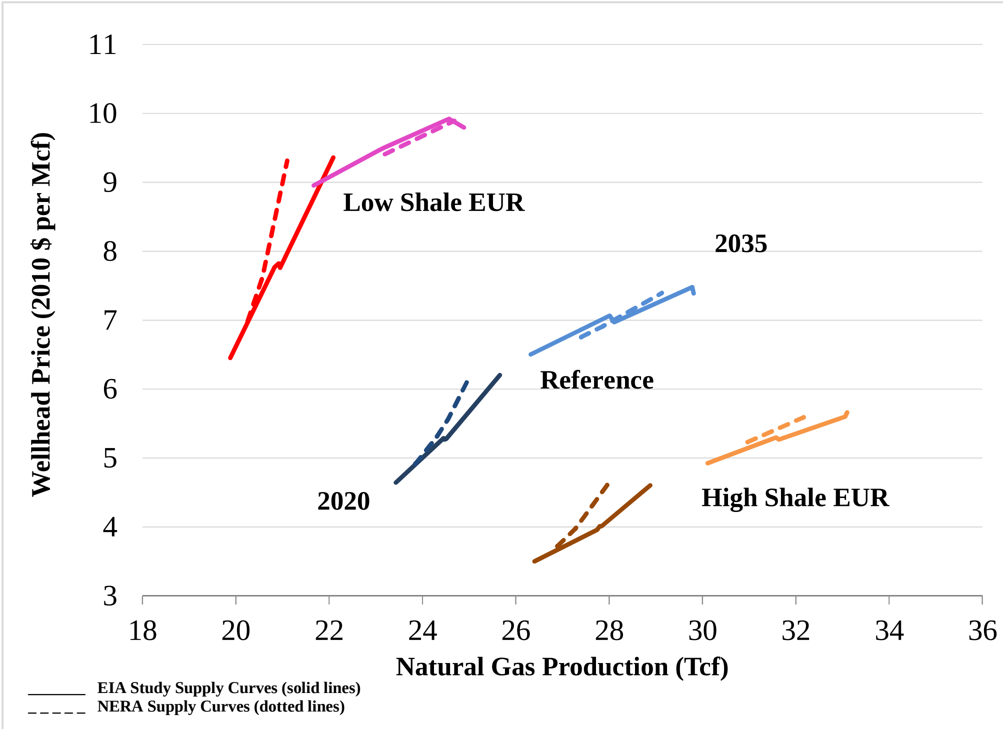
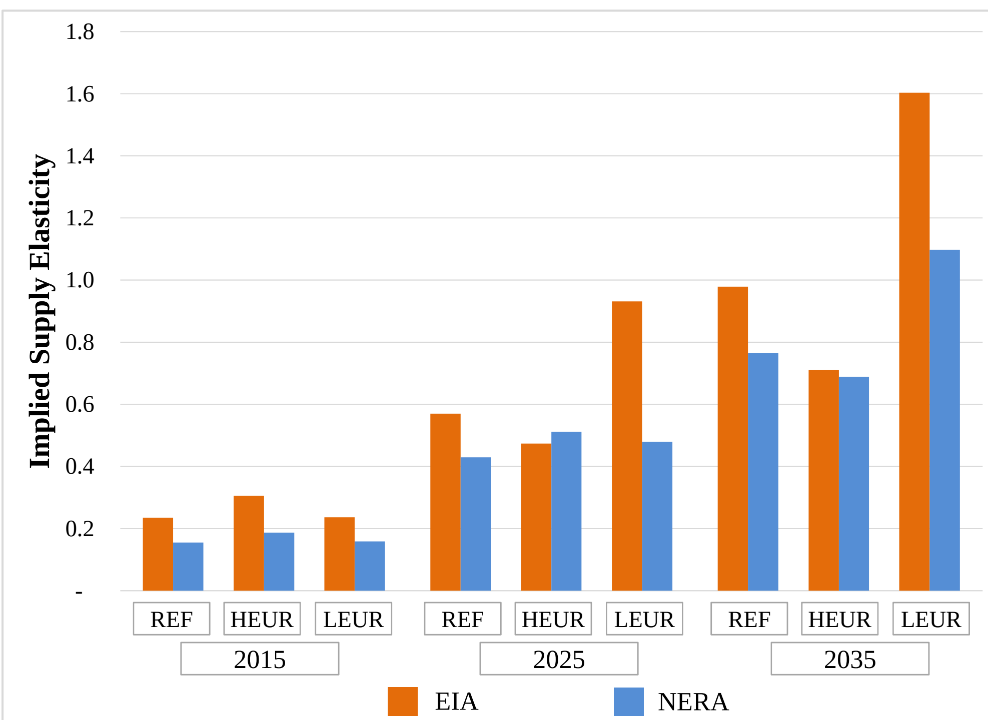


Figure 169: Implied Elasticities of Supply for Cases



Overall, the changes in natural gas demand are dampened in the EIA Study relative to the changes seen in the NERA model results, as seen in Figure 170, Figure 171, and Figure 172. The biggest differences appear to be found in the two rapid scenarios, High/Rapid and Low/Rapid. For each of the baseline cases, the rapid scenarios in the EIA Study show a significantly smaller magnitude of change in demand than they do in the comparable NERA model runs. Similar to the changes in price seen earlier, these differences are most pronounced in 2025 and 2030.

Figure 170: Reference Case Natural Gas Demand Percentage Changes

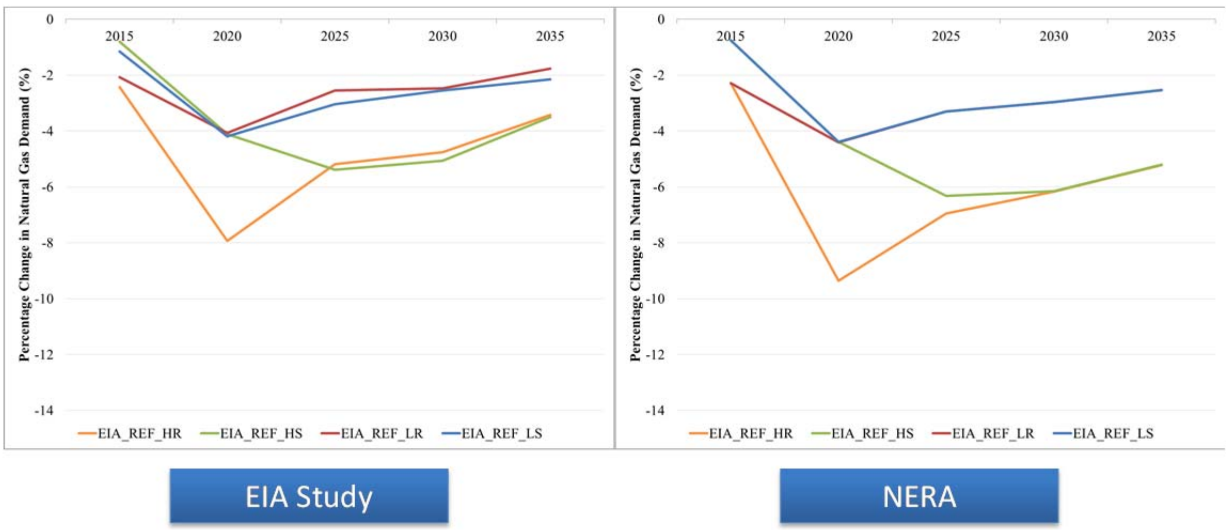


Figure 171: High EUR Natural Gas Demand Percentage Changes

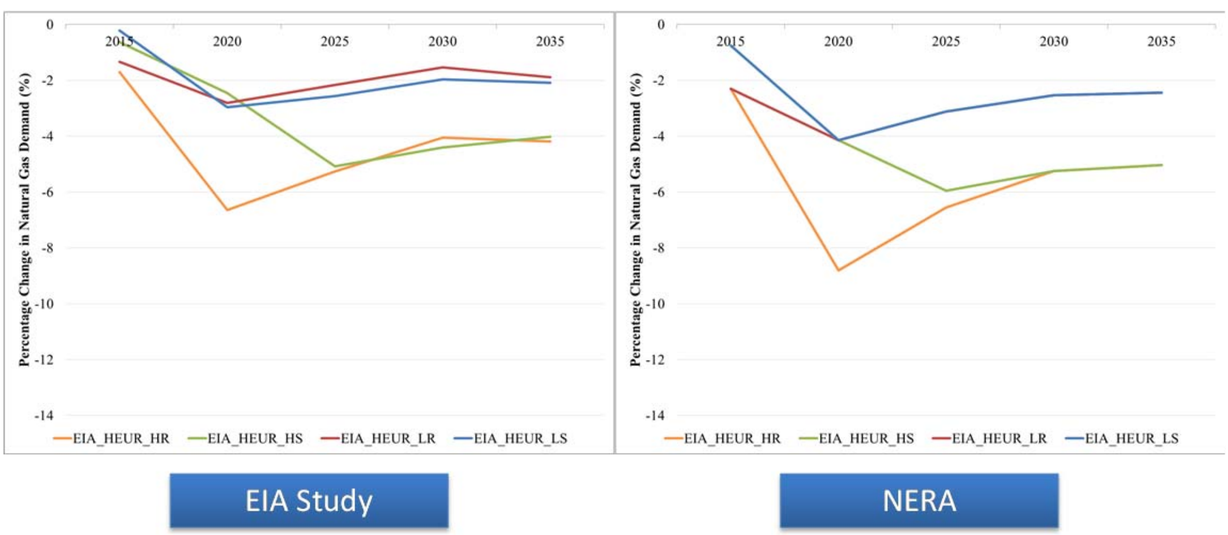
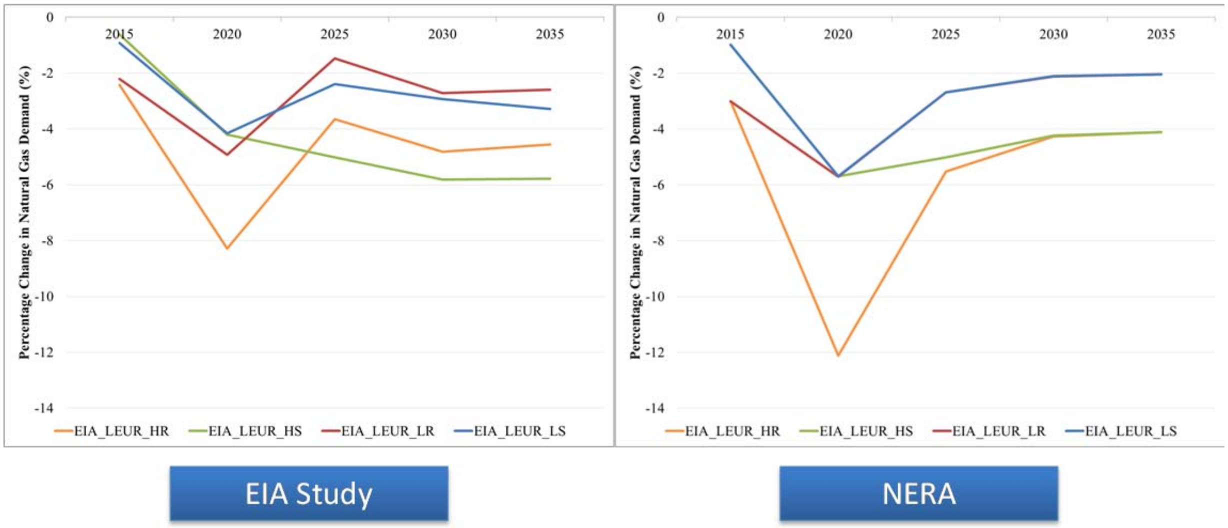


Figure 172: Low EUR Natural Gas Demand Percentage Changes



The results of the Low EUR baseline seen in Figure 172 show the most variance between the EIA and NERA results. In addition to the previously mentioned observation of overall lower magnitude changes in the EIA numbers relative to the NERA numbers and the largest differences being seen in 2025 and 2030, the paths of demand change in the two slow scenarios (High/Slow and Low/Slow) vary in later model years. In the EIA Study the changes in the High/Slow and Low/Slow scenarios get larger from 2025 to 2035 while in the NERA model the changes get smaller towards the end of the model horizon.

Differences between the changes in natural gas production seen in the EIA Study and the NERA modeling results are similar to those seen in demand changes, but in the opposite direction. In this metric, the EIA results show greater magnitudes of change than the NERA results, as can be seen in Figure 173, Figure 174, and Figure 175. This difference can be as large as 3% to 4%, as seen in the 2030 and 2035 years of the Reference Case high scenarios (High/Rapid and High/Slow).

Figure 173: Reference Case Natural Gas Production Percentage Changes

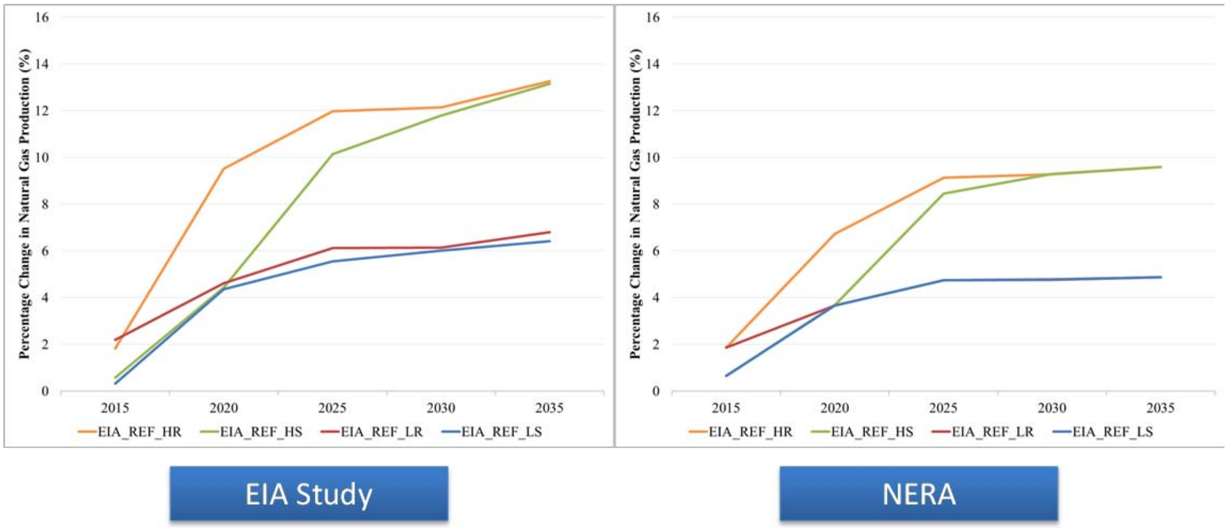


Figure 174: High EUR Natural Gas Production Percentage Changes

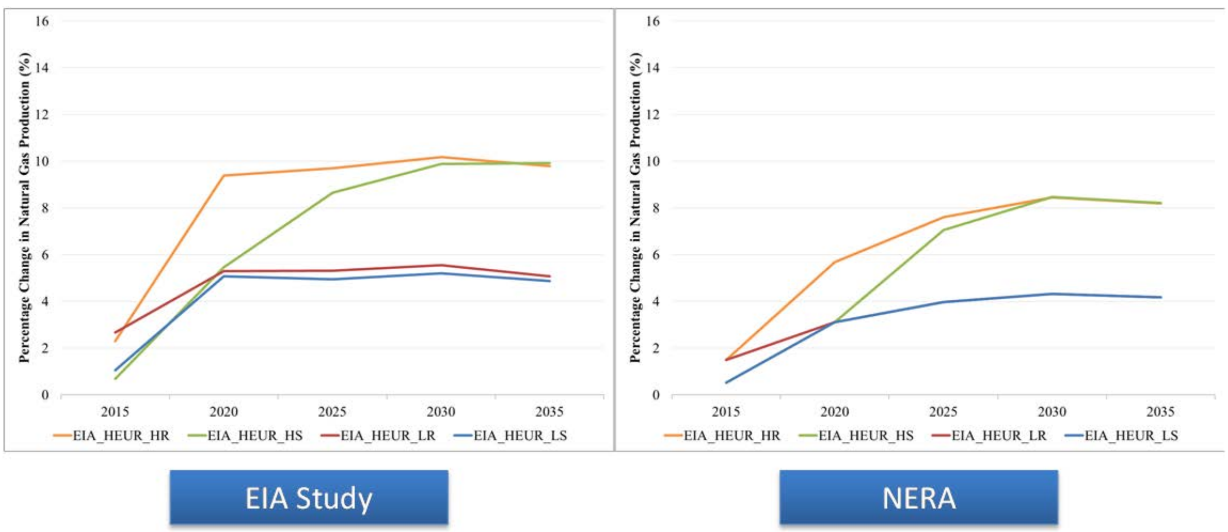
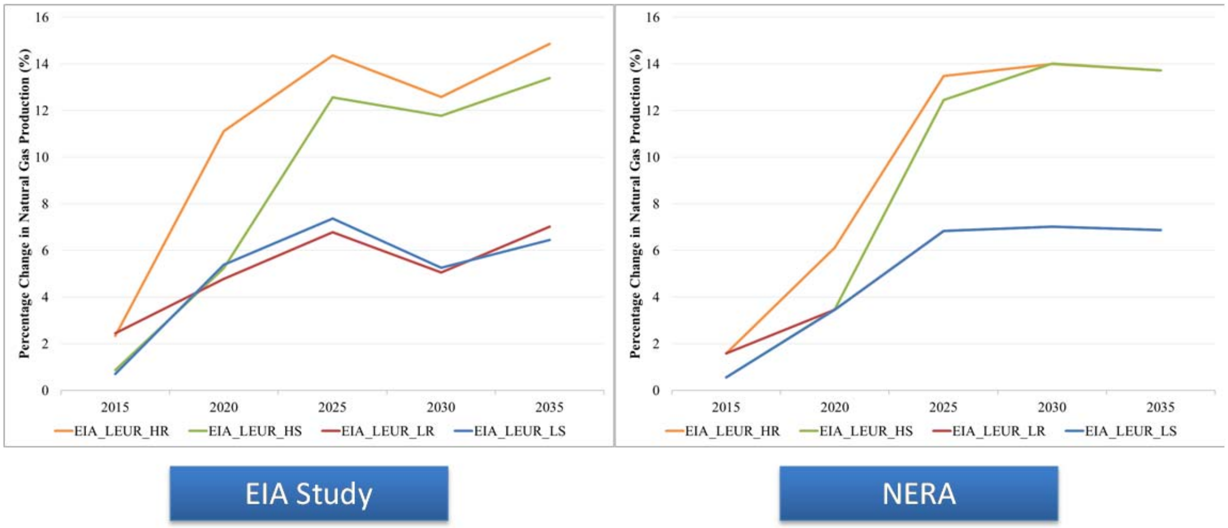


Figure 175: Low EUR Natural Gas Production Percentage Changes



Apart from the overall difference in levels of change seen between the two sets of model results, the general paths and patterns remain fairly similar because they are primarily driven by the level values and the pace of export expansion. The largest differences tend to occur in 2025 and 2030, similar to what is observed in the previous results, but the production changes also show some more variation in 2020.

Comparing changes in natural gas demand at a sectoral level reveal additional similarities and differences between the EIA Study model runs and the NERA model runs. As seen in Figure 176, Figure 177, and Figure 178, while overall levels of natural gas consumption are relatively consistent between the EIA Study and the NERA results, the sectoral components exhibit notable divergences. In particular, the NERA results show much greater demand response in the industrial sector while at the same time much less demand response in the electricity sector. These differences appear to be consistent across all baseline cases. The main reason for the variations in the electricity sector comes from the different way that the sector is modeled. EIA's NEMS model has a detailed bottom-up representation of the electricity sector, while the electricity sector in the NERA model is a nested CES function with limited technologies. This means that NEMS allows for switching from natural gas-based generation to other technology types easily, while the possibility of switching out of natural gas is more limited and controlled in the NERA model.

Figure 176: Reference Case Average Change in Natural Gas Consumed by Sector

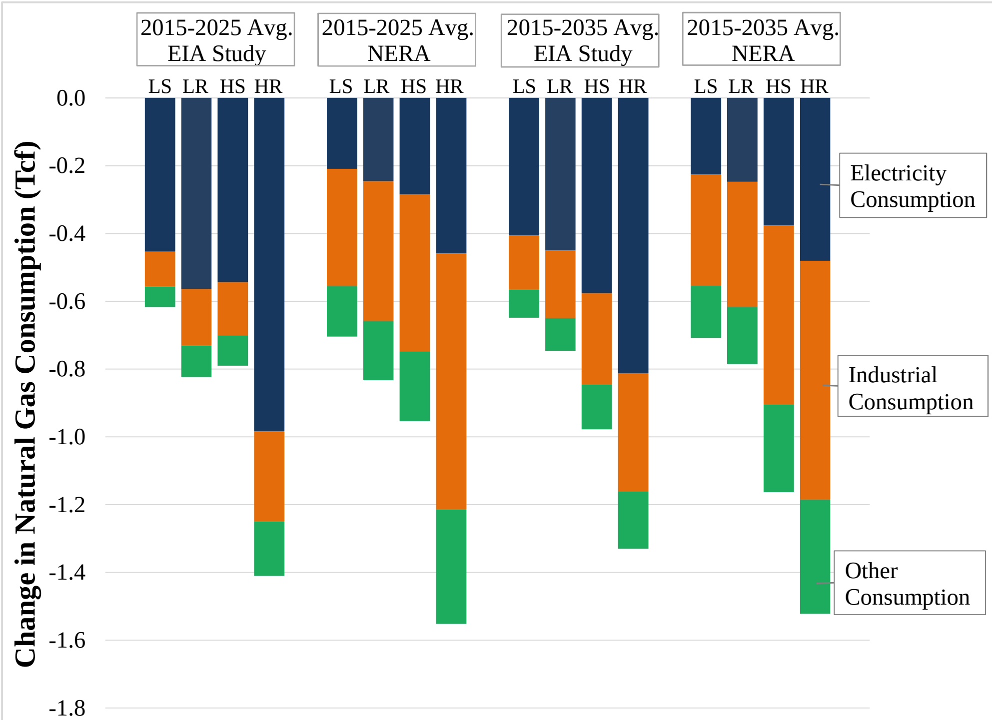


Figure 177: High EUR Average Change in Natural Gas Consumed by Sector

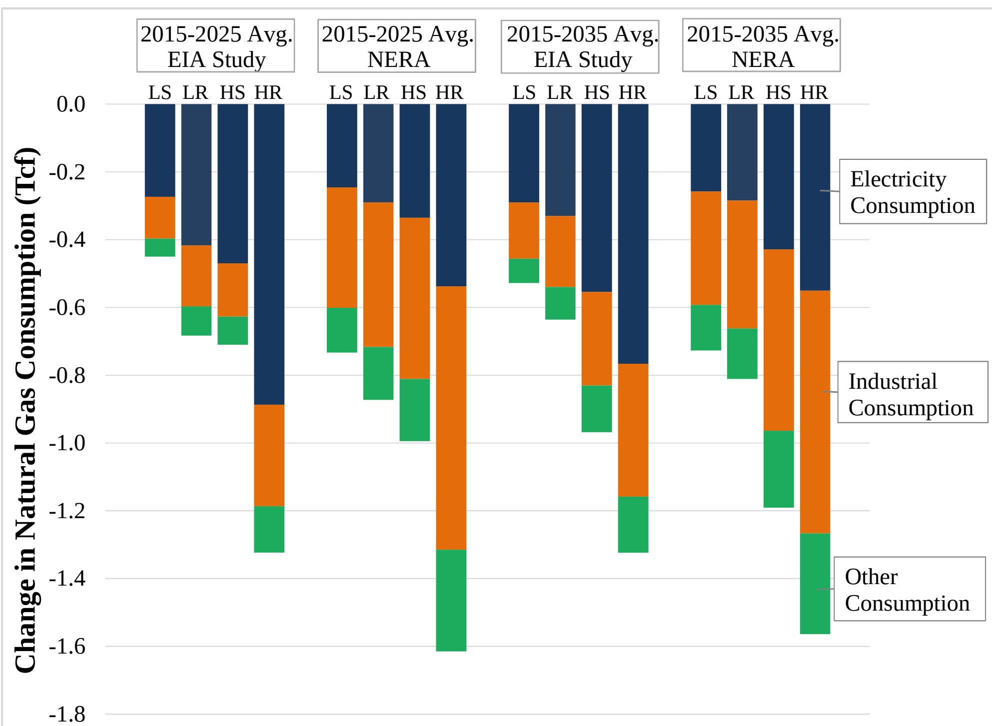
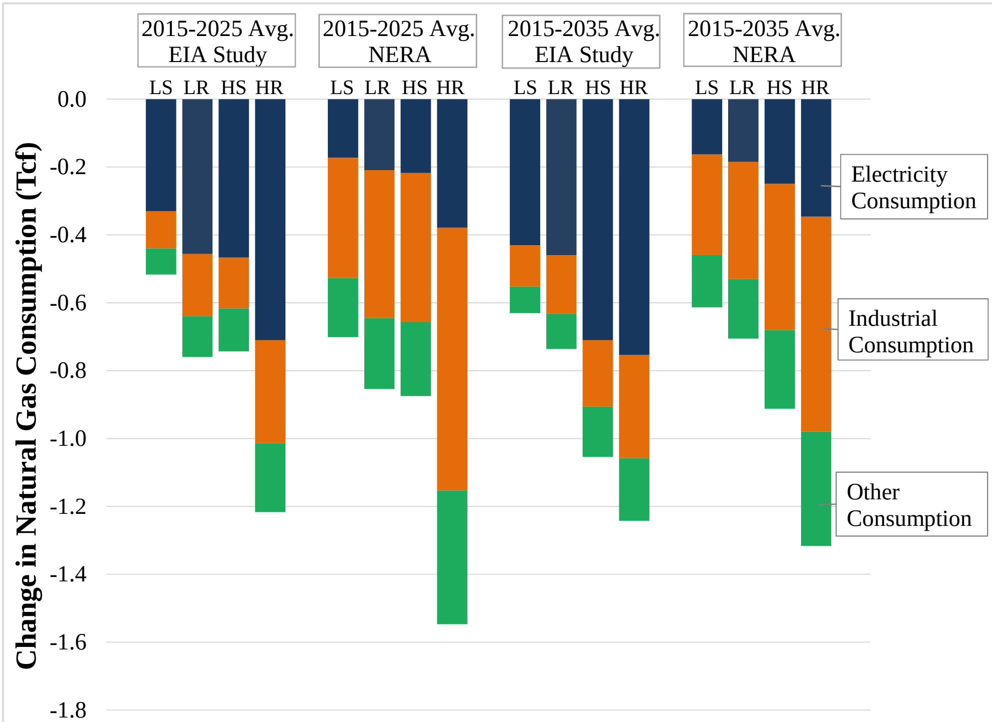


Figure 178: Low EUR Case Average Change in Natural Gas Consumed by Sector



APPENDIX E - FACTORS THAT WE DID NOT INCLUDE IN THE ANALYSIS

There are a number of issues that this study did not address directly. To avoid the misinterpretation of these results or the drawing of unwarranted implications, this section provides brief comments on each.

A. How Will Overbuilding of Export Capacity Affect the Market

This study assumes that the amount of capacity built will match market demand and that the pricing of liquefaction services will be based on long-run marginal costs. Should developers overbuild capacity, there could be pressure on take-or-pay contracts and potentially the margins earned for liquefaction services could be driven below the amount required to cover debt service and expected profits, just as has been the case with petroleum refining margins during periods of slack capacity.

B. Engineering or Infrastructure Limits on How Fast U.S. Liquefaction Capacity Could Be Built

Many of the scenarios investigated in this report assume rates of expansion of liquefaction facilities in the U.S. (and worldwide) that some industry sources believe will strain the capacity of engineering and construction providers. This could drive up the cost of building liquefaction facilities and constrain the rate of expansion to levels lower than those projected in the different scenarios investigated in this report, even if the U.S. resource and global market conditions were as assumed in those scenarios. This possibility requires analysis of the capabilities of the relevant global industries to support rapid construction that could be addressed in later studies.

C. Where Production or Export Terminals Will Be Located

There are proposals for export facilities in the Mid-Atlantic, Pacific Northwest and Canada, all of which could change basis differentials and potentially the location of additional natural gas production, with corresponding implications for regional impacts. To analyze alternative locations of export facilities it would be necessary to repeat both the EIA and the NERA analyses with additional scenarios incorporating demand for natural gas export in different regions.

D. Regional Economic Impacts

Since the EIA assumed that all of the demand for domestic production associated with LNG exports was located in the Gulf region, it was not possible in this study to examine regional impacts on either natural gas prices or economic activity. The Gulf Coast is not necessarily a representative choice given the range of locations now in different applications, so that any attempt to estimate regional impacts would be misleading without more regional specificity in the location of exports.

E. Effects on Different Socioeconomic Groups

Changes in energy prices are often divided into "effects on producers" and "effects on consumers." Although convenient to indicate that there are winners and losers from any market or policy change, this terminology gives limited insight into how the gains and losses are distributed in the economy. The ultimate incidence of all price changes is on individuals and households, for private businesses are all owned ultimately by people. Price changes affect not only the cost of goods and services purchased by households, but also their income from work and investments, transfers from government, and the taxes they pay. More relevant indicators of the distribution of gains and losses include real disposable income by income category, real consumption expenditures by income category, and possibly other measures of distribution by socioeconomic group or geography. This study addresses only the net economic effects of natural gas price changes and improved export revenues, not their distribution.

F. Implications of Foreign Direct Investment in Facilities or Gas Production

In this report it is assumed that all of the investment in liquefaction facilities and in increased natural gas drilling and extraction come from domestic sources. Macroeconomic effects could be different if these facilities and activities were financed by foreign direct investment ("FDI") that was additional to baseline capital flows into the U.S. FDI would largely affect the timing of macroeconomic effects, but quantifying these differences would require consideration of additional scenarios in which the business model was varied.

APPENDIX F – COMPLETE STATEMENT OF WORK

Task Title: Macroeconomic Analysis of LNG Exports

INTRODUCTION:

U.S. shale gas production has increased significantly due to novel hydraulic fracturing and horizontal drilling techniques that have reduced production costs. In the *Annual Energy Outlook 2011* prepared by the Department of Energy's Energy Information Administration, domestic natural gas production grows from 21.0 trillion cubic feet (Tcf) in 2009 to 26.3 Tcf in 2035, while shale gas production grows to 12.2 Tcf in 2035, when it is projected to make up 47 percent of total U.S. production. With this increased volume of domestic natural gas supply available, several companies have applied to the DOE/FE under section 3 of the Natural Gas Act ("NGA")[55] for authorization to export domestic natural gas as LNG to international markets where prices are currently higher. DOE/FE must determine whether applications to export domestically produced LNG to non-free trade agreement ("FTA") countries are consistent with the public interest[56].

To assist with the review of current and potential future applications to DOE/FE to export domestically produced LNG, DOE/FE has requested a natural gas export case study be performed by EIA. The EIA study will provide an independent case study analysis of the impact of increased domestic natural gas demand, as exports, under different incremental demand scenarios using the *AEO 2011* National Energy Modeling System ("NEMS") model. While useful to provide the range of marginal full-cost domestic natural gas production in different scenarios, the EIA NEMS case study will not address the macroeconomic impact of natural gas exports on the U.S. economy. A macroeconomic study that evaluates the impact of LNG exports is needed to more fully examine the impact of LNG exports on the U.S. economy.

PURPOSE:

The purpose of this task is to evaluate the macroeconomic impact of LNG exports using a general equilibrium macroeconomic model of the U.S. economy with an emphasis on the energy sector and natural gas in particular. The general equilibrium model should be developed to incorporate the EIA case study output from NEMS into the natural gas production module in order to calibrate supply cost curves in the macroeconomic model. A macroeconomic case study will be performed to evaluate the impact that LNG exports could have on multiple economic factors, but primarily on U.S. Gross Domestic Product, employment, and real income.

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[55] The authority to regulate the imports and exports of natural gas, including liquefied natural gas, under section 3 of the NGA (15 U.S.C. §717b) has been delegated to the Assistant Secretary for FE in Redelegation Order No. 00-002.04E issued on April 29, 2011.

[56] Under NGA section 3(c), the import and export of natural gas, including LNG, from and to a nation with which there is in effect a FTA requiring national treatment for trade in natural gas and the import of LNG from other international sources are deemed to be consistent with the public interest and must be granted without modification or delay. Exports of LNG to non FTA countries have not been deemed in the public interest and require a DOE/FE review.

The cases to be run will reflect LNG export volumes increasing by one billion cubic feet per day (Bcf/d) annually until reaching six Bcf/d from a reference case aligned with the *AEO 2011* reference case, a high natural gas resource case, and a low natural gas resource case. Additional cases will be run to evaluate the impact of LNG export volumes that increase much slower and much faster than in the reference case.

Some have commented that U.S. domestic natural gas prices could become disconnected with marginal domestic natural gas production cost and be influenced by higher international market prices. An analysis will be performed to assess whether there is an additional price increase, a "tipping point" price increase, above which exports of LNG have negative impacts on the U.S. economy for several of the cases. The "tipping point" price increase in this analysis could be above the marginal full production cost.

A qualitative report will be prepared that discusses how natural gas prices are formed in the United States and the potential impact that higher international prices could have on the U.S. market. This analysis will include an assessment of whether there are scenarios in which the domestic market could become unlinked to marginal production cost and instead become linked to higher international petroleum-based prices, and whether this could be a short-term or long-term impact, or both.

Initially, a preliminary assessment of the macroeconomic impact of the cases will be prepared and discussed with DOE. This will provide an opportunity for any adjustments to the ultimate cases that will be prepared. Finally, a report will be prepared that discusses the results of the macroeconomic study including topics identified in the Statement of Work.

STATEMENT OF WORK:

The types of analysis and discussions to be conducted include, but are not limited to:

1. U.S. Scenario Analysis (all 16 EIA cases) – Perform a case study on the impacts of a range of LNG export volumes on domestic full production costs under various export volume scenarios. A macroeconomic model will be aligned with the *AEO 2011 Reference Case* and other cases from the DOE/FE-requested EIA case study in different scenarios. Modify a general equilibrium model to calibrate supply cost curves in the macroeconomic model for consistency with EIA NEMS model. The following cases will be run with 5-year intervals through 2035:
    a. **Reference LNG Export Case –** using the macroeconomic model aligned with the *AEO 2011 Reference Case*, show export-related increases in LNG demand equal to the four export scenarios in the EIA study.
    b. Run sensitivity cases related to alternative shale gas resources and recovery economics. These include:
        i. **Low Shale Resource LNG Export Case** - align the macroeconomic model to the *AEO 2011 Low Shale EUR Case*, reflect LNG export volumes over time equal to the four export scenarios in the EIA study.

ii. **High Shale Resource LNG Export Case** – align the macroeconomic model to the *AEO 2011 High Shale EUR Case*, reflect LNG export volumes over time equal to the four export scenarios in the EIA study.
iii. **High Economic Growth LNG Export Case** - align the macroeconomic model to the *AEO 2011 High Economic Growth Case;* reflect LNG export volumes over time equal to the four export scenarios in the EIA study.

c. Run additional sensitivity cases – **Slow Increase in LNG Exports Case** - using the macroeconomic model aligned with the *AEO 2011 Reference Case*, increase LNG exports increase at a slower pace, growing at 0.5 Bcf/d beginning in 2015, until reaching 6 Bcf/d.

2. Preliminary Analysis – Prepare a preliminary analysis of the above cases and provide an initial summary of whether those cases have a positive or negative impact on GDP. After providing that information, discuss the results and determine whether the cases identified are still valid, if some cases should be eliminated, or others added.
3. Worldwide Scenario Analysis – Develop four global LNG market scenarios that define a range of international supply, demand, and market pricing into which U.S. LNG could be exported, as defined below. Using these scenarios, identify potential international demand for U.S. LNG exports, recognizing delivered LNG prices from the United States versus other global sources.
   a. Base case which is calibrated to EIA *International Energy Outlook 2011* for all natural gas
   b. Increased global LNG demand
   c. A restricted global LNG supply scenario in which only liquefaction facilities, of which there is already substantial construction, are completed
   d. Combination of higher international LNG demand and lower international LNG supply
4. Prepare a sensitivity analysis to examine how the ownership of the exported LNG and/or the liquefaction facility affects the U.S. economy.
5. Macroeconomic Report – Prepare a report that discusses the results of the different cases run with the key focus on the macroeconomic impacts of LNG exports. Combine global analysis and U.S. analysis to create new export scenarios that could be supported by the world market (as opposed to the EIA study in which LNG exports were exogenous to the model). Identify and quantify the benefits and drawbacks of LNG exports. Using a macroeconomic model, evaluate the comprehensive impact of all factors on:
   a. U.S. GDP
   b. Employment
   c. Household real income

   The Report will also include a discussion on:

   a. The observations on key cases run

b. Balance of trade impact
c. Expected impact on tax receipts from increased production of natural gas and exports
d. The impact of LNG exports on energy intensive sectors for the scenarios developed
e. Ownership sensitivity analysis
f. Benefits
    - Jobs creation for the nation, not just a region
    - Potential increases in Federal revenues
    - Export earnings and balance of trade
g. Drawbacks
    - Increased natural gas prices
    - Potential for, and impact of, loss of jobs in energy intensive industries
h. GDP Macroeconomic impact
    - Authoritative analysis on GDP of above factors
i. Other relevant analysis and information developed in consultation with DOE/FE

6. The price impacts of natural gas exports will be discussed in a qualitative report that includes how natural gas prices are formed in the United States and the potential impact that higher international prices could have on the U.S. market. This report could be stand-alone or part of the overall macroeconomic study. It will include, at a minimum, a discussion of:
    a. Current market mechanism that establishes U.S. domestic benchmark prices (e.g., Henry Hub)
    b. Potential market mechanism for linkage of domestic markets with higher international markets
    c. The potential linkage of natural gas with petroleum in international markets
7. Assess whether there is some volume of LNG exports, or price increase, above which the United States loses the opportunity for domestic value added industry development from use of low-cost domestic natural gas resources. The discussion will include:
    a. Identification of energy-intensive, trade-exposed industries potentially affected and characterization of their energy costs, employment and value added compared to all manufacturing
    b. Potential impacts on U.S. production of selected natural gas based bulk chemicals
8. After releasing the study results, at the request of DOE, prepare up to three responses to questions raised about the study in an LNG export proceeding or other public release of the study in which these questions or issues are raised

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January 24, 2013

U.S. Department of Energy (FE–34)
Office of Natural Gas Regulatory Activities
Office of Fossil Energy
Forrestal Building, Room 3E-042
Independence Ave SW,Washington, DC 20585
LNGStudy@hq.doe.gov.

Dear Secretary Chu:

Thank you and the Department of Energy's Office of Fossil Energy ("DOE/FE") for accepting these comments on NERA Economic Consulting's study (the "NERA Study," or "the Study") on the macroeconomic impacts of liquefied natural gas ("LNG") export on the U.S. economy. We submit these comments on behalf of the Sierra Club, including its Atlantic (New York), Colorado, Kansas, Michigan, Pennsylvania, Ohio, Oregon, Texas, Virginia, West Virginia, and Wyoming Chapters; and on behalf of Catskill Citizens for Safe Energy, the Center for Biological Diversity, Center for Coalfield Justice, Clean Air Council, Clean Ocean Action, Columbia Riverkeeper, Damascus Citizens for Sustainability, Delaware Riverkeeper Network, Earthworks' Oil and Gas Accountability Project, Food and Water Watch, Lower Susquehanna Riverkeeper, Shenandoah Riverkeeper, and Upper Green River Alliance, and on behalf of our millions of members and supporters.[1]

DOE/FE is required to determine whether gas exports are "consistent with the public interest." 15 U.S.C. § 717b(a). Although the NERA Study purports to demonstrate that LNG export is in the economic interest (if not the public interest) of the United States, it does not do so. In fact the study, prepared by a consultant with deep ties to fossil fuel interests, actually shows that LNG export would weaken the United States economy as a whole, while transferring wealth from the poor and middle class to a small group of wealthy corporations that own natural gas resources. This wealth transfer comes along with significant

[1] We have submitted these comments electronically. Hard copies of this document and CDs of all exhibits were also hand-delivered to TVA for filing, as requested by John Anderson at DOE/E today.

structural economic costs caused by increased gas production, which destabilizes regional economies and leaves behind a legacy of environmental damage.

Indeed, an independent analysis, attached to these comments and incorporated to them, demonstrates that NERA's own study shows that LNG export will harm essentially every other sector of the U.S. economy, driving down wages and potentially reducing employment by hundreds of thousands of jobs annually. While LNG exporters will certainly benefit, the nation will not.

An extensive economic literature demonstrates that nations that depend on exporting raw materials, rather than finished goods and intellectual capital, are worse off – a condition sometimes referred to as the "resource curse." The same curse often applies at the smaller scale of the towns and counties in which extraction occurs; those communities are often left with hollowed-out economies, damaged infrastructure, and environmental contamination once a resource boom passes. These dangers apply here with considerable force, but NERA did not even acknowledge, much less analyze them. Indeed, the basic economic model NERA used (which has not been shared with the public) is not suited for this analysis.

Moreover, NERA has entirely failed to account for, or even to acknowledge, the real economic costs which *environmental* harms impose. Intensifying gas production for export will also intensify the air and water pollution problems, public health threats, and ecological disruption associated with gas production – effects which DOE's own experts have cautioned are inadequately managed. The air pollution that gas production for export would generate would alone impose hundreds of millions or potentially billions of dollars of costs, and would greatly erode or even cancel the benefits of recent federal gas pollution standards. Yet, NERA omits this entire negative side of the ledger.

The NERA study, in short, is fundamentally flawed. DOE would be acting arbitrarily and capriciously if it relied upon that report to decide upon export licenses, because NERA misstates or entirely fails to consider critical aspects of this vital public interest question. *See* 5 U.S.C. § 706(2)(A); *see also Motor Vehicle Mftrs. Ass'n v. State Farm Mut. Auto. Ins. Co.*¸ 463 U.S. 29, 43 (1983).

I. Introduction: The Magnitude of the LNG Export Issue and DOE/FE's Obligation to Protect the Public Interest

Recognizing the importance of the natural gas market to the national interest, Congress has vested DOE/FE with the power to license gas exports and imports. This direct regulatory control underlines the gravity of DOE/FE's responsibility. Gas exports, if they occur, will fundamentally affect the nation's environmental and economic future. DOE/FE has a strict Congressional charge to ensure that these exports only go forward if they are "consistent with the public interest." 15 U.S.C. § 717b(a).[2]

This inquiry has never before been so pointed because it has never before been possible for the United States even to consider exporting a large quantity of natural gas as LNG. Becoming a major supplier of LNG to the world market will increase gas production (and, hence, hydro-fracturing or "fracking"), and will also increase gas and energy prices.

These effects have the potential to be very large. DOE/FE is currently considering licenses to export 24.8 billion cubic feet per day ("bcf/d") of natural gas as LNG to nations with which the United States has not signed a free trade agreement ("nFTA" nations). It has already authorized 31.41 bcf/d of export to free-trade-agreement ("FTA") nations because it believes it lacks discretion to deny such FTA applications – though such FTA licenses are of somewhat less moment because most major gas importers are nFTA nations.[3] These are very large volumes of gas. In 2011, the United States produced just under 23,000 bcf of gas over the year.[4] The 24.8 bcf/d of nFTA exports are equivalent to 9,052 bcf/y, or about 39% of total U.S. production. Exporting such a large volume would have major effects on the U.S. economy and the environment, as production both increases and shifts away from domestic uses. While NERA assumes that lower volumes will ultimately be exported, the amounts involved are still large: The 4,380/y bcf case it uses as a high bar sees about 19% of current

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[2] We note that the concerns raised below apply with equal force to exports from both onshore and offshore facilities.

[3] The Act separately provides that DOE/FE must approve exports to nations that have signed a free trade agreement requiring national treatment for trade in natural gas "without modification or delay." 15 U.S.C.§ 717b(c). This provision was intended to speed *imports* of natural gas from Canada. Congress never understood it to allow automatic licenses for export. *See generally*, C. Segall, *Look Before the LNG Leap*, Sierra Club White Paper (2012) at 40-41 (discussing the congressional history of this provision), attached as Ex. 1. That DOE/FE has nonetheless issued export licenses under it, without raising the issue for Congressional correction, is itself an arbitrary and dangerous decision, inconsistent with Congressional intent.

[4] EIA, Natural Gas Monthly December 2012, Table 1 (volume reported is dry gas), attached as Ex. 2.

U.S. production sent abroad; the 1,370 bcf/y "low" case is still 5% of current production.[5]

Although the effects of export would, of course, likely be smaller with smaller volumes of export, applications for 9,052 bcf/y are before DOE/FE, and it would be arbitrary not to consider the cumulative impacts of the full volume of export which DOE/FE is now weighing. But even exporting smaller volumes of gas would necessarily alter the domestic economy and environment in significant ways. The Energy Information Administration ("EIA") has concluded that about two-thirds of gas for export would be drawn from new production, while the remaining third would be diverted from domestic uses, such as power production and manufacturing.[6] On the order of 93% of the new production would come from unconventional gas sources, and so would require fracking to extract the gas.[7]

DOE/FE's earlier public interest investigations of LNG imports did not so directly implicate such shifts in daily domestic life. As a result, DOE/FE's past, largely laissez-faire approach to gas import questions does not translate to gas export. DOE/FE has recognized as much, writing, in response to Congressional inquiries, that the public interest inquiry is to be applied with a careful look across a wide range of factors, informed by reliable data. DOE/FE Deputy Assistant Secretary Christopher Smith has testified that "[a] wide range of criteria are considered as part of DOE's public interest review process, including . . . U.S. energy security . . . [i]mpact on the U.S. economy . . . [e]nvironmental considerations . . . [and] [o]ther issues raised by commenters and/or interveners deemed relevant to the proceeding."[8]

Such care is manifestly appropriate here, and is legally required. As well as charging DOE with "assur[ing] the public a reliable supply of gas at reasonable prices," *United Gas Pipe Line Co v. McCombs*, 442 U.S. 529 (1979), he Natural Gas Act also grants DOE/FE "authority to consider conservation, environmental, and antitrust questions." *NAACP v. Federal Power Comm'n*, 425 U.S. 662, 670 n.4 (1976) (citing 15 U.S.C. § 717b as an example of a public interest provision); *see*

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[5] *See* NERA Study at 10 (Figure 5).

[6] EIA, Effects of Increased Natural Gas Exports on Domestic Energy Markets (Jan. 2012) at 6, 10--11, attached as Ex. 3.

[7] *See id.*

[8] *The Department of Energy's Role in Liquefied Natural Gas Export Applications: Hearing Before the S. Comm. on Energy and Natural Resources*, 112th Cong. 4 (2011) (testimony of Christopher Smith, Deputy Assistant Secretary of Oil and Gas), attached as Ex 4.

also id. at 670 n.6 (explaining that the public interest includes environmental considerations). In interpreting an analogous public interest provision applicable to hydroelectric power, the Court has explained that the public interest determination "can be made only after an exploration of all issues relevant to the 'public interest,' including future power demand and supply, alternate sources of power, the public interest in preserving reaches of wild rivers and wilderness areas, the preservation of anadromous fish for commercial and recreational purposes, and the protection of wildlife." *Udall v. Fed. Power Comm'n*, 387 U.S. 428, 450 (1967) (interpreting § 7(b) of the Federal Water Power Act of 1920, as amended by the Federal Power Act, 49 Stat. 842, 16 U.S.C. § 800(b)). Other courts have applied *Udall*'s holding to the Natural Gas Act. See, e.g., *N. Natural Gas Co. v. Fed. Power Comm'n*, 399 F.2d 953, 973 (D.C. Cir. 1968) (interpreting section 7 of the Natural Gas Act).

Despite these clear legal requirements, DOE/FE has thus far failed actually to conduct a careful and reasoned analysis of LNG export. Such an analysis would offer a thorough description of LNG exports' implications for the economy on both a macro-scale and on the scale on which people actually live. It would consider the effects of increasing dependence on resource exports on communities in the gas fields, on domestic industry, on the environment, and on U.S. energy policy. It would also offer counterfactuals, considering whether or not the nation would be better off without LNG export, or with lower volumes of export than are now proposed.

The NERA Study does none of these things. Instead, it reduces its analysis ultimately to a consideration solely of U.S. GDP, concluding that because GDP rises with export in its model, even though real wages and incomes fall, export must benefit the country. This conclusion is unsupported, and fails even to weigh the real effects of exports on the nation's life. The NERA Study's many flaws, in particular, prevent that document from serving as a meaningful contribution to DOE/FE's decisionmaking. Rather than relying upon it, DOE/FE should prepare a new study, with full public participation, investigating the many fundamental economic issues which NERA entirely fails to consider.[9]

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[9] Of course, economic issues are not the only matters germane to the public interest analysis. Environmental factors are also vital, and not only because environmental damage necessarily imposes economic costs (a point which we discuss in detail below). They are also relevant in their own right, as the Supreme Court has held and DOE/FE itself has repeatedly acknowledged.

Because DOE/FE must consider environmental impacts in addition to economic considerations, it must gather considerable additional information before deciding whether LNG exports are in the

II. The NERA Study Fails to Account for LNG Export's Significant Negative Impacts on the U.S. Economy

The NERA Study's fundamental flaw is that it mistakes an increase in U.S. GDP, which, even if real, would be captured largely by a narrow set of moneyed interests, for the public interest. It simplistically sums the gains from export that a few accrue with the losses of the many to conclude that Americans benefit overall. A fair look at NERA's own results, and the extensive literature on how resource extraction affects countries and communities, demonstrates that this facile equivalence is simply false.

NERA's flawed approach is perhaps best summed up by its own figures. The figure below, drawn directly from NERA's report[10] for one export scenario, shows a net change in GDP (the black line on the figure) occurring only because NERA expects the natural gas "resource income" which exporters and producers reap to rise somewhat more than labor and capital income fall in response to exports. Even if that is so, the groups that benefit are not the same as those that suffer. Many Americans would experience some portion of the approximately $45 billion in declining wages that NERA forecasts in a single year, and many would suffer the pollution and community disruption that comes with gas production for export. Only a few would reap the revenues. In essence, LNG export transfers billions from the middle class to gas companies.

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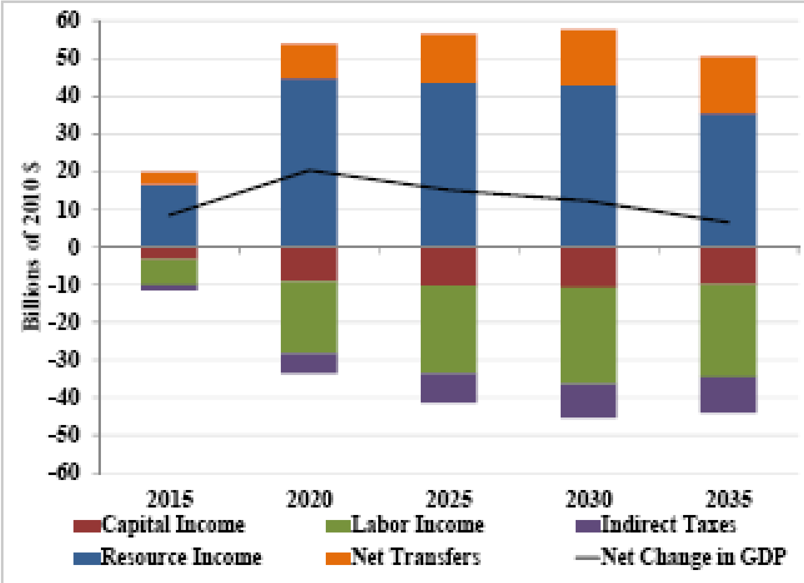
public interest. It can and must do so by complying with NEPA, which requires federal agencies to consider and disclose the "environmental impacts" of proposed agency actions. 42 U.S.C. § 4332(C)(i). NEPA requires preparation of an "environmental impact statement" (EIS) where, as is the case with LNG export proposals, the proposed major federal action would "significantly affect[] the quality of the human environment." 42 U.S.C. § 4332(C). DOE/FE regulations similarly provide that "[a]pprovals or disapprovals of authorizations to import or export natural gas . . . involving major operational changes (such as a major increase in the quantity of liquefied natural gas imported or exported)" will "normally require [an] EIS." 10 C.F.R. Part 1021, Appendix D, D9. DOE must assess these impacts cumulatively across all terminals and export proposals.

A full programmatic EIS is required here, and must consider, among many other points, both the immediate environmental consequences of constructing and operating LNG export facilities and the consequences of the increased gas production necessary to supply them.

[10] NERA Study at 8 (Figure 3).



The costs suffered by the rest of the country to procure a GDP increase that even NERA acknowledges is "very small"[11] are very large – and grow larger as the volume of export increases. They include falling wages and employment, a lasting legacy of community disruption, and likely long-term damage to the national economy's resilience and diversity. They also, as we discuss later in these comments, come with environmental damage, which imposes both economic and ecological costs.

A. The NERA Study Itself Demonstrates that LNG Exports Will Cause Economic Harm and That NERA Does Not Reliably Support Its Claims of Benefits

Sierra Club asked Synapse Energy Economics to conduct a thorough independent review of the NERA Study. Synapse's review is attached to these comments[12] and incorporated in full by reference. Synapse concluded, consistent with other comments in the record, that the NERA study is not reliable and does not demonstrate that LNG exports are in the national economic interest, much less in the public interest generally.[13]

Critical points in that analysis include:

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[11] *Id*. at 8.
[12] See attached, as Ex. 5.
[13] *See also, e.g.*, the Comments of Jannette Barth, Wallace Tyner, David Bellman, and Carlton Buford, in this docket.

LNG Exports Cause The Other Components of GDP To Fall

Just as NERA's own figures suggest, LNG export raises GDP almost entirely because LNG exporters can sell their product at a high price, and capture those revenues. Yet, because LNG export raises gas prices and diverts investment from other sectors, NERA's own results show that the other components of GDP either stay level or *decline* in response to export. In essence, the rest of the economy shrinks as exports expand, leaving a less diversified, and smaller, economy for those who do not profit directly from exports.

LNG Exports Cause Job Losses, According to NERA's Own Methodology

NERA avoided providing employment figures in this report, but the methodology that NERA has used in other studies for that purpose shows major job losses. The declining labor income NERA predicts translates into job losses of between 36,000 to 270,000 "job-equivalents"[14] *per year*; the greater the pace and magnitude of exports, the greater the job losses.

Most Americans Will *Only* Experience the Costs of Export

NERA acknowledges that "[h]ouseholds with income solely from wages" will not benefit from LNG export.[15] But that group contains *most* Americans. Only about half of all Americans own any stock, and only a few, generally wealthy, people own a significant amount. That means very few Americans will benefit at all from enriching LNG and gas companies. For most people, LNG exports simply mean declining wages and employment.

A Significant Amount of LNG and Natural Gas Revenues May Leave America

NERA assumes that LNG export revenues all rest in domestic companies. In fact, many of the companies which now propose to run export terminals are foreign-owned, in whole or in part (including one entity which is owned by the government of Qatar, which would be one of America's competitors in the LNG market), and some are not publicly-held. The complex ownership structure of these companies raises the real possibility that

[14] A "job-equivalent' is the salary of a worker earning the average salary.

[15] NERA Study at 8.

revenues will leave the United States and so may escape domestic taxation and securities markets.[16]

Increasing Exports of Raw Materials Is Associated with Economic Damage
Nations which emphasize raw material export often suffer from significant harm, as export impedes manufacturing and other economic mainstays. This "resource curse" has caused the decline of middle class industrial jobs in other nations, and is also associated with higher levels of corruption and other governance problems. Because the NERA Report relies on stale data that underestimates gas demand, it may underestimate the scope of these potential problems.

NERA Fails Even to Acknowledge the Economic Implications of Environmental Harm from Export
LNG export would significantly increase fracking and other environmental and public health threats. Increased environmental and health damage imposes substantial economic costs. Yet NERA does not acknowledge, much less analyze, these costs.

The Synapse analysis, in short, shows that NERA has entirely missed the point of its own report. Export will cause many wage-earners to lose their jobs or suffer decreased wage income as a result of increases in gas prices. Even employees whose jobs are not directly affected will suffer decreased "real wage growth" as gas prices and household gas expenditures increase relative to nominal wages.[17] All consumers of natural gas—residential, commercial, industrial, and electricity generating users—will suffer higher gas bills despite reducing their gas consumption.[18] While NERA trumpets GDP increases driven by increasing export revenues, its report really shows those increasing export dollars are coming out of the pockets of the American middle class.[19]

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[16] A detailed analysis of the ownership of LNG export companies is attached as Ex 6.
[17] NERA Report at 9.
[18] EIA Export study, at 11, 15. These increases are very large in absolute terms. At a minimum, in the EIA's low/slow scenario, gas and electricity bills increase by $9 billion per year, and this increase grows to $20 billion per year in other scenarios. *Id.* at 14.
[19] The very wealthy do not need more money. An extensive body of economic and philosophical literature demonstrates that the marginal utility of money declines with income—an extra $100 matters less the more money a person has. *See, e.g.*, Matthew D. Adler, *Risk Equity: A New Proposal*, 32 Harv. Envtl. L. Rev. 1 (2008), attached as Ex 7.

The more economic activity that is dedicated to gas production for LNG export, the less focus will there be on building a diversified and strong economic base in this country. Likewise, as LNG export wealth flows to a lucky few, income inequality will grow.

The public interest analysis must account for these effects. Indeed, the Obama Administration has repeatedly emphasized the need to avoid regressive policies that transfer wealth from the middle classes to the wealthy.[20] As the President has explained that "Our economic success has never come from the top down; it comes from the middle out. It comes from the bottom up."[21] Similarly, the President has warned against short-sighted management of wealth. As he explained in the 2009 State of the Union address, the nation erred when "too often short-term gains were prized over long-term prosperity, where we failed to look beyond the next payment, the next quarter, or the next election."[22] DOE/FE must not allow a "surplus [to] bec[o]me an excuse to transfer wealth to the wealthy instead of an opportunity to invest in our future."[23]

B. The NERA Study Underestimates Economic Harm to Manufacturing and Other Sectors That Will Offset the Purported Economic Benefits of Export

The Synapse report explains in detail that, as a result of several flawed assumptions and oversimplifications, the NERA study understates economic harms to manufacturing and other sectors that will result from LNG export. These errors may, in fact, be great enough, on their own, to actually depress total GDP, contrary to NERA's conclusions, as another macroeconomic study in the record, by Purdue economist Dr. Wallace Tyner, explains.[24] Certainly, little in the NERA study inspires any confidence:

First, NERA's use of outdated forecasts of domestic demand for natural gas caused it to significantly understate both price impacts and harm to gas-

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[20] *See, e.g.*, State of the Union Address (January 24, 2012), available at http://www.whitehouse.gov/the-press-office/2012/01/24/remarks-president-state-union-address
[21] Remarks by the President at the Daimler Detroit Diesel Plant, Redford, MI (Dec. 10, 2012), attached as Ex 8 and available at http://www.whitehouse.gov/the-press-office/2012/12/10/remarks-president-daimler-detroit-diesel-plant-redford-mi
[22] State of the Union Address (Feb. 24, 2009), attached as Ex 9 available at http://www.whitehouse.gov/the_press_office/Remarks-of-President-Barack-Obama-Address-to-Joint-Session-of-Congress
[23] *Id.*
[24] *See* Comments of Dr. Wallace Tyner in this docket.

dependent sectors of the U.S. economy. Second, NERA failed to model exports' impact on each economic sector potentially impacted by price increases, and thus impacts to individual industries are obscured. Third, NERA failed to assess impacts to several industries likely to be affected by export. Finally, NERA failed to account for LNG transaction costs that are likely to increase export volumes and exacerbate the price impacts of export. Unless these flaws are corrected, any LNG export decision based on the NERA study will "entirely fail[] to consider . . . important aspect[s]" of the export problem, and will thus be arbitrary and capricious. *Motor Vehicle Mfrs. Ass'n v. State Farm Mut. Auto. Ins. Co.*¸ 463 U.S. 29, 43 (1983).

First, as Synapse explains in detail, the NERA Study inexplicably failed to use the EIA's most recent natural gas demand forecasts, even though NERA has used the more recent data in other reports. NERA used EIA's Annual Energy Outlook (AEO) 2011, even though AEO 2012 was finalized in June 2012, months before the NERA study was completed.[25] Indeed, an October 2012 report entitled *Economic Implications of Recent and Anticipated EPA Regulations Affecting the Electricity Sector* used the more recent data, showing that it would not have been infeasible for NERA to use it in its December 2012 export study. Moreover, an early release of AEO 2013 was published just days after NERA's report was finalized. NERA nonetheless failed to use the 2013 data – or even the 2012 data – in its analysis.

NERA's failure to use the most recent data significantly altered the outcome of its analysis. Between AEO 2011 and AEO 2012, projections of domestic consumption of natural gas rose above previously predicted levels. Accordingly, NERA's use of the older 2011 data resulted in an underestimate of domestic demand for gas. Using the more recently, higher predictions of demand would decrease the amount of natural gas available for export, thus increasing domestic prices and in turn increasing economic impacts that flow from price increases, including lost income to wage earners and increased costs to household and business consumers of natural gas for heating and electricity.[26]

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[25] See Synapse Report at 17.

[26] Synapse Report at 8. Contrasted against its willingness to use higher demand figures to generate inflated cost estimates for EPA rules controlling toxic mercury emissions, NERA's failure to use the same demand figures here underscores the appearance of bias discussed in detail in part IV, below. For DOE to rely on a study that contains such flaws would "raise questions as to whether the agency is fulfilling its statutory mandates impartially and competently." *Humane Soc'y v. Locke*, 626 F.3d 1040, 1049 (9th Cir. 2010).

Second, by its own admission NERA failed to model exports' impact on each economic sector potentially impacted by price increases, obscuring impacts to individual industries.[27] NERA fails to explain why sector-specific modeling could not be accomplished, stating simply that "it was not possible to model impacts of each of the potentially affected sectors."[28] As Congressman Markey points out in his letter to DOE, however, sector-specific modeling *was* recently conducted in an interagency report designed to assess the economic impacts of the Waxman-Markey cap-and-trade bill, demonstrating that such analysis is both feasible and useful.[29] Without sector-by-sector modeling that uses the most recent data available, impacts to individual economic sectors remain unknown, and those harmed by exports are consequently unable to fully understand and comment on these impacts. The failure to fully describe impacts sector-by-sector, using the most current data available, thus obscures exports' true costs and constrains public participation in export decisions.

Third, NERA failed to fully assess economic impacts to all industries likely to be affected by price increases. NERA states that energy-intensive, trade-exposed industries likely to be affected by price increases are "not high value-added industries," but it does not grapple with the contention – offered by Congressman Markey and by Dow Chemical – that impacts to the manufacturing sector propagate through the economy because they dampen production throughout the value chain.[30] DOE must address this shortcoming in NERA's analysis in order to make an informed decision whether to subject American industry to such far-reaching effects.

Finally, NERA fails to accurately account for transaction costs of LNG exports and thus fails to accurately predict the behavior of market participants. When properly accounted for, these costs tend to increase exports to levels exceeding those predicted by NERA, thus intensifying the impact of export on U.S. gas prices. NERA first potentially overstates the transportation costs associated with export of U.S. gas by assuming that all U.S. gas will be exported from the

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[27] NERA Study at 70.

[28] *Id*.

[29] Letter from Rep. Edward J. Markey to Hon. Steven Chu (Dec. 14, 2012), *available at* http://democrats.naturalresources.house.gov/sites/democrats.naturalresources.house.gov/files/documents/2012-12-14_Chu_NERA.pdf, at 5, attached as Ex 10. Senator Wyden has also written to express similar concerns. *See* Letter from Senator Ron Wyden to Hon. Steven Chu (Jan. 10, 2013), attached as Ex 11.

[30] *Id*. at 6.

Gulf Coast.[31] Exports from the Gulf Coast to Asia have high transportation costs, raising prices paid by the importer and thus making exports less economically attractive. Several export terminals are proposed for the West Coast, however, and these terminals will be able to transport gas to Asia with fewer transportation costs. Accordingly, completion of these terminals may lead to higher volumes of exports than NERA predicts.

In addition, NERA ignores the possibility that long-term contracts at export terminals will lock in exports regardless of subsequent domestic price increases. Under the "take or pay" liquefaction services arrangements that many LNG export terminals will likely adopt, would-be exporters will be required to pay a fee to reserve terminal capacity, regardless of whether that capacity is actually used to liquefy and export gas.[32] This arrangement may cause exporters to continue to export U.S. gas even if prices increase, because the required liquefaction services charges will discourage them from switching to alternative energy sources. As a result, exports may continue to occur – and prices may continue to rise – even where NERA predicts that exports will cease.[33] Such price increases would exacerbate harms to residential and commercial gas consumers, as well as wage earners in manufacturing and other energy-intensive sectors.

In short, NERA not only wrongly attempts to offset harm to the base of the American economy with benefits to a few gas corporations to reach its sunny conclusions, it also very likely understates the real magnitude of the harm.

C. LNG Exports Will Harm Communities Across the Country

Harms associated with LNG export are not limited to other industrial sectors. A closer look at the real consequences of increasing dependence on export and gas production underlines NERA's core error of mistaking gas company profits for the public interest. Indeed, the real costs extend beyond the national-level declines in middle class welfare and industry. The "resource curse" which LNG export portends for the nation as a whole is echoed by the stories of similarly "cursed" regions across the country that are dependent upon resource extraction as an economic driver. In those regions, the same patterns recur: Weak growth or decline in other industries, population losses, soaring infrastructure costs, and

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[31] NERA Study at 88-89, 210.

[32] *See Sabine Pass* DOE Order No. 2961, at 4 (May 20, 2011); Cheniere Energy April 2011 Marketing Materials, *available at* http://tinyurl.com/cqpp2h8 (last visited Jan. 13, 2013), at 14.

[33] *See* NERA Study at 37-46.

all the other consequences of being at the receiving end of an extractive apparatus that channels the wealth of a resource boom from an entire landscape into just a few pockets. [34]

Of course, many communities are already suffering these costs as the shale gas boom sweeps the nation. But the question now is whether to double-down on that economic strategy. Export will intensify the demand for gas, and accelerate the shift towards extraction-based economies around the country, with all the costs that attach to that choice. NERA entirely fails to consider these impacts, but they are central to the public interest question before DOE/FE, and it would be arbitrary and capricious to ignore them in the way that NERA has done. DOE/FE must weigh them in its analysis.

i. Resource Extraction Is Associated with Economic Damage

"Resource curse" effects are well documented in the economic literature. One of the most comprehensive surveys, by Professors Freudenburg and Wilson, of economic studies of "mining" communities (including oil and gas communities) concludes that the long-term economic outcomes are "consistently and significantly negative."[35] That research surveys a broad body of international and national work to conclude that strikingly few studies report long-term positive consequences for mining-dependent communities. One of the many papers recorded in that comprehensive survey concludes that census data from across the country showed that "mining-dependent counties had lower incomes and more persons in poverty than did the nonmining counties."[36]

These results occur because resource extraction dependent economies are fragile economies. Increasing dependence on raw material markets diverts investment from more durable industries, less influenced by resource availability and changing market costs. The inherent boom and bust cycle of such activities also stresses the infrastructure and social fabrics of regions focused on resource

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[34] Other workers have raised further important questions, which DOE/FE must consider, about the shale gas boom's implications for the domestic economy and environment, as well as for U.S. energy security. *See, e.g.*, Food and Water Watch, *U.S. Energy Insecurity: Why Fracking for Oil and Natural Gas is a False Solution* (2012), available at http://documents.foodandwaterwatch.org/doc/USEnergyInsecurity.pdf, and attached as Ex 12.
[35] W.R. Freudenburg & L.J. Wilson, *Mining the Data: Analyzing the Economic Implications of Mining for Nonmetropolitan Regions*, 72 Sociological Inquiry 549 (2002) at 549, attached as Ex 13.
[36] *Id.* at 552.

extraction to the exclusion of more sustainable growth. As Freudenburg & Wilson explain:

> [T]here is a potentially telling contrast in two types of studies that have gauged the reaction of local leaders. In regions that are expected increased mining or just beginning to experience a "boom," it is typical to find … "euphoria." Unfortunately, in regions that have actually experienced natural resource extraction, local leaders have been found to view their economic prospects less in terms of jubilation than of desperation.[37]

Indeed, the Rural Sociological Society's Task Force on Rural Poverty "ultimately identified resource extraction not as an antidote to poverty but as something more like a cause or correlate."[38]

A study of the long-term prospects of western U.S counties which focused on resource extraction rather than more durable economic growth strategies documents this trend. That 2009 study by Headwaters Economics looked at the performance of "energy-focusing" regions compared to comparable counties over the decades since 1970.[39] It concludes that "counties that have focused on energy development are underperforming economically compared to peer counties that have little or no energy development."[40]

These differences are stark. The economic data Headwaters gathered shows that energy-focused counties have careened through periods of intense booms and lasting busts which have impaired the resilience and long-term growth of their economies.[41] Although growth spiked during boom periods, it cratered when energy production faltered, creating economies "characterized by fast acceleration and fast deceleration."[42] This stutter-step depresses long-term growth. In energy-focusing counties from 1990 to 2005, for instance, the average rate of personal income growth was 0.6% lower than in more diversified counties, and the employment growth rate was 0.5% lower.[43]

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[37] *Id.* at 553.
[38] *Id.*
[39] Headwaters Economics, *Fossil Fuel Extraction as a County Economic Development Strategy: Are Energy-Focusing Counties Benefiting?* (revised. July 2009), attached as Ex 14.
[40] *Id.* at 2.
[41] *See id.* at 8-10.
[42] *Id.* at 10.
[43] *Id.*

These slow growth rates are symptomatic of deep structural differences. As Headwaters explains, the energy-focusing counties did not diversify their economies; indeed, they were nearly three times less diversified than their peer counties, meaning that they hosted far fewer different industries than their peers.[44] As a result, when growth occurred, it occurred only in a few sectors, leaving those counties vulnerable to contractions in energy use and to energy price spikes.[45]

Narrowly focusing on energy jobs also rendered these counties less broadly prosperous. A wage gap of over $30,000 annually opened between energy workers and workers in other fields in these counties between 1990 and 2006.[46] This "is not a healthy sign" because it means that "more people, including teachers, nurses, and farm workers, will be left behind if renewed energy development increases the general cost of living, especially the cost of housing."[47] The energy-focusing counties show this divergence between haves and have-nots: their income distributions show a larger proportion of relatively poorer families and a few very wealthy ones, indicating that energy wealth does not flow readily into the larger economy.[48]

The energy-focusing counties also had systematically lower levels of education, and lower levels of retirement and investment dollars than their peers.[49] By focusing on energy, rather than providing a broad range of services, they were less able than their peers to attract a broad economic base that could attract new investors and educated workers.

The upshot is that, on almost every measure, energy production did not prove to be a successful development strategy. Only one of the 30 energy-focused counties Headwaters studied ranked among the top 30 economic performers in the western United States in 2009, and more than half were losing population.[50] As Headwaters summarized its conclusions:

> EF ["Energy-focusing"] counties are today less well positioned to compete economically. EF counties are less diverse economically, which makes them

[44] *Id.* at 17.
[45] *See id.* at 17-18.
[46] *Id.* at 19.
[47] *Id.*
[48] *Id.* at 20.
[49] *Id.* at 20-21.
[50] *Id.* at 2.

> less resilient but also means they are less successful at competing for new jobs and income in growing service sectors where most of the West's economic growth has taken place in recent decades. EF counties are also characterized by a greater gap between high and low income households, and between the earnings of mine and energy workers and all other workers. And EF counties are less well educated and attract less investment and retirement income, both important areas for future competitiveness.[51]

The experience of one of these counties, Sublette County, Wyoming, is particularly telling in this regard. A 2009 report prepared for the Sublette County Commissioners[52] describes experiences consistent with those analyzed by Freudenburg & Wilson and by Headwaters.

The Sublette study shows that a gas boom accompanied by thousands of wells, has caused real economic stress in the country, even as it enriched some residents. It determined that the 34% population increase in the county, which far outstripped historical trends, and accompanying demands on infrastructure and social services, were seriously disrupting the regional economy.[53]

The study records a region struggling under the impacts of a boom. The population of the country increased by over 3,000 people in under a decade, and is expected to grow by another 3,000.[54] This huge influx of energy-related employees is badly stressing regional social and physical infrastructure. The regional governments have already spent over $60 million on capital upgrades to improve roads and sewers which are crumbling under the strain, but remain at least $160 million in the hole relative to projects which they need to undertake to accommodate their new residents.[55] One town will need to spend the equivalent of ten years of annual revenue for just one necessary sewer project and "[s]imilar scenarios exist for all jurisdictions within Sublette County."[56] Municipalities across the country are unable to afford upgrades necessary to maintain their systems.[57]

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[51] *Id.* at 22.
[52] Ecosystem Research Group, *Sublette County Socioeconomic Impact Study Phase II- Final Report* (Sept. 28, 2009), attached as Ex 15
[53] *See id* at ES-3 – ES-5.
[54] *Id.*at 10-15.
[55] *Id.* at 55.
[56] *Id.*
[57] *Id.* at 115-116.

Meanwhile, just as Headwaters reported for the West generally, energy extraction is driving up economic inequality and making it more difficult to sustain other county residents. Housing prices in Sublette County increased by over $21,000 *annually*,[58] far ahead of income growth. Indeed, the gap between the qualifying income to buy an average Sublette County home and the median wage was over $17,000 in 2007.[59] The report concludes that "[i]f this trend continues fewer and fewer families will be able to afford an average home."[60] Only employees in the gas sector could afford such purchases; "all other employment sectors had average annual incomes significantly below that required to buy a house."[61]

Consistent with the increase in housing costs, the cost of living increased throughout the county, with energy job wages far outpacing those in all other sectors meaning that "[w]orkers in sectors with lower average wages may find it difficult to keep up."[62]

The boom has also come with social disruption. Traffic has vastly increased and accidents have more than doubled, with over a quarter of them resulting in injury.[63] Over $87 million in road projects are necessary to manage this increased traffic.[64] Crime has also jumped: there were only 2 violent offenses (such as rape and murder) in 2000, before the boom but there were 17 in 2007.[65] Juvenile arrests rose by 92% and DUI cases have spiked sharply upwards, increasing by 57% from 2000 to 2007.[66]

All these disruptions and tens of millions in spending come to support a boom that will not last. The report records that the oil and gas companies operating in the counties expect to see employment drop from thousands of workers to only several hundred within the next decades.[67] Once the wave passes, Sublette County will be left with lingering infrastructure costs, a less diversified economy, and the pollution from thousands of wells and associated equipment. That path

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[58] *Id.*at 90.
[59] *Id.* at 92.
[60] *Id.*
[61] *Id.*
[62] *Id.*at 87.
[63] *Id.*at 102.
[64] *Id.* at 107.
[65] *Id.*
[66] *Id.* at 110-11.
[67] *Id*. at 81.

leads, as the Headwaters report shows, towards a less resilient, less prosperous, future.

ii. The Shale Gas Boom is Causing Similar Problems, and LNG Export Will Worsen Them

The shale gas production boom which LNG export would exacerbate is very likely to follow this familiar pattern of short-term gain for a few, accompanied by long-term economic suffering for many more residents of resource production regions. Although the boom is still in a relatively early phase, available analysis already suggests that the same problems will recur. Export-linked production will intensify the pace and severity of the boom, causing further economic dislocation.

One recent study by Amanda Weinstein and Professor Mark Partridge of Ohio State University, for instance, documents patterns that mimic those seen in the Headwaters and Sublette studies, and in the Freudenburg and Wilson review paper.[68] Using Bureau of Economics Analysis statistics, the study directly compared employment and income in counties in Pennsylvania with significant Marcellus drilling and without significant drilling, and before after the boom started. As Table 1, below, shows, counties in both areas *lost* jobs even as drilling accelerated during the economic recession of 2008, and that the drilling counties lost jobs more quickly. Income increased more quickly in those counties at the same time in a pattern that tracks the results from the western United States studies discussed above: Drilling activities brings more wealth into an area, but that wealth is concentrated in the extraction sector, even as job losses occur in other sectors

Table 1: Comparing Pennsylvania Counties, With and Without Drilling, Over Time[69]

	Employment Growth Rate 2001-2005	Employment Growth Rate 2005-2009	Income Growth Rate 2001-2005	Income Growth Rate 2005-2009
Drilling	1.4%	-0.6%	12.8%	18.2%

[68] Amanda Weinstein and Mark D. Partridge, *The Economic Value of Shale Natural Gas in Ohio*, OHIO STATE UNIVERSITY, Swank Program in Rural-Urban Policy Summary and Report (December 2010) ("Ohio Study"), attached as Ex 16.
[69] Adapted from Table 1 of the *Ohio Study* at 15.

Counties				
Non-Drilling Counties	5.3%	-0.4%	12.6%	13.6%

These shifts in the job market are accompanied by the same set of infrastructure costs and harms to other industries that are familiar from the western case studies.[70] Tourism, a particularly lucrative industry in the northeastern regions where the Marcellus Shale boom is expanding, is likely to be particularly hard hit. Gas production harms tourism by clogging roads, impacting infrastructure, diminishing the scenic value of rural areas, and through other means. These threats to the tourism industry are particularly concerning for many parts of the Marcellus region, including New York's Southern Tier, where tourism is a major source of income and employment. In the Southern Tier, according to one recent study, the tourism industry directly accounts for $66 million in direct labor income, and 4.7% of all jobs, and supports 6.7% of the region's employment.[71]

And, once again, job losses seem likely to follow the boom, as the initial production phase ends. As the Ohio Study explains, "impact studies do not produce continuous employment numbers. If an impact study says there are 200,000 jobs, this does not mean 200,000 workers are continuously employed on a permanent basis. . . . [W]hile the public is likely more interested in continuous ongoing employment effects, impact studies are producing total numbers of supported jobs that occur in a more piecemeal fashion."[72] This failing is particularly relevant here, because the manufacturing and other jobs LNG exports and export-related production will eliminate are typically permanent positions,[73] whereas the gas production jobs induced production will create typically do not provide sustainable, well-paying local employment. This is in part because the industry's employment patterns are uneven: one study found that, in Pennsylvania, "*the drilling phase accounted for over 98% of the natural gas*

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[70] Infrastructure costs include, for example, costs to roads, water, and hospitals. *See, e.g.*, CJ Randall, *Hammer Down: A Guide to Protecting Local Roads Impacted by Shale Gas Drilling* (Dec. 2010), attached as Ex 17; Susan Riha & Brian G. Rahm, *Framework for Assessing Water Resource Impacts from Shale Gas Drilling* (Dec. 2010), attached as Ex 18; Associated Press, *Gas Field Workers Cited in Pa. Hospital's Losses*, Pressconnects.com (Dec. 24, 2012), attached as Ex 19.

[71] Andrew Rumbach, *Natural Gas Drilling in the Marcellus Shale: Potential Impacts on the Tourism Economy of the Southern Tier* (2011), attached as Ex 20.

[72] Ohio Study at 11.

[73] NERA report at 62.

industry workforce engaged at the drilling site," and that complementary Wyoming data showed a similar drop-off.[74]

Drilling jobs, in short, correspond to the boom and bust cycle inherent to resource extraction industries.[75] The remaining, small, percentage of production-phase and office jobs are far more predictable, but must be filled with reasonably experienced workers.[76] Although job training at the local level can help residents compete, the initial employment burst is usually made up for people from out of the region moving in and out of job sites; indeed, "[t]he gas industry consistently battles one of the highest employee turnover problems of any industrial sector."[77]

A set of studies from Cornell University's Department of City and Regional Planning confirm this pattern of a short burst of economic activity followed by general economic decline. Those researchers spent more than a year studying the economic impacts of the gas boom on Pennsylvania and New York. Their core conclusion is that boom-bust cycle inherent in gas extraction makes employment benefits tenuous, and may leave some regions hurting if they are unable to convert the temporary boom into permanent growth. As the researchers put it:

> The extraction of non-renewable natural resources such as natural gas is characterized by a "boom-bust" cycle in which a rapid increase in economic activity is followed by a rapid decrease. The rapid increase occurs when drilling crews and other gas-related businesses move into a region to extract the resource. During this period, the local population grows and jobs in construction, retail and services increase, though because the natural gas extraction industry is capital rather than labor intensive, drilling activity itself will produce relatively few jobs for locals. Costs to communities also rise significantly, for everything from road maintenance and public safety to schools. When drilling ceases because the commercially recoverable resource is depleted, there is an economic "bust" – population and jobs depart the region, and fewer people are left to support the boomtown infrastructure.[78]

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[74] *See* Jeffrey Jacquet, *Workforce Development Challenges in the Natural Gas Industry*, at 4 (Feb. 2011) (emphasis in original), attached as Ex 21.
[75] *Id.*
[76] *Id.* at 4-5, 12-14.
[77] *Id.* at 13.
[78] Susan Cristopherson, CaRDI Reports, *The Economic Consequences of Marcellus Shale Gas Extraction: Key Issues* (Sept. 2011) at 4, attached as Ex 22.

This boom and bust cycle is exacerbated by the purportedly vast resources of the Marcellus play, because regional impacts will persist long after local benefits have dissipated, as the authors explain, and may be destructive if communities are not able to plan for, and capture, the benefits of industrialization:

> [B]ecause the Marcellus Play is large and geologically complex, the play as a whole is likely to have natural gas drilling and production over an extended period of time. While individual counties and municipalities within the region experience short-term booms and busts, the region as a whole will be industrialized to support drilling activity, and the storage and transportation of natural gas, for years to come. Counties where drilling-related revenues were never realized or could have ended may still be impacted by this <u>regional</u> industrialization: truck traffic, gas storage facilities, compressor plants, and pipelines. The cumulative effect of these seemingly contradictory impacts – a series of localized short-term boom-bust cycles coupled with regional long-term industrialization of life and landscape – needs to be taken into account when anticipating what shale gas extraction will do communities, their revenues, and the regional labor market, as well as to the environment.[79]

Some people will prosper and some will not during the resultant disruption and, warn the Cornell researchers, the long-term effects may well not be positive, based upon years of research on the development of regions dependent on resource extraction:

> [T]he experience of many economies based on extractive industries warns us that short-term gains frequently fail to translate into lasting, community-wide economic development. *Most alarmingly, a growing body of credible research evidence in recent decades shows that resource dependent communities can and often do end up worse than they would have been without exploiting their extractive reserve.* When the economic waters recede, the flotsam left behind can look more like the aftermath of a flood than of a rising tide.

Id. at 6 (emphasis supplied).

[79] *Id*. (emphasis in original).

A later, peer-reviewed and formally published version of this work, builds upon these lessons.[80] Collecting research from around the country, including the Sublette County experience discussed above, it canvasses the infrastructure stresses,[81] social dislocations and population shifts,[82] and environmental costs of resource extraction,[83] to conclude that expanding the shale gas boom may well harm many communities, explaining that "rural regions whose economies are dependent on natural resource extraction frequently have poor long-term development outcomes."[84]

In fact, the researchers conclude that in some cases communities "may wind up worse off" than they were before the boom started.[85] They explain that the boom-related cost of living and materials expense increases may well crowd out other industries, such as the fragile dairy industry now operating in many northeastern shale plays.[86] Gas boom regions may even wind up shrinking. Counties in New York and Pennsylvania with significant natural gas drilling between 1994 and 2009 have lost more population than peers without drilling activity.[87]

After the boom recedes, the weakened local economy struggles to provide for the infrastructure that was required to support the boom:

> During the boom period, the county's physical infrastructure was planned and installed to accommodate an expanding population. The nature of infrastructure such as roads, sewer and water facilities, and schools is that once it is built, it generates ongoing maintenance costs (as well as debt service costs) even if consumption of the facilities declines…. The departure of [boom time] workers and higher income, mobile professionals [will leave] the burden of paying for such costs to remaining smaller, lower-income, population.[88]

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[80] S. Christopherson & N. Rightor, *How shale gas extraction affects drilling localities: Lessons for regional and city policy makers*, 2 Journal of Town & City Management 1 (2012), attached as Ex 23.
[81] *Id*. at 11-12.
[82] *Id*. at 10-11.
[83] *Id*. at 12-13.
[84] *Id*. at 15.
[85] *Id*.
[86] *Id*.
[87] *Id*.
[88] *Id*. at 16.

In short, resource booms may bring wealth to a few companies, and, transiently, to some regions, but the long-term consequences are negative.[89] After the boom passes, those who remain behind must live with a lasting negative legacy. If LNG exports drive regional economies towards an even more intense boom, the bust, when it comes, will be all the worse.

D. Conclusions on Industrial Costs and Community Impacts

At bottom, LNG export means intensifying an economic strategy that has failed nations and communities over and over again. It would mark a path towards increasing economic inequality, a weaker social fabric in communities across the country, and a weaker middle class. Even during the boom, infrastructure costs and social disruption impose major burdens on extraction regions. DOE/FE must consider all these costs. But NERA sets all those costs at naught because the raw revenues from LNG export are so large for those that capture them. DOE/FE's task, though, is to look to the *public* interest, not the interest of a narrow segment of industry. It would be arbitrary and capricious to approve of exports on the basis of the NERA Report, which so entirely under-values the very considerations which must be at the heart of DOE/FE's analysis.

III. NERA Fails to Account for the Economic Implications of Environmental Harm Caused by LNG Export; DOE/FE Must Do So.

Just as NERA ignores or improperly downplays the serious negative consequences of developing a resource-extraction based economy for export, it also entirely fails to acknowledge that LNG exports impose substantial environmental costs. These costs range from the immediate costs of treating waste from fracking to the public health costs of air and water pollution from the gas production sector to the increased risk of global climate change inherent in deepening our dependence on fossil fuels. Indeed, air pollution emissions alone likely impose costs in the hundreds of millions of dollars, at a minimum, and would erode recent pollution control efforts.

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[89] Indeed, there is significant evidence that many studies touting high benefits from gas extraction suffer from systematic procedural flaws which render them unreliable. *See* T. Kinnaman, *The economic impact of shale gas extraction: A review of existing studies*, 70 Ecological Economics 1243 (2011). Dr. Kinnaman concludes that a careful review of actual data on shale gas reserves in Pennsylvania, Arkansas, and Texas shows that "shale drilling and extraction activities decreased per capita incomes" rather than benefitting residents of gas fields in those areas, attached as Ex 24.

The existence of these impacts, and their importance, should be familiar to DOE/FE, based upon the work of DOE's own Secretary of Energy Advisory Board Subcommittee on Shale Gas Production.[90] In response to Presidential and Secretarial directives, the Subcommittee met for months to assess measures to be taken to reduce the environmental impact of shale gas production. It concluded that "if action is not taken to reduce the environmental impact accompanying the very considerable expansion of shale gas production expected across the country… there is real risk of serious environmental consequences."[91] Action is especially necessary because the gas production industry currently enjoys exemptions to many federal environmental statutes, and as such, gas producers have greater ability act in ways that impose external costs on the public.[92] The Subcommittee recommended building a "strong foundation of regulation and enforcement" to improve shale gas production practices, and set forth twenty regulatory recommendations addressing air and water pollution and other threats from current production practices.[93] The Subcommittee was alarmed that progress on these recommendations was less than it had hoped, and urged "concerted and sustained action is needed to avoid excessive environmental impacts of shale gas production."[94]

The vast majority of the Subcommittee's recommendations, which were made in 2011, remain unfulfilled, meaning that the risk of "excessive environmental impacts" remains pressing, as the Subcommittee put it. The LNG exports DOE/FE is now considering would intensify these risks by intensifying shale gas production around the country. The environmental costs of that decision are very real. They are measured in the costs of treatment plants and landfills, of emergency room visits and asthma attacks, of lost property values and rising seas. They will be felt as acutely as the wage and income losses export will cause, and must be accounted for in any proper economic analysis. Indeed, the very existence of these impacts, and the continued absence of the "strong foundation" of regulation recommended by the expert Subcommittee

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[90] Secretary of Energy Advisory Board Shale Gas Production Subcommittee, *Second 90-Day Report* (Nov. 18, 2011), attached as Ex 25.
[91] *Id.* at 10.
[92] For example, gas production is exempt from various provisions of the Safe drinking Water Act, 42 U.S.C. § 300h(d)(1)(B), certain hazardous air pollution regulations under the Clean Air Act, 42 U.S.C. § 7412(n)(4)(B) , stormwater provisions of the Clean Water Act, 33 U.S.C. § 1362(24), and the Comprehensive Environmental Response, Compensation, and Liability Act 42 U.S.C. § 9601(10)(I), (14), (33).
[93] *See SEAB Second 90-Day Report* at 10, 16-18.
[94] *Id.* at 10.

demonstrates that LNG exports counsels strongly against moving forward with export.

Yet, NERA ignores these impacts completely. Because its report fails to even acknowledge this critically important negative side of the ledger, the study is ultimately incomplete and unreliable.

A. Induced Production Can and Must be Analyzed as Part of This Accounting

Before turning to some of the many environmental costs imposed by LNG export, it is important to emphasize that DOE/FE can, in fact, account for them. These costs fall into two classes: The environmental impacts associated with LNG export infrastructure itself (such as the emissions from liquefaction facilities, increased traffic of LNG tankers, and the network of pipelines and compressors needed to support them); and the environmental impacts of the major increase in natural gas production to supply gas for export. There is no real dispute, even within DOE/FE, that the first set of impacts can be estimated. But DOE/FE has previously questioned whether it can analyze the second set of impacts. In fact, DOE's own models allow it to do so.

As the NERA Study acknowledges, LNG exports will increase U.S. gas production.[95] Indeed, these production increases provide at least a portion of the purported benefits of export that the Study touts.[96] If DOE/FE intends to advance induced production as part of the justification for exports, then induced production is plainly a reasonably foreseeable effect of exports that must be analyzed under NEPA. DOE/FE must consider the considerable impacts on air, land, water, and human health from induced production.[97]

These impacts can be calculated. EIA and DOE have precise tools enabling them to estimate how U.S. production will change in response to LNG exports. These tools enable DOE/FE to predict how and when production will increase in individual gas plays. EIA's core analytical tool is the National Energy Modeling System ("NEMS"). NEMS was used to produce the EIA exports study that

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[95] NERA Study at 51-52 & fig. 30.

[96] *See, e.g., id.* at 9 fig.4; 62 fig.39.

[97] Sierra Club has described these impacts in numerous comments on individual export proposals. *E.g.*, Sierra Club Mot. Intervene, Protest, and Comments, *In the Matter of Southern LNG Company*, DOE/FE Dkt. No. 12-100-LNG (Dec. 17, 2012), attached as Ex 26.

preceded the NERA study. NEMS models the economy's energy use through a series of interlocking modules that represent different energy sectors on geographic levels.[98] Notably, the "Natural Gas Transmission and Distribution" module already models the relationship between U.S. and Canadian gas production, consumption, and trade, specifically projecting U.S. production, Canadian production, imports from Canada, etc.[99] For each region, the module links supply and demand annually, taking transmission costs into account, in order to project how demand will be met by the transmission system.[100] Importantly, the Transmission Module is *already* designed to model LNG imports and exports, and contains an extensive modeling apparatus allowing it to do so on the basis of production in the U.S., Canada, and Mexico.[101] At present, the Module focuses largely on LNG imports, reflecting U.S. trends up to this point, but it also already links the Supply Module to the existing Alaskan *export* terminal and projects exports from that site and their impacts on production.[102]

Similarly, the "Oil and Gas Supply" module models individual regions and describes how production responds to demand across the country. Specifically, the Supply Module is built on detailed state-by-state reports of gas production curves across the country.[103] As EIA explains, "production type curves have been used to estimate the technical production from known fields" as the basis for a sophisticated "play-level model that projects the crude oil and natural gas supply from the lower 48."[104] The module distinguishes coalbed methane, shale gas, and tight gas from other resources, allowing for specific predictions distinguishing unconventional gas supplies from conventional supplies.[105] The module further projects the number of wells drilled each year, and their likely production – which are important figures for estimating environmental impacts.[106] In short, the supply module "includes a comprehensive assessment method for

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[98] Energy Information Administration ("EIA"), *The National Energy Modeling System: An Overview*, 1-2 (2009), attached as Ex 27, available at http://www.eia.gov/oiaf/aeo/overview/pdf/0581(2009).pdf.
[99] *Id.* at 59.
[100] EIA, *Model Documentation: Natural Gas Transmission and Distribution Module of the National Energy Modeling System*, 15-16 (2012), attached Ex 28, *available at* http://www.eia.gov/FTPROOT/modeldoc/m062(2011).pdf.
[101] *See id.* at 22-32.
[102] *See id.* at 30-31.
[103] EIA, *Documentation of the Oil and Gas Supply Module*, 2-2 (2011), attached as Ex 29, *available at* http://www.eia.gov/FTPROOT/modeldoc/m063(2011).pdf.
[104] *Id.* at 2-3.
[105] *Id.* at 2-7.
[106] *See id.* at 2-25 to 2-26.

determining the relative economics of various prospects based on future financial considerations, the nature of the undiscovered and discovered resources, prevailing risk factors, and the available technologies. The model evaluates the economics of future exploration and development from the perspective of an operator making an investment decision."[107] Thus, for each play in the lower 48 states, the EIA is able to predict future production based on existing data. The model is also equipped to evaluate policy changes that might impact production; according to EIA, "the model design provides the flexibility to evaluate alternative or new taxes, environmental, or other policy changes in a consistent and comprehensive manner."[108]

EIA is not alone in its ability to predict localized effects of LNG exports. A study and model developed by Deloitte Marketpoint claims the ability to make localized predictions about production impacts, and numerous other LNG export terminal proponents have relied on this study in applications to FERC and DOE.[109] According to Deloitte, its "North American Gas Model" and "World Gas Model" allow it to predict how gas production, infrastructure construction, and storage will respond to changing demand conditions, including those resulting from LNG export. According to Deloitte, the model connects to a database that contains "field size and depth distributions for every play," allowing the company to model dynamics between these plays and demand centers. "The end result," Deloitte maintains, "is that valuing storage investments, identifying maximally effectual storage field operation, positioning, optimizing cycle times, demand following modeling, pipeline sizing and location, and analyzing the impacts of LNG has become easier and generally more accurate."[110]
But even if not all impacts can be precisely estimated and monetized, DOE/FE cannot avoid acknowledging them. Where uncertainty exists, DOE/FE could still meaningfully analyze the environmental impacts of induced drilling by estimating impacts from all permitted exports in the aggregate, based on industry-wide data regarding the impacts of gas drilling.

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[107] *Id.* at 2-3.
[108] *Id.*
[109] Deloitte Marketpoint, *Made in America: The Economic Impact of LNG Exports from the United States* (2011), available at http://www.deloitte.com/assets/Dcom-UnitedStates/Local%20Assets/Documents/Energy_us_er/us_er_MadeinAmerica_LNGPaper_122011.pdf and attached as
[110] Deloitte, *Natural Gas Models*, http://www.deloitte.com/view/en_US/us/Industries/power-utilities/deloitte-center-for-energy-solutions-power-utilities/marketpoint-home/marketpoint-data-models/b2964d1814549210VgnVCM200000bb42f00aRCRD.htm (last visited Dec. 20, 2012).

Thus, there is no technical barrier to modeling where exports will induce production going forward, or to beginning to monetize and disclose the costs they will impose. Indeed, EIA used such models for its export study, which forecast production and price impacts, and which DOE/FE already relies upon. DOE/FE cannot assert that it is unable to count the significant environmental and economic costs associated with increased gas production for export. It must do disclose and consider these costs.

B. Gas Production for Export Will Come With Significant Environmental Costs

The environmental toll of increased unconventional gas production is very great, especially without full implementation of the Shale Gas Subcommittee report. We do not intend here to fully count these costs: That is DOE/FE's charge, under both NEPA and the Natural Gas Act. The discussion in these comments merely indicates some of the many costs which DOE/FE must consider, and which NERA failed to disclose.

In this regard, we draw DOE/FE's attention to a recent report by researchers at Environment America, which attempts to monetize many costs from fracking activities, ranging from direct pollution costs to infrastructure costs to lost property values.[111] We incorporate that report by reference. DOE/FE should fully account for all the costs enumerated therein.

It is true that some uncertainty necessarily attaches to environmental costs like the ones we discuss below. But, as the Ninth Circuit Court of Appeals explained in *Center for Biological Diversity v. NHTSA*, some uncertainty in estimation methodologies does not support declining to quantitatively value benefits associated with reducing climate change pollution at all.[112] Where, as here, "the record shows that there is a range of values [for these benefits], the value of carbon emissions reduction is certainly not zero."[113] Therefore, the agency is obligated to consider such a value, or range of values.[114] Since LNG export plainly imposes these significant environmental costs, DOE/FE should calculate and disclose them (accompanied by an explanation of any limitations or

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[111] *See* T. Dutzik *et al.*, *The Costs of Fracking* (2012), attached as Ex 30.

[112] *See Center for Biological Diversity*, 538 F.3d 1172, 1200 (9th Cir. 2008) (citing Office of Management and Budget Circular A-4 as providing that "agencies are to monetize costs and benefits whenever possible.").

[113] *See id.*

[114] *See id.* at 1203.

uncertainties in each methodology, as necessary). It may not, however, simply ignore them.

i. Air Pollution and Climate Costs

Oil and gas production, transmission, and distribution sources are among the very largest sources of methane and volatile organic compounds in the country, and also emit large amounts of hazardous air pollutants ("HAPs") and nitrogen oxide, among other pollutants.[115] Although EPA has recently issued pollution standards that control some pollutants from new sources, the majority of the industry remains unregulated. Increasing gas production will necessarily increase air pollution from the industry. Indeed, gas export would produce enough air pollution to diminish – if not to entirely offset – the benefits of EPA's recent standards.

LNG exports would also increase air pollution costs in other ways. They would, for instance, likely increase the use of coal-fired electricity, which imposes significant public health costs. They would also deepen our economic dependence on fossil fuels, which are exacerbating global climate change. DOE/FE must account for all of these costs.

Direct Emissions Costs

The potential air pollution increase from LNG exports is very large. 9,052 bcf per year of gas are proposed for export, and NERA considered scenarios of between 4,380 bcf and 1,370 bcf of exports per year by 2035. The EIA's induced production models indicate that 63% of this gas (or more) will come from new production.[116] Although the range of estimates for gas leaked from productions systems varies, if even a small amount of this newly produced gas escapes to the atmosphere the pollution consequences are major.

EPA's current greenhouse gas inventory implies that about 2.4% of gross gas production leaks to the atmosphere in one way or another, a leak rate that makes

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[115] *See generally* U.S. EPA, *Oil and Natural Gas Sector: Standards of Performance for Crude Oil and Natural Gas Production, Transmission, and Distribution* : *Background Supplemental Technical Support Document for the Final New Source Performance Standards* (2012) (discussing these and other pollutants), attached as Ex 31; U.S. EPA, *Oil and Natural Gas Sector: Standards of Performance for Crude Oil and Natural Gas Production, Transmission, and Distribution: Background Technical Support Document for Proposed Standards* (2011) (hereinafter "2011 TSD"), attached as Ex 32.
[116] EIA Study at 10.

oil and gas production the single largest source of industrial methane emissions in the country, and among the very largest sources of greenhouse gases of any kind.[117] More recent work by National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration ("NOAA") scientists suggest, based on direct measurement at gas fields, that this leak rate may be between 4.8% and 9%, at least in some fields.[118] These leak rates, and EPA conversion factors between the typical volumes of methane, VOC, and HAP in natural gas,[119] make it possible to calculate the potential impact of increasing gas production in the way that LNG export would require. We note that fugitive emissions include additional pollutants not discussed here, such as radioactive radon.[120]

The table below shows our calculations of expected pollution from fugitive emissions of methane, VOCs, and HAP based on these conversion factors, at varying leak rates (starting at 1% of production and going to 9%).[121] We acknowledge, of course, that these calculations are necessarily only a first cut at the problem. The point, here, is not to generate the final analysis (which DOE/FE must conduct) but to demonstrate that the problem is a serious one.

Export Volume in	Methane (tons)	VOC (tons)	HAP (tons)

[117] Alvarez *et al.*, *Greater focus needed on methane leakage from natural gas infrastructure*, Proceedings of the National Academy of Science (Apr. 2012) at 1, attached as Ex 33; *see also* EPA, *U.S. Greenhouse Gas Emissions and Sinks 1990-2010* (Apr. 15, 2012) at Table ES-2, attached as Ex 34.

[118] *See* G. Petron *et al.*, *Hydrocarbon emissions characterization in the Colorado Front Range – A pilot study*, Journal of Geophysical Research (2012), attached as Ex 35; J. Tollefson, *Methane leaks erode green credentials of natural gas*, Nature (2013), attached as Ex 36.

[119] *See* EPA, 2011 TSD at Table 4.2. EPA calculated average composition factors for gas from well completions. These estimates, which are based on a range of national data are robust, but necessarily imprecise for particular fields and points along the line from wellhead to LNG terminal. Nonetheless, they provide a beginning point for quantitative work. EPA's conversions are: 0.0208 tons of methane per mcf of gas; 0.1459 lb VOC per lb methane; and 0.0106 lb HAP per lb methane.

[120] *See* Marvin Resnikoff, *Radon in Natural Gas from Marcellus Shale* (Jan. 10, 2012), attached as Ex 37**.** Insofar as LNG exports induce greater gas production nationwide, and exports predominantly draw on wells in the Gulf (as NERA assumes), then exports will presumably increase the share of gas used in households in the Northeast that is provided by Marcellus shale wells, and thereby aggravate the radon exposure issues highlighted by Resnikoff.

[121] These figures were calculated by multiplying the volume of gas to be exported (in bcf) by 1,000,000 to convert to mcf, and then by 63% to generate new production volumes. The new production volumes of gas were, in turn, multiplied by the relevant EPA conversion factors to generate tonnages of the relevant pollutants. These results are approximations: Although we reported the arithmetic results of this calculation, of course only the first few significant figures of each value should be the focus.

2035 (bcf)			
1% Leak Rate			
9,052 bcf	1,186,174	173,062.8	12,573.45
4,380 bcf	573,955.2	83,740.06	6,083.925
1,370 bcf	179,524.8	26,192.67	1,902.963
2.4% Leak Rate			
9,052 bcf	2,846,818	415,350.7	30,176.27
4,380 bcf	1,377,492	200,976.2	14,601.42
1,370 bcf	430,859.5	62,862.4	45,67.111
4.8% Leak Rate			
9,052 bcf	5,693,636	830,701.4	60,352.54
4,380 bcf	2,754,985	401,952.3	29,202.84
1,370 bcf	861,719	125,724.8	9,134.222
9% Leak Rate			
9,052 bcf	10,675,567	1,557,565	113,161
4,380 bcf	5,165,597	753,660.6	54,755.33
1,370 bcf	1,615,723	235,734	17,126.67

The *total* emissions reductions associated with EPA's new source performance standards for oil and gas production are, according to EPA, about 1.0 million tons of methane, 190,000 tons of VOC, and 12,000 tons of HAP. As the table demonstrates, the additional air pollution which would leak from the oil and gas system substantially erodes those figures, even at the lowest volume of LNG export and the lowest leak rate of 1% -- which is well below the 2.4% leak rate which EPA now estimates. It would generate over 179,000 tons of methane, over 26,000 tons of VOC, and over 1,902 tons of HAP. More realistic leak rates make the picture even worse: At the EPA's estimated 2.4% leak rate, the figures for the lowest export volume are over 430,000 tons of methane, over 62,000 tons of VOC, and over 45,000 tons of HAP.

Put differently, even if LNG export is almost 9 times less than the current volume proposed for license before DOE/FE, and even if the natural gas system leak rate is less than half that which EPA now estimates, LNG export will still produce enough air pollution to erode the benefits of EPA's air standards by on the order of 20%. If export volumes increase, or if the leak rate is higher, the surplus emissions swamp the air standards completely. At a 4.8% leak rate and the mid-range 4,380 bcf export figure, LNG export would produce almost three times as many methane emissions – 2.7 million tons -- as the EPA air standards control.

In short, ramping up production for export comes with major air pollution increases. This additional pollution would impose real public health and environmental burdens.

Methane emissions, for instance, are linked to ozone pollution and to global climate change. The climate change risks associated with methane are monetizable using the Social Cost of Carbon framework developed by a federal working group led by EPA.[122] These costs vary based on assumptions of the discount rate at which to value future avoided harm from emissions reductions, and also likely vary by gas (methane, for instance, is a more potent climate forcer than carbon dioxide). Nonetheless, in its recent air pollution control rules, EPA estimated monetized climate emissions benefits from methane reductions simply by multiplying the reductions by the social cost of carbon dioxide (at a 3% discount rate) and the global warming potential of methane (which converts the radiative forcing of other greenhouse gases to their carbon dioxide equivalents).[123]

The global warming potential of methane, on a 100-year basis,[124] is at least 25,[125] and the social cost of carbon at a 3% discount rate is $25/ton (in 2008 dollars).[126] Thus, the social cost of the roughly 179,000 tons of methane emissions produced even by the lowest volume of export at the lowest leak rate is (25)(25)(179,000) or $111,875,000 *per year*. The same volume of export at 2.4% leak rate imposes methane costs of approximately $274 million per year. Again, higher volumes of export, and higher leak rates are associated with even higher costs.

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[122] EPA, *The Social Cost of Carbon*, available at http://www.epa.gov/climatechange/EPAactivities/economics/scc.html, attached as Ex 38.

[123] EPA, *Regulatory Impact Analysis: Final New Source Performance Standards and Amendments to the National Emissions Standards for Hazardous Air Pollutants for the Oil and Natural Gas Industry* (2012) at 4-32 – 4-33, attached as Ex 39. EPA acknowledges that its method is still provisional, but it does provide at least a sense of the real economic costs of methane emissions.

[124] Methane acts more quickly than carbon dioxide to warm the climate, and also oxidizes rapidly. As such, many argue that a shorter time period (20 years or less) is appropriate to calculate its global warming potential. We have conservatively used a 100 years here. The true cost of methane emissions is thus likely higher.

[125] Intergovermental Panel on Climate Change, *Direct Global Warming Potentials* (2007), available at http://www.ipcc.ch/publications_and_data/ar4/wg1/en/ch2s2-10-2.html, attached as Ex 39.

[126] 2012 RIA at 4-33.

Our calculation is notably conservative: It uses a global-warming potential that is lower than that reported in more recent literature,[127] and a higher discount rate for climate damages than may be appropriate. Yet even this conservative calculation identifies hundreds of millions of dollars in damages from methane associated with export. More recent global warming potentials (which exceed 70) or more appropriate discount rates (which arguably should be zero or negative), would readily push these costs into the billions of dollars annually.

Other large costs arise from the VOC emissions from production. VOCs are often themselves health hazards, and interact with other gases in the atmosphere to produce ozone.[128] Ozone is a potent public health threat associated with thousands of asthma attacks annually, among other harm to public health. Ground-level ozone has significant and well-documented negative impacts on public health and welfare, and gas production is already strongly linked to ozone formation. One recent study, for instance, showed that over half of the ozone precursors in the atmosphere near Denver arise from gas operations.[129] Other studies show that ozone can increase by several parts per billion immediately downwind of individual oil and gas production facilities.[130] The cumulative impact of dozens or hundreds of such individual facilities can greatly degrade air quality – so much so that the study's author concludes that gas facilities may make it difficult for production regions to come into compliance with public health air quality standards if not controlled.[131]

Some studies have documented how reductions in ground-level ozone would benefit public health and welfare, and so also demonstrate how increases in ozone levels will harm the public. Using a global value of a statistical life (VSL) of $1 million (substantially lower than the value used by EPA, currently $7.4 million (in 2006 dollars)[132]), West *et al.* calculate a monetized benefit from avoided mortality due to methane reductions of $240 per metric ton (range of

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[127] We use the IPCC's methane 100-year global warming potential of 25, *see supra* n.125. A more recent study puts this figure at approximately 34, while acknowledging that it could be significantly higher. Drew T. Shindell, *et al.*, *Improved Attribution of Climate Forcing Emissions*, 326 Science No. 5953, page 717 fig. 2 (Oct. 30 2009), attached as Ex 40.
[128] Methane is also an ozone precursor, albeit a somewhat less potent one
[129] J.B. Gilman *et al.*, *Source signature of volatile organic compounds from oil and natural gas operations in northeastern Colorado*, Env. Sci. & Technology (2013), attached as Ex 41.
[130] E.P. Olaguer, *The potential near-source ozone impacts of upstream oil and gas industry emissions*, Journal of the Air & Waste Management Assoc. (2012), attached as Ex 42.
[131] *Id.* at 976.
[132] http://yosemite.epa.gov/ee/epa/eed.nsf/pages/MortalityRiskValuation.html, attached as Ex 43.

$140 - $450 per metric ton).[133] Because VOCs are more potent ozone precursors than methane,[134] the monetary benefits of VOC reduction for avoided mortality are certainly greater on a tonnage basis. Further, as well as direct mortality and morbidity impacts, ozone can significantly reduce the productivity of individual workers, even at low levels. One recent study shows that even a 10 ppb increase in ozone concentrations can decrease the productivity of field workers by several percentage points – a difference that translates into something on the order of $700 million in annual productivity costs.[135]

Ground-level ozone also significantly reduces yields of a wide variety of crops. A recent study finds that in 2000, ozone damage reduced global yields 3.9-15% for wheat, 8.5-14% for soybeans, and 2.2-5.5% for corn, with total costs for these three crops of $11 billion to $18 billion and costs within the US alone over $3 billion (all in year 2000 dollars).[136] Due to the growth in the emissions of ozone precursors in coming years, these crop losses are likely to increase. In 2030, ozone is predicted to reduce global yields 4-26% for wheat, 9.5-19% for soybeans, and 2.5-8.7% for corn, with total costs for these three crops (2000 dollars) of $12 billion to $35 billion.[137] Another recent study included damage to rice (3-4% reduction in yield for year 2000) and finds even higher total costs for year 2000 ($14 billion to $26 billion).[138] Many other crops are damaged by ozone, so these estimates only capture a portion of the economic damage to crops from ground-level ozone. Ozone precursors from export-linked production would add to these costs.

The HAPs from gas production for export also impose significant public health costs. HAPs, by definition, are toxic and also may be carcinogenic. High levels of carcinogens, including benzene compounds, are associated with gas production sites. Unsurprisingly, recent risk assessments from Colorado

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133 West *et al.* at 3991.

134 Methane, technically, *is* a VOC; it is often referred to separately, however, and we do so here.

135 J. Graff Zivin & M. Neidell, *Pollution and Worker Productivity*, 102 American Economic Review 3652 at 3671 (2012), attached as Ex 44.

136 Avnery, S, D.L. Mauzerall, J. Liu, and L.W. Horowitz (2011) "Global crop yield reductions due to surface ozone exposure: 1. Year 2000 crop production losses and economic damage," *Atmos. Env.*, 45, 2284-2296, attached as Ex 45.

137 Avnery, S, D.L. Mauzerall, J. Liu, and L.W. Horowitz (2011) "Global crop yield reductions due to surface ozone exposure: 2. Year 2030 potential crop production losses and economic damage under two scenarios of O_3 pollution," *Atmos. Env.*, 45, 2297-2309, attached as Ex 46.

138 Van Dingenen, R, F.J. Dentener, F. Raes, M.C. Krol, L. Emberson, and J. Cofala, (2009) "The global impact of ozone on agricultural crop yields under current and future air quality legislation," *Atmos. Env.*, 43, 604-618, attached as Ex 47.

document elevated health risks for residents living near gas wells.[139] Indeed, levels of benzene and other toxics near wells in rural Colorado were "higher than levels measured at 27 out of 37 EPA air toxics monitoring sites … including urban sites" in major industrial areas."[140] These pollution levels are even more concerning than these high concentrations would suggest because several of the toxics emitted by gas operations are endocrine disruptors, which are compounds known to harm human health by acting on the endocrine system even at very low doses; some such compounds may, in fact, be especially dangerous specifically at the low, chronic, doses one would expect near gas operations.[141]

Other air pollutants add to all of these public health burdens. Particulate matter from flares and dusty roads, diesel fumes from thousands of truck trips, NO_x emissions from compressors and other onsite engines, and so on all add to the stew of pollution over gas fields. LNG export will increase all of these emissions in proportion to the scale of export.

Further, these emissions would not be spread uniformly around the country. Instead, they would be concentrated in and around gas fields. Those fields, like the Barnett field in Dallas Fort-Worth, or the Marcellus Shale near eastern cities, often are not far from (or are even directly within) major population centers. Residents of those cities will receive concentrated doses of air pollution, as will residents of the fields themselves. They thus will suffer public health harms from particularly concentrated pollution.

Costs from Increased Use of Coal

The EIA estimates that gas price increases associated with LNG export will favor continued and increased use of coal power, on the margin.[142] Another recent study, prepared by the Joint Institute for Strategic Energy Analysis (JISEA), also modeled power sector futures resulting from increasing U.S. reliance on natural gas.[143] That study found that, under baseline assumptions for future electricity

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[139] L. McKenzie *et al.*, *Human health risk assessment of air emissions from development of unconventional natural gas resources*, Science of the Total Environment (2012), attached as Ex 48.
[140] *Id.* at 5.
[141] *See* L. Vandenberg *et al.*, *Hormones and Endocrine-Disrupting Chemicals: Low-Dose Effects and Nonmonotonic Dose Responses*, Endocrine Disruption Review (2012), attached as Ex 49.
[142] EIA Study at 17-18.
[143] Jeffrey Logan et al., Joint Inst. for Strategic Analysis, Natural Gas and the Transformation of the U.S. Energy Sector (2012) ("JISEA report"), available at http://www.nrel.gov/docs/fy13osti/55538.pdf, attached as Ex 50.

demand and policy measures, "natural gas and coal swap positions compared to their historical levels," with wind energy growing at a rate that represents "a significant reduction from deployment in recent years;" as a result, CO_2 emissions "do not begin to transition to a trajectory that many scientists believe is necessary to avoid dangerous impacts from climate change."[144]

The costs of the increased CO_2 emissions triggered by LNG export are along significant, and DOE/FE must disclose and weigh them. DOE/FE suggests that they are on the order of 200-1500 million metric tons of CO_2.[145] Again, depending on the social cost of carbon figure used, these increased emissions may impose hundreds of millions or billions in additional costs.

And costs extend beyond climate disruption. Coal combustion is a particularly acute public health threat. It is among the largest sources of all forms of air pollution in the country, including toxic mercury emissions and emissions particulate matter, which is linked to asthma and to heart attacks. To the extent that LNG export prolongs or intensifies the use of coal power, the public health costs of that additional coal use are attributable to export, and must be accounted for.

Likewise, EPA, in calculating compliance costs for several of its clean air rules, has assumed that some portion of these costs will be addressed by switching from coal to natural gas. If these switches still occur, but LNG exports have raised natural gas prices, the compliance costs of necessary public health measures will be higher than they otherwise would be.

Costs from Further Investment in Fossil Fuels

LNG exports will also deepen our national investment in fossil fuels, even though those fuels are causing destructive climate change. The costs of increased climate risks must be factored into the export calculation.

Specifically, a recent study by the International Energy Agency predicts that international trade in LNG and other measures to increase global availability of natural gas will lead many countries to use natural gas in place of wind, solar, or other renewables, displacing these more environmentally beneficial energy sources instead of displacing other fossil fuels, and that these countries may also

[144] *Id.* at 98.
[145] EIA Study at 19.

increase their overall energy consumption beyond the level that would occur with exports.[146] In the United States alone, the IEA expects the gas boom to result in a 10% reduction in renewables relative to a baseline world without increased gas use and trade.[147] The IEA goes on to conclude that high levels of gas production and trade will produce "only a small net shift" in global greenhouse gas emissions, with atmospheric CO_2 levels stabilizing at over 650 ppm and global warming in excess of 3.5 degrees Celsius, "well above the widely accepted 2°C target."[148]

Such temperature increases would be catastrophic. Yet, an LNG export strategy commits the United States, and the world, to further fossil fuel combustion, increasing the risk of hundreds of billions of economic costs imposed by severe climate change.

Summing up air pollution impacts

Across all of these harms, the public health damage associated just with air pollution from increased production to support export very likely runs into the hundreds of millions, if not billions, of dollars. DOE/FE must account for these costs as it weighs the economic merits of expanding gas production, and gas pollution, for export.

ii. Water Pollution Costs

The hundreds or thousands of wells required to support export will require millions of gallons of water to frack and will produce millions of gallons of wastewater. The extraction process will likewise increase the risk of contamination from surface spills and casing failures, as well as from the fracking process itself. All of these contamination and treatment risks impose economic costs which DOE must take into account.

Water Withdrawal Costs

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[146] International Energy Agency, *Golden Rules for a Golden Age of Gas*, Ch. 2 p. 91 (2012), available at http://www.iea.org/publications/freepublications/publication/WEO2012_GoldenRulesReport.pdf, attached as Ex 51.

[147] *Id.* at 80.

[148] *Id.*

Fracking requires large quantities of water. The precise amount of water varies by the shale formation being fracked. The amount of water varies by well and by formation. For example, estimates of water needed to frack a Marcellus Shale wells range from 4.2 to over 7.2 million gallons.[149] In the Gulf States' shale formations (Barnett, Haynesville, Bossier, and Eagle Ford), fracking a single well requires from 1 to over 13 million gallons of water, with averages between 4 and 8 million gallons.[150] Fresh water constitutes 80% to 90% of the total water used to frack a well even where operators recycle "flowback" water from the fracking of previous wells for use in drilling the current one.[151] Many wells are fractured multiple times over their productive life.

DOE/FE can and must predict the number of wells that will be needed to provide the volume of gas exported. We provide an unrealistically conservative (i.e., industry-friendly) estimate here to illustrate the magnitude of the problem, although DOE/FE can and must engage in a more sophisticated analysis of the issue. As noted above, EIA predicts that at least 63% percent of the gas exported will come from additional production, and that roughly 72% of this production will come from shale gas sources, with an additional 23% coming from other unconventional gas reserves. The USGS has estimated that even in the most productive formations, average expected ultimate recoveries for unconventional shale gas wells are less than 3 bcf, and that most formations provided drastically

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[149] TNC, Pennsylvania Energy Impacts Assessment, Report 1: Marcellus Shale Natural Gas and Wind 10, 18 (2010), attached as Ex 52. *Accord* N.Y. Dep't of Envtl. Conservation, Revised Draft Supplemental General Environmental Impact Statement on the Oil, Gas and Solution Mining Regulatory Program, 5-5 (2011) ("NY RDSGEIS") at 6-10, available at http://www.dec.ny.gov/energy/75370.html ("Between July 2008 and February 2011, average water usage for high-volume hydraulic fracturing within the Susquehanna River Basin in Pennsylvania was 4.2 million gallons per well, based on data for 553 wells."). Other estimates suggest that as much as 7.2 million gallons of frack fluid may be used in a 4000 foot well bore. NRDC, *et al.*, *Comment on NY RDSGEIS on the Oil, Gas and Solution Mining Regulatory Program* (Jan. 11, 2012) (Attachment 2, Report of Tom Myers, at 10), attached as Ex 53 ("Comment on NY RDSGEIS").

[150] Jean-Philippe Nicot, *et al.*, *Draft Report – Current and Projected Water Use in the Texas Mining and Oil and Gas Industry*, 52-54 (Feb. 2011) (water use from 1 to over 13 million gallons), attached as Ex 54; Jean-Philippe Nicot, *et al.*, *Oil & Gas Water Use in Texas: Update to the 2011 Mining Water Use Report* 11-14 (Sept. 2012) (updated data presented as averages), attached as Ex. 55**.** DOE's Shale Gas Subcommittee generally states that nationwide, fracking an individual well requires between 1 and 5 million gallons of water. DOE, Shale Gas Production Subcommittee First 90-Day Report (2012), at 19, attached as Ex 56.

[151] NY RDSGEIS at 6-13, *accord* Nicot 2012, *supra* n.150, at 54.

lower average expected ultimate recoveries.[152] As noted above, the average horizontal fracked well requires roughly 4 million gallons of water, at least 80% of which (3.2 million gallons) is new fresh water.[153]

Combining these figures and assuming high average recovery, low/average water per frack jobs, only a single frack per well, and maximal use of recycled water, we see the following volumes of water. These figures are only for *shale* gas production, because we have water use figures for such wells; additional unconventional production, of the sort that the EIA predicts, would increase water use.

Volume of exports (bcf/y)	Induced Shale Gas Production (bcf/y)[a]	Equivalent Number of Shale Wells Needed Per Year[b]	New Fresh Water Required (millions of gallons per year)[c]
9,052	4,105	1,368	4,378
4,308	1,954	651	2,038
1,370	621	207	662

a. Volume of export * 0.63 * 0.72

b. Volume of production / 3.

c. Number of wells * 3.2

Of course, we reiterate that this forecast methodology is crude and that the inputs we use are unrealistically conservative, but at the very least, this illustrates the minimum scale of the problem. This calculation ignores the production curves for gas wells and the fact that although wells produce over a number of years, all of the water (under the assumption of one frack job per well) is consumed up front; the table naively averages water requirements out over the duration of exports. Additionally, this only considers water withdrawals associated with the shale gas production EIA predicts: EIA predicts that other forms of production (primarily other unconventional production) will also

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152 USGS, *Variability of Distributions of Well-Scale Estimated Ultimate Recovery for Continuous (Unconventional) Oil and Gas Resources in the United* States, USGS Open-File Report 212-1118 (2012), attached as Ex 57**.** Although some oil and gas producers have publicly stated higher expected ultimate recoveries, DOE/FE must begin with the data-backed assessment of its expert and impartial sister agency.

153 Taking the most industry friendly of each of these values is particularly unrealistic because the values are not independent. For example, higher-producing wells are likely to be wells with a longer fracked lateral, which are in turn wells that use higher volumes of water. Using the high range of the average expected ultimate recovery but the low range of the average water requirement therefore represents a combination unlikely to occur in reality.

increase alongside the above increases in shale gas production, and this other production will also require significant water withdrawals. In its public interest analysis, DOE/FE must engage in a more considered evaluation of the water consumption exports will require, and the costs (environmental and economic) thereof.

These water withdrawals would drastically impact aquatic ecosystems and human communities. Their effects are larger than their raw volumes because withdrawals would be concentrated in particular watersheds and regions. Reductions in instream flow negatively affect aquatic species by changing flow depth and velocity, raising water temperature, changing oxygen content, and altering streambed morphology.[154] Even when flow reductions are not themselves problematic, the intake structures can harm aquatic organisms.[155] Where water is withdrawn from aquifers, rather than surface sources, withdrawal may cause permanent depletion of the source. This risk is even more prevalent with withdrawals for fracking than it is for other withdrawal, because fracking is a consumptive use. Fluid injected during the fracking process is (barring accident) deposited below freshwater aquifers and into sealed formations.[156] Thus, the water withdrawn from the aquifer will be used in a way that provides no opportunity to percolate back down to the aquifer and recharge it.

The impacts of withdrawing this water – especially in arid regions of the west – are large, and can greatly change the demand upon local water systems. The Environment America report notes that fracking is expected to comprise 40% of water consumption in one county in the Eagle Ford shale region of Texas, for example.[157] As fracking expands, and operators seek to secure water rights to divert water from other uses, these withdrawal costs will also rise.

Groundwater Contamination

Gas extraction activities pose a substantial risk of groundwater contamination. Contaminants include chemicals added to the fracturing fluid and naturally

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[154] *Id.* at 6-3 to 6-4; *see also* Maya Weltman-Fahs, Jason M. Taylor, *Hydraulic Fracturing and Brook Trout Habitat in the Marcellus Shale Region: Potential Impacts and Research Needs*, 38 Fisheries 4, 6-7 (Jan. 2013), attached as Ex 58.
[155] *Id.* at 6-4.
[156] *Id.* at 6-5; First 90-Day Report at 19 ("[I]n some regions and localities there are significant concerns about consumptive water use for shale gas development.").
[157] *The Cost of Fracking* at 26.

occurring chemicals that are mobilized from deeper formations to groundwater via the fracking process. Contamination may occur through several methods, including where the well casing fails or where the fractures created through drilling intersect an existing, poorly sealed well. Although information on groundwater contamination is incomplete, the available research indicates that contamination has already occurred on multiple occasions.

Once groundwater is contaminated, the clean-up costs are enormous. The Environment America report, for instance, documents costs of over $109,000 for methane removal for just 14 households with contaminated groundwater.[158] EPA has estimated treatment costs for some forms of groundwater remediation at between $150,000 to $350,000 per acre.[159] Such costs can continue for years, with water replacement costs adding additional hundreds of thousands in costs.[160] Indeed, a recent National Research Council report observed that for many forms of subsurface and groundwater hazardous chemical contamination, "significant limitations with currently available remedial technologies" make it unlikely that contaminated aquifers can be fully remediated "in a time frame of 50-100 years."[161]

There are several vectors by which gas production can contaminate groundwater supplies. Perhaps the most common or significant are inadequacies in the casing of the vertical well bore.[162] The well bore inevitably passes through geological strata containing groundwater, and therefore provides a conduit by which chemicals injected into the well or traveling from the target formation to the surface may reach groundwater. The well casing isolates the groundwater from intermediate strata and the target formation. This casing must be strong enough to withstand the pressures of the fracturing process—the very purpose of which is to shatter rock. Multiple layers of steel casing must be used, each pressure tested before use, then centered within the well bore. Each layer of casing must be cemented, with careful testing to ensure the integrity of the cementing.[163]

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[158] *Id.* at 13.

[159] *Id.* at 14.

[160] *Id.*

[161] National Research Council, *Prepublication Copy- Alternatives for Managing the Nation's Complex Contaminated Groundwater Sites*, ES-5 (2012), executive summary attached as Ex 59, full report available at http://www.nap.edu/catalog.php?record_id=14668#toc.

[162] DOE, Shale Gas Production Subcommittee First 90-Day Report at 20.

[163] Natural Resources Defense Council, Earthjustice, and Sierra Club, Comments [to EPA] on Permitting Guidance for Oil and Gas Hydraulic Fracturing Activities Using Diesel Fuels 3, (June 29, 2011), at 5-9, attached as Ex 60.

Separate from casing failure, contamination may occur when the zone of fractured rock intersects an abandoned and poorly-sealed well or natural conduit in the rock.[164] One recent study concluded, on the basis of geologic modeling, that frack fluid may migrate from the hydraulic fracture zone to freshwater aquifers in less than ten years.[165]

Available empirical data indicates that fracking has resulting in groundwater contamination in at least five documented instances. One study "documented the higher concentration of methane originating in shale gas deposits . . . into wells surrounding a producing shale production site in northern Pennsylvania."[166] By tracking certain isotopes of methane, this study – which the DOE Subcommittee referred to as "a recent, credible, peer-reviewed study" determined that the methane originated in the shale deposit, rather than from a shallower source.[167] Two other reports "have documented or suggested the movement of fracking fluid from the target formation to water wells linked to fracking in wells."[168] "Thyne (2008)[[169]] had found bromide in wells 100s of feet above the fracked zone. The EPA (1987)[[170]] documented fracking fluid moving into a 416-foot deep water well in West Virginia; the gas well was less than 1000 feet horizontally from the water well, but the report does not indicate the gas-bearing formation."[171]

More recently, EPA has investigated groundwater contamination in Pavillion, Wyoming and Dimock, Pennsylvania. In the Pavillion investigation, EPA's draft

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[164] Comment on NY RDSGEIS, attachment 3, Report of Tom Myers, at 12-15.

[165] Tom Myers, *Potential Contaminant Pathways from Hydraulically Fractured Shale to Aquifers* (Apr. 17, 2012), attached Ex 61.

[166] DOE, Shale Gas Production Subcommittee First 90-Day Report at 20 (citing Stephen G. Osborn, Avner Vengosh, Nathaniel R. Warner, and Robert B. Jackson, *Methane contamination of drinking water accompanying gas-well drilling and hydraulic fracturing*, Proceedings of the National Academy of Science, 108, 8172-8176, (2011), attached as Ex 62).

[167] *Id.*

[168] Comment on NY RDSGEIS, attachment 3, Report of Tom Myers, at 13.

[169] Dr. Myers relied on Geoffrey Thyne, *Review of Phase II Hydrogeologic Study* (2008), prepared for Garfield County, Colorado, *available at* http://cogcc.state.co.us/Library/Presentations/Glenwood_Spgs_HearingJuly_2009/(1_A)_ReviewofPhase-II-HydrogeologicStudy.pdf.

[170] Environmental Protection Agency, *Report to Congress, Management of Wastes from the Exploration, Development, and Production of Crude Oil, Natural Gas, and Geothermal Energy*, vol. 1 (1987), *available at* nepis.epa.gov/Exe/ZyPURL.cgi?Dockey=20012D4P.txt, attached as Ex 63.

[171] Comment on NY RDSGEIS, attachment 3, Report of Tom Myers, at 13.

report concludes that "when considered together with other lines of evidence, the data indicates likely impact to ground water that can be explained by hydraulic fracturing."[172] EPA tested water from wells extending to various depths within the range of local groundwater. At the deeper tested wells, EPA discovered inorganics (potassium, chloride), synthetic organic (isopropanol, glycols, and tert-butyl alcohol), and organics (BTEX, gasoline and diesel range organics) at levels higher than expected.[173] At shallower levels, EPA detected "high concentrations of benzene, xylenes, gasoline range organics, diesel range organics, and total purgeable hydrocarbons."[174] EPA determined that surface pits previously used for storage of drilling wastes and produced/flowback waters were a likely source of contamination for the shallower waters, and that fracturing likely explained the deeper contamination.[175] The U.S. Geological Survey, in cooperation with the Wyoming Department of Environmental Quality, also provided data regarding chemicals found in wells surrounding Pavillion.[176] Although the USGS did not provide analysis regarding the likely source of the contaminants found, an independent expert who reviewed the USGS and EPA data at the request of Sierra Club and other environmental groups concluded that the USGS data supports EPA's findings.[177]

EPA also identified elevated levels of hazardous substances in home water supplies near Dimock, Pennsylvania.[178] EPA's initial assessment concluded that

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[172] EPA, Draft Investigation of Ground Water Contamination near Pavillion, Wyoming, at xiii (2011), available at http://www.epa.gov/region8/superfund/wy/pavillion/EPA_ReportOnPavillion_Dec-8-2011.pdf, attached as Ex 64. EPA has not yet released a final version of this report, instead recently extending the public comment period to September 30, 2013. 78 Fed. Reg. 2396 (Jan. 11, 2013).
[173] *Id.* at xii.
[174] *Id.* at xi.
[175] *Id.* at xi, xiii.
[176] USGS, *Groundwater-Quality and Quality-Control Data for two Monitoring Wells near Pavillion, Wyoming, April and May 2012*, USGS Data Series 718 p.25 (2012), attached as Ex 65.
[177] Tom Myers, *Assessment of Groundwater Sampling Results Completed by the U.S. Geological Survey* (Sept. 30, 2012), attached as Ex 66. Another independent expert, Rob Jackson of Duke University, has stated that the USGS and EPA data is "suggestive" of fracking as the source of contamination. Jeff Tollefson, *Is Fracking Behind Contamination in Wyoming Groundwater?*, Nature (Oct. 4, 2012), attached as Ex 67. *See also* Tom Meyers, *Review of DRAFT: Investigation of Ground Water Contamination near Pavillion Wyoming* (April 30, 2012) (concluding that EPA's initial study was well-supported), attached as Ex 68.
[178] EPA Region III, Action Memorandum - Request for Funding for a Removal Action at the Dimock Residential Groundwater Site (Jan. 19, 2012), available at http://www.epaosc.org/sites/7555/files/Dimock%20Action%20Memo%2001-19-12.PDF, attached

“a number of home wells in the Dimock area contain hazardous substances, some of which are not naturally found in the environment,” including arsenic, barium, bis(2(ethylhexyl)phthalate, glycol compounds, manganese, phenol, and sodium.[179] Arsenic, barium, and manganese were present in five home wells “at levels that could present a health concern.”[180] Many of these chemicals, including arsenic, barium, and manganese, are hazardous substances as defined under CERCLA section 101(14). *See* 42 U.S.C. § 9604(a); 40 C.F.R. § 302.4. EPA’s assessment was based in part on “Pennsylvania Department of Environmental Protection (PADEP) and Cabot Oil and Gas Corporation (Cabot) sampling information, consultation with an EPA toxicologist, the Agency for Toxic Substances and Disease Registry (ATSDR) Record of Activity (AROA), issued, 12/28/11, and [a] recent EPA well survey effort.”[181] The PADEP information provided reason to believe that drilling activities in the area led to contamination of these water supplies. Drilling in the area began in 2008, and was conducted using the hazardous substances that have since been discovered in well water. Shortly thereafter methane contamination was detected in private well water. The drilling also caused several surface spills. Although EPA ultimately concluded that the five homes with potentially unsafe levels of hazardous substances had water treatment systems sufficient to mitigate the threat, [182] the Dimock example indicates the potential for gas development to contaminate groundwater.

The serious groundwater contamination problems experienced at the Pavillion and Dimock sites demonstrate a possibility of contamination, and attendant human health risks. Such risks are not uncommon in gas field sites, and will be intensified by production for export. DOE/FE must account for these risks, as well, in its economic evaluation.

Surface Water Contamination

Of course the same chemicals that can contaminate groundwater can also contaminate surface water, either through spills or communication with groundwater, or simply through dumping or improper treatment. Even the extensive road and pipeline networks created by gas extraction come with a risk

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as Ex 69; EPA, *EPA Completes Drinking Water Sampling in Dimock, Pa.* (Jul. 25, 2012), attached as Ex 70.

[179] *Id.* at 1, 3-4.

[180] *EPA Completes Drinking Water Sampling in Dimock, Pa.*, *supra* n.178

[181] *Id.* at 1.

[182] *EPA Completes Drinking Water Sampling in Dimock, Pa.*, *supra* n.178

of significant stormwater and sediment run-off which can contaminate surface waters. Gas field operations themselves, with their significant waste production and spill potential exacerbate these risks.

The Environment America report, for instance, documents fish kills caused by pipeline ruptures in the Marcellus Shale region, which impose costs on Pennsylvania's multi-billion dollar recreational fishing industry.[183] Such risks will be intensified by extraction for export.

Summing up water pollution costs

Water pollution is expensive to treat and can impose enormous burdens on public health and ecosystem function. Even a single instance of contamination can lead to hundreds of thousands of dollars in treatment costs, and many such incidents are not only possible, but likely, with an expansion of gas production for export. DOE/FE must account for these risks.

iii. Waste Management Costs

Fracturing produces a variety of liquid and solid wastes that must be managed and disposed of. These include the drilling mud used to lubricate the drilling process, the drill cuttings removed from the well bore, the "flowback" of fracturing fluid that returns to the surface in the days after fracking, and produced water that is produced over the life of the well (a mixture of water naturally occurring in the shale formation and lingering fracturing fluid). Because these wastes contain the same contaminants described in the preceding section, environmental hazards can arise from their management and ultimate disposal. Managing these wastes is costly, and all waste management options come with significant infrastructure costs and environmental risk.

On site, drilling mud, drill cuttings, flowback and produced water are often stored in pits. Open pits can have harmful air emissions, can leach into shallow groundwater, and can fail and result in surface discharges. Many of these harms can be minimized by the use of seal tanks in a "closed loop" system.[184] Presently, only New Mexico mandates the use of closed loop waste management systems, and pits remain in use elsewhere.

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[183] *The Cost of Fracking* at 20.
[184] *See, e.g.*, NY RDSGEIS, at 1-12.

Flowback and produced water must ultimately be disposed of offsite. Some of these fluids may be recycled and used in further fracturing operations, but even where a fluid recycling program is used, recycling leaves concentrated contaminants that must be disposed of. The most common methods of disposal are disposal in underground injection wells or through water treatment facilities leading to eventual surface discharge.

Underground injection wells present risks of groundwater contamination similar to those identified above for fracking itself. Gas production wastes are not categorized as hazardous under the Safe Drinking Water Act, 42 U.S.C. § 300f *et seq*., and may be disposed of in Class II injection wells. Class II wells are brine wells, and the standards and safeguards in place for these wells were not designed with the contaminants found in fracking wastes in mind.[185]

Additionally, underground injection of fracking wastes appears to have induced earthquakes in several regions. For example, underground injection of fracking waste in Ohio has been correlated with earthquakes as high as 4.0 on the Richter scale.[186] Underground injection may cause earthquakes by causing movement on existing fault lines: "Once fluid enters a preexisting fault, it can pressurize the rocks enough to move; the more stress placed on the rock formation, the more powerful the earthquake."[187] Underground injection is more likely than fracking to trigger large earthquakes via this mechanism "because more fluid is usually being pumped underground at a site for longer periods."[188] In light of the apparent induced seismicity, Ohio has put a moratorium on injection in the affected region. Similar associations between earthquakes and injection have occurred in Arkansas, Texas, Oklahoma and the United Kingdom.[189] In light of these effects, Ohio and Arkansas have placed moratoriums on injection in the

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[185] *See* NRDC et al., *Petition for Rulemaking Pursuant to Section 6974(a) of the Resource Conservation and Recovery Act Concerning the Regulation of Wastes Associated with the Exploration, Development, or Production of Crude Oil or Natural Gas or Geothermal Energy* (Sept. 8, 2010), attached as Ex 71.
[186] Columbia University, Lamont-Doherty Earth Observatory, Ohio Quakes Probably Triggered by Waste Disposal Well, Say Seismologists (Jan. 6, 2012), available at http://www.ldeo.columbia.edu/news-events/seismologists-link-ohio-earthquakes-waste-disposal-wells, attached as Ex 72.
[187] *Id.*
[188] *Id.*
[189] *Id.*; *see also* Alexis Flynn, Study Ties Fracking to Quakes in England, Wall Street Journal (Nov. 3, 2011), *available at* http://online.wsj.com/article/SB10001424052970203804204577013771109580352.html.

affected areas.[190] The recently released abstract of a forthcoming United States Geological Survey study affirms the connection between disposal wells and earthquakes.[191]

As an alternative to underground injection, flowback and produced water is also sent to water treatment facilities, leading to eventual surface discharge. This presents a separate set of environmental hazards, because these facilities (particularly publicly owned treatment works) are not designed to handle the nontraditional pollutants found in fracking wastes. For example:

> One serious problem with the proposed discharge (dilution) of fracture treatment wastewater via a municipal or privately owned treatment plant is the observed increases in trihalomethane (THM) concentrations in drinking water reported in the public media (Frazier and Murray, 2011), due to the presence of increased bromide concentrations. Bromide is more reactive than chloride in formation of trihalomethanes, and even though bromide concentrations are generally lower than chloride concentrations, the increased reactivity of bromide generates increased amounts of bromodichloromethane and dibromochloromethane (Chowdhury, et al., 2010). Continued violations of an 80microgram/L THM standard may ultimately require a drinking water treatment plant to convert from a standard and cost effective chlorination disinfection treatment to a more expensive chloramines process for water treatment. Although there are many factors affecting THM production in a specific water, simple (and cheap) dilution of fracture treatment water in a stream can result in a more

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[190] Lamont-Doherty Earth Observatory; Arkansas Oil and Gas Commission, Class II Commercial Disposal Well or Class II Disposal Well Moratorium (Aug. 2, 2011), *available at* http://www.aogc.state.ar.us/Hearing%20Orders/2011/July/180A-2-2011-07.pdf.

[191] Ellsworth, W. L., et al., Are Seismicity Rate Changes in the Midcontinent Natural or Manmade?, Seismological Society of America, (April 2012), available at http://www2.seismosoc.org/FMPro?-db=Abstract_Submission_12&-recid=224&-format=%2Fmeetings%2F2012%2Fabstracts%2Fsessionabstractdetail.html&-lay=MtgList&-find, attached as Ex 73.

> expensive treatment for disinfection of drinking water. This transfer of costs to the public should not be permitted.[192]

Similarly, municipal treatment works typically to not treat for radioactivity, whereas produced water can have high levels of naturally occurring radioactive materials. In one examination of three samples of produced water, radioactivity (measured as gross alpha radiation) were found ranging from 18,000 pCi / L to 123,000 pCi/L, whereas the safe drinking water standard is 15 pCi/L.[193]

A recent NRDC expert report describes these options in detail, and we direct DOE/FE's attention to it.[194] The report demonstrates that all waste treatment options have significant risks, and require substantial investments to manage properly. Fracking for export, again, has the potential to significantly increase these waste management costs. Such costs will largely fall on communities in the gas fields, which may be ill-equipped to bear them.

Summing Up Waste Management Costs

More drilling means significantly greater waste management problems, and more waste management costs.[195] It is not surprising DOE's own Shale Gas Subcommittee urged significant new regulatory work on waste management rules and research. Thus far, though, these problems have not been addressed systematically. LNG export will exacerbate them, imposing further costs on communities across the country.

iv. Costs Arising from Damage to Property and Landscapes

Expanding gas production alters entire landscapes, fundamentally compromising ecosystem services and reducing property values. Land use disturbance associated with gas development impacts plants and animals

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[192] Comment on NY RDSGEIS, attachment 3, Report of Glen Miller, at 13.
[193] *Id.* at 4.
[194] R. Hammer *et al.*, *In Fracking's Wake: New Rules are Needed to Protect Our Health and Environment from Contaminated Wastewater* (2012), attached as Ex 74.
[195] Indeed, the waste from existing fracking operations are already on the verge of overwhelming disposal infrastructure. *See, e.g.*, Bob Downing, Akron Beacon-Journal, *Pennsylvania Drilling Wastes Might Overwhelm Ohio Injection Wells* (Jan. 23, 2012), available at http://www.ohio.com/news/local/pennsylvania-drilling-wastes-might-overwhelm-ohio-injection-wells-1.367102, attached as Ex 75.

through direct habitat loss, where land is cleared for gas uses, and indirect habitat loss, where land adjacent to direct losses loses some of its important characteristics. These costs, too, must figure in the export economic analysis.

The presence of gas production equipment can markedly reduce property values, both through direct resource damage and through perceived increases in risk. A recent Resources for the Future study, for instance, canvasses empirical data from Pennsylvania to show that concerns (rather than any demonstrated damage) over groundwater contamination reduced property values for ground-water dependent homes by as much as 24%.[196] A study from Texas saw decreases in value of between 3-14% for homes near wells, and a Colorado study saw decreases of up to 22% for homes near wells.[197] Notably, the Resources for the Future study concluded that the property value declines it measured completely offset any increased value from expected lease payments.[198] And these decreases are only those associated with ordinary operation of gas activities. Actual contamination will, of course, reduce property values still more. Thus, as gas extraction spreads across the landscape, many properties may actually lose value, even as some owners secure royalty payments.

Other threats to property values come through risks to home financing. Gas extraction is a major industrial activity inconsistent with essentially all home mortgage policies.[199] Accordingly, signing a gas lease without the consent of the lender may cause an immediate mortgage default, leading to foreclosure.[200] And most lenders will refuse such consent, and will refuse to grant new mortgages allowing gas development.[201] The result is that that expansion of gas drilling, including extraction for export, may significantly limit the ability of many people to extract value from their homes.

In addition to these immediate threats to property values, gas production also threatens ecosystems and the services they provide. Land is lost through development of well pads, roads, pipeline corridors, corridors for seismic testing, and other infrastructure. The Nature Conservancy (TNC) estimated that in

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[196] L. Muehlenbachs *et al.*, *Shale Gas Development and Property Values Differences across Drinking Water Sources*, Resources for the Future Discussion Paper (2012), attached as Ex 76.
[197] *The Costs of Fracking* at 30.
[198] Muehlenbachs *et al.* at 29-30.
[199] E. Radow, *Homeowners and Gas Drilling Leases: Boom or Bust?*, New York State Bar Association Journal (Dec. 2011), attached as Ex 77.
[200] *Id.* at 20.
[201] *Id.* at 21.

Pennsylvania, "[w]ell pads occupy 3.1 acres on average while the associated infrastructure (roads, water impoundments, pipelines) takes up an additional 5.7 acres, or a total of nearly 9 acres per well pad."[202] New York's Department of Environmental Conservation reached similar estimates.[203] After initial drilling is completed the well pad is partially restored, but 1 to 3 acres of the well pad will remain disturbed through the life of the wells, estimated to be 20 to 40 years.[204] Associated infrastructure such as roads and corridors will likewise remain disturbed. Because these disturbances involve clearing and grading of the land, directly disturbed land is no longer suitable as habitat.[205]

Indirect losses occur on land that is not directly disturbed, but where habitat characteristics are affected by direct disturbances. "Adjacent lands can also be impacted, even if they are not directly cleared. This is most notable in forest settings where clearings fragment contiguous forest patches, create new edges, and change habitat conditions for sensitive wildlife and plant species that depend on "interior" forest conditions."[206] "Research has shown measureable impacts often extend at least 330 feet (100 meters) into forest adjacent to an edge."[207]

These effects are profound. Although impacts could be reduced with proper planning,[208] more development makes mitigation more difficult. Indeed, the Pennsylvania Department of Conservation and Natural Resources, for instance, recently concluded that "zero" remaining acres of the state forests are suitable for leasing with surface disturbing activities, or the forests will be significantly degraded.[209]

The lost ecosystem services from wild land and clean rivers and wetlands are valuable. Such services can be monetized in various ways, including through surveys of citizens' "willingness to pay" for them, which generally show that people view ecosystem services as major economic assets. Work in

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[202] TNC, Pennsylvania Energy Impacts Assessment, Report 1: Marcellus Shale Natural Gas and Wind 10, 1.
[203] NY RDSGEIS at 5-5.
[204] Id. at 6-13.
[205] *Id.* at 6-68.
[206] Pennsylvania Energy Impacts Assessment at 10.
[207] NY RDSGEIS at 6-75.
[208] *See id.*
[209] Penn. Dep't of Conservation and Natural Resources, *Impacts of Leasing Additional State Forest for Natural Gas Development* (2011), attached as Ex 78.

Pennsylvania, for instance, showed that undisturbed forests were worth at least $294 per acre to residents.[210] Thus, increased production for export effectively costs Pennsylvanians at least this much per acre of forest disrupted. Similarly, in the gas fields of western Pennsylvania, households are willing to pay up to $51 per household to improve water quality in a single stream.[211] Water degradation can properly be said to impose these costs in return. Direct recreational spending also provides an index of the costs to society of landscape disruption; for instance, if export-linked production risks disrupting Pennsylvania's over $1.4 billion in spending by anglers and $1.8 billion in spending by hunters,[212] these costs, too, must be taxed against export projects.

Summing Up Land-Related Costs

Just as with direct pollution costs, the costs of landscape disruption may well be in the hundreds of millions of dollars in harm to property values and ecosystem services. NERA ignores these costs, as well, but DOE/FE must account for them.

C. Conclusions on Environmental Costs

Our discussion of environmental costs only scratches the surface. It is clear that these costs are in the billions of dollars annually, and range from burdens on regional infrastructure to long-lasting ecosystem service disruptions. These costs are just as real as reduced income to labor, and just as pressing for policymakers. DOE/FE is required to consider them under its public interest mandate. NERA's conclusions that export would produce economic benefits are completely unfounded because they neglect these costs entirely.

IV. DOE/FE's Use of the NERA Study is Procedurally Flawed and Raises a Serious and Inappropriate Appearance of Bias

DOE/FE reliance on the NERA study would be inappropriate not just for the many substantive reasons discussed above but because the study process has been procedurally flawed from the outset in ways that limit public participation and raise serious questions of bias. NERA has significant ties to the fossil fuel industry, including to parties which would benefit financially from LNG export,

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[210] ECONorthwest, *An Economic Review of the Environmental Assessment of the MARC I Hub Line Project* at 25 (July 2011), attached as Ex 79.
[211] *Id.* at 24.
[212] *Id.* at 29.

and the consultant who authored the report is known for his hostility to government regulation of the energy sector. NERA was selected through a secret contracting process and developed its results with a proprietary model which has not been released to the public. NERA's ideological commitments, financial conflicts, and closed process all raise, at a minimum, the appearance of serious bias and conflicts of interest. DOE/FE cannot properly rely upon a study that is tainted in this way.

NERA has spent years attacking environmental regulations on behalf of the American Petroleum Institute and the coal industry, among others. The LNG export report's author, NERA senior vice president W. David Montgomery, has strongly opposed regulatory and legislative efforts to control climate change, raise fuel efficiency, and improve air quality. These ideological commitments, and business relationships, all raise serious questions about NERA's role in this process.

NERA was founded in 1961 by conservative economists and has maintained this ideological anti-regulation bent.[213] Indeed, co-founder Irwin Stelzer is now a senior fellow at the right-wing Hudson Institute, which advocates against environmental regulations and supports climate skeptics.[214] Following that lead, NERA itself has been a consistent voice against environmental safeguards. In recent years, NERA staff have repeatedly opposed environmental efforts on behalf of industry groups. NERA staff have:

- Written, on behalf of the American Petroleum Institute, against the tightened ozone smog standards recommended by EPA's science advisors.[215]
- On behalf of the American Coalition for Clean Coal Energy, generated inflated cost estimates for EPA rules controlling toxic mercury emissions, asthma-inducing SO_2, and other pollutants.[216]
- Testified against EPA's efforts to control mercury emissions.[217]

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[213] http://www.nera.com/7250.htm.

[214] *See* http://www.hudson.org/learn/index.cfm?fuseaction=staff_bio&eid=StelIrwi.

[215] NERA, *Summary and Critique of the Benefits Estimates in the RIA for the Ozone NAAQS Reconsideration* (2011), available at: http://www.nera.com/nera-files/PUB_Smith_OzoneNAAQS_0711.pdf.

[216] NERA, *Economic Implications of Recent and Anticipated EPA Regulations Affecting the Electricity Sector* (2012), available at: http://www.nera.com/nera-files/PUB_ACCCE_1012.pdf.

[217] Testimony of Anne E. Smith before the House Subcommittee on Energy and Power (Feb. 8, 2012), available at: http://www.nera.com/nera-files/PUB_Smith_Testimony_ECC_0212.pdf.

- Testified against new soot standards designed to protect the public from the respiratory problems and heart disease.[218]
- Prepared a report, on behalf of the Utility Water Group, opposing standards designed to reduce fish kills and protect aquatic ecosystems from cooling water withdrawals.[219]

Dr. Montgomery, a NERA Senior Vice President, shares the basic ideological commitments of his firm. He has repeatedly spoken against President Obama's green jobs agenda and the Department of Energy's efforts to promote renewable energy. He has also consistently opposed legislative efforts to reduce domestic carbon pollution, including the Kyoto Protocols. Dr. Montgomery has also been a fellow at the far-right Marshall Institute, an industry-funded group which devotes much of its resources to attacking climate science.[220] In recent years Dr. Montgomery has:

- Testified against capping U.S. carbon pollution emissions.[221]
- Testified repeatedly against EPA's public health air rules, arguing that they have high costs and should be reconsidered.[222]
- Testified against DOE's programs supporting green energy investment, arguing that "the entire concept of using stimulus money to create a Green Economy is unsound."[223]
- Testified opposing the Federal Green Jobs Agenda.[224]

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218 Testimony of Anne E. Smith before the House Subcommittee on Energy and Power (June 28, 2012), available at: http://www.nera.com/nera-files/PUB_Smith_EPA_0612.pdf.

219 NERA, *Comments on EPA's Notice of Data Availability for § 316(b) Stated Preference Survey* (July 2012), available at: http://www.nera.com/nera-files/PUB_UWAG_0712_final.pdf.

220 *See http://www.marshall.org/experts.php?id=103.*

221 Testimony of W. David Montgomery before the House Committee on Science, Space and Technology (March 31, 2011), available at: http://science.house.gov/sites/republicans.science.house.gov/files/documents/hearings/Montgomery%203_31_11%20v2.pdf.

222 *See* Testimony of W. David Montgomery before the Senate Committee on Environment and Public Works (Feb. 15, 2011), available at: http://epw.senate.gov/public/index.cfm?FuseAction=Files.View&FileStore_id=5abed004-c3d2-4f28-a721-734ad78cdd99; and Testimony of W. David Montgomery Senate Committee on Environment and Public Works (Mar. 17, 2011), available at: http://epw.senate.gov/public/index.cfm?FuseAction=Files.View&FileStore_id=227a0fdb-905d-47b1-ac1d-b5dad9c6a605.

223 Testimony of W. David Montgomery before the House Committee on Oversight and Government Spending (Nov. 2, 2011), available at: http://democrats.oversight.house.gov/images/stories/Montgomery_testimony.pdf

- Opposed raising fuel efficiency standards as "the worst strategy you could think of."[225]

Dr. Montgomery and NERA, in short, share intellectual commitments that have made them preferred advocates of business interests seeking to oppose President Obama's public health and environmental efforts, as well as DOE's own efforts to increase the use of cleaner energy in this country. Many of those same interests have much to gain from LNG exports. The members and funders of the American Petroleum Institute, a NERA client, will naturally benefit from increased gas production. Likewise, coal interests, which are also frequent NERA clients, stand to benefit if LNG export leads to an increase in U.S. coal use, as the EIA has predicted. NERA does not acknowledge, much less address, these and similar conflicts in the LNG study. Nor does DOE/FE.

This failure of disclosure has infected the process as a whole. To our knowledge, DOE/FE issued no public solicitation of bids for the LNG export analysis, nor offered the public any chance, until now, to comment upon the contractors it selected. Nor have either DOE/FE or NERA provided the underlying NewERA model which NERA used to produce its results. Obviously, it is difficult to fully evaluate the study without access to the modeling files and underlying assumptions which NERA used. Other commenters[226] have made clear that it is good contracting practice to provide such materials as a matter of course. It is certainly appropriate to do so here, where DOE/FE must transparently justify its decisions after a full public process, as required by the Natural Gas Act and the Administrative Procedure Act. DOE/FE's failure to provide these critical disclosures undermines the public's ability to critically assess and analyze the study.

DOE/FE also has not disclosed how it has funded the NERA study, nor how DOE/FE influenced the study's conclusions. The magnitude of DOE/FE's involvement and investment here is of critical importance because DOE/FE claims that it has taken no position on the study or its conclusions and will dispassionately weigh public comments. Yet, if DOE/FE staff have funded the

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[224] Testimony of W. David Montgomery before the House Committee on Energy and Commerce (June 19, 2012), available at: http://energycommerce.house.gov/sites/republicans.energycommerce.house.gov/files/Hearings/OI/20120619/HHRG-112-IF02-WState-DMontgomery-20120619.pdf.

[225] Heritage Foundation, *Fuel Economy Standards: Do they Work? Do they Kill?* (2002), available at: http://www.heritage.org/research/reports/2002/03/fuel-economy-standards.

[226] *See* the Comments of Dr. Jannette Barth in this docket, for instance.

study, and, more importantly, shared in its development, there is a serious question whether DOE/FE will be able to fairly weight the finished product on its own merits. Staff clearly had some such involvement: Dr. Montgomery writes on the first page of the document that he is providing a "clean" copy, implying that past DOE/FE comments have been incorporated and addressed. The scope and nature of this involvement, however, remains unclear. DOE/FE must make its involvement transparent if it is set itself up as a neutral arbiter of the merits of NERA's work.

If DOE does not share this information in time for it inform public comment, it will have prevented the public from participating in a pressing policy debate. The courts have repeatedly held that such a denial is an irreparable injury, so preventing such an injury is plainly a compelling need. *See, e.g.*, *Electronic Privacy Info. Ctr. v. Dep't of Justice*, 416 F. Supp. 2d 30, 41-42 (D.D.C. 2006); *Washington Post v. Dep't of Homeland Security*, 459 F. Supp. 2d 61, 74-75 (D.D.C. 2006); *Electronic Frontier Found. v. Office of the Director*, 2007 WL 4208311, *6 (N.D. Cal. 2007); *EFF v. Office of the Director*, 542 F. Supp. 2d 1181,1186 (N.D. Cal. 2008).

DOE/FE must not take the arbitrary and capricious step of relying upon the questionable results of a study infected with the appearance (and perhaps the reality) of bias. Nor may it finally adopt or seriously weigh the conclusions of the study if it shuts out of the process in the way that it has done.

V. Conclusion

NERA is able to conclude that LNG export is in the nation's economic interest only because it wrongly believes that transferring billions of dollars from the nation's middle class to a small group of gas export companies benefits the country as a whole. It does not: As we have demonstrated in these comments, the likely consequences of a major shift towards LNG export will be a weakened domestic economy, "resource-cursed" communities, and lasting environmental damage.

Even if one were to accept NERA's indefensible attempt to balance national suffering against the private economic prosperity of a few, its conclusions are not maintainable. NERA projects at most a net GDP increase of at most $ 20 billion in a single year when it does this sum, subtracting labor income from LNG export revenues; the net benefit is often much less – on the order of a few billion dollars.[227] We have identified billions of dollars in pollution costs, infrastructure damage, and property value losses that NERA has not accounted for. Indeed, the cost just of increased methane emissions from LNG export is at least in the hundreds of millions annually. These costs almost certainly offset the nominal benefits which NERA claims to have identified. Certainly, NERA cannot claim otherwise, since it has not even considered them.

The Natural Gas Act charges DOE/FE with the weighty responsibility of protecting the public interest. Licensing LNG export would not serve that interest, and the NERA study certainly does not provide a basis to think otherwise. DOE/FE must not approve export licenses in reliance upon that flawed study, prepared by a contractor with at least the appearance of serious conflicts of interest. Instead, DOE/FE should begin an open, public process intended to fully identify and accurately account for the many economic and environmental impacts of LNG export.

Sincerely,

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227 NERA Study at 8.

Synapse
Energy Economics, Inc.

Will LNG Exports Benefit the United States Economy?

January 23, 2013

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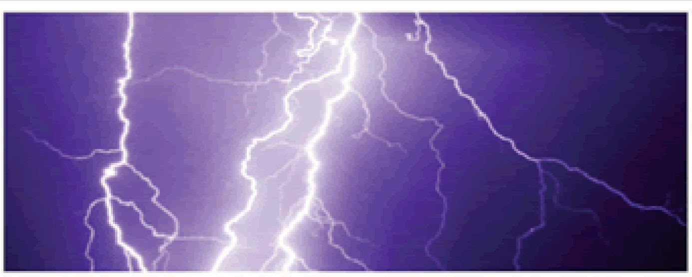

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1. Overview

DOE is considering whether large scale exports of liquefied natural gas (LNG) are in the public interest. As part of that inquiry, DOE has commissioned a team of researchers from NERA Economic Consulting, led by W. David Montgomery, to prepare a report entitled "Macroeconomic Impacts of LNG Exports from the United States" (hereafter, the NERA Report) in December 2012.[1] Unfortunately, that report suffers from serious methodological flaws which lead it to significantly underestimate, and, in some cases, to entirely overlook, many negative impacts of LNG exports on the U.S. economy.

NERA finds that LNG exports would be very good for the United States in every scenario they examined:

> …the U.S. was projected to gain net economic benefits from allowing LNG exports. Moreover, for every one of the market scenarios examined, net economic benefits increased as the level of LNG exports increased. (NERA Report, p.1)

The measure of benefits used by NERA, however, reflects only the totals for the U.S. economy as a whole. In fact, the NERA study finds that natural gas exports are beneficial to the natural gas industry alone, at the expense of the rest of the U.S. economy—reducing the size of the U.S. economy excluding LNG exports.

This white paper examines the NERA Report, and identifies multiple problems and omissions in its analyses of the natural gas industry and the U.S. economy:

- NERA's own modeling shows that LNG exports in fact cause GDP to decline in all other economic sectors.
- Although NERA does not calculate employment figures, the methods used in previous NERA reports would indicate job losses linked to export of tens to hundreds of thousands.
- NERA undervalues harm to the manufacturing sector of the U.S. economy.
- NERA ignores significant economic burdens from environmental harm caused by export.
- NERA ignores the distribution of LNG-export benefits among different segments of society, and makes a number of questionable and unrealistic economic assumptions:
    - In NERA's model, everyone who wants a job has one; by definition, LNG exports cannot cause unemployment.
    - All economic benefits of LNG export return to U.S. consumers without any leakage to foreign investors.
    - Changes to the balance of U.S. trade are constrained to be very small.

[1] W. David Montgomery, et al., *Macroeconomic Impacts of LNG Exports from the United States,* December 2012. http://www.fossil.energy.gov/programs/gasregulation/reports/nera_lng_report.pdf

- NERA's modeling of economic impacts is based entirely on the proprietary N_{ew}ERA model, which is not available for examination by other economists.
- NERA's treatment of natural gas resources and markets makes selective use of data to portray exports in a favorable light. In some cases, the NERA Report uses older data when newer revisions from the same sources were available; at times, it disagrees with other analysts who have carefully studied the same questions about the gas industry.

Even if NERA's flawed and incomplete analysis were to be accepted at face value, its conclusion that opening LNG exports would be good for the United States as a whole is not supported by its own modeling. Instead, NERA's results demonstrate that manufacturing, agriculture, and other sectors of the U.S. economy would suffer substantial losses. The methodology used to estimate job losses in other NERA reports, if applied in this case, would show average losses of wages equivalent to up to 270,000 jobs lost in each year.

2. LNG exports: Good for the gas industry, bad for the United States

According to the NERA Report, LNG exports would benefit the natural gas industry at the expense of the rest of the U.S. economy. Two sets of evidence illustrate this point: a comparison of natural gas export revenues with changes in gross domestic product (GDP), and a calculation, employed by NERA in other reports, of the "job-equivalents" from decreases in labor income. Applying this calculation to the NERA Report analysis suggests that opening LNG exports would result in hundreds of thousands of job losses. These losses would not be confined to narrow sections of U.S. industry, as NERA implies.

The NERA Report presents 13 "feasible" economic scenarios for LNG export, with projections calculated by NERA's proprietary N_{ew}ERA model for 2015, 2020, 2025, 2030, and 2035. The scenarios differ in estimates of the amount of natural gas that will ultimately be recovered per new well: seven scenarios (with labels beginning with USREF) use the estimate from the federal Energy Information Administration's AEO 2011; five (beginning with HEUR) assume 150 percent of the AEO level; and one (beginning with LEUR) assumes 50 percent of the AEO level. In the LEUR scenario, LNG exports are barely worthwhile; in the HEUR scenarios, exports are more profitable than in the USREF scenarios.

LNG exports cause U.S. GDP (excluding LNG exports) to fall

Careful analysis of these LNG export scenarios reveals that the gain in GDP predicted by the NERA Report is driven—almost entirely—by revenues to gas exporters and gas companies; the remainder of the economy declines.

On average (across the five reporting years), export revenues were 74 percent or more of GDP growth in every scenario; in the eight scenarios with average or low estimated gas recovery per well, export revenues averaged more than 100 percent of GDP growth. In the median scenario, export revenues averaged 169 percent of GDP growth; in the worst case, export revenues averaged 240 percent of GDP growth.

Table 1 compares natural gas export revenues to the increase in GDP for each scenario.[2] When export revenues are greater than 100 percent of GDP growth, the size of the U.S. economy, excluding gas exports, is shrinking. For instance, for the year 2035 in the first two scenarios in Table 1, LNG export revenues are almost $9 billion higher than in the reference case, while GDP—which includes those export revenues along with everyone else's incomes—is only $3 billion higher. Thus, as a matter of arithmetic, everyone else's incomes (i.e., GDP excluding LNG export revenues) must have gone down by almost $6 billion. (If your favorite baseball team scored 3 more home runs this year than last year, and one of its players scored 9 more than he did last year, then it must be the case that the rest of the team scored 6 fewer.)

Similarly, in every case where natural gas export revenues exceed 100 percent of the increase in GDP—cases that appear throughout Table 1—the export revenues are part of GDP, so the remainder of GDP must have gone down.

Table 1: LNG Exports as a Share of GDP Gains[3]

Scenario	Exports as Percent of GDP Gains					
	2015	2020	2025	2030	2035	average
USREF_D_LSS	72%	75%	193%	225%	286%	170%
USREF_D_LS	50%	89%	193%	225%	286%	169%
USREF_D_LR	62%	112%	257%	338%	429%	240%
USREF_SD_LS	50%	77%	204%	258%	468%	211%
USREF_SD_LR	59%	90%	244%	258%	702%	271%
USREF_SD_HS	50%	67%	140%	216%	429%	180%
USREF_SD_HR	59%	75%	158%	216%	501%	202%
HEUR_SD_LSS	19%	38%	69%	109%	152%	77%
HEUR_SD_LS	24%	40%	82%	109%	152%	81%
HEUR_SD_LR	31%	42%	82%	123%	152%	86%
HEUR_SD_HS	24%	37%	64%	106%	142%	74%
HEUR_SD_HR	28%	39%	74%	111%	142%	79%
LEUR_SD_LSS	0%	164%	*NA*	*NA*	158%	107%

NA - not applicable (GDP did not increase over the no-export reference case)
Source: Author's calculations based on NERA Report, Figures 144-162.

As Table 1 demonstrates, export revenues exceed GDP growth: GDP (not including gas exports) is shrinking by 2030 or earlier in all scenarios, and by 2025 or earlier in all scenarios using the AEO assumption about gas recovery per well (i.e., USREF). In other words, after the initial years of construction of export facilities, when construction activities may create some local economic

[2] The increase in GDP is the difference between the scenario GDP projections and the GDP in the corresponding no-export reference case (for USREF, HEUR, or LEUR assumptions). Data from NERA Report, pp.179-197.

[3] In the second term in the scenario names, international cases are defined by increases in global demand and/or decreases in global supply: D=International Demand Shock, SD=International Supply/Demand Shock. In the third term in the scenario names, export cases for quantity/growth are defined as follows: LSS=Low/Slowest, LS=Low/Slow, LR=Low/Rapid, HS=High/Slow, HR=High/Rapid.

benefits, gas exports create increased income for the gas industry, at the expense of everyone else.[4]

Loss of labor income from LNG exports is equivalent to huge job losses

NERA avoids predicting the employment implications of LNG export, and downplays the aggregate billions of dollars in decreased labor income predicted by its report. In fact, using NERA's own methods, the following analysis shows the potential for hundreds of thousands of job losses per year.

In other reports using the N_{ew}ERA model, NERA has reported losses of labor income in terms of "job-equivalents." This may seem paradoxical, since the N_{ew}ERA model assumes full employment, as discussed later in this white paper. As NERA has argued elsewhere, however, a loss of labor income can be expressed in terms of job-equivalent losses, by assuming that it consists of a loss of workers earning the average salary.[5] In other words, a given decrease in labor income can be interpreted as a loss of workers who would make that income.

This method can be applied to the losses of labor income projected for each of the 13 scenarios in the NERA Report. These losses are expressed as percentages of gross labor income; we have assumed that NERA's "job-equivalent losses" represent the same percentage of the labor force. For example, we assume the loss of 0.1 percent of gross labor income in scenario HEUR_SD_HS in 2020 is equivalent to job losses of 0.1 percent of the projected 2020 labor force of 159,351,000 workers, or roughly 159,000 job-equivalent losses.[6]

The results of this analysis are shown in Table 2. Job-equivalent losses, averaged across the five reporting years, range from 36,000 to 270,000 per year; the median scenario has an average job-equivalent loss of 131,000 per year. We do not necessarily endorse this method of calculation of labor impacts, but merely note that NERA has adopted it in other reports using the same model. If NERA had used this method in the NERA Report analysis, it would have shown that LNG exports have the potential to significantly harm employment in many sectors.

[4] Other modeled results in the record cast further doubt on NERA's study. See Wallace E. Tyner, "Comparison of Analysis of Natural Gas Export Impacts," January 14, 2013. http://www.fossil.energy.gov/programs/gasregulation/authorizations/export_study/30_Wallace_Tyner01_14_13.pdf

[5] See, e.g., NERA's Economic Implications of Recent and Anticipated EPA Regulations Affecting the Electricity Sector, October 2012, p. ES-6: "Job-equivalents are calculated as the total loss in labor income divided by the average salary." http://www.nera.com/nera-files/PUB_ACCCE_1012.pdf

[6] The Bureau of Labor Statistics projects annual growth of the civilian labor force at 0.7% per year from 2010 to 2020 (Mitra Toosi. "Labor force projections to 2020: a more slowly growing workforce." Monthly Labor Review, January 2012. http://www.bls.gov/opub/mlr/2012/01/art3full.pdf.) We have used the same annual growth rate to project the labor force through 2035.

Table 2: Employment equivalents of reduced labor income

	Job-equivalent loss, NERA method					
	2015	2020	2025	2030	2035	average
USREF_D_LSS	15,000	77,000	108,000	77,000	62,000	68,000
USREF_D_LS	31,000	77,000	108,000	77,000	62,000	71,000
USREF_D_LR	108,000	92,000	108,000	77,000	62,000	89,000
USREF_SD_LS	31,000	200,000	169,000	139,000	123,000	132,000
USREF_SD_LR	123,000	215,000	169,000	139,000	123,000	154,000
USREF_SD_HS	31,000	185,000	292,000	292,000	246,000	209,000
USREF_SD_HR	108,000	292,000	308,000	292,000	246,000	249,000
HEUR_SD_LSS	15,000	62,000	108,000	108,000	92,000	77,000
HEUR_SD_LS	15,000	169,000	139,000	108,000	92,000	105,000
HEUR_SD_LR	108,000	169,000	139,000	108,000	92,000	123,000
HEUR_SD_HS	15,000	154,000	246,000	215,000	200,000	166,000
HEUR_SD_HR	92,000	385,000	292,000	231,000	200,000	240,000
LEUR_SD_LSS	0	92,000	77,000	0	0	34,000
Labor force	*153,889,000*	*153,889,000*	*153,889,000*	*153,889,000*	*153,889,000*	

Source: Author's calculations based on NERA Report, Figures 144-162.

NERA downplays their estimated shifts in employment from one sector to another saying that is smaller than normal rates of turnover in those industries, but, of course, normal labor turnover is enormous. It is true that job losses caused by LNG exports will be less than the annual total of all retirements, voluntary resignations, firings, layoffs, parental and medical leaves, new hires, moves to new cities and new jobs, and switching from one employer to another for all sorts of reasons: Throughout the entire U.S. labor force normal turnover amounts to almost 40 million people each year.[7] The comparison of job losses to job turnover is irrelevant.

Harm to U.S. economy is not confined to narrow sections of industry, as NERA implies

The NERA Report emphasizes the fact that only a few branches of industry are heavily dependent on natural gas (NERA Report, pp.67-70). This discussion is described as an attempt "to identify where higher natural gas prices might cause severe impacts such as plant closings" (p.67). The NERA Report makes two principal points in this discussion. First, it quotes a 2009 study of the expected impacts of the Waxman-Markey proposal for climate legislation, which found that only a limited number of branches of industry would be harmed by higher carbon costs; NERA argues that price increases caused by LNG exports will have an even smaller but similarly narrow effect on industry. Second, NERA observes that industries where value added (roughly the sum of wages and profits) makes up a large fraction of sales revenue are unlikely to have high energy costs, while industries with high energy costs probably have a low ratio of value added to sales.

[7] "Job Openings and Labor Turnover," Bureau of Labor Statistics, November 2012, Table 3. http://www.bls.gov/news.release/pdf/jolts.pdf

Both points may be true, but they are largely irrelevant to the evaluation of LNG exports. NERA's use of the Waxman-Markey study is inappropriate, as Representative Markey himself has pointed out, because that proposed bill directed significant resources to industries harmed by higher costs to mitigate any negative impact.[8] No such mitigation payments are associated with LNG export, so relying upon Waxman-Markey examples to downplay potential economic damage is inappropriate. If those exports increase domestic gas prices, industry will be harmed both by higher electricity prices and by higher costs for direct use of natural gas. Further, it is true that direct use of natural gas is relatively concentrated, but it is concentrated in important sectors; as the natural gas industry itself explains, "Natural gas is consumed primarily in the pulp and paper, metals, chemicals, petroleum refining, stone, clay and glass, plastic, and food processing industries."[9] These are not small or unimportant sectors of the U.S. economy.[10] In any case, discussion of sectors where higher natural gas prices might cause "severe impacts such as plant closings" is attacking a straw man; NERA's own calculations imply moderate harm would be imposed throughout industry, both by rising electricity prices and by the costs of direct gas consumption—offset by benefits exclusively concentrated in the hands of the natural gas industry.

Similarly, it does not seem particularly important to know whether industries that use a lot of natural gas have high or low ratios of value added to sales. Are aluminum, cement, fertilizer, paper, and chemicals less important to the economy because they have many purchased inputs, and therefore low ratios of value added to sales?

3. Costs and benefits from LNG exports are unequally distributed

As the results above show, LNG exports essentially transfer revenue away from the rest of the economy and into the hands of companies participating in these exports. This shift has significant economic implications that are not addressed in the NERA Report's analysis.

The NERA Report asserts that "all export scenarios are welfare-improving for U.S. consumers" (NERA Report, p.55). While LNG exports will result in higher natural gas prices for U.S. residents, NERA projects that these costs will be outweighed by additional income received from the exports—and thus, "consumers, in aggregate are better off as a result of opening LNG exports." (NERA Report, p.55) Or, to put this another way, the gains of every resident of the United States, added together, will be greater than the losses of every resident of the United States, added together. The distribution of these benefits and costs—who will suffer costs and who will reap gains—is discussed only tangentially in the NERA Report, but is critical to a complete understanding of the effects of LNG exports on the U.S. economy. A closer look reveals that LNG exports benefit only a very narrow section of the economy, while causing harm to a much broader group.

[8] Letter from Rep. Markey to Secretary Steve Chu (Dec. 14, 2012).
[9] http://www.naturalgas.org/overview/uses_industry.asp.
[10] Other commenters also point out that NERA does not even appear to have included some gas-dependent industries, including fertilizer and fabric manufacture, in its analysis. *See* Comments of Dr. Jannette Barth (Dec. 14, 2012).

Focus on "net impacts" ignores key policy issues

The results presented in the NERA Report focus on the net impacts on the entire economy—combining together everyone's costs and benefits—and on the "welfare" of the typical or average family, measured in terms of equivalent variation.[11] NERA dismisses the need to discuss the distribution of the costs and benefits among groups that are likely to experience very different impacts from LNG exports, stating that: "[t]his study addresses only the net economic effects of natural gas price changes and improved export revenues, not their distribution." (NERA Report, p.211) NERA alludes to an unequal distribution of costs and benefits in its results, but does not present a complete analysis:

> Although there are costs to consumers of higher energy prices and lower consumption and producers incur higher costs to supply the additional natural gas for export, these costs are more than offset by increases in export revenues along with a wealth transfer from overseas received in the form of payments for liquefactions services. The net result is an increase in U.S. households' real income and welfare. (NERA Report, p.6)

Instead, the NERA Report combines the economic impacts of winners and losers from LNG exports. In the field of economics, this method of asserting that a policy will improve welfare for society as a whole as long as gains to the winners are greater than costs to the losers is known as the "Kaldor-Hicks compensation principle" or a "potential Pareto improvement." The critiques leveled at cost-benefit analyses that ignore important distributional issues have as long a history as these flawed methods. Policy decisions cannot be made solely on the basis of aggregated net impacts: costs to one group are never erased by the existence of larger gains to another group. The net benefit to society as a whole shows only that, if the winners choose to share their gains, they have the resources to make everyone better off than before—but not that they *will* share their gains. In the typical situation, when the winners choose to keep their winnings to themselves, there is no reason to think that everyone, including the losers, is better off.

As previous congressional testimony by W. David Montgomery—the lead author of the NERA Report—on the impacts of cap-and-trade policy support explained it: "There are enough hidden differences among recipients of allowances within any identified group that it takes far more to compensate just the losers in a group than to compensate the average. Looking at averages assumes that gainers compensate losers within a group, but that will not occur in practice."[12]

[11] One of the complications in estimating the costs and benefits of a policy with the potential to impact prices economy-wide, is that simply measuring changes in income misses out on the way in which policy-driven price changes affect how much can be bought for the same income. (For example, if a policy raises incomes but simultaneously raises prices, it takes some careful calculation to determine whether people are better or worse off.) The NERA Report uses a measure of welfare called "equivalent variation," which is the additional income that the typical family would have to receive today (when making purchases at current prices) in order to be just as well off as they would be with the new incomes and new price levels under the proposed policy. It can be thought of as the change in income caused by the policy, adjusted for any change in prices caused by the policy.

[12] Prepared Testimony of W. David Montgomery, before the Committee on Energy and Commerce Subcommittee on Energy and Environment, U.S. House of Representatives, Hearing on Allowance Allocation Policies in Climate Legislation, June 9, 2009.
http://democrats.energycommerce.house.gov/Press_111/20090609/testimony_montgomery.pdf.

Wage earners in every sector except natural gas will lose income

In every scenario reviewed in the NERA Report, labor income rises in the natural gas industry, and falls in every other industry.[13] Economy-wide, NERA finds that "capital income, wage income, and indirect tax revenues drop in all scenarios, while resource income and net transfers associated with LNG export revenues increase in all scenarios." (NERA Report, p.63)[14] Even without a detailed distributional analysis, the NERA Report demonstrates that some groups will lose out from LNG exports:

> Overall, both total labor compensation and income from investment are projected to decline, and income to owners of natural gas resources will increase… Nevertheless, impacts will not be positive for all groups in the economy. Households with income solely from wages or government transfers, in particular, might not participate in these benefits. (NERA Report, p.2)

NERA's "might not participate in these benefits" could and should be restated more accurately as "will bear costs." Although NERA doesn't acknowledge it, most Americans will not receive revenues from LNG exports; many more Americans will experience decreased wages and higher energy prices than will profit from LNG exports.

Wage earners in every major sector except for natural gas will lose income, and, as domestic natural gas prices increase, households and businesses will have to pay more for natural gas (for heat, cooking, etc.), electricity, and other goods and services with prices that are strongly impacted by natural gas prices. The NERA Report briefly mentions these price effects:

> Natural gas is also an important fuel for electricity generation, providing about 20% of the fuel inputs to electricity generation. Moreover, in many regions and times of the year natural gas-fired generation sets the price of electricity so that increases in natural gas prices can impact electricity prices. These price increases will also propagate through the economy and affect both household energy bills and costs for businesses. (NERA Report, p.13-14)

Additional analysis required to understand electricity price impacts

There are no results presented in the NERA Report to display the effect of changes in electricity prices on consumers. Negative effects on the electricity sector itself are shown in NERA's Figure 38, but changes in electric rates and electricity bills, and the distributional consequences of these changes, are absent from the results selected for display in this report. NERA certainly could have conducted such an analysis. NERA's October 2012 report on recent and anticipated EPA regulations affecting the U.S. electricity sector using the N$_{ew}$ERA model displayed electricity price impacts for eleven regions and three scenarios.[15]

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[13] See NERA Report, Figure 39.
[14] See NERA Report, Figure 40.
[15] Harrison, et al., Economic Implications of Recent and Anticipated EPA Regulations Affecting the Electricity Sector, October 2012. NERA Economic Consulting. See Table 17. http://www.nera.com/67_7903.htm.

Dr. Montgomery previous testimony also presents increases in household electric utility bills.[16] He describes a "decline in purchasing power" for the average household, claiming that "the cost for the average family will be significant" and "generally the largest declines in household purchasing power are occurring in the regions with the lowest baseline income levels."[17] A careful distributional analysis would greatly improve the policy relevance of the NERA Report's economic impact projections.

Benefits of stock ownership are not as widespread as NERA assumes

There is no evidence to support NERA's implication that the benefits of stock ownership are broadly shared among U.S. families across the economic spectrum—and therefore no evidence that they will "participate" in benefits secured by LNG exports.

NERA's claim of widespread benefits is not supported by data from the U.S. Census Bureau. In 2007, just before the financial crash, only about half of all families owned any stock, including indirect holdings in retirement accounts. Indeed, only 14 percent of families with the lowest incomes (in the bottom 20 percent) held any stock at all, compared to 91 percent of families with the highest incomes (the top 10 percent).[18]

For most households the primary source of income is wages. According to the Federal Reserve, 68 percent of all family income in 2010 (the latest data available) came from wages, while interest, dividends and capital gains only amounted to 4.5 percent (see Figure 1). Families with the least wealth (the bottom 25 percent) received 0.2 percent of their income from interest, dividends, and capital gains, compared to 11 percent for the wealthiest families (the top 10 percent).

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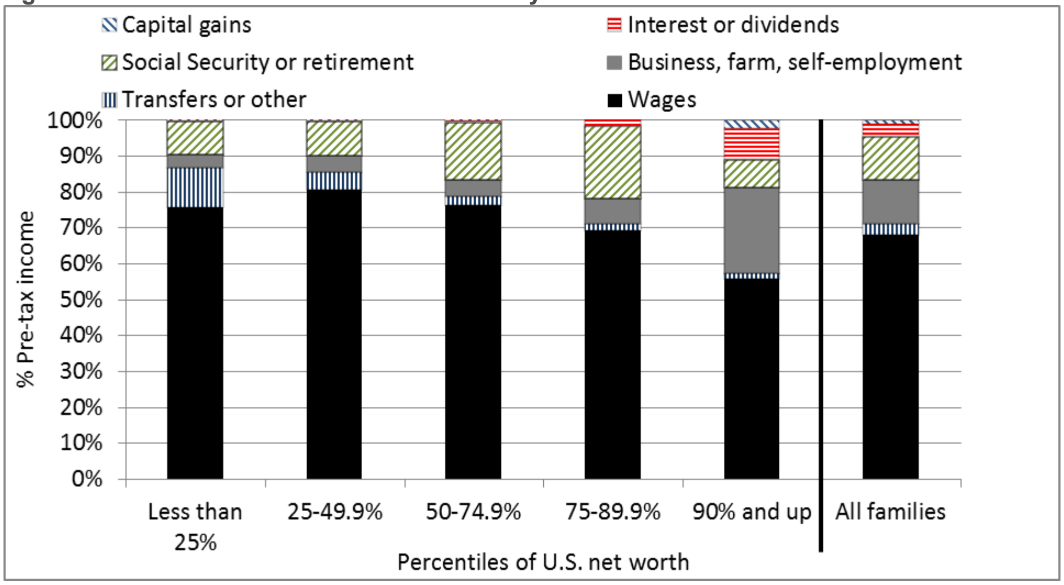
[16] Prepared Testimony of W. David Montgomery, before the Committee on Energy and Commerce Subcommittee on Energy and Environment, U.S. House of Representatives, Hearing on Allowance Allocation Policies in Climate Legislation, June 9, 2009. http://democrats.energycommerce.house.gov/Press_111/20090609/testimony_montgomery.pdf.

[17] Ibid.

[18] U.S. Census Bureau, Statistical Abstract of the United States: 2012, 2012. See Table 1211. http://www.census.gov/compendia/statab/2012/tables/12s1211.pdf.

Figure 1: U.S. Households Source of Income by Percentile of Net Worth in 2010



Source: Federal Reserve, Changes in U.S. Family Finances from 2007 to 2010: Evidence from the Survey of Consumer Finances, Table 2.

And yet the NERA Report appears to assume that the benefits of owning stock in natural gas export companies are widespread, explaining that:

> U.S. consumers receive additional income from…the LNG exports provid[ing] additional export revenues, and…consumers who are owners of the liquefaction plants, receiv[ing] take-or-pay tolling charges for the amount of LNG exports. These additional sources of income for U.S. consumers outweigh the loss associated with higher energy prices. Consequently, consumers, in aggregate, are better off as a result of opening up LNG exports. (NERA Report, p.55)

In the absence of detailed analysis from NERA, it seems safe to assume that increases to U.S. incomes from LNG exports will accrue to those in the highest income brackets. Lower income brackets, where more income is derived from wages, are far more likely to experience losses in income—unless they happen to work in the natural gas industry—and natural gas extraction currently represents less than 0.1 percent of all jobs in the United States.[19] At the same time, everyone will pay more on their utility bills.

[19] Share of jobs in oil and gas extraction. Data for the share of jobs in the natural gas industry alone is not available but would, necessarily, be smaller. Support activities for mining represents an additional 0.25 percent of jobs, petroleum and coal products 0.08 percent, and pipeline transportation 0.03 percent. Taken together, these industries, which include oil, coal and other mining operations, represent 0.5 percent of all U.S. employment. Bureau of Economic Analysis, Full-Time and Part-Time Employees by Industry, 2011 data. http://bea.gov/iTable/iTable.cfm?ReqID=5&step=1

NERA's assumption that all income from LNG exports will return to U.S. residents is incorrect

In the N_{ew}ERA analysis, two critical assumptions assure that all LNG profits accrue to U.S. residents. First, "Consumers own all production processes and industries by virtue of owning stock in them." (NERA Report, p.55) The unequal distribution of stock ownership (shown as interest, dividend, and capital gains income in the Federal Reserve data in Figure 1) is not made explicit in the NERA Report, nor is the very small share that natural-gas-related assets represent in all U.S.-based publically traded stock.[20] In discussing impacts on households' wealth, NERA only mention that "if they, or their pensions, hold stock in natural gas producers, they will benefit from the increase in the value of their investment." (NERA Report, p.13) A more detailed distributional analysis would be necessary to determine the exact degree to which LNG profits benefit different income groups; however, it is fair to conclude that lower-income groups and the middle class are much less likely to profit from LNG exports than higher-income groups that receive a larger portion of income from stock ownership.

Second, the NERA Report assumes that "all of the investment in liquefaction facilities and natural gas drilling and extraction comes from domestic sources." (NERA Report, p.211) This means that the N_{ew}ERA model implausibly assumes that all U.S.-based LNG businesses are solely owned by U.S. residents. There is no evidence to support this assumption. On the contrary, many players in this market have significant foreign ownership shares or are privately held, and may be able to move revenues in ways that avoid both the domestic stock market and U.S. taxes. Cheniere Energy, the only LNG exporter licensed in the United States, is currently building an export terminal on the Gulf of Mexico for \$5.6 billion—\$1 billion of which is coming from investors in China and Singapore.[21] Cheniere's largest shareholders include holding companies in Singapore and Bermuda, as well as a hedge fund and a private equity firm, which in turn have a mix of domestic and foreign shareholders.[22] This situation is not atypical. As illustrated in Figure 2, 29 percent (by Bcf/day capacity) of the applications for U.S. LNG export licenses are foreign-owned, including 6 percent of total applications from foreign governments. Additionally, 70 percent of domestic applicants are publicly owned and traded, most of which have both domestic and foreign stock holders. Gas extraction companies, similarly, operate with a diverse mix of foreign and domestic investment, and of public and private ownership structures. NERA's claim that profits from LNG exports will be retained in the United States is unfounded.

NERA certainly could have addressed this issue in its analysis. Dr. Montgomery's previous testimony on cap-and-trade assumed that "all auction revenues would be returned to households,

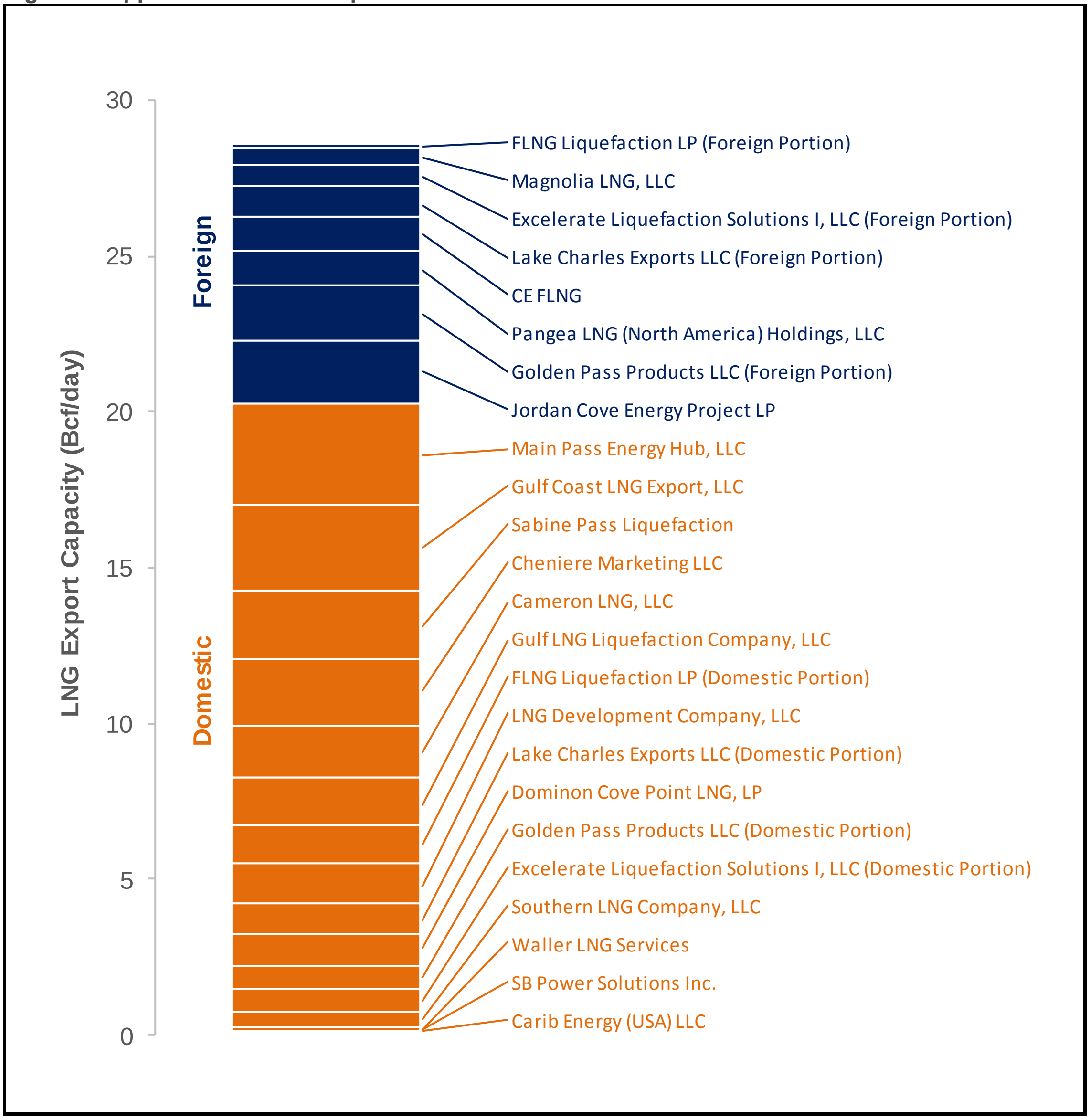
[20] NYSE companies involved in LNG export applications account for 5.8 percent of the total market capitalization, but this includes the value of shares from Exxon Mobil—by itself 2.9 percent of the NYSE market cap—as well as several other corporations with diverse business interests, such as General Electric, Dow, and Seaboard (owner of Butterball Turkeys among many other products). Reuters Stocks website, downloaded January 22, 2013 (following marketclose), http://www.reuters.com/finance/stocks. World Federation of Exchanges, "2012 WFE Market Highlights" (January 2013), page 6. http://www.world-exchanges.org/files/statistics/2012%20WFE%20Market%20Highlights.pdf.

[21] "UPDATE 2-China, Singapore wealth funds invest \$1 bln in US LNG export plant-source." Reuters, August 21, 2012. http://www.reuters.com/article/2012/08/21/cic-cheniere-idUSL4E8JL0SC20120821

[22] Ownership data from NASDAQ for Cheniere Energy, Inc. (LNG). http://www.nasdaq.com/symbol/lng/ownership-summary#.UPmZgCfLRpU.

except for the allowance allocations that are given to foreign sources."[23] This assumption led him to conclude that, for the cap-and-trade program, a "large part of the impact on household costs is due to wealth transfers to other countries."[24] This level of analytical rigor should have been applied when estimating the U.S. domestic benefits from opening natural gas exports.

Figure 2: Applicants for LNG Export Licenses



[23] Prepared Testimony of W. David Montgomery, before the Committee on Energy and Commerce Subcommittee on Energy and Environment, U.S. House of Representatives, Hearing on Allowance Allocation Policies in Climate Legislation, June 9, 2009, http://democrats.energycommerce.house.gov/Press_111/20090609/testimony_montgomery.pdf.

[24] Ibid.

Source: See Appendix A for a full list of sources.

Opening LNG export will also incur environmental costs

The discussion of LNG exports in the NERA Report, and most of our analysis of the report, is concerned with monetary costs and benefits: Exports cause an increase in natural gas prices, boosting incomes in the natural gas industry itself while increasing economic burdens on the rest of the economy. There are, in addition, environmental impacts of natural gas production and distribution that do not have market prices, but may nonetheless become important if LNG exports are expanded. Increases in exports are likely to increase production of natural gas, entailing increased risks of groundwater pollution and other environmental problems potentially associated with hydraulic fracturing ("fracking"). Increases in production, transportation of natural gas from wells to export terminals, and the liquefaction process itself, all increase the risks of leaks of natural gas, a potent greenhouse gas that contributes to global warming. These environmental impacts should be weighed, alongside the monetary costs and benefits of export strategies, in evaluation of proposals for LNG exports.

Clearly, as NERA itself acknowledges, the NERA Report would benefit from more detailed analysis of the distribution of costs and benefits from opening LNG exports: "Although convenient to indicate that there are winners and losers from any market or policy change, this terminology gives limited insight into how the gains and losses are distributed in the economy." (NERA Report, p.211)

4. Dependence on resource exports has long-run drawbacks

The harm that LNG exports cause to the rest of the U.S. economy, even in NERA's model, are consistent with an extensive body of economic literature warning of the dangers of resource-export-based economies.

If NERA's economic modeling is accepted at face value, it implies that the United States should embrace resource exports, even at the expense of weakening the rest of the economy. GDP, net incomes, and "welfare" as measured by NERA would all rise in tandem with LNG exports. There would be losses in manufacturing and other sectors, especially the energy-intensive sectors of paper and pulp, chemicals, glass, cement, and primary metal (iron, steel, aluminum, etc.) manufacturing (NERA Report, p. 64). But NERA asserts that these would be offset by gains in the natural gas industry. There would be losses of labor income, equivalent to a decline of up to 270,000 average-wage jobs per year. But, according to NERA, these losses would be offset by increased incomes for resource (natural gas) owners.

For those who are indifferent to the distribution of gains and losses—or who imagine that almost everyone owns a share of the natural gas industry—the shift away from manufacturing and labor income toward raw material exports could be described as good for the country as a whole. (So, too, could any shift among types of income, as long as its net result is an increase in GDP.) The rising value of the dollar relative to other currencies would allow affluent Americans to buy more imports, further increasing their welfare, even as the ability of industry to manufacture and export from the United States would decline.

There is, however, a longer-term threat of LNG exports to the U.S. economy: NERA's export scenarios would accelerate the decline of manufacturing and productivity throughout the country, pushing the nation into increased dependence on raw material exports. Developing countries have often struggled to escape from this role in the world economy, believing that true economic development requires the creation of manufacturing and other high-productivity industries. International institutions such as the IMF and the World Bank have often insisted that developing countries can maximize their short-run incomes by sticking to resource exports.

NERA is in essence offering the same advice to the United States: Why strive to make things at home, if there is more immediate profit from exporting raw materials to countries that can make better use of them? Europe, China, Japan, and Korea have much more limited natural resources per capita, but they are very good at making things out of resources that they buy from the United States and other resource-rich countries. In the long run, which role do we want the United States to play in the world economy? Do we want to be a resource exporter, with jobs focused in agriculture, mining, petroleum and other resource-intensive industries? Or do we want to export industrial goods, with jobs focused in manufacturing and high-tech sectors?

Economists have recognized that resource exports can impede manufacturing, even in a developed country; the problem has been called the "resource curse" or the "Dutch disease." The latter name stems from the experience of the Netherlands after the discovery of natural gas resources in 1959; gas exports raised the value of the guilder (the Dutch currency in pre-Euro days), making other Dutch exports less competitive in world markets and resulting in the eventual decline of its manufacturing sector.[25] In other countries, the "resource curse" has been associated with increased corruption and inequality; countries that depend on a few, very profitable resource exports may be less likely to have well-functioning government institutions that serve the interests of the majority.[26] Protecting an economy against the resource curse requires careful economic management of prospective resource exports.

In particular, it may be more advantageous in the long run to nurture the ability to manufacture and export value-added products based on our natural resources—even if it is not quite as profitable in the short run. The NERA Report is notably lacking in analysis of this strategy; there are no scenarios exploring promotion of, for example, increased use of natural gas in the chemical industry and increased exports of chemicals from the United States. The 25-year span of NERA's analysis provides for scope to develop a longer-term economic strategy with a different pattern of winners and losers. The benefits in this case might extend well beyond the narrow confines of the natural gas industry itself.

5. Unrealistic assumptions used in NERA's N$_{ew}$ERA model

Despite its sunny conclusions, the NERA Report indicates that LNG exports pose serious challenges to the U.S. economy. It is troubling, then, that the underlying modeling in the report is notably difficult to assess, and is reliant on a number of unrealistic assumptions.

[25] "The Dutch Disease." *The Economist*, November 26, 1977, pp. 82-83.

[26] Papyrakis and Gerlagh. "The resource curse hypothesis and its transmission channels." *Journal of Comparative Economics*, 2004, 32:1 p.181-193; Mehlum, Moene and Torvik. "Institutions and the Resource Curse." *The Economic Journal*, 2006, 116:508 p.1-20.

The NERA Report relies on NERA Consulting's proprietary model, called N$_{ew}$ERA. Detailed model assumptions and relationships have never been published; we are not aware of any use of the model, or even evaluation of it in detail, by anyone outside NERA.

According to the NERA Report, N$_{ew}$ERA is a computable general equilibrium (CGE) model. Such models typically start with a series of assumptions, adopted for mathematical convenience, that are difficult to reconcile with real-world conditions. The base assumptions of the N$_{ew}$ERA model are described as follows: "The model assumes a perfect foresight, zero profit condition in production of goods and services, no changes in monetary policy, and full employment within the U.S. economy." (NERA Report, p. 103)

Here we discuss the implications of each of these assumptions, together with two additional critical modeling assumptions described elsewhere in the NERA Report: limited changes to the balance of trade, and sole U.S. financing of natural gas investments.

Full employment

The full employment assumption, common to most (though not all) CGE models, means that in every year in every scenario, anyone who wants a job can get one. This assumption is arguably appropriate—or at least, introduces only minor distortions—at times of very high employment such as the late 1990s. It is, however, transparently wrong under current conditions, when unemployment rates are high and millions of people who want jobs cannot find them.

The NERA Report expands on its Pollyannaish vision of the labor market, saying:

> The model assumes full employment in the labor market. This assumption means total labor demand in a policy scenario would be the same as the baseline policy projection… The model assumes that labor is fungible across sectors. That is, labor can move freely out of a production sector into another sector without any adjustment costs or loss of productivity. (NERA Report, p.110)

It also includes, in its "Key Findings," the statement that: "LNG exports are not likely to affect the overall level of employment in the U.S." (NERA Report, p.2)

In fact, this is an assumption—baked into the model—and not a finding. N$_{ew}$ERA, by design, never allows policy changes to affect the overall assumed level of employment. The unemployment rate must, by definition, always be low and unchanging in NERA's model.

For this reason, the potential economic impact that is of the greatest interest to many policymakers, namely the effects of increased LNG exports on jobs, cannot be meaningfully studied with NERA's model. Addressing that question requires a different modeling framework, one that recognizes the existence of involuntary unemployment (when people who want jobs cannot find them) and allows for changes in employment levels. (Despite N$_{ew}$ERA's full employment assumption, NERA has used the model results to calculate the "job-equivalents" lost to other environmental policies, as discussed above. Had NERA seriously addressed the question, as we discussed earlier, it might have discovered serious job loss potential.)

Perfect foresight

N$_{ew}$ERA, like other CGE models, assumes that decision-makers do not make systematic errors (that is, errors that bias results) when predicting the future. This is a common assumption in economic modeling and, while more complex theories regarding the accuracy of expectations of the future do exist, they only rarely enter into actual modeling of future conditions.

Zero profit condition

A more puzzling assumption is the "zero profit condition," mentioned in the quote above. Analyzing fossil fuel markets under the assumption of zero profits sounds like a departure from the familiar facts of modern life. The picture is less than clear, since the N$_{ew}$ERA model includes calculations of both capital income and "resource" income (the latter is received by owners of resources such as natural gas); these may overlap with what would ordinarily be called profits. Without a more complete description of the N$_{ew}$ERA model, it is impossible to determine exactly how it treats profits in the fossil fuel industries. In any case, the business media are well aware of the potential for profits in natural gas; a recent article, based in part on the NERA Report, includes the subheading "How LNG Leads to Profits."[27]

Invariable monetary policy

N$_{ew}$ERA also assumes that economy-wide interest rates and other monetary drivers will stay constant over time. Changes to monetary policy could, of course, have important impacts on modeling results, but forecasting these kinds of changes may well be considered outside of the scope of NERA's analysis. That being said, several of NERA's classes of scenarios involve supply and demand shocks to the economy as a whole: exactly the kind of broad-based change in economic conditions that tends to provoke changes in monetary policy.

Limited changes to the balance of trade

NERA's treatment of foreign trade involves yet another unrealistic assumption:

> We balance the international trade account in the N$_{ew}$ERA model by constraining changes in the current account deficit over the model horizon. The condition is that the net present value of the foreign indebtedness over the model horizon remains at the benchmark year level. (NERA Report, p.109)

Although U.S. exports increase in many scenarios, NERA assumes that there can be very little change in the balance of trade. Instead, increases in exports largely have the effect of driving up the value of the dollar relative to other currencies (NERA Report, p. 110). This assumption results in a benefit to consumers of imports, who can buy them more cheaply; conversely, it harms exporters, by making their products more expensive and less competitive in world markets.

[27] Ben Gersten, "Five U.S. Natural Gas Companies Set to Soar from an Export Boom," December 14, 2012. http://moneymorning.com/tag/natural-gas-stocks/

Sole U.S. financing of natural gas investments

Finally, NERA assumes that all income from natural gas investments will be received by U.S. residents: "[F]inancing of investment was assumed to originate from U.S. sources." (NERA Report, p.5) This improbable assumption, discussed in more detail above, means that benefits of investment in U.S. LNG export facilities and extraction services return, in full, to the United States. As discussed earlier, under the more realistic assumption that LNG exports are in part financed by foreign investors, some of the benefits of U.S. exports would flow out of the country to those investors.

6. Use of stale data leads to underestimation of domestic demand for natural gas

An additional important concern regarding the NERA Report is its use of unnecessarily outdated data from the rapidly changing U.S. Energy Information Administration (EIA) *Annual Energy Outlook* natural gas forecasts. Inexplicably, the NERA Report failed to use the EIA's most recent data, even though it had done so in prior reports.

The following timeline of EIA data releases and NERA reports illustrates this point:

- April 2011: EIA's Final **AEO 2011**[28] published
- December 2011: EIA's **AEO 2012**[29] Early Release published
- June 2012: EIA's Final **AEO 2012**[30] published
- October 2012: NERA's "Economic Implications of Recent and Anticipated EPA Regulations Affecting the Electricity Sector"[31] N_{ew}ERA model report published using **AEO 2012** data
- December 3, 2012: NERA's "Macroeconomic Impacts of LNG Exports from the United States"[32] N_{ew}ERA model report published using **AEO 2011** data
- December 5, 2012: EIA's **AEO 2013** Early Release published[33]

NERA's October 2012 N_{ew}ERA report on regulations affecting the electricity sector used AEO 2012 data, but its December 2012 report on LNG exports used older, AEO 2011 data. Days after NERA's December 2012 release of its LNG analysis, EIA released its AEO 2013 data.

By choosing to use stale data in its report, NERA changed the outcome of its analysis in significant ways. There have been important changes to EIA's natural gas forecasts in each recent AEO release. Even between AEO 2011 (used in NERA's LNG analysis) and AEO 2012 (which was available but not used by NERA), projected domestic consumption, production, and export of

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28 EIA, Annual Energy Outlook 2011, 2011. http://www.eia.gov/forecasts/archive/aeo11/er/
29 EIA, *Annual Energy Outlook 2012 Early Release*, 2012. http://www.eia.gov/forecasts/archive/aeo12/er/
30 EIA, *Annual Energy Outlook 2012,* 2012. http://www.eia.gov/forecasts/aeo/pdf/0383(2012).pdf
31 David Harrison, et al., *Economic Implications of Recent and Anticipated EPA Regulations Affecting the Electricity Sector*, October 2012. http://www.nera.com/nera-files/PUB_ACCCE_1012.pdf
32 W. David Montgomery, et al., *Macroeconomic Impacts of LNG Exports from the United States*, December 2012. http://www.fossil.energy.gov/programs/gasregulation/reports/nera_lng_report.pdf
33 EIA, *Annual Energy Outlook 2013 Early Release*, 2013. http://www.eia.gov/forecasts/aeo/er/

natural gas rise, imports fall, and projected (Henry Hub) gas prices take a deeper drop in the next decades than previously predicted.

NERA's use of the older AEO 2011 data results in an underestimate of domestic demand for natural gas. The assumed level of domestic demand for natural gas is critical to NERA's modeling results; higher domestic demand—as predicted by more recent AEO data—would decrease the amount of natural gas available for export and would increase domestic prices. Domestic natural gas prices—both in the model's reference case baseline and its scenarios assuming LNG exports—are a key determinant of U.S. LNG's profitability in the global market.

7. Conclusions and policy recommendations

NERA's study of the macroeconomic impacts of LNG exports from the United States is incomplete, and several of its modeling choices appear to bias results towards a recommendation in favor of opening LNG exports. NERA's imagined future clashes with the obvious facts of economic life.

NERA's own modeling shows that LNG exports depress growth in the rest of the U.S. economy.

- NERA's results demonstrate that when LNG exports are opened, the size of the U.S. economy (excluding these export revenues) will shrink. An example helps to illustrate this point: In some cases, when LNG export revenues are $9 billion, GDP is $3 billion larger than in the no-export reference case. This means that GDP excluding gas exports has shrunk by almost $6 billion.
- Using a methodology adopted by NERA in other N_{ew}ERA analyses, job-equivalent losses from opening LNG exports can be estimated as ranging from 36,000 to 270,000 per year; the median scenario has an average job-equivalent loss of 131,000 per year.
- NERA's assumption that all income from LNG exports will return to U.S. residents is simply incorrect, and results in an overestimate of the benefits that will accrue to U.S.-based resource owners.
- Most American households do not own significant amounts of stock in general, and natural gas stocks represent just a tiny fraction of total stock ownership. The benefits to the typical American household from a booming gas industry are too small to measure.
- Higher prices for natural gas and electricity, and declining job prospects outside of the natural gas industry, would cause obvious harm to people throughout the country.
- NERA's export strategy would have the effect of maximizing short-run incomes at the expense of long-term economic stability. If NERA's export scenarios were to be carried out as federal policy, the result would be an acceleration of the decline of U.S. manufacturing and productivity, and an increased national dependence on raw material exports. Too strong of a dependence on resource exports—a problem often called the "resource curse" or the "Dutch disease"—can weaken the domestic manufacturing sector, even in a developed country.
- In the long run, it may prove more advantageous to nurture U.S. manufacture and export of value-added products made from our natural resources—even if it is not quite as

profitable in the short run. For example, surplus natural gas could be used to increase the U.S. manufacture and export of products, such as chemicals, that use natural gas as a raw material.

- The NERA Report has significant methodological issues. The proprietary N_{ew}ERA model is not available for examination by reviewers outside of NERA. The application of this type of closed-source model to U.S. federal policy decisions seems inappropriate.
- The limited documentation provided by NERA points to several unrealistic modeling assumptions, including: decision-makers' perfect foresight regarding future conditions; zero profits in the production of goods and services; no change to monetary policy, even in the face of economy-wide demand and supply shocks; and constraints on how much the U.S. balance of trade can shift in response to opening LNG exports.
- Full employment—also assumed in NERA's modeling—is not guaranteed, and nothing resembling full employment has occurred for quite a few years. At the writing of this white paper, the U.S. unemployment rate stood at 7.8 percent of the labor force (that is, of those actively employed or seeking work).[34] Furthermore, unemployed factory workers do not automatically get jobs in natural gas production, or in other industries.
- The NERA Report used outdated AEO 2011 data when AEO 2012 data were available. These older data underestimate U.S. domestic consumption of natural gas. Accurate modeling of domestic demand for natural gas is essential to making a creditable case for the benefits of opening LNG exports.

The Department of Energy is charged with determining whether or not approving applications—and thus opening U.S. borders—for LNG exports is in the public interest. At this important juncture in the development of U.S. export and resource extraction policy, a higher standard for data sources, methodology, and transparency of analysis is clearly required. Before designating LNG exports as beneficial to the U.S. public, the Department of Energy must fully exercise its due diligence by considering a far more complete macroeconomic analysis, including a detailed examination of distributional effects.

[34] December 2012 unemployment rate; U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, *Labor Force Statistics from the Current Population Survey*, Series ID: LNS14000000, Seasonal Unemployment Rate. http://data.bls.gov/timeseries/LNS14000000.

Appendix A

This appendix contains source information for Figure 2: Applicants for LNG Export Licenses.

Table A-1: Source information for Figure 3

Company	Status	Publicly traded?	Source	Quantity	FTA Applications (Docket Number)	Non-FTA Applications (Docket Number)
Golden Pass Products LLC	Foreign / Domestic	yes: XOM ExxonMobil	Golden Pass Products LLC is a joint venture between ExxonMobil Corp and Qatar Petroleum http://online.wsj.com/article/SB10000872396390444375104577595760678718068.html#articleTabs%3Darticle	2.6 Bcf/d(d)	Approved (12-88 -LNG)	Under DOE Review (12-156-LNG)
Lake Charles Exports, LLC	Foreign / Domestic	yes: SUG Southern Union Company, Foreign: BG Bg Group on London Stock Exchange	Lake Charles Exports LLC is a jointly owned subsidiary of Southern Union Company and BG Group http://www.fossil.energy.gov/programs/gasregulation/authorizations/2011_applications/11_59_lng.pdf	2.0 Bcf/d (e)	Approved (11-59-LNG)	Under DOE Review (11-59-LNG)
Freeport LNG Expansion, L.P. and FLNG Liquefaction, LLC (h)	Foreign / Domestic	Foreign: stock 9532:JP (Osaka Gas Co., Japan)	Osaka Gas's subsidiary Turbo LNG, LLC has a 10% stake in FLNG Development, which is a parent company for Freeport LNG Expansion, L.P, which in turn is a parent company of FLNG Liquafaction LP http://www.freeportlng.com/ownership.asp	1.4 Bcf/d (d)	Approved (12-06-LNG)	Under DOE Review (11-161-LNG)
Main Pass Energy Hub, LLC	Domestic	yes: MMR Freeport-MacMoRan Exploration Co.	Freeport-MacMoRan Exploration Co. owns a 50% stake in Main Pass Energy Hub, LLC http://www.fossil.energy.gov/programs/gasregulation/authorizations/2012_applications/12_114_lng.pdf	3.22 Bcf/d	Approved (12-114-LNG)	n/a
Gulf Coast LNG Export, LLC (i)	Domestic	privately held	97% owned by Michael Smit, 1.5 % each by trusts http://www.fossil.energy.gov/programs/gasregulation/authorizations/2012_applications/12_05_lng.pdf	2.8 Bcf/d(d)	Approved (12-05-LNG)	Under DOE Review (12-05-LNG)
Sabine Pass Liquefaction, LLC	Domestic	yes: CQP Cheniere Energy Partners L.P	Sabine Pass Liquefaction is a subsidiary of Cheniere Energy Partners L.P http://www.cheniereenergypartners.com/liquefaction_project/liquefaction_project.shtml	2.2 billion cubic feet per day (Bcf/d) (d)	Approved (10-85-LNG)	#N/A
Cheniere Marketing, LLC	Domestic	yes: LNG Cheniere Energy Inc.	Cheniere Marketing is a subsidiary of Cheniere Energy Inc. http://www.cheniere.com/corporate/about_us.shtml	2.1 Bcf/d(d)	Approved (12-99-LNG)	Under DOE Review (12-97-LNG)

Table A-1: Source information for Figure 3 (Continued)

Company	Status	Publicly traded?	Source	Quantity	FTA Applications (Docket Number)	Non-FTA Applications (Docket Number)
Cameron LNG, LLC	Domestic	yes: SRE Sempra Energy	Cameron LNG is a Sempra affiliate http://cameron.sempralng.com/about-us.html	1.7 Bcf/d (d)	Approved (11-145-LNG)	#N/A
Gulf LNG Liquefaction Company, LLC	Domestic	yes: KMI Kinder Morgan and GE General Electric (GE Energy Financial Services, a unit of GE)	KMI owns 50 pct stake in Gulf LNG Holdings http://www.kindermorgan.com/business/gas_pipelines/east/LNG/gulf.cfm. GE Energy Financial Services, directly and indirectly, controls its 50 percent stake in Gulf LNG http://www.geenergyfinancialservices.com/transactions/transactions.asp?transaction=transactions_archoldings.asp	1.5 Bcf/d(d)	Approved (12-47-LNG)	Under DOE Review (12-101-LNG)
Excelerate Liquefaction Solutions I, LLC	Foreign / Domestic	Foreign: stock RWE.DE domestic: privately held	Owned by Excelerate Liquefaction Solutions, source: http://www.gpo.gov/fdsys/pkg/FR-2012-12-06/html/2012-29475.htm . Those are owned by Excelerate Energy, LLC (same source). THAT is owned 50% by RWE Supply & Tradding and 50% by Mr. George B. Kaiser (an individual). George Kaiser is the American $10B George Kaiser: http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/George_Kaiser and http://excelerateenergy.com/about-us	1.38 Bcf/d(d)	Approved (12-61-LNG)	Under DOE Review (12-146-LNG)
LNG Development Company, LLC (d/b/a Oregon LNG)	Domestic	privately held	Owned by Oregon LNG source: http://www.gpo.gov/fdsys/pkg/FR-2012-12-06/html/2012-29475.htm	1.25 Bcf/d(d)	Approved (12-48-LNG)	Under DOE Review (12-77-LNG)
Dominion Cove Point LNG, LP	Domestic	yes: D Dominion	source: https://www.dom.com/business/gas-transmission/cove-point/index.jsp	1.0 Bcf/d (d)	Approved (11-115-LNG)	#N/A
Southern LNG Company, L.L.C.	Domestic	yes: KMI Kinder Morgan	KMI owns El Paso Pipeline Partners source: http://investor.eppipelinepartners.com/phoenix.zhtml?c=215819&p=irol-newsArticle&id=1624861 . El Paso Pipeline Partners owns El Paso Pipeline Partners Operating Company source: http://investing.businessweek.com/research/stocks/private/snapshot.asp?privcapId=46603039 . El Paso Pipeline Partners Operating Company owns Southern LNG page 2 of http://www.ferc.gov/whats-new/comm-meet/2012/051712/C-2.pdf	0.5 Bcf/d(d)	Approved (12-54-LNG)	Under DOE Review (12-100-LNG)

Table A-1: Source information for Figure 3 (Continued)

Company	Status	Publicly traded?	Source	Quantity	FTA Applications (Docket Number)	Non-FTA Applications (Docket Number)
Waller LNG Services, LLC	Domestic	privately held	Wholly owned by Waller Marine: http://www.marinelog.com/index.php?option=com_content&view=article&id=3196:waller-marine-to-develop-small-scale-lng-terminals&catid=1:latest-news . Waller Marine private: http://www.linkedin.com/company/waller-marine-inc.	0.16 Bcf/d	Approved (12-152-LNG)	n/a
SB Power Solutions Inc.	Domestic	yes: SEB Seaboard	p. 2 of http://www.fossil.energy.gov/programs/gasregulation/authorizations/Orders_Issued_2012/ord3105.pdf	0.07 Bcf/d	Approved (12-50-LNG)	#N/A
Carib Energy (USA) LLC	Domestic	privately held	http://companies.findthecompany.com/l/21346146/Carib-Energy-Usa-Llc-in-Coral-Springs-FL	0.03 Bcf/d: FTA 0.01 Bcf/d: non-FTA (f)	Approved (11-71-LNG)	#N/A

February 25, 2013

U.S. Department of Energy (FE–34)
Office of Natural Gas Regulatory Activities
Office of Fossil Energy
Forrestal Building, Room 3E-042
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Dear Secretary Chu:

We thank you and the Department of Energy's Office of Fossil Energy ("DOE/FE") for accepting these comments in reply to the initial comments submitted regarding on NERA Economic Consulting's study (the "NERA Study") of the macroeconomic impacts of liquefied natural gas ("LNG") export on the U.S. economy. We submit these reply comments on behalf the Sierra Club, including its Colorado, Kansas, Michigan, Oregon, Pennsylvania, Texas, and Wyoming Chapters; and on behalf of Catskill Citizens for Safe Energy, Center for Biological Diversity, Clean Air Council, Columbia Riverkeeper, Delaware Riverkeeper, Lower Susquehanna Riverkeeper, Shenandoah Riverkeeper, and Upper Green River Alliance.[1]

Having reviewed the initial comments other individuals and organizations submitted on the NERA Study, we stand by and reiterate the concerns raised in the Sierra Club's initial comment. The NERA Study concludes that LNG exports' primary effect will be to transfer wealth from the majority of Americans to the small minority of wealthy corporations that will own natural gas resources or LNG export infrastructure. The purported "net benefit" of this transfer, in NERA's view, is an increase in GDP that even NERA acknowledges is slight. Thus, taken at face value, the NERA Study shows that exports will be *contrary* to the public interest, by any reasonable interpretation of the term.

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[1] We have submitted these comments and exhibits electronically, a procedure confirmed as acceptable by Larine Moore at DOE/FE today.

DOE/FE must not, however, take the NERA Study on its own terms. Even on the narrow issue of net GDP impacts, the NERA Study's conclusion is contradicted by the only other available comprehensive model of LNG exports' impacts, conducted recently by Purdue University economists Kemal Sarica and Wallace E. Tyner.[2] This independent study provides credible evidence undermining the NERA Study's sole finding of a public benefit. More broadly, the NERA Study's focus on net GDP impacts is too narrow in scope, and the NERA Study contains numerous errors, as we explained in our initial filing. The Natural Gas Act public interest inquiry must consider numerous issues ignored by NERA, including the way that increased gas production necessary to supply exports will cause harmful environmental impacts and disrupt communities where gas production occurs. These effects have economic aspects that could have been, but were not, included in the macroeconomic study. On a more technical level, NERA understates the potential volume of exports and domestic gas price increases. These price increases will merely transfer wealth from ordinary Americans and domestic businesses to the relatively few owners of natural gas companies and to foreign investors. Consideration of these additional impacts reinforces the Purdue Study's conclusion that the likely net effect of LNG exports will be a *decrease* in United States GDP, rather than the slight increase NERA predicts.

Nor may DOE/FE sidestep its public interest review obligations on the basis of free trade arguments advanced by other commenters. DOE/FE has a statutory obligation to consider the public interest; trade concerns, if they are considered at all, must be evaluated within this context and balanced against other aspects of the public interest. Moreover, export proponents have not shown that denying export applications would be inconsistent with the U.S.'s obligations under the General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade (GATT) or with underlying free trade principles. GATT recognizes countries' authority to restrict trade when necessary to protect human health or the environment or to conserve exhaustible natural resources. DOE/FE cannot conclude that free trade concerns weigh in favor of exports without exploring the extent to which these provisions apply here.

Finally, we reiterate our concerns regarding DOE/FE's process, both with the NERA Study itself and with respect to export authorization more generally. We previously explained the reasons why NERA's objectivity is suspect, and

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[2] *See* Kemal Sarica & Wallace E. Tyner, *Economic and Environmental Impacts of Increased US Exports of Natural Gas* (Purdue Univ., Working Paper, 2013) (available from the authors) [hereinafter Purdue Study].

DOE/FE still has not provided important information regarding the process by which NERA was selected or work was assigned. Nor has DOE/FE provided the details of NERA's NewERA model or other information necessary to allow external validation of the NERA Study's assessment. As to DOE/FE's own process, DOE/FE has provided inadequate information regarding how it will evaluate the public interest in individual applications, or the steps DOE/FE will take to monitor the impacts of exports if and when exports to non-free trade agreement countries are authorized. Failing to provide this information during the period for public comment on the NERA Study frustrates the purposes of FOIA, the Natural Gas Act, and general principles of administrative law, because withholding of this information limits the public's ability to assess and comment on the relevant documents.

In summary, LNG exports will have many effects that are not considered by the NERA report but are contrary to the public interest. The record contains abundant information demonstrating that these impacts will be significant, as we explain in further detail below.[3] DOE/FE cannot move forward without considering them.

I. DOE/FE Cannot Approve Applications without Considering The Environment, Employment/Job Losses, and Other Aspects of The Public Interest Not Examined by The NERA Study

Several commenters request that, now that the NERA Study is complete, DOE/FE immediately approve pending export applications without additional process.[4] DOE/FE must reject these requests. As DOE/FE has acknowledged elsewhere and as Sierra Club has explained in other filings, the scope of the public interest inquiry extends beyond the macroeconomic factors discussed by the NERA

[3] The Center for Liquefied Natural Gas asserts that DOE has already decided that there is no evidence about exports being contrary to the public interest. Comment of Center for Liquefied Natural Gas at 4. This is obviously incorrect. The Center for Liquefied Natural Gas quotes two-year old DOE/FE statements, in an order conditionally authorizing exports from Sabine Pass LNG, where DOE/FE explained that in the record before it in that case at that time, there was insufficient evidence to indicate that the exports proposed there would be contrary to the public interest. DOE/FE is now facing a vastly different factual record and an order of magnitude more proposed exports. As such, these statements have no bearing here.

[4] *See, e.g.*, Comment of Freeport LNG Expansion, L.P. and FLNG Liquefaction, LLC.

Study.[5] Among other things, DOE/FE must consider proposed exports' impacts on the environment, employment, and communities in which production will occur.

A. Environmental Impacts

Exports will induce additional gas production. EIA and most other commenters predict that between 60 and 70% of the volume of gas exported will be sourced from production that would not have otherwise occurred; EIA's best estimate is that 63% of exported gas will be from induced production.[6] DOE/FE must reject the American Petroleum Institute's nonsensical argument that DOE/FE may ignore the effects of this production "because natural gas development using hydraulic fracturing is occurring and will continue to occur across the country regardless of whether a single additional export authorization is ever granted."[7] We agree that *some* production increases are likely to occur regardless of whether exports are approved, but this is irrelevant to DOE/FE's obligation to consider the effects of the *additional* or marginal increase in production that will result from exports. Indeed, American Petroleum Institute itself argues that exports will increase production.[8] American Petroleum Institute offers no explanation as to why it believes DOE should consider production increases in the context of jobs but not in the context of environmental impacts.

As Sierra Club's initial comment explained, the additional production that exports will induce will have significant environmental impacts.[9] These impacts will be particularly severe if that production is conducted in accordance with current industry practice and lax regulatory frameworks. The Secretary of Energy Advisory Board (SEAB)'s subcommittee on shale gas identified a number of gaps in existing regulations and industry practice, and few, if any, of these gaps have been filled.[10]

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[5] *Accord* Comment of the American Public Gas Association at 7, Comment of Dow Chemical Company at 2.
[6] EIA Study at 10.
[7] Comment of American Petroleum Institute at 22-23.
[8] *Id.* at 5.
[9] Comment of Sierra Club at 29-52.
[10] Comment of Sierra Club at Ex. 56 (DOE, Shale Gas Production Subcommittee First 90-Day Report (2012)).

The environmental impacts of gas production, and of the failure to regulate it, must be factored into assessment of exports' net and distributional impacts. In terms of net impacts, the economic cost of environmental harm, such as the cost of increased air emissions, erodes (if not entirely erases) the net benefit NERA purports to find. Although DOE/FE cannot limit its consideration of environmental impacts to those that are easily monetizable, DOE/FE must, at a minimum, apply available tools to estimate the economic impacts of environmental harms. For example, under the USREF_SD_LR scenario, NERA predicts 2.19 tcf/y of exports in 2035, with a $2 billion GDP increase relative to the baseline.[11] Using EIA estimates of the share of exports that will result from induced production (63%) and EPA's current estimate of the leak rate for gas production (2.4%), the Sierra Club estimated that 2.19 tcf/y of exports will release an additional 689,000 tons of methane into the atmosphere each year.[12] Using a conservative global warming potential for methane of 25 and EPA's social cost of carbon price of $25/ton, the social cost of the production-side methane emissions alone will be $430,625,000,[13] displacing more than 20% of the GDP increase NERA predicts under this scenario. Liquefaction and processing of natural gas further adds to greenhouse gas emissions. Other environmental impacts also impose monetizable costs, which must be added to any calculation of net impacts and thus further erase the claimed benefit. Moreover, as we explain below, the Purdue Study indicates that NERA has overstated the likely GDP benefit, such that even if environmental costs are excluded from consideration, the net GDP impact of exports would be negative. If those studies are correct, acknowledging environmental impacts makes a bad deal even worse.

Environmental impacts also aggravate the distributional inequity predicted by the NERA study. Environmental costs are borne by the public at large. Providing a market for increased gas production therefore effectively transfers wealth from the public, which suffers environmental harm as a result of increased production, to the production companies, which realize profits from this production. This effective wealth transfer must be considered in addition to the purely monetary wealth transfer identified by NERA.

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[11] *Compare* NERA Study at 179 *with* Comment of Sierra Club, Ex. 56 at 186.

[12] *See* Comment of Sierra Club at 31-32 for methodology.

[13] *I.e.,* (25)(25)($689,000). For more background on these estimates, *see* Comment of Sierra Club at 33-34.

In light of gas production's environmental impacts, even some export proponents have argued that the environmental impacts of gas production must be reduced before exports occur. Notably, a report by Michael Levi of the Brookings Institution concludes that the benefits of gas exports outweigh the risks and costs *if* "proper steps are taken to protect the environment."[14] Levi concludes that "environmental risks arising from natural gas production would . . . rise due to new production for exports," and that safe management of these risks would not happen without further action.[15] Levi recommended that, for a start, the environmental practices recommended by the SEAB should be required prior to exports.[16] In this proceeding, the Bipartisan Policy Center explicitly endorses Levi's argument, arguing that exports will be in the public interest only if environmental impacts are addressed.[17] Numerous other commenters, however, cite Levi's study for the purported conclusion that exports will be in the public interest without acknowledging Levi's qualification that environmental impacts must be addressed first.[18] Sierra Club disagrees with Levi's conclusion that exports will be in the public interest provided that gas production is more carefully regulated. At a minimum, however, DOE/FE must reject any implication that Levi's report indicates that exports would further the public interest even if production occurs under the status quo.

Moreover, although regulations that limit gas production's environmental impacts may increase the cost of production and thus gas prices, such price increases have a markedly different impact on the public interest than price increases caused by demand for exports. What the public "buys" when it experiences a price increase attributable to environmental regulation is increased environmental protection that would otherwise have been caused by production of the gas being used. Regulation also avoids emergency cleanup, public health care, and emergency costs resulting from environmental harm related to drilling, ultimately saving public tax dollars. In contrast, when prices increase because of exports, the public doesn't receive anything in exchange for paying increased prices. Indeed, whereas higher prices resulting from less environmentally destructive practices lessen the environmental impacts borne by the public,

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[14] Michael Levi, *A Strategy For U.S. Natural Gas Exports*, at 6 (June 2012), available at http://www.hamiltonproject.org/files/downloads_and_links/06_exports_levi.pdf and attached here as exhibit 1.

[15] *Id.*

[16] *Id.* at 21.

[17] Comment of Bipartisan Policy Center at 2.

[18] *See, e.g.*, Comment of American Petroleum Institute at 15.

higher prices resulting from competition with exports increase the environmental harm the public suffers, by stimulating increases in overall production and consumption and thus increases in environmental impacts such as emissions of greenhouse gases and traditional air pollutants. Similarly, when the public pays for price increases in response to purely domestic demand growth, the public "buys" the benefits of a strong manufacturing industry, but when prices increase because of export, the public receives no analogous benefit.

Thus, DOE/FE must consider the environmental impacts of exports, including the effects of induced gas production and of liquefaction, in its assessment of the public interest. DOE/FE must consider the alternative of withholding approval of export authorizations until additional regulation—such as that recommended by the SEAB—is in place to ameliorate these impacts.[19] Even under such an alternative, however, DOE/FE would need to consider the effects of remaining environmental impacts, which, though diminished, would still weigh against the public interest.

B. Employment and Job Losses

LNG export proponents and opponents generally agree that exports will have significant effects on domestic employment and that employment effects are a key component of the public interest, but that the NERA Study did not directly consider this issue.

There is an apparent consensus among informed observers that if exports are approved, there will be additional jobs in the fields of gas production and terminal construction, but that the resulting increase in gas prices will eliminate

[19] Contrary to American Petroleum Institute's contention, DOE/FE plainly has authority to deny export applications on the basis of environmental impacts. Comment of American Petroleum Institute at 23. American Petroleum Institute rests on *Department of Transportation v. Public Citizen,* 541 U.S. 751 (2004). *Public Citizen* held that "where an agency has *no ability* to prevent a certain effect due to its limited statutory authority over the relevant actions, the agency cannot be considered a legally relevant 'cause' of the effect," and that the effect could be excluded from NEPA analysis. *Id.* at 770 (emphasis added). There, where the agency had "no discretion to prevent the entry of Mexican trucks, its [environmental assessment] did not need to consider the environmental effects arising from the entry." *Id.* Here, DOE/FE unquestionably has the authority and duty to consider environmental impacts in its public interest analysis, the authority to deny export authorization on the basis of environmental impacts, and thereby to prevent the environmental harms associated with induced production. Accordingly, *Public Citizen* does not support American Petroleum Institute's argument.

jobs in other industries, such as manufacturing, that are highly energy dependent. The NERA Study acknowledges both of these effects.[20] NERA did not, however, provide a sufficient analysis of their absolute or relative magnitudes. As the Synapse Report provided by Sierra Club explained, because of the NewERA model's assumption of full employment, "the potential economic impact that is of the greatest interest to many policymakers, namely the effects of increased LNG exports on jobs, cannot be meaningfully studied with NERA's model."[21] Numerous export proponents also criticize the NERA Study's assumption of full employment.[22] Accordingly, DOE/FE cannot approve the pending export applications without conducting a study capable of examining the job creation or destruction impacts of LNG exports.

If DOE/FE were to make a decision on the available evidence, DOE/FE would have to conclude that LNG exports will cause a severe net *decrease* in domestic jobs. As Sierra Club explained in its initial comment, although the NERA Study did not directly assess job impacts, it attempted to predict impacts on aggregate labor income, and these predictions can be used to evaluate gain or loss in "job equivalents."[23] Considering the increase in labor income in sectors benefited by exports (gas production and terminal construction) and the decrease in labor income in other sectors, NERA predicted a loss of labor income equivalent to 36,000 to 270,000 jobs per year.[24] This is the only economy-wide discussion of job impacts in the record, and it provides a strong indication that exports would be contrary to the public interest.

Although many export applicants have provided studies purporting to show job growth, none of these studies attempts to account for decrease in employment in the industries that will be negatively affected by increased gas prices. For example, in its initial comments, Golden Pass Products disputes the NERA Study's conclusion that "'higher energy costs do create a small drag on economic output in the U.S. so that total worker compensation declines.'"[25] Golden Pass Products' basis for disputing this conclusion is the contention that its own export proposal would generate "tens of thousands of direct and indirect jobs across the U.S." as a result of construction and operation of the needed export facility and

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[20] NERA Study at 60-61, 65.
[21] Comment of Sierra Club at Ex. 5, 15.
[22] *See, e.g.*, Comments of Cameron LNG at 12, Cheniere Energy at 5, ExxonMobil at 2.
[23] Comment of Sierra Club at 8, Ex. 5, 4-5.
[24] *Id*.
[25] Comment of Golden Pass Products at 3 (quoting NERA Study at 77).

production of the gas required for export.[26] But Golden Pass Products and the economic study it relies on are completely silent as to the countervailing effects of jobs lost in other industries as a result of increased gas prices. Accordingly, the study Golden Pass Products submitted provides no basis for DOE/FE to conclude that exports will result in net job growth. As Sierra Club has explained in the individual dockets for other pending export applications, all of the studies applicants have submitted regarding employment impacts suffer this defect.[27]

Finally, DOE/FE must reject the various assertions that jobs in terminal and liquefaction facility construction provide a substitute for lost manufacturing jobs.[28] It is possible that, from the perspective of an individual employee, the two may be comparable on a short term basis,[29] but it is extraordinarily unlikely that the number of facility construction jobs created will equal the number of manufacturing jobs lost. This is especially true over the 20-year lifetime of the export authorizations requested, because facility construction jobs are by nature temporary and will span only the beginning few years of the exports.

The NERA Study's failure to consider job impacts is a glaring gap in the public interest analysis, and DOE/FE must address this gap before approving any of the pending export applications. The best evidence in the existing record regarding net job impacts, however, is Sierra Club's application of NERA's own "job equivalent" methodology to the NERA Study's labor income forecasts, and this evidence strongly indicates that the volumes of exports considered by the NERA study will cost between 36,000 and 270,000 jobs annually.

C. Resource Extraction Hurts, Rather than Benefits, The Communities in which It Occurs

On a macroeconomic level, exports will increase output of the gas production industry while reducing output of many manufacturing and other energy intensive industries. Similarly, in terms of aggregate employment figures, exports will create some jobs in gas extraction but eliminate jobs in other industries. It is therefore understandable for the NERA Study and many

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[26] *Id.* at 4.

[27] The job creation arguments submitted by export applicants suffer numerous additional flaws, as Sierra Club has explained in the individual dockets.

[28] *See, e.g.*, Comment of American Petroleum Institute at 5-6.

[29] Of course, even a shift between comparable jobs could have a net adverse effect on the public interest, due to the social and economic costs of displacing workers.

commenters to approach the public interest analysis by examining whether the benefits realized by increased gas production outweigh the costs felt by other industries, whether these costs and benefits are measured in industry profits or jobs supported.

On a community level, however, it would be inappropriate for DOE/FE to conduct a simplistic comparison of the "benefits" of increased production and the harms of reduced energy intensive industry. Empirical evidence indicates that in the long term, resource extraction hurts, rather than helps, the communities in which it occurs.[30] Many individuals living in communities currently experiencing America's shale gas boom submitted initial comments on the NERA Study testifying to the degradation their communities have experienced as a result of shale gas extraction. DOE/FE must ensure that the infrastructure costs, population declines, and other symptoms of the "resource curse" that often affects these communities are accounted for in whatever framework DOE/FE ultimately uses to assess the public interest. The NERA Study is not up to this task.

II. Price Impacts

Turning to questions the NERA Study purports to answer, the effects of LNG exports on domestic gas prices are a key aspect of the Natural Gas Act's public interest inquiry. Sierra Club previously explained that the NERA Study understates the potential magnitude of these increases, and comments from other entities support Sierra Club's argument on this point. Industry commenters further support the conclusion that exports, if approved, are likely to ramp up quickly, risking domestic price spikes.

A. LNG Exports Will Raise Domestic Gas Prices Without Providing Corresponding Social or Environmental Benefits

As a threshold issue, all available evidence indicates that exports will increase gas prices. DOE/FE therefore must reject assertions by some export proponents, such as the American Exploration and Production Council, that the demand created by exports is necessary to avoid a decline in production that would lead

[30] Comment of Sierra Club at 13-25.

to even greater price increases.[31] No study or modeling submitted by export applicants supports this argument. Instead, every model and forecast that compares future worlds with and without U.S. LNG exports concludes that U.S. gas prices will be higher with exports, and that prices will increase as export volumes increase. Indeed, even the American Exploration and Production Council apparently endorses the NERA Study's price forecasts—which predict that exports will increase prices relative to a baseline future without exports—on the page prior to the group's assertion that exports will lower prices.

B. The NERA Study Overstates Potential Market Limits on Exports, and Thus Underestimates The Potential Ceiling on Domestic Price Increases

The NERA Study concludes price increases will be self-limiting because exports will only make economic sense when regasified U.S. LNG can be had in receiving markets for less than the cost of alternative supplies. In other words, the spread between prices in the U.S. and receiving markets must be greater than the cost of liquefying, transporting, and re-gasifying LNG. Thus, the NERA Study concludes that there will be a market ceiling on the extent to which exports can cause domestic gas prices to rise: exports should drive U.S. prices above the highest price in a receiving market minus the price of transporting gas to that market. The NERA Study explains that at present, the highest priced markets are Japan and Korea, and that the total costs to deliver gas to Asian markets are $6.89/MMBtu to China and India and $6.64/MMBtu to Korea and Japan.[32]

For reasons Sierra Club previously explained, the NERA Study's projected ceiling on domestic prices is too low. First, NERA overstates transportation costs. The NERA Study assumes that all U.S. export terminals will be in the Gulf Coast, and estimates transportation costs accordingly. Two facilities, however, have been proposed for the West Coast. One of these, proposed by Jordan Cove Energy Project, filed comments explaining that its transportation costs to Japan were significantly lower than those assumed by the NERA Study. Although Jordan Cove Energy Project would face higher facility construction and thus liquefaction costs than Gulf Coast facilities, Jordan Cove asserts that, in aggregate, its total processing and transportation costs will be $0.44/MMBtu

[31] Comment of American Exploration and Production Council at 2.
[32] NERA Study at 90, Figure 62 (figures here exclude the "Regas to city gate pipeline cost").

lower than the estimates used by NERA.[33] Accordingly, insofar as the cost of processing and transporting LNG sets the ceiling on price increases resulting from exports, that ceiling could be $0.44/MMBtu higher than the NERA Study estimates. $0.44/MMBtu represents roughly 5 to 10% of NERA's predicted 2035 wellhead gas prices, meaning NERA may have significantly underestimated the price range within which exports will occur.[34]

Another factor that causes the NERA Study to underestimate the potential volume of exports, and thus the magnitude of price increases, is the failure to acknowledge the effects of "take or pay" contracts. Under these contracts, importers agree to pay a fee to reserve terminal capacity regardless of whether that capacity is actually used to liquefy and export gas. These contracts are generally for the full term of the export authorization, *i.e.*, 20 years. Various foreign commenters state that they have already entered these long-term contracts with export applicants.[35] Accordingly, these importers have already sunk a portion of the cost of liquefaction, and could minimize or disregard this cost when deciding whether to import gas once facilities enter operation.

C. Exports Will Likely Increase Domestic Gas Price Volatility

Numerous commenters have argued that exports will decrease gas price volatility, but the available evidence indicates that, if anything, exports may lead to an increase in volatility as a surge in exports ramps up quickly.

There is reason to think that exports will *increase* domestic gas price volatility in the short term. Both EIA and the NERA Study found the highest increases in domestic gas prices in scenarios in which exports were phased in rapidly. Numerous export proponents have argued that it is imperative that the U.S. move quickly to establish exports before other sources of gas come online.[36] These other competitive sources of gas could be expanded LNG export operations from other countries such as Australia or Canada, development of additional international pipeline capacity, or development of unconventional gas reserves in countries that would otherwise seek to import US LNG. In light of these statements about the need and intention to proceed quickly, it is quite

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[33] Comment of Jordan Cove Energy Project at 2.
[34] NERA Study at 50.
[35] Comment of Japan Gas Assoc. (explaining that Japanese firms already have a take-or-pay agreement with Freeport LNG and are close to concluding a similar agreement with Dominion).
[36] Comment of Freeport LNG Expansion, L.P. and FLNG Liquefaction, LLC.

possible that exports will ramp up as quickly as DOE/FE allows. If this happens, demand may increase more rapidly than production, leading to periods of increased scarcity and price spikes, as the EIA predicts.[37]

On the other hand, there is little evidence, if any, that exports will meaningfully reduce volatility. Export applicants have argued that increasing stable gas demand resulting from exports will induce domestic production and provide for a broader, less volatile market.[38] The Institute for 21st Century Energy, for example, argues that gas prices were particularly volatile when Congress limited consumption of gas by industrial and electricity generating users, and that volatility was reduced once these sectors began consuming gas.[39] Even if exports do not occur, however, these sectors will present exactly the type of demand growth that exports would provide. Gas prices are already expected to rise due to increasing consumption in the industrial and electricity sectors, and allowing exports would drive prices up further. Accordingly, to the extent that exports might marginally reduce volatility, they would do so by resulting in higher, if slightly more stable, gas prices.

Fundamentally, even if exports reduce volatility, this effect is almost certain to be less important than overall increases in price. Any reduction in volatility will be the result of raising prices to eliminate troughs. On the available record, DOE/FE cannot conclude that any such effect will meaningfully benefit the public interest.

D. Use of Updated Annual Energy Outlook Demand and Supply Forecasts

As Sierra Club and many others noted in the initial comments, the NERA Study used outdated predictions of domestic natural gas demand, relying on the EIA's 2011 Annual Energy Outlook instead of the 2012 data available at the time NERA undertook the study or the early release 2013 forecast. Greater baseline demand generally entails greater price increases for any given level of exports. Other commenters counter that, although more recent Annual Energy Outlooks forecast higher domestic demand, they also forecast baseline higher domestic production, which would generally tend to lower the price increase caused by any given volume of exports.

[37] *Accord*, Comment of Dow Chemical Corp. at 5, 16.
[38] *See, e.g.*, Comment of Center for Liquefied Natural Gas, 15.
[39] Comment of Institute for 21st Century Energy, 2-3.

In light of the significant changes between the 2011 and 2013 Annual Energy Outlooks, DOE/FE should revisit the price impacts analysis. We recognize that new data and forecasts will regularly be released, such that there are limits to DOE/FE's ability to always use the *most* current information. In light of the importance of this issue and the availability of newer data during the period in which the NERA Study was conducted, however, NERA's decision to rely on the 2011 Annual Energy Outlook is unreasonable.

E. Conclusion Regarding Price Impacts

As we explain above and in prior comments, LNG exports will increase domestic gas prices, and the price increases rise with export volumes. The NERA Study overestimates the costs of moving gas to foreign markets and disregards the long-term nature of export agreements, leading NERA to understate potential export volumes. NERA therefore underestimates potential domestic gas price increases. The following section discusses the effects increased prices will have on the domestic economy.

III. Macroeconomic Impacts

The NERA Study's conclusions regarding macroeconomic impacts are stark: exports will decrease household incomes for the majority of Americans, effectively transferring wealth from low and middle class families to gas production companies and owners of liquefaction infrastructure. These deleterious effects are corroborated by the Purdue Study, which found similar impacts. Notwithstanding these distributional effects, the NERA Study concluded that exports would be a net benefit to the U.S. because the benefits realized by gas companies would create a slight overall increase in GDP. This conclusion is undermined by the Purdue Study, which concludes that exports will cause a net decrease in GDP.

As explained in Sierra Club's initial comment, the distributional effects of LNG exports are resoundingly contrary to the public interest; there are multiple reasons to doubt the NERA Study's conclusion regarding aggregate GDP impacts; and even if NERA were correct about effects on the overall GDP, an increase in GDP does not itself demonstrate furtherance of the public interest. These arguments are generally supported by the initial comments submitted by other parties.

A. Exports Will Transfer Wealth from Middle and Low Income Families to Gas Production and Exporting Companies

The NERA Study concluded that Americans who do not own stock in companies involved in gas production or LNG export—*i.e.*, the overwhelming majority of Americans—will be made worse off by exports. None of the initial comments on the NERA Study call this conclusion into question. This regressive redistribution of wealth is highly detrimental to the public interest.

In an apparent attempt to minimize the impact of this effect, the NERA Study argues that the benefits realized by gas production companies are realized by "consumers" generally, because "[c]onsumers own all production processes and industries by virtue of owning stock in them."[40] As Sierra Club explained, however, only about half of American families own any stock at all, and only a small subset of stock owners own stocks in the gas production companies that will benefit from exports.[41]

Moreover, many of the economic benefits of exports will not accrue to U.S. residents. Sierra Club's initial comment demonstrated extensive foreign investment in U.S. liquefaction capacity.[42] Japan's Osaka Gas and Chubu Electric utilities provide additional evidence on this point, expressing their belief that foreign investors (presumably including these companies) will make significant additional investments in U.S. liquefaction facilities.[43] A result of these investments will be that, contrary to the NERA Study's assumptions, a share of the profits realized by liquefaction operators will accrue to foreign investors.[44] Moreover, while Sierra Club's initial comment only discussed foreign ownership in the context of liquefaction and terminal facilities, other commenters demonstrate that foreign entities are also investing directly in natural gas production. India's GMR Energy Limited notes that Indian companies have already taken stakes in production of Marcellus and Eagle Ford Shales.[45] Foreign investment rebuts the NERA Study's assumption that profits from gas production will accrue solely to U.S. consumers.

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[40] NERA Study at 55 n.22.
[41] Comment of Sierra Club at Ex. 5, 9-10.
[42] *Id.*
[43] Comment of Chubu Electric Power Co.
[44] *See* Comment of Sierra Club at Ex. 5, 9.
[45] Comment of GMR Energy Limited.

B. The NERA Study Understates Exports' Effects on Domestic Industry and Is Overly Optimistic about Changes in Gross Domestic Product

Contrary to the NERA Study's conclusions, it is unlikely that LNG exports will increase GDP.

Although the NERA Study concludes that LNG exports will slightly increase GDP, this conclusion is contradicted by the recent independent Purdue Study.[46] Purdue's Prof. Tyner submitted a summary of this study as an initial comment, and Sierra Club discussed this work previously. The Purdue Study concludes that aggregate effects on GDP will be negative, although the two studies agree that in absolute terms, effects will be small. The Purdue Study explains that its results differ from the NERA Study's because the former predicts larger price increases as a result of exports, and thus larger declines in energy intensive sectors.[47] The Purdue Study is built on publicly available models and was conducted by independent researchers, making it every bit as credible as the NERA Study. Accordingly, DOE/FE cannot simply credit the NERA Study's conclusion that exports will provide a slight increase in GDP as a basis for concluding that exports are in the public interest.

Furthermore, both the NERA and Purdue Studies ignore many effects that will lower overall GDP. The Purdue Study acknowledges this omission, explaining that both its analysis and the analysis used in the NERA Study understate the impacts on energy intensive industries such as manufacturing, because these domestic industries' success depends not just on their energy costs, but also on the relative difference between what domestic industry must pay for gas and energy and what foreign competitors pay. Because LNG exports will likely simultaneously raise domestic energy costs while lowering foreign costs, exports will inhibit domestic industry's ability to compete in a global marketplace. Nor does either analysis account for the environmental harms, "resource curse" effects, or other issues described in part I, above.

We also reiterate our concerns—shared by Congressman Markey, Dow Chemical, and other commenters—about the NERA Study's modeling (or lack thereof) of effects on other industries.[48] Sector-specific modeling of exports'

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[46] *See supra* n.2.
[47] Purdue Study, *supra* n.2, at 4.
[48] Comment of Sierra Club, Ex. 5, 5-6.

impacts can be reasonably obtained, but the NERA Study does not provide this analysis. The NERA Study asserts that adversely affected industries are not "high value-added," but does not support this assertion by modeling the systemic impacts of impacts to these industries. The NERA Study further assumes that industries in which energy expenditures constitute less than 5% of total costs will not be significantly adversely affected by exports,[49] but it appears that other industries may likely be affected.

In light of these concerns, this is another area in which DOE/FE should seek to ground its public interest analysis in empirical work, including case studies. As Alcoa suggests in its comments, Australia's recent experience with LNG export can provide a useful starting point for analysis. Alcoa states that domestic gas prices in Western Australia, which currently exports LNG, are at least double U.S. prices, despite extensive Australian natural gas resources.[50] We encourage DOE/FE to investigate the Australian experience with LNG export for calibration of, or in addition to, use of economic models and forecasting, before deciding whether to approve LNG export proposals.

IV. Trade

Numerous commenters invoke the United States' obligations under the General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade (GATT), as well as an underlying commitment to free trade principles, as grounds for approving LNG exports. DOE/FE's statutory obligation is to determine whether exports are in the public interest, and trade considerations, assuming they apply at all, are merely one factor DOE/FE can consider in this analysis. Insofar as trade issues are pertinent, we note that commenters have overstated the extent to which denying export applications would conflict with trade policy. Even if there is a conflict, however, free trade arguments at most factor into, and do not displace, the public interest inquiry required by the Natural Gas Act.

The GATT preserves the United States' authority to restrict LNG exports in these circumstances. Specifically, the GATT states:

[49] *See, e.g.*, NERA Study at 68.
[50] Comment of Alcoa, 2, 4

> [N]othing in this Agreement shall be construed to prevent the adoption or enforcement . . . of measures: . . . (b) necessary to protect human, animal or plant life or health; [or] . . . (g) relating to the conservation of exhaustible natural resources if such measures are made effective in conjunction with restrictions on domestic production or consumption.[51]

As explained above and in prior comments, exports will cause significant harm to human health and the environment. Under the Natural Gas Act, DOE/FE can and should deny export applications on this ground. In light of GATT's explicit recognition of signatories' power to restrict exports in these circumstances, DOE/FE must reject the assertion that denying export authorizations would violate the United States' GATT obligations.

Even if denying applications could potentially brush against free trade principles, this would be at most just one factor to consider in the public interest analysis. Congress has commanded DOE/FE to evaluate proposals for exports to countries lacking a bilateral free trade agreement on a case by case basis. If DOE/FE were to categorically determine that all exports to WTO nations were consistent with the public interest DOE/FE would, among other errors, disregard the Congressional command to engage in case-by-case inquiry and thereby fail to give effect to the terms of the governing statute. Under the existing statutory framework DOE/FE can, at most, attempt to assess on a case-by-case basis whether the benefits of adherence to free trade principles in that particular case, together with other factors furthering the public interest, outweigh the effects that will be contrary to the public interest.

V. DOE/FE Process

Finally, we have a number of concerns regarding the process by which DOE/FE has addressed the question of whether to authorize LNG exports, as well as the process DOE/FE will use going forward.

As the above concerns amply demonstrate, in making its public interest determinations regarding individual export proposals, DOE/FE must confront a

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[51] General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade, Oct. 30, 1947, 61 Stat. A-11, 55 U.N.T.S. 194 at Art. XX.

wide range of issues addressed inadequately, if at all, by the NERA Study. We join with other commenters, including Dow Chemical Corporation, in requesting that DOE/FE explicitly articulate the framework it will use in making these determinations. Development of this framework would most sensibly take place in the context of a separate rulemaking.

Similarly, we remind DOE/FE that it must consider the cumulative environmental, economic, and other impacts of LNG exports; DOE/FE cannot consider individual applications in isolation. Regarding environmental impacts, the best way to consider these impacts is through preparation of a programmatic environmental impact statement (EIS), pursuant to the National Environmental Policy Act, 42 U.S.C § 4332(c). Whether conducted under the auspices of a programmatic EIS or otherwise, DOE/FE cannot approve any individual application until it has considered the cumulative impacts of all foreseeable applications. Although export proponents have argued that only a subset of proposed export projects are likely to be constructed, DOE/FE may not decline to consider the impacts of all pending proposals on that basis. Moreover, DOE/FE must recognize that the mere existence of a proposal or authorization of exports has immediate effects on energy markets and dependent industries, as other players adjust their expectations regarding the potential for exports. DOE/FE must acknowledge that authorization of a proposal has important effects even if that authorization is not put to use.

DOE/FE should also articulate the standards it will use in retaining jurisdiction over exports after they are approved. In the Sabine Pass proceeding, DOE/FE stated that it would continue to exercise jurisdiction over the approved exports, and would revisit the authorization if subsequent events demonstrated that exports had become contrary to the public interest.[52] If DOE/FE wrongly concludes that exports are in the public interest now, DOE/FE should nonetheless provide examples of the types and severity of circumstances that would cause DOE/FE to revisit this determination and revoke approval.[53]

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[52] DOE/FE Order No. 2961 at 31-33.

[53] DOE/FE's ongoing supervisory authority is not a substitute for making a proper initial public interest evaluation. DOE/FE must reject the Center for Liquefied Natural Gas's apparent suggestion that DOE/FE approve the pending applications now without attempting to predict their consequences, with the plan of taking action once adverse impacts manifest themselves. Comment of Center for Liquefied Natural Gas, 6. The Center for Liquefied Natural Gas asserts that "The role of the regulator is . . . not to be a predictor of future events," and that DOE should not "predict future events," presumably meaning price increases and effects on the American

Finally, we reiterate our concerns about the lack of transparency regarding DOE/FE's selection of NERA, as well as the quality of the NERA Study itself. As Sierra Club previously explained, NERA in general, and study author Dr. Montgomery in particular, have a history of activities that raises serious questions about their objectivity. These questions are made even more pertinent by the dearth of information regarding DOE/FE's solicitation and selection of NERA and the modeling and data used by NERA in generating this study, including information regarding the underlying NewERA model. DOE/FE has refused to make this information available for review during the public comment period.[54] For a study of this importance, however, DOE should have provided this information in order to support full public participation and rigorous peer review, and to inspire public trust in the study's conclusions.

VI. Conclusion

Exports will cause severe environmental harms, eliminate more jobs than they create, disrupt communities with the boom/bust cycle of resource production, redistribute wealth from the lower and middle classes to wealthy owners of gas production companies, and have broad effects on the output of various sectors of the American economy. The NERA Study disregards nearly all of these considerations in concluding that exports will be a "net benefit" to the United States. DOE/FE's review of the public interest cannot be so constrained. Initial comments on the NERA Study submitted by other parties only reinforce the arguments advanced in Sierra Club's initial comment.

On the record before it, DOE/FE cannot conclude that any of the pending export applications would be in the public interest. DOE/FE must begin a transparent process that will acknowledge and evaluate all of the proposed LNG exports' impacts on the public interest.

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economy, "during the authorization proceeding for projects with lifespans in excess of twenty (20) years each." *Id.* The Center for Liquefied Natural Gas's assertion that regulators should not predict impacts in the domains they regulate, including the impacts of that regulation, severely misunderstands the role of a regulator. Common sense and general principles of administrative law are that when such predictions are available, the agency must seek them out and use them to inform its actions.

[54] Sierra Club, *Freedom of Information Act Request Re: LNG Export Studies* (Jan. 22, 2013), attached as exhibit 2; DOE Interim Response to HQ-2013-00423-F (Jan. 24, 2013), attached as exhibit 3; Sierra Club, *Freedom of Information Appeal, re: HQ-2013-00423-F* (Feb. 22, 2013), attached as exhibit 4.

Sincerely,

/s/ Nathan Matthews

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Using GPCM® to Model LNG Exports from the US Gulf Coast

Robert Brooks, Ph.D., President, RBAC, Inc.

March 2, 2012

As the gas industry rolled into the 21st century, natural gas production was beginning to decline and the outlook for production looked rather bleak. A small upsurge due to the advent of coal-bed methane development had begun to play out and it looked like the future lay in LNG imports. Billions of dollars were spent in designing and getting permitted dozens of new LNG import terminals. Ten new terminals and two offshore receiving stations were actually built. As it turned out, the companies that lagged behind and didn't actually build these expensive terminals were the winners, because the industry as a whole did not predict an upstream revolution which was quietly occurring at the same time. A breakthrough in horizontal drilling combined with hydro-fracturing and advanced 3D imaging finally made it possible to economically develop the enormous gas and oil resources long known to exist in vast shale formations throughout much of North America.

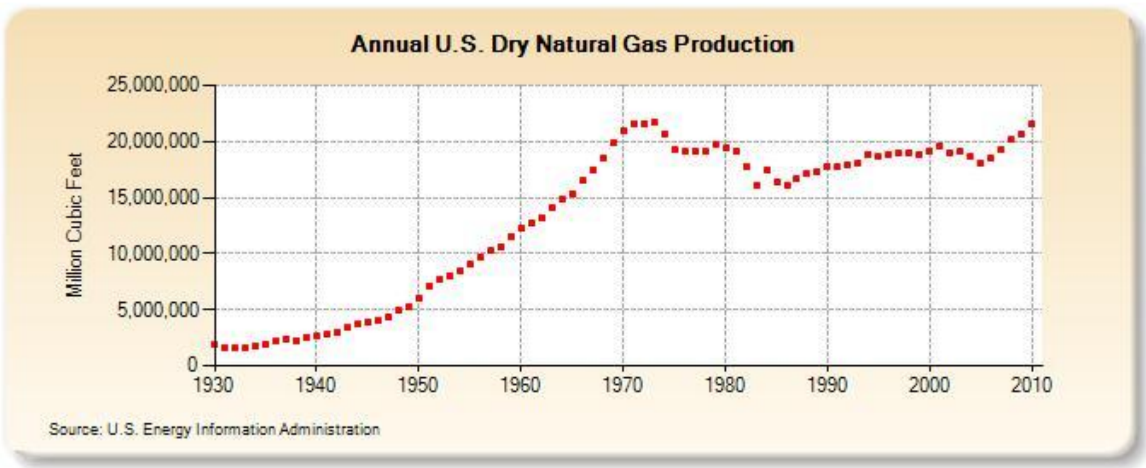


Figure 1: US Dry Natural Gas Production 1930-2010

A drilling boom began which completely turned the US production graph around. (See Figure 1.) All of a sudden there was more gas than could be easily absorbed in a recession-bound market. Natural gas prices began to erode, moving from the $6/mmbtu range to under $4/mmbtu (Figure 2), and the new challenge became "what are we going to do with all this gas?"

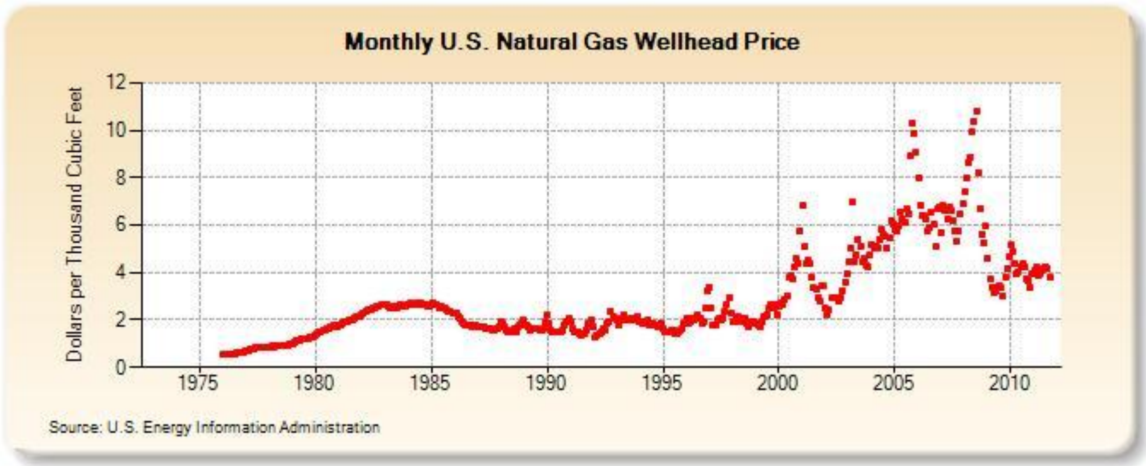


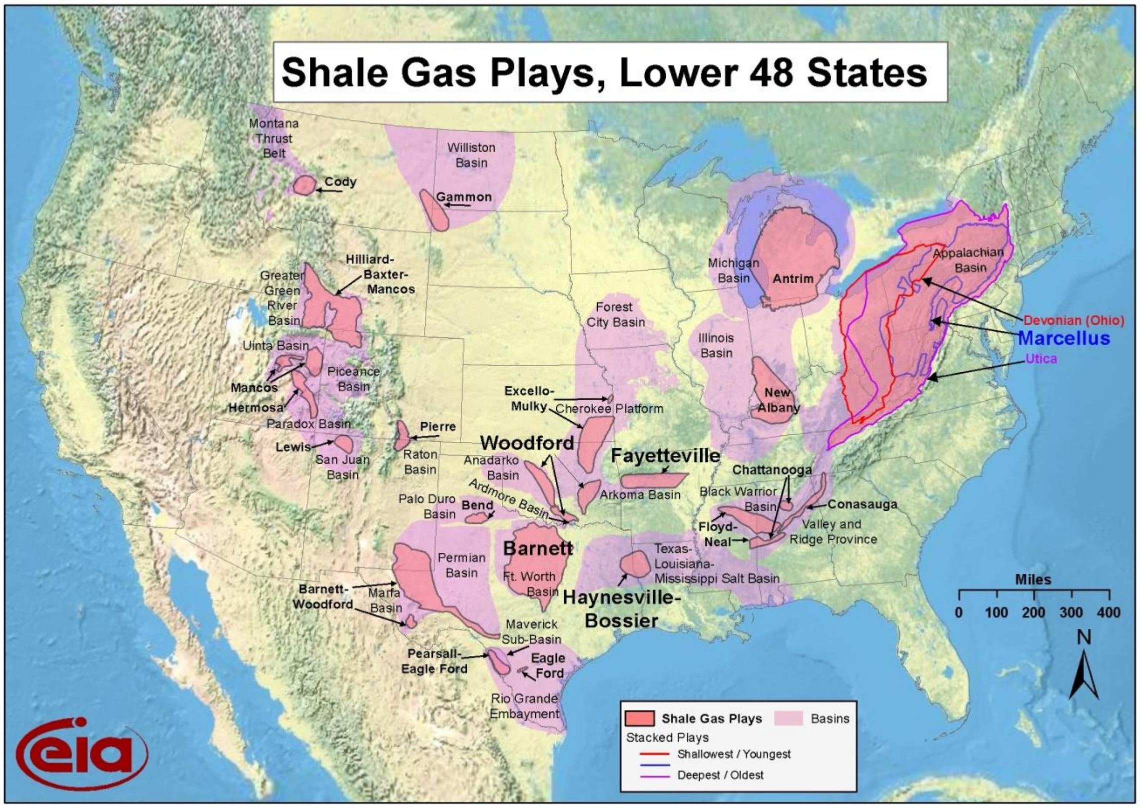
Figure 2: Monthly Natural Gas Wellhead Prices 1975-2010

Five answers have been put forward: redirect drilling from dry gas plays to plays having higher concentrations of more profitable natural gas liquids, replace coal with natural gas in electricity generation; build new fleets of natural gas powered trucks, buses, and cars; convert the gas into liquids for use in transportation; and, most recently, liquefy the gas and export it to other countries willing to pay much higher prices, notably Japan, China, Korea, and India.

As of year-end 2011 redirection to wetter gas plays has not solved the problem because the wetter gas plays have proven to be even more prolific gas producers than the dry gas plays drilled earlier. Replacing coal with gas in electricity production has been occurring but is a slow process which will take decades to unfold. Similarly, the natural gas vehicle market is growing, but from such a small base that it will take a very long time to have an impact on gas price, if ever. Gas-to-liquids is a mature technology, but is expensive, and its future in North America is still quite uncertain.

Up until very recently, the idea of liquefying excess North American natural gas and exporting it to overseas markets did not appear to be likely of success. That was before late 2011 when Cheniere Energy, owner of the Sabine Pass LNG terminal in Louisiana, announced the completion of agreements with UK-based BG Group and Spain's Gas Natural Fenosa to export LNG to Europe and Latin America and with GAIL (India) Limited for similar exports to India. Each of these agreements is for 3.5 million tons of LNG per year. In January 2012, Cheniere and Korea Gas Corporation (KOGAS) announced a similar agreement for another 3.5 million tons per year. 14 million tons per year of LNG would require almost 2 billion cubic feet per day (bcf/day) of production.

Much or most of the gas to be liquefied into LNG would be produced out of the nearby Haynesville-Bossier Shale play of northern Louisiana and east Texas. Following upon these deals, Cheniere announced plans to convert its planned Corpus Christi LNG import terminal into a second liquefaction and export terminal, this one located near the prolific Eagle Ford Shale wet gas play in South Texas.



Source: Energy Information Administration based on data from various published studies.
Updated: March 10, 2010

Figure 3: Shale Gas Plays in the United States

Some concern has been expressed by end-users of natural gas that these export projects would increase natural gas prices in the United States. Cheniere estimated that exports of 2 bcf/day could raise gas prices by as much as 10%. DOE's Energy Information Administration was requested by Congress to make its own projection. DOE assumed a much more extreme range of exports between 6 and 12 bcf/day with two different ramp-up rates (1 bcf/day per year and 3 bcf/day per year). In their 6 bcf/day scenario with 2 year ramp-up, the so-called "low, rapid" scenario, EIA projected an average price increase at the Henry Hub in Southern Louisiana of $0.60 per million btu (mmbtu) over the period 2016-2035.

Using its WGM model with the assumption of a 6 bcf/day export volume, consultant Deloitte MarketPoint LLC projected an average increase of only $0.22 mmbtu at the Henry Hub in Southern Louisiana over the same time period as EIA. Deloitte attributed the tiny magnitude of this price impact to the ability of the North American gas market to quickly and efficiently adjust to the prospect of an export market.

Using the GPCM model RBAC has produced its own analysis to address this question. Starting with RBAC's GPCM 11Q3 Base Case released in October 2011, which assumed Gulf LNG exports of 0.7 bcf/day, we have created five new scenarios: 1) no LNG exports from the US lower-48 states, 2) 1 bcf/day, 3) 2 bcf/day, 4) 4 bcf/day, and 5) 6 bcf per day. Each of the

LNG scenarios took 3 years to ramp up to maximum by 2018 and continued at that level through 2035.

The following figures show the results from these scenarios and the impact of various volumes of LNG exports on prices at Henry Hub.

Figure 4 shows Henry Hub price forecasts for the five scenarios. Prices are expected to be in the sub-$4 range from 2012-2015 for all scenarios, varying from that point depending on the volume of LNG exports in each.

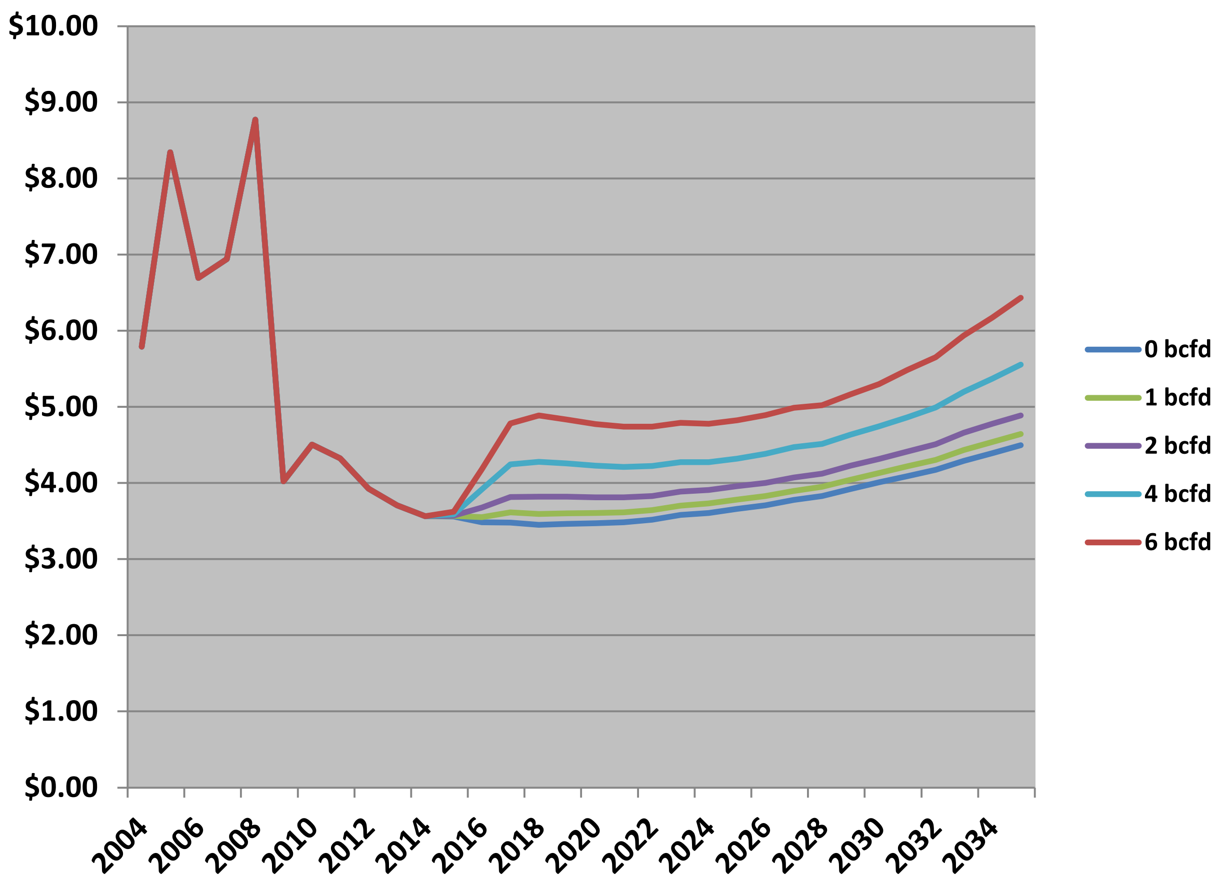


Figure 4: Annual Average Henry Hub Gas Price Forecast: 0, 1, 2, 4, and 6 bcf/day exports

Figure 5 shows the price difference between the no-LNG and the 1, 2, 4, and 6 bcf/day scenarios.

Figure 6 shows the average price impact over the 20 year 2016-2035 time period of each of the LNG export scenarios versus a zero-LNG export scenario.

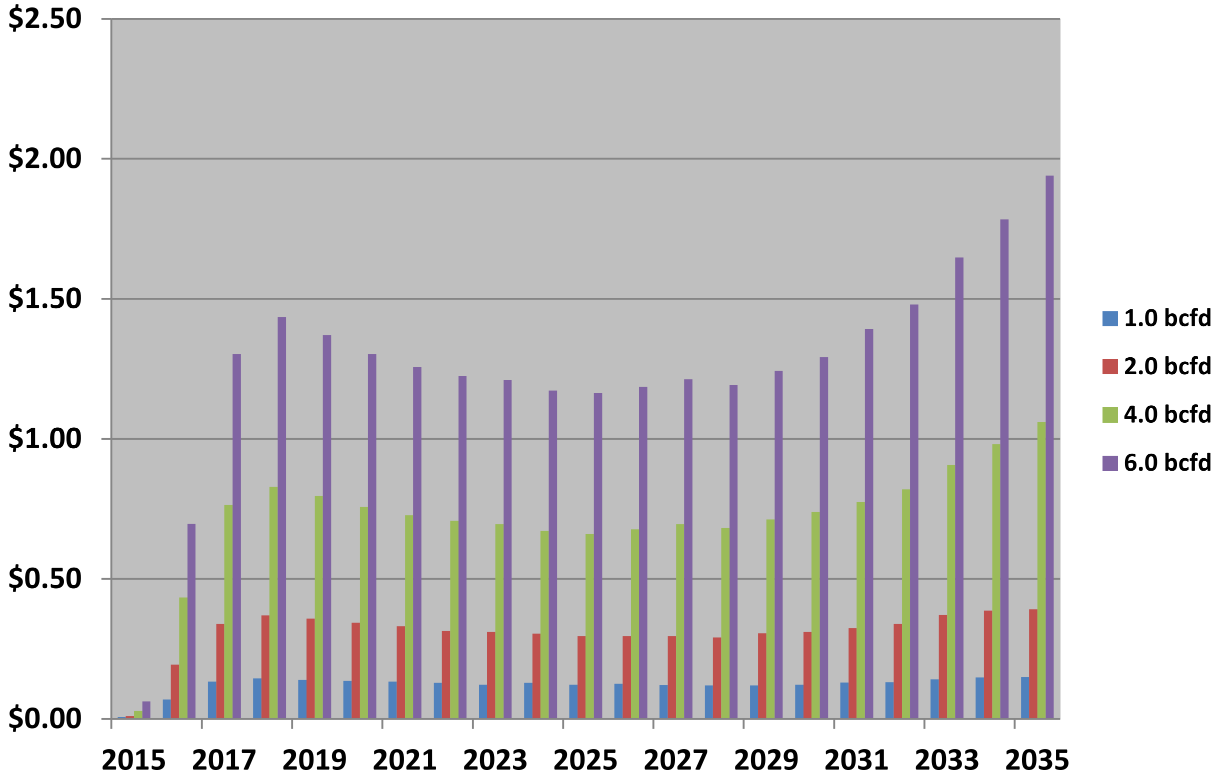


Figure 5: Price Impact at Henry Hub Due to Various Levels of Gulf Coast LNG Exports

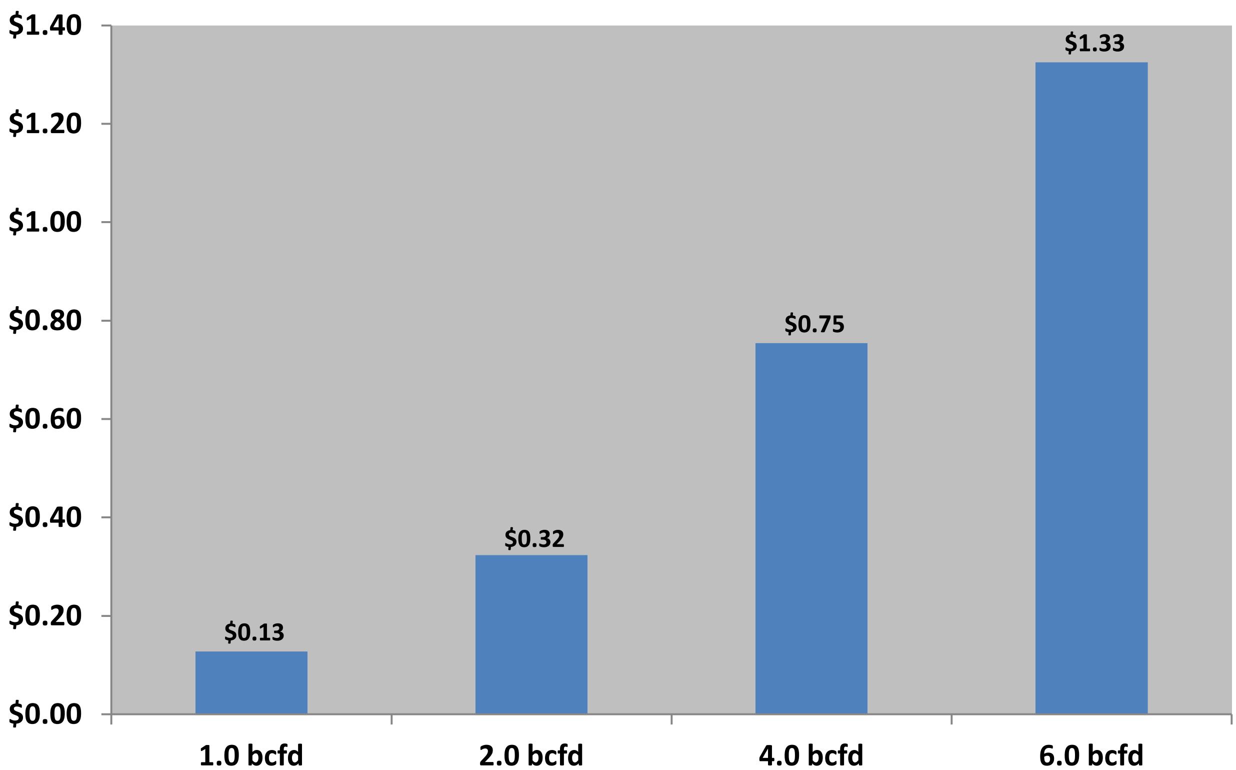


Figure 6: Average Price Impact at Henry Hub 2016-2035 of Different Gulf LNG Export Levels

The price impact of this level of LNG exports predicted using RBAC's GPCM model is about the same as Cheniere for the 2 bcf/day scenario ($0.32), but much greater for the more extreme 6 bcf/day scenario than that estimated by EIA ($0.60) or Deloitte ($0.22). It averages about $1.33 per mmbtu over the forecast horizon, a 30% increase at Henry Hub. RBAC's 6 bcf/day scenario does not forecast that the industry will respond with speed and efficiency with an insignificant gas-price increase as does the Deloitte model. The flexibility of the industry to respond to this large and sudden increase in demand comes at a price.

The following figure shows the effect of this extreme level of LNG exports and resulting higher prices on domestic gas deliveries.

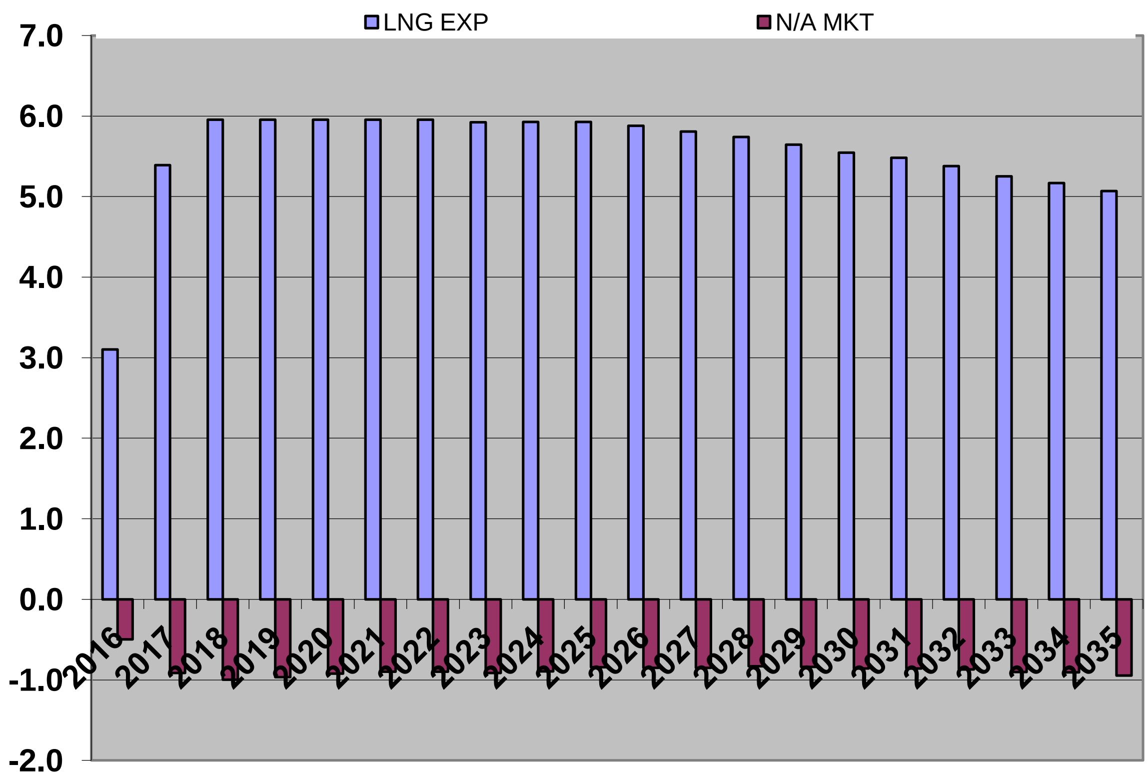


Figure 7: Impact of LNG Exports on Deliveries to the North American Market

First note that the scenario as designed ran into difficulty exporting 6 BCF/day after 2025. The amount available for export slowly fell to about 5 BCF/day by 2035. The 6 bcf/day scenario assumes 3 bcf/day from Louisiana and 3 bcf/day from Texas. In the longer run, it is more difficult to supply 3 bcf/day for LNG exports from Texas due to competition with Mexico. On average the LNG exports were about 5.5 BCF/day in this scenario.

The addition of 5.5 BCF/day LNG export demand raises prices enough to reduce deliveries to the domestic North American market by almost 0.8 BCF/day. Most of this reduction is felt by the industrial market, the most price sensitive sector in the US. Thus the net additional production required by the new LNG export market is about 4.7 BCF/day.

Perhaps one reason why EIA's price response is less than RBAC's is that EIA assumes an increase in production of only 3.8 bcf/day will be required to supply 6 bcf/day in exports. This surprising result comes about because EIA's result shows a 2.1 bcf/day decrease in gas available to consumers in the US. Their demand model is much more price-sensitive than RBAC's.

Figure 8 shows where the additional supply will originate in the 6 bcf/day RBAC scenario. About 10% of the required new supply comes from coal-bed methane and a small uptick in LNG imports. The latter is due to the fact that the Mexican market is dependent on imports from the US as well as LNG. With less pipeline gas available to Mexico from South Texas, more local gas must be produced and more LNG imported.

One surprise is that conventional sources will initially provide about 50% of the incremental supply needed for the net increase in demand with shale providing about 40%. However, as shale becomes the predominant source of production, it also takes over as the primary source of incremental supply for exports, reaching more than 60% by year 2035. This may be more a result of the fact that GPCM models physical gas flows. How gas is contracted could be quite different.

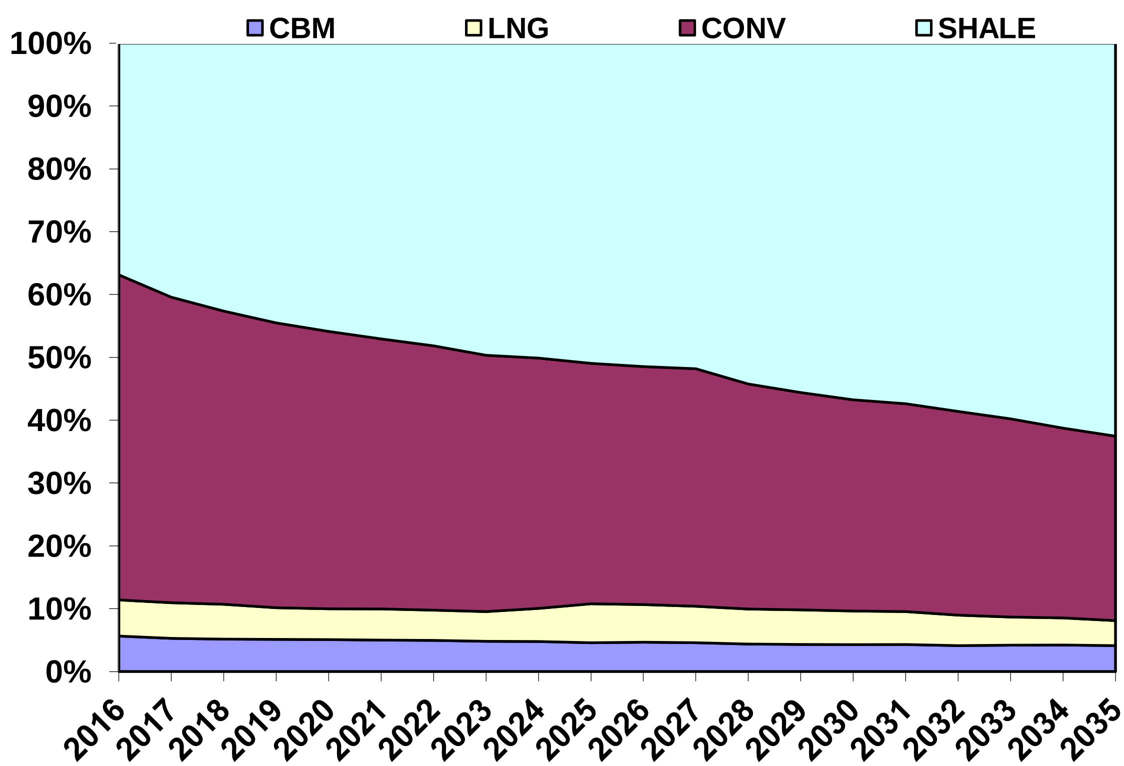


Figure 8: Share of New Supply Required in 6 bcf/day LNG Exports Scenario

Sensitivity of Results to Supply Assumptions

A sixth scenario was run to test the sensitivity of these results to the base case assumption of supply responsiveness to changes in demand. By raising price sensitivity of supply for prices higher than about $4/mmbtu, production capacity grows faster than in the original 6 bcf/day LNG exports scenario. By 2035 capacity is about 4 BCF/day (3%) higher for the same price.

Figure 9 shows the effect of this higher production sensitivity case on Henry Hub price.

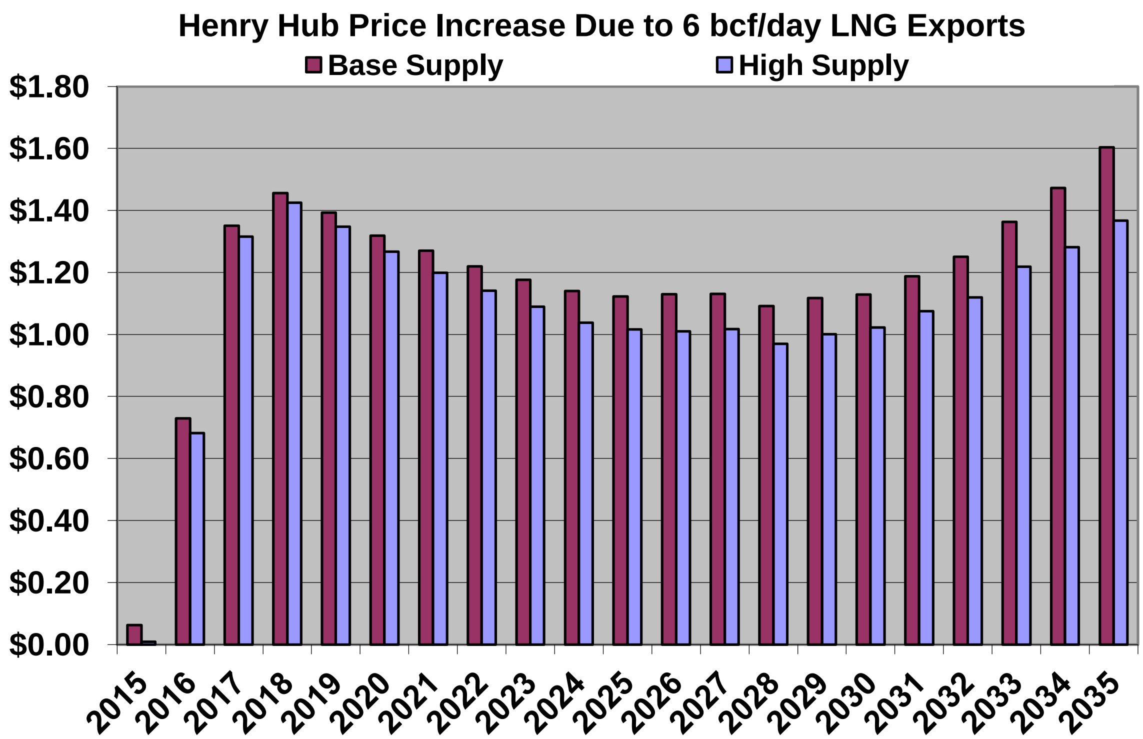


Figure 9: Sensitivity of Henry Hub Price Effect to Supply Capacity Growth

The price effect of LNG exports is reduced by about $0.05 in 2016 growing to almost $0.25 by 2035. The average price effect in the sensitivity case is $1.13, about $0.10 less than the original 6 bcf/day exports case. These results suggest that both EIA and Deloitte models may substantially underestimate the price effect of 6 bcf/day LNG exports of the magnitude reported in their studies. The adjustments which the industry makes to meet the challenge of this large new demand are not likely to be made so quickly and with so little impact on price.

Deloitte.

Deloitte MarketPoint.

Analysis of Economic Impact of LNG Exports from the United States

Contents

Executive summary

Deloitte MarketPoint LLC ("DMP") has been engaged by Excelerate Energy L.P. ("Excelerate") to provide an independent and objective assessment of the potential economic impacts of LNG exports from the United States. We analyzed the impact of exports from Excelerate's Lavaca Bay terminal, located along the Gulf coast of Texas, by itself and also in combination with varying levels of LNG exports from other locations.

A fundamental question regarding LNG exports is: Are there sufficient domestic natural gas supplies for both domestic consumption and LNG exports. That is, does the U.S. need the gas for its own consumption or does the U.S. possess sufficiently abundant gas resources to supply both domestic consumption and exports? A more difficult question is: How much will U.S. natural gas prices increase as a result of LNG exports? To understand the possible answers to these questions, one must consider the full gamut of natural gas supply and demand in the U.S. and the rest of the world and how they are dynamically connected.

In our view, simple comparisons of total available domestic resources to projected future consumption are insufficient to adequately analyze the economic impact of LNG exports. The real issue is not one of volume, but of price impact. In a free market economy, price is one of the best measures of scarcity, and if price is not significantly affected, then scarcity and shortage of supply typically do not occur. In this report, we demonstrate that the magnitude of domestic price increase that results from exports of natural gas in the form of LNG is projected to be quite small.

However, other projections, including those developed by the DOE's Energy Information Administration (EIA), estimate substantially larger price impacts from LNG exports than derived from our analysis. We shall compare different projections and provide our assessment as to why the projections differ. A key determinant to the estimated price impact is the supply response to increased demand including LNG exports. To a large degree, North American gas producers' ability to increase productive capacity in anticipation of LNG export volumes will determine the price impact. After all, there is widespread agreement of the vast size of the North American natural gas resource base among the various studies and yet estimated price impacts vary widely. If one assumes that producers will fail to keep pace with demand growth, including LNG exports, then the price impact of LNG exports, especially in early years of operations, will be far greater than if they anticipate demand and make supplies available as they are needed. Hence, a proper model of market supply-demand dynamics is required to more accurately project price impacts.

DMP applied its integrated North American and World Gas Model (WGM or Model) to analyze the price and quantity impacts of LNG exports on the U.S. gas market.[1] The WGM projects

[1] This report was prepared for Excelerate Energy L.P. ("Client") and should not be disclosed to, used or relied upon by any other person or entity. Deloitte Marketpoint LLC shall not be responsible for any loss sustained by any such use or reliance. Please note that the analysis set forth in this report is based on the application of economic logic and specific

monthly prices and quantities over a 30 year time horizon based on demonstrated economic theories. It includes disaggregated representations of North America, Europe, and other major global markets. The WGM solves for prices and quantities simultaneously across multiple markets and across multiple time points. Unlike many other models which compute prices and quantities assuming all parties work together to achieve a single global objective, WGM applies fundamental economic theories to represent self-interested decisions made by each market "agent" along each stage of the supply chain. It rigorously adheres to accepted microeconomic theory to solve for supply and demand using an "agent based" approach. More information about WGM is included in the Appendix.

Vital to this analysis, the WGM represents fundamental natural gas producer decisions regarding when and how much reserves to develop given the producer's resource endowments and anticipated forward prices. This supply-demand dynamic is particularly important in analyzing the impact of demand changes (e.g., LNG exports) because without it, the answer will likely greatly overestimate the price impact. Indeed, producers will anticipate the export volumes and make production decisions accordingly. LNG exporters might back up their multi-billion dollar projects with long-term supply contracts, but even if they do not, producers will anticipate future prices and demand growth in their production decisions. Missing this supply-demand dynamic is tantamount to assuming the market will be surprised and unprepared for the volume of exports and have to ration fixed supplies to meet the required volumes. Static models assume a fixed supply volume (i.e., productive capacity) during each time period and therefore are prone to over-estimate the price impact of a demand change. Typically, users have to override this assumption by manually adjusting supply to meet demand. If insufficient supply volumes are added to meet the incremental demand, prices could shoot up until enough supply volumes are added to eventually catch up with demand.

Instead of a static approach, the WGM uses sophisticated depletable resource modeling to represent producer decisions. The model uses a "rational expectations" approach, which assumes that today's drilling decisions affect tomorrow's price and tomorrow's price affects today's drilling decisions. It captures the market dynamics between suppliers and consumers.

It is well documented that shale gas production has grown tremendously over the past several years. According to the EIA, shale gas production climbed to over 35% of the total U.S. production in January of 2012[2]. By comparison, shale gas production was only about 5% of the total U.S. production in 2006, when improvements in shale gas production technologies (e.g., hydraulic fracturing combined with horizontal drilling) were starting to significantly reduce production costs. However, there is considerable debate as to how long this trend will continue and how much will be produced out of each shale gas basin. Rather than simply extrapolating past trends, WGM projects production based resource volumes and costs, future gas demand, particularly for power generation, and competition among various sources in each market area. It computes incremental sources to meet a change in demand and the resulting impact on price.

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assumptions and the results are not intended to be predictions of events or future outcomes.

Notwithstanding the foregoing, Client may submit this report to the U.S. Department of Energy and the Federal Energy Regulatory Commission in support of Client's liquefied natural gas "(LNG") export application.

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[2] Computed from the EIA's Natural Gas Weekly Update for week ending June 27, 2012.

Based on our existing model and assumptions, which we will call the "Reference Case", we developed five cases with different LNG export volumes to assess the impact of LNG exports. The five LNG export scenarios and their assumed export volumes by location are shown in Figure 1. Other Gulf in the figure refers to all other Gulf of Mexico terminals in Texas and Louisiana besides Lavaca Bay.

All cases are identical except for the assumed volume of LNG exports. The 1.33 Bcfd case assumed only exports from Lavaca Bay so that we could isolate the impact of the terminal. In the other LNG export cases, we assumed the Lavaca Bay terminal plus volumes from other locations so that the total exports volume equaled 3, 6, 9, and 12 Bcfd. The export volumes were assumed to be constant for twenty years from 2018 through 2037.

We represented LNG exports in the model as demands at various model locations generally corresponding to the locations of proposed export terminals (e.g., Gulf Texas, Gulf Louisiana, and Cove Point) that have applied for a DOE export license. The cases are not intended as forecasts of which export terminals will be built, but rather to test the potential impact given alternative levels of LNG exports. Furthermore, the export volumes are assumed to be constant over the entire 20 year period. Since our existing model already represented these import LNG terminals, we only had to represent exports by adding demands near each of the terminals. Comparing results of the five LNG export cases to the Reference Case, we projected how much the various levels of LNG exports could increase domestic prices and affect production and flows.

Given the model's assumptions and economic logic, the WGM projects prices and volumes for over 200 market hubs and represents every state in the United States. We can examine the impact at each location and also compute a volume-weighted average U.S. "citygate" price by weighting price impact by state using the state's demand. Impact on the U.S. prices increase along with the volume of exports.

As shown in Figure 2, the WGM's projected

Figure 1: LNG export scenarios

	Export Case				
Terminal	**1.33 Bcfd**	**3 Bcfd**	**6 Bcfd**	**9 Bcfd**	**12 Bcfd**
Lavaca Bay	1.33	1.33	1.33	1.33	1.33
Other Gulf		1.67	4.67	6.67	9.67
Cove Point (MD)				1.0	1.0
Total	1.33	3.0	6.0	9.0	12.0

Figure 2: Potential Impact of LNG export on U.S. prices (Average 2018-37)

Export Case	Average US Citygate	Henry Hub	New York
1.33 Bcfd	0.4%	0.4%	0.3%
3 Bcfd	1.0%	1.7%	0.9%
6 Bcfd	2.2%	4.0%	1.9%
9 Bcfd	3.2%	5.5%	3.2%
12 Bcfd	4.3%	7.7%	4.1%

impact on average U.S. citygate prices for the assumed years of operation (2018 to 2037) ranged from well under 1% in the 1.33 Bcfd (Lavaca Bay only) case to 4.3% in the 12 Bcfd case. However, the impacts vary significantly by location. Figure 2 shows the percentage change relative to the Reference Case to the projected average U.S. citygate price and at the Henry Hub and New York prices under various LNG export volumes.

As Figure 2 shows, the price impact is highly dependent on location. The impact on the price at Henry Hub, the world's most widely used benchmark for natural gas prices, is significantly higher than the national average. The reason is that the Henry Hub, located in Louisiana, is in close proximity to the prospective export terminals, which are primarily located in the U.S. Gulf of Mexico region. Since there are several cases analyzed, we will primarily describe results of the 6 Bcfd export case since it is the middle case. The impacts are roughly proportional to the export volumes. In the 6 Bcfd export case, the impact on the Henry Hub price is an increase of 4.0% over the Reference Case. Generally, the price impact in markets diminishes with distance away from export terminals as other supply basins besides those used to feed LNG exports are used to supply those markets. Distant market areas, such as New York and Chicago, experience only about half the price impact as at the Henry Hub. Focusing solely on the Henry Hub or regional prices around the export terminals will greatly overstate the total estimated impact on the U.S. consumers.

The results show that if exports can be anticipated, and clearly they can with the public application process and long lead time required to construct a LNG liquefaction plant, then producers, midstream players, and consumers can act to mitigate the price impact. Producers will bring more supplies online, flows will be adjusted, and consumers will react to price change resulting from LNG exports.

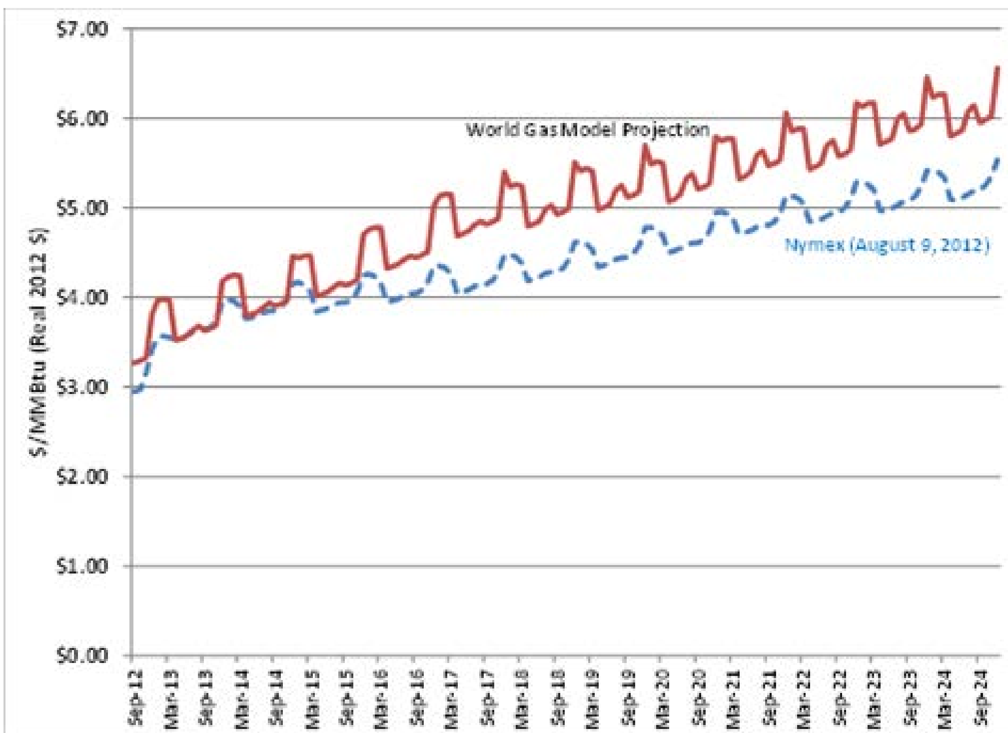
According to our projections, 12 Bcfd of LNG exports are projected to increase the average U.S. citygate gas price by 4.3% and Henry Hub price by 7.7% on average over a twenty year period (2018-37). This indicates that the projected level of exports is not likely to induce scarcity on domestic markets. The domestic resource base is expected to be large enough to absorb the incremental volumes required by LNG exports without a significant increase to future production costs. If the U.S. natural gas industry can make the supplies available by the time LNG export terminals are ready for operation, then the price impact will likely reflect the minimal change in production cost. As the industry has shown in the past several years, it is capable of responding to market signals and developing supplies as needed. Furthermore, the North American energy market is highly interconnected so any change in prices due to LNG exports from the U.S. will cause the entire market to re-equilibrate, including gas fuel burn for power generation and net imports from Canada and Mexico. Hence, the entire North American energy market would be expected to in effect work in tandem to mitigate the price impact of LNG exports from the U.S.

Overview of Deloitte MarketPoint Reference Case

The WGM Reference Case assumes a "business as usual" scenario including no LNG exports from the United States. U.S. gas demand growth rates for all sectors except for electricity were based on EIA's recently released Annual Energy Outlook (AEO) 2012 projection, which shows a significantly higher US gas demand than in the previous year's projection. Our gas demand for power generation is based on projections from DMP's electricity model, which is integrated with our WGM. (There is no intended advocacy or prediction of these events one way or the other. Rather, we use these assumptions as a frame of reference. The impact of LNG exports could easily be tested against other scenarios, but the overall conclusion would be rather similar.)

In the WGM Reference Case, natural gas prices are projected to rebound from current levels and continue to strengthen over the next two decades, although nominal prices do not return to the peak levels of the mid-to-late 2000s until after 2020. In real terms (i.e., constant 2012 dollars), benchmark U.S. Henry Hub spot prices are projected by the WGM to increase from currently depressed levels to $5.34 per MMBtu in 2020, before rising to $6.88 per MMBtu in

Figure 3: Projected Henry Hub prices from the WGM compared to Nymex futures prices



2030 in the Reference Case scenario.

The WGM Reference Case projection of Henry Hub prices is compared to the Nymex futures prices in Figure 3. (The Nymex prices, which are the dollars of the day, were deflated by 2.0%[3] per year to compare to our projections, which are in real 2012 dollars.) Our Henry Hub price projection is similar to the Nymex prices in the near-term but rises above it in the longer term. Bear in mind that our Reference Case by design assumes no LNG exports whereas there is possible there is some expectation of LNG exports from the U.S. built into the Nymex prices. Under similar assumptions, the difference between our price projection and Nymex likely would be even higher. Hence, our Reference Case would represent a fairly high price projection even without LNG exports.

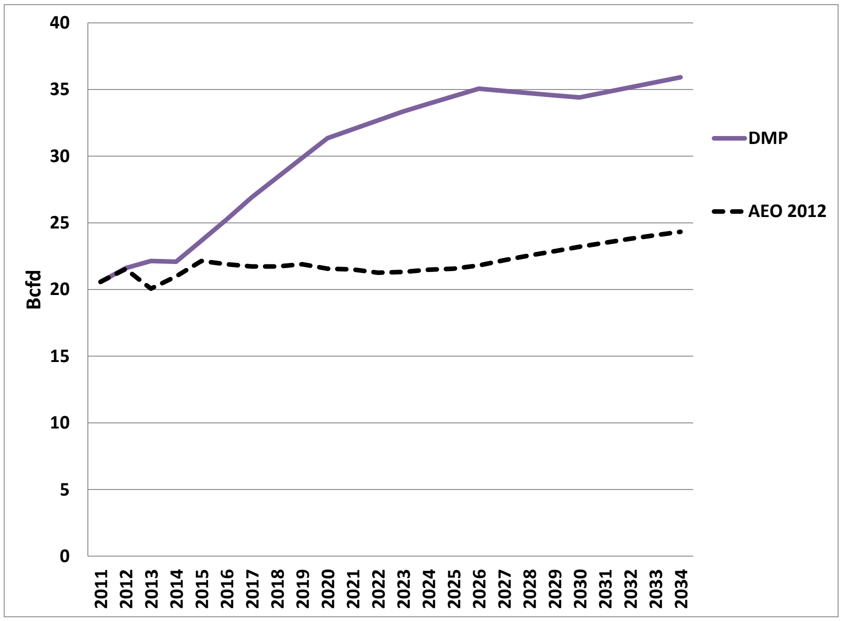
One possible reason why our price projection in the longer term is higher than market expectation, as reflected by the Nymex futures prices, is because of our projected rapid increase in gas demand for power generation. Based on our electricity model projections, we forecast natural gas consumption for electricity generation to drive North American natural gas demand higher during the next two decades.

As shown in Figure 4, the DMP projected gas demand for U.S. power generation gas is far greater than the demand predicted by EIA's AEO 2012, which forecasts fairly flat demand for power generation. In the U.S., the power sector, which accounts for nearly all of the projected future growth, is projected to increase by about 50% (approximately 11 Bcfd) over the next decade. Our integrated electricity model projects that natural gas will become the fuel of choice for power generation due to a variety of reasons, including: tightening application of existing environmental regulations for mercury, NOx, and SOx; expectations of ample domestic gas supply at competitive gas prices; coal plant retirements; and the need to back up intermittent renewable sources such as wind and solar to ensure reliability. Like the EIA's AEO 2012 forecast, our Reference Case projection does not assume any new carbon legislation.

Our electricity model, fully integrated with our gas (WGM) and coal models, contains a detailed representation of the North American electricity system including environmental emissions for key pollutants (CO2, SOx, NOx, and mercury). The integrated structure of these models is shown in Figure 5. The electricity model projects electric generation capacity addition, dispatch and fuel burn based on competition among different types of power generators given a number of factors, including plant capacities, fuel prices, heat rates, variable costs, and environmental emissions costs. The model integration of North American natural gas with the rest of the world and the North American electricity market captures the global linkages and also the inter-commodity linkages. Integrating gas and electricity is vitally important because U.S. natural gas demand growth is expected to be driven almost entirely by the electricity sector, which is predicted to grow at substantial rates.

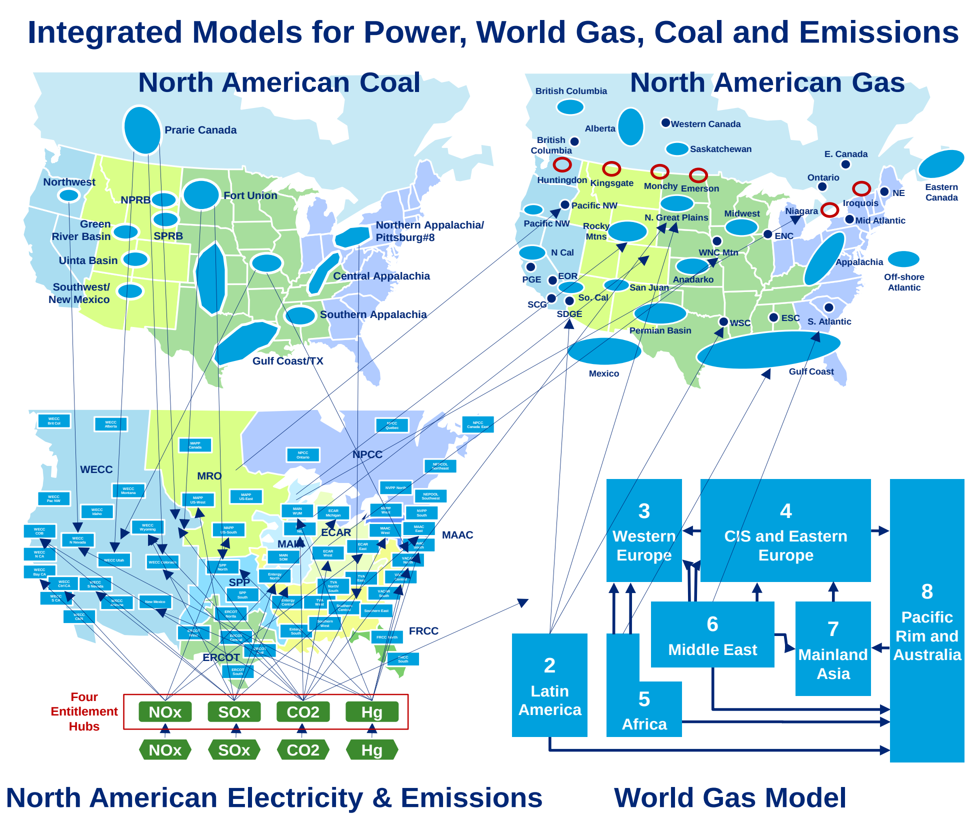
[3] Approximately the average consumer price index over the past 5 years according to the Bureau of Labor Statistics.

Figure 4: Comparison of projections of the U.S. gas demand for power generation



Furthermore, the electricity sector is projected to be far more responsive to natural gas price than any other sector. We model demand elasticity in the electricity sector directly rather than through elasticity estimates.

Figure 5: DMP North American Representation



Hence, the WGM projections include the impact of increased natural gas demand for electricity generation, which vies with LNG exports for domestic supplies. From the demand perspective, this is a conservative case in that the WGM would project a larger impact of LNG export than if we had assumed a lower US gas demand, which would likely make more supply available for LNG export and tend to lessen the price impact. Higher gas demand would tend to increase the projected prices impacts of LNG export. However, the real issue is not the absolute price of exported gas, but rather the price impact resulting from the LNG exports. The absolute price of natural gas will be determined by a number of supply and demand factors in addition to the volume of LNG exports.

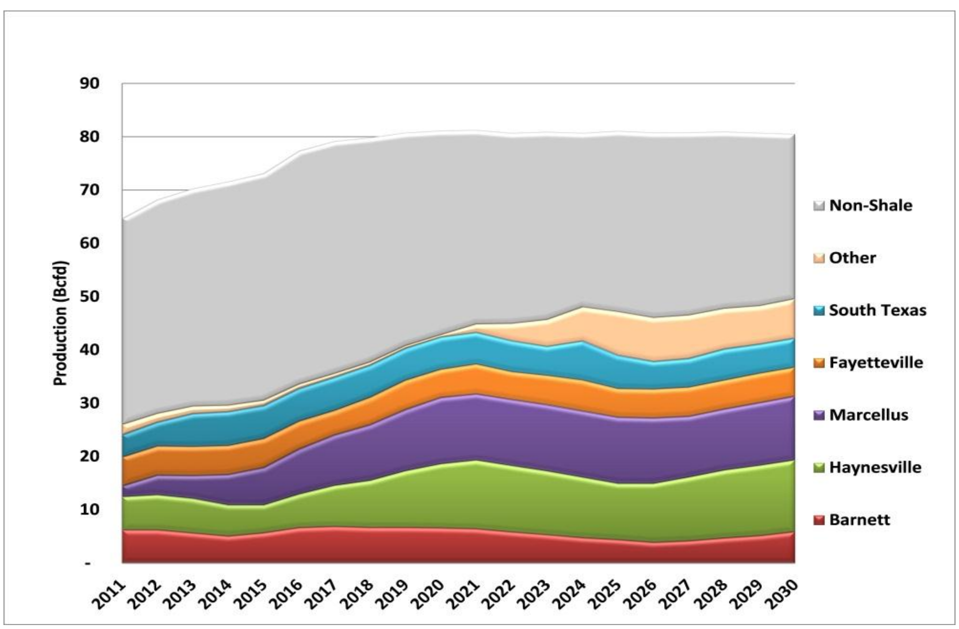
Buffering the price impact of LNG exports is the large domestic resource base, particularly shale gas which we project to be an increasingly important component of domestic supply. As shown in Figure 6, the Reference Case projects shale gas production, particularly in the Marcellus Shale in Appalachia and the Haynesville Shale in Texas and Louisiana, to grow and eventually become the largest component of domestic gas supply. Increasing U.S. shale gas output bolsters total domestic gas production, which grows from about 66 Bcfd in 2011 to almost 79 Bcfd in 2018 before tapering off.

The growth in production from a large domestic resource base is a crucial point and consistent with fundamental economics. Many upstream gas industry observers today believe that there is a very large quantity of gas available to be produced in the shale regions of North America at a more or less constant price. They believe, de facto, that natural gas supply is highly "elastic," i.e., the supply curve is very flat.

A flattening supply curve is consistent with the resource pyramid diagram that the United States Geological Survey and others have postulated. At the top of the pyramid are high quality gas supplies which are low cost but also are fairly scarce. As you move down the pyramid, the costs increase but the supplies are more plentiful. This is another interpretation of our supply curve which has relatively small amounts of low cost supplies but as the cost increases, the supplies become more abundant.

Gas production in Canada is projected to decline over the next several years, reducing exports to the U.S. and continuing the recent slide in

Figure 6: U.S. gas production by type



production out of the Western Canadian Sedimentary Basin. However, Canadian production is projected to ramp up in the later part of this decade with increased production out of the Horn River and Montney shale gas plays in Western Canada. Further into the future, the Mackenzie Delta pipeline may begin making available supplies from Northern Canada. Increased Canadian production makes more gas available for export to the U.S.

Rather than basing our production projections solely on the physical decline rates of producing fields, the WGM considers economic displacement as new, lower cost supplies force their way into the market. The North American natural gas system is highly integrated so Canadian supplies can easily access U.S. markets when economic.

Increasing production from major shale gas plays, many of which are not located in traditional gas-producing areas, has already started to transform historical basis relationships (the difference in prices between two markets) and the trend is projected to continue during the next two decades. Varying rates of regional gas demand growth, the advent of new natural gas infrastructure, and evolving gas flows may also contribute to changes in regional basis, although to a lesser degree.

Most notably, gas prices in the Eastern U.S., historically the highest priced region in North America, could be dampened by incremental shale gas production within the region. Eastern bases to Henry Hub are projected to sink under the weight of surging gas production from the Marcellus Shale. Indeed, the flattening of Eastern bases is already becoming evident. The Marcellus Shale is projected to dominate the Mid-Atlantic natural gas market, including New York, New Jersey, and Pennsylvania, meeting most of the regional demand and pushing gas through to New England and even to South Atlantic markets. Gas production from Marcellus Shale will help shield the Mid-Atlantic region from supply and demand changes in the Gulf region. Pipelines built to transport gas supplies from distant producing regions — such as the Rockies and the Gulf Coast — to Northeastern U.S. gas markets may face stiff competition. The result could be displacement of volumes from the Gulf which would depress prices in the Gulf region. Combined with the growing shale production out of Haynesville and Eagle Ford, the Gulf region is projected to continue to have plentiful production and remain one of the lowest cost regions in North America.

Understanding the dynamic nature of the natural gas market is paramount to understanding the impact of LNG exports. If LNG is exported from any particular location, the entire North American natural gas system will potentially reorient production, affecting basis differentials and flows. Basis differentials are not fixed and invariant to LNG exports or any other supply and demand changes. On the contrary, LNG exports will likely alter basis differentials, which lead to redirection of gas flows to highest value markets from each source given available capacity.

Potential impact of LNG exports

Impact on natural gas prices

We analyzed five LNG export cases within this report: one case with Lavaca Bay only (1.33 Bcfd) and four other cases with varying levels of total U.S. LNG export volumes (3 Bcfd, 6 Bcfd, 9 Bcfd and 12 Bcfd exports). Each case was run with the DMP's Integrated North American Power and Gas Models in order to capture the dynamic interactions across commodities.

For ease of reporting, we will focus on the results with 6 Bcfd of LNG exports, our middle case, without any implication that it is more likely than any other case. Given the model's assumptions, the WGM projects 6 Bcfd of LNG exports will result in a weighted-average price impact of $0.15/MMBtu on the average U.S. citygate price from 2018 to 2037. The $0.15/MMBtu increase represents a 2.2% increase in the projected average U.S. citygate gas price of $6.96/MMBtu over this time period. The projected increase in Henry Hub gas price is $0.26/MMBtu during this period. It is important to note the variation in price impact by location. The impact at the Henry Hub will be much greater than the impact in other markets more distant from export terminals.

For all five export cases considered, the projected natural gas price impacts at the Henry Hub, New York, and average US citygate from 2018 through 2037 are shown in Figure 7.

To put the impact in perspective, Figure 8 shows the price impact of the midpoint 6 Bcfd case compared to projected Reference Case U.S. average citygate prices over a twenty year period. The height of the bars represents the projected price with LNG exports.

The small incremental price impact may not appear intuitive or expected to those familiar with market traded fluctuations in natural gas prices. For example, even a 1 Bcfd increase in demand due to sudden weather changes can cause near term traded gas prices to surge because in the short term, both supply and demand are highly inelastic (i.e., fixed quantities). However, in the long-term, producers can develop more reserves in anticipation of demand growth, e.g. due to LNG exports. Indeed, LNG export projects will likely be linked in the origination market to long-term supply contracts, as well as long-term contracts with LNG buyers. There will be ample notice and

Figure 7: Price impact by scenario for 2018-37 ($/MMBtu)

Export Case	Average US Citygate	Henry Hub	New York
1.33 Bcfd	$ 0.03	$ 0.03	$ 0.02
3 Bcfd	$ 0.07	$ 0.11	$ 0.06
6 Bcfd	$ 0.15	$ 0.26	$ 0.14
9 Bcfd	$ 0.22	$ 0.36	$ 0.23
12 Bcfd	$ 0.30	$ 0.50	$ 0.29

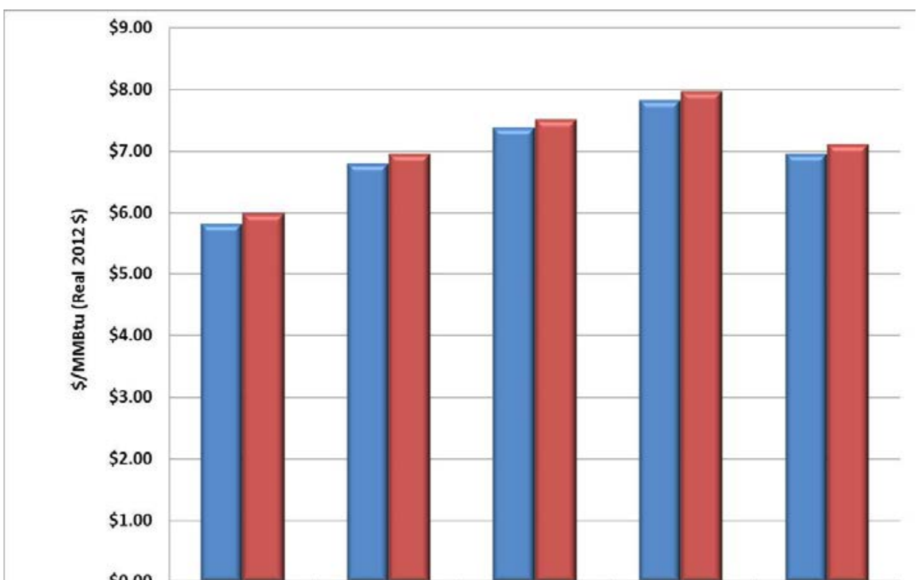
time in advance of the LNG exports for suppliers to be able to develop supplies so that they are available by the time export terminals come into operation. Therefore, under our long-term equilibrium modeling assumptions, long-term changes to demand may be anticipated and incorporated into supply decisions. The built-in market expectations allows for projected prices to come into equilibrium smoothly over time. Hence, our projected price impact primarily reflects the estimated change in the production cost of the marginal gas producing field with the assumed export volumes.

As previously stated, the model projected price impact varies by location as shown in Figure 9.

As previously described, the price impact diminishes with distance from export terminals. For all cases the impact is greatest at Henry Hub, situated near most export terminals. For the midpoint case of 6 Bcfd, the impact at the Houston Ship Channel is nearly as much as Henry Hub, at $0.26/MMBtu on average from 2018 to 2037. As distance from export terminals increases (i.e., distance to downstream markets such as Chicago, California and New York) the price impact is generally only about $0.12 to $0.14/MMBtu on average from 2018 to 2037.

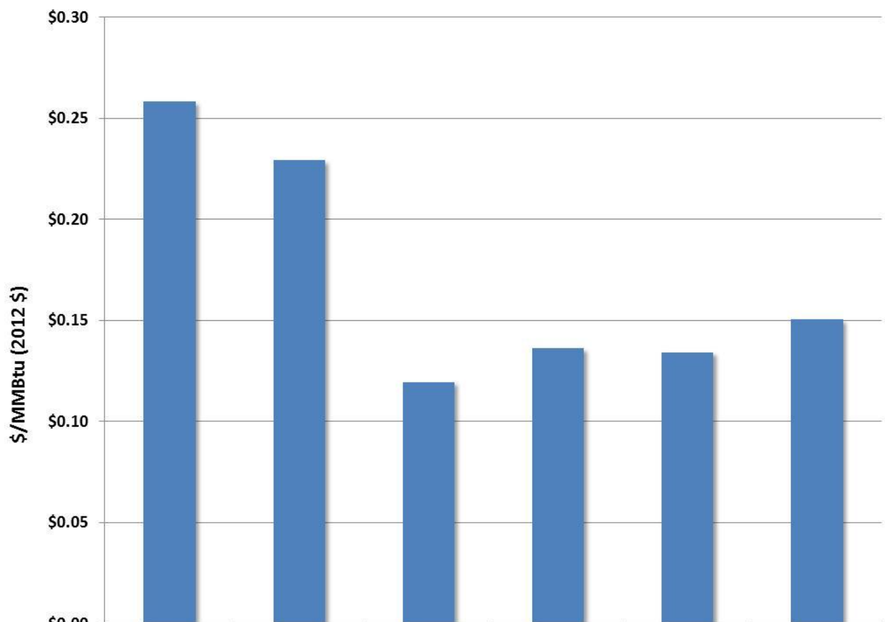
Similarly, Figures 8 and 9 corresponding to the other export cases (1.33, 3.0, 9.0 and 12.0 Bcfd) are shown in the Appendix.

Figure 8: Projected Impact of LNG exports on average U.S. Citygate gas prices (Real 2012 $)



	2018-2022	2023-2027	2028-2032	2033-2037	2018-2037
Reference Case	$5.83	$6.80	$7.38	$7.83	$6.96
6 Bcfd Case	$5.99	$6.96	$7.51	$7.97	$7.11

Figure 9: Price impact varies by location in 6 Bcfd export case (average 2018-37)



	Henry Hub	HSC	Chicago	New York	California	Average US
6 Bcfd Case	$0.26	$0.23	$0.12	$0.14	$0.13	$0.15

Impact on electricity prices

The projected impact on electricity prices is even smaller than the projected impact on gas prices. DMP's integrated power and gas model allows us to estimate incremental impact on electricity prices resulting from LNG export assumptions, as natural gas is also a fuel used for generating electricity. Since our integrated model represents the geographic linkages between the electricity and natural gas systems, we can compute the potential impact of LNG exports in local markets (local to LNG exports) where the impact would be the largest.

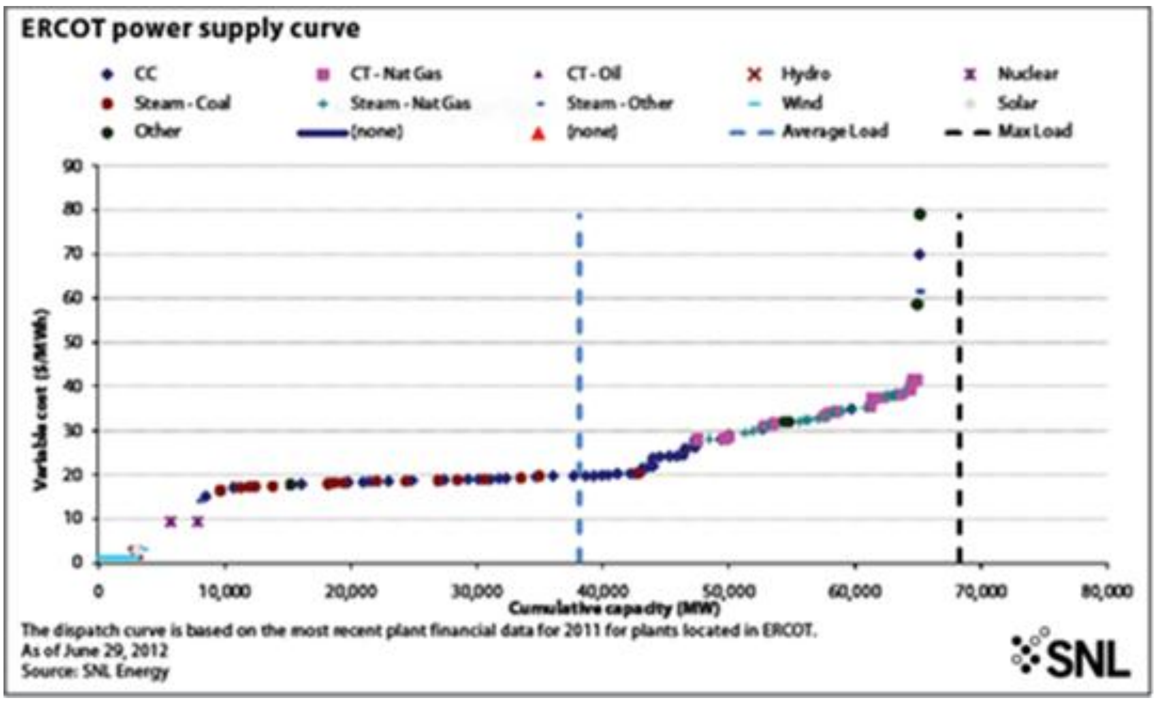
A similar comparison for electricity shows that the projected average (2018-2037) electricity prices increase by 0.8% in ERCOT (the Electric Reliability Council of Texas), under the 6 Bcfd export case. The impact on electricity prices is much less than the 4.0% Henry Hub gas price impact. For power markets in other regions, the electricity price impact is much lower, because the gas price impact is much lower.

A key reason why the price impact for electricity is less than that of gas is that electricity prices will only be directly affected by an increase in gas prices when gas-fired generation is the marginal source of power generation. That is, gas price only affects power price if it changes the marginal unit (i.e., the last unit in the generation stack needed to service the final amount of electricity load). When gas-fired generation is lower cost than the marginal source, then a small increase in gas price will only impact electricity price if it is sufficient to drive gas-fired generation to be the marginal source of generation. If gas-fired generation is already more expensive than the marginal source of generation, then an increase in gas price will not impact electricity price, since gas-fired generation is not being utilized because there is sufficient capacity from units with lower generation costs.

If gas-fired generation is the marginal source, then electricity price will increase with gas price, but only up to the point that some other source can displace it as marginal source. Every power region has numerous competing power generation plants burning different fuel types, which will mitigate the price impact of an increase in any one fuel type. Moreover, within DPM's integrated power and gas model, fuel switching among coal, nuclear, gas, hydro, wind and oil units is directly represented as part of the modeling.

Figure 10 shows the power supply curve for ERCOT. The curve plots the variable cost of generation and capacity by fuel type. Depending on where the demand curve intersects the supply curve, a generating unit with a particular fuel type will set the electricity price. During extremely low demand periods, hydro, nuclear or coal plants will likely set the price. An increase in gas price during these periods would not impact electricity price in this region because gas-fired plants are typically not utilized. Since the marginal source sets the price, a change in gas price under these conditions would not affect power prices.

Figure 10: Power supply curve for ERCOT region

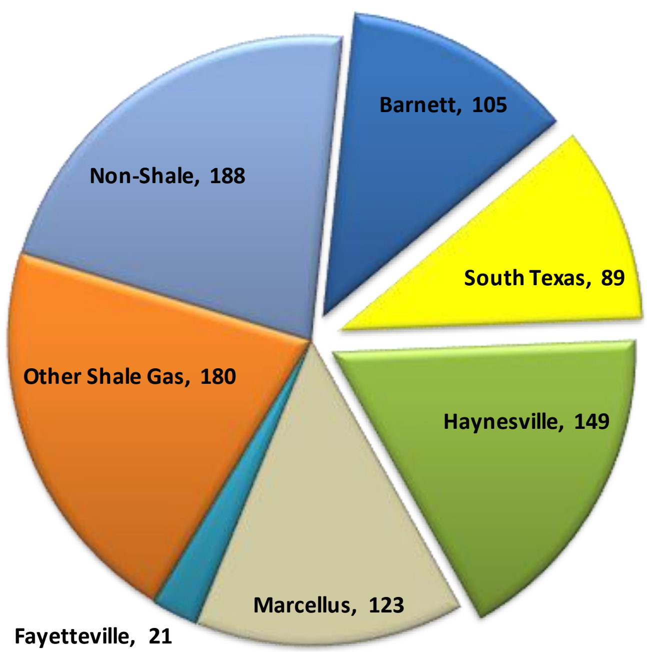


Incremental production impact in Texas from Lavaca Bay export

All of the gas used as feedstock for 1.33 Bcfd of LNG exports from Lavaca Bay is projected to come from Texas production. About one-third of the gas is incremental supplies from Texas production with the remaining two-thirds coming from Texas gas that would have otherwise been exported out of the state but instead is diverted to the terminal. The diverted volumes stimulate production in other supply basins outside Texas. Figure 11 shows the projected increase in production volume on average from 2018-2037.

The shale gas basins that are entirely or at least partially located in Texas are separated to highlight the impact on the State. One might expect South Texas, which includes Eagle Ford shales, to have a larger incremental impact. However, the region is rich in liquids and is projected to grow strongly even without boost from LNG exports. The incremental supplies indicate the marginal regions which would be stimulated with incremental demand.

Figure 11: Average incremental production with Lavaca Bay export, 2018-37 (MMcfd)

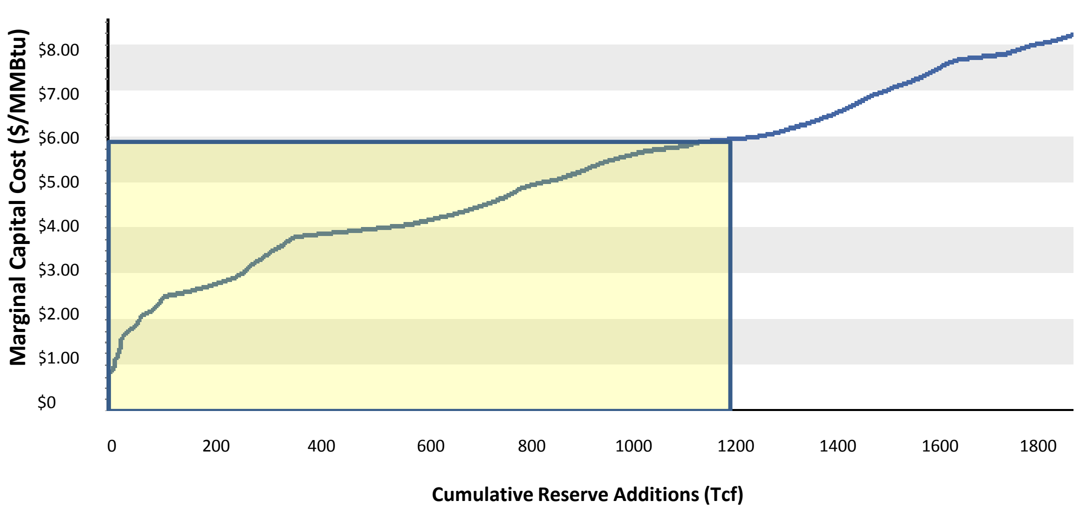


Large domestic supply buffers impact

Figure 12 shows the aggregate U.S. supply curve, including all types of gas formations. It plots the volumes of reserve additions available at different all-in marginal capital costs, including financing, return on equity, and taxes. The marginal capital cost is equivalent to the wellhead price necessary to induce a level of investment required to bring the estimated volumes on line. The model includes over one hundred different supply nodes representing the geographic and geologic diversity of domestic supply basins. The supply data is based on publically available documents and discussions with sources such as the United States Geological Survey, National Petroleum Council, Potential Gas Committee, and the DOE's Energy Information Administration.

The area of the supply curve that matters most for the next couple decades is the section below $6/MMBtu of capital cost because wellhead prices are projected to fall under this level during most of the time horizon considered. These are the volumes that are projected to get produced over the next couple decades. The Reference Case estimates about 1,200 Tcf available at wellhead prices below $6/MMBtu in current dollars. To put the LNG export volumes into perspective, it will accelerate depletion of the domestic resource base, estimated to include about 1,200 Tcf at prices below $6/MMBtu in all-in capital cost, by 2.2 Tcf per year (equivalent to 6 Bcfd). Alternatively, the 2.2 Tcf represents an increase in demand of about 8% to the projected demand of 26 Tcf by the time exports are assumed to commence in 2016. The point is not to downplay the export volume, but to show the big picture. The magnitude of total LNG exports is substantial on its own, but not very significant relative to the entire U.S. resource base or total U.S. demand.

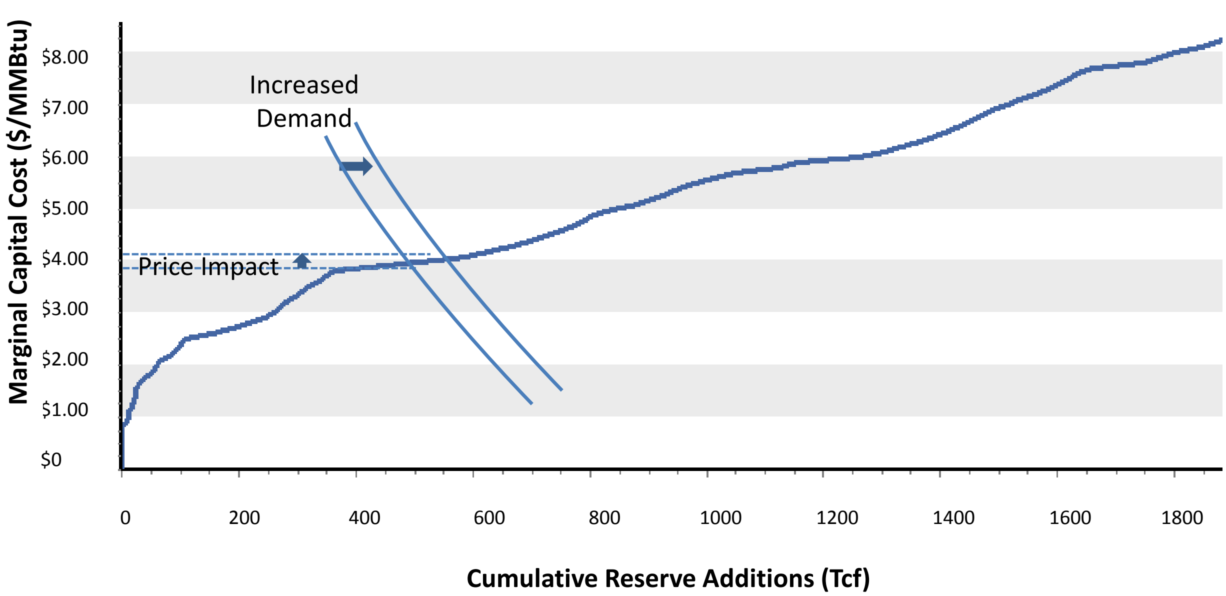
Figure 12: Aggregate U.S. natural gas supply curve (2012 $)



With regards to the potential impact of LNG exports, the absolute price is not the driving factor but rather the shape of the aggregate supply curve which determines the price impact. Figure 13 depicts how demand increase affects price. Incremental demand pushes out the demand curve, causing it to intersect the supply curve at a higher point. Since the supply curve is fairly flat in the area of demand, the price impact is fairly small. The massive shale gas resources have flattened the U.S. supply curve. It is the shape of the aggregate supply curve that really matters. Hence, leftward and rightward movements in the demand curve (where such leftward and rightward movements would be volumes of LNG export) cut through the supply curve at pretty much the same price. Flat, elastic supply means that the price of domestic natural gas is increasingly and continually determined by supply issues (e.g., production cost). Given that there is a significant quantity of domestic gas available at modest production costs, the export of 6 Bcfd of LNG would not increase the price of domestic gas very much because it would not increase the production cost of domestic gas very much.

The projected sources of incremental volumes used to meet the assumed export volumes come from multiple sources, including domestic resources (both shale gas and non-shale gas), import volumes, and demand elasticity. Figure 14 shows the sources of incremental volumes in the 6 Bcfd LNG export case on average from 2018 to 2037, the assumed years of LNG exports. (The source fractions are similar for other LNG export cases so we only show the 6 Bcfd case.) The bulk of the incremental volumes come from shale gas production. Including non-shale gas production, the domestic production contributes 63% of the total incremental volume. Net pipeline imports, comprised mostly of imports from Canada, contribute another 18%. Higher U.S. prices induce greater Canadian production, primarily from Horn River and Montney shale gas resources, making gas available for export to the U.S. The net exports to Mexico declines slightly as higher cost of U.S. supplies will likely prompt more Mexican production and would reduce the need for U.S. exports to Mexico. Higher gas prices are also projected to trigger demand elasticity so less gas is consumed, representing about 19% of the incremental volume. Most of the reduction in gas consumption comes from the power sector as higher gas prices incentivize greater utilization of generators burning other types of fuels.

Figure 13: Impact of higher demand on price (illustrative)

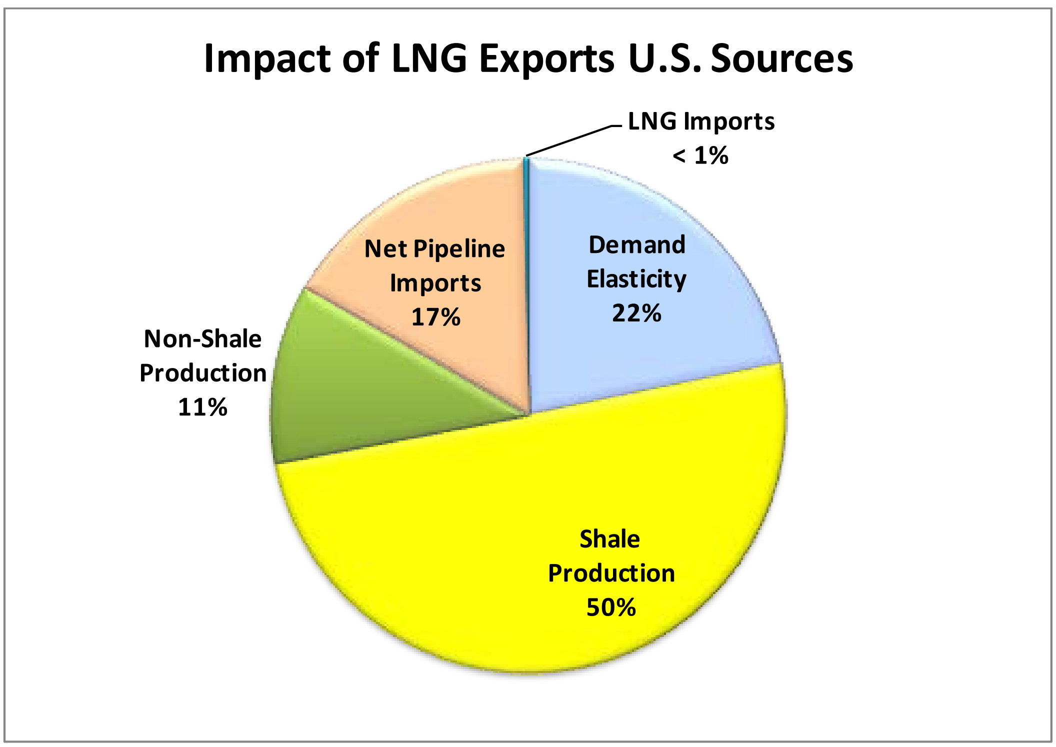


Finally, there is an insignificant increment, less than 1%, coming from LNG imports. Having both LNG imports and exports is not necessarily contradictory since there is variation in price by terminal (e.g., Everett terminal near Boston will likely see higher prices than will Gulf terminals) and by time (e.g., LNG cargos will seek to arbitrage seasonal price).

These results underscore the fact that the North American natural gas market is highly integrated and the entire market works to mitigate price impacts of demand changes.

During moderate or moderately high demand periods, coal or gas could be the marginal fuel type. If it is gas on the margin, price can rise only up to the cost of the next marginal fuel type (e.g., coal plant). If gas remains on margin, then it will be a simple calculation to see electricity price impact. At the projected Henry Hub gas price impact of $0.26/MMBtu, a typical gas plant with a heat rate of 8,000 would cost an additional $2.08/MWh (=$0.26/MMBtu x 8000 Btu/MWh x 1 MMBtu/1000 Btu). We believe that is the most that the gas price increase could elevate electricity price. Power load fluctuates greatly during a day, typically peaking during mid-afternoon and falling during the night. That implies that the marginal fuel type will also vary and gas will be at the margin only part of the time.

Figure 14: Projected sources of incremental volume in the 6 Bcfd Export Case (Average 2018-37)



Comparison of results to other studies

A number of studies, including others submitted to the DOE in association with LNG export applications, have estimated impacts of LNG exports from the U.S. The EIA also performed a study[4] at the request of the DOE. The various studies used different models and assumptions, but a comparison of their results might shed some light on the key factors and range of possible outcomes.

Figure 15 compares projections of estimated Henry Hub price impact from 2015 to 2035 with 6 Bcfd of LNG exports. The price impact ranges from 4% to 11%, with this study being on the low end and the ICF International being on the high end. The first observation is that, although the percentage differences are large on a relative basis, the range of estimated impacts is not so large. These studies consistently show that the price impact will not be that large relative to the change in demand. Bear in mind that 6 Bcfd is a fairly large incremental demand. In fact, it exceeds the combined gas demands in New York (3.3 Bcfd) and Pennsylvania (2.4 Bcfd) in 2011. These studies indicate that adding a sizeable incremental gas load on the U.S. energy system might result in a gas price increase of 11% or less.

Although we have limited data relating to specific assumptions and detailed output from the other studies, we can infer why the impacts differ so much. By most accounts, the resource base in the United States is plentiful, perhaps sufficient to last some 100 years at current production levels. All of the studies listed, including our own, had estimated natural gas resource volumes, including proved reserves and undiscovered gas of all types, of over 2,000 Tcf. Why then would the LNG export impacts vary as much as they do?

An important distinction between our analysis and the other studies is the representation of market dynamics, particularly for supply response to demand changes. That is, how do the studies represent how producers will respond to demand changes? The World Gas Model has a dynamic supply representation in which producers are assumed to anticipate demand and price changes. Producers do more than just respond to price that they see, but

Figure 15: Comparison of projected price impact from 2015-35 at the Henry Hub with 6 Bcfd of LNG exports

Study	Price without Exports ($/MMBtu)	Price with Exports ($/MMBtu)	Average Price Increase (%)
EIA	$ 5.28	$ 5.78	9%
Navigant (2010)	$ 4.75	$ 5.10	7%
Navigant (2012)	$ 5.67	$ 6.01	6%
ICF International	$ 5.81	$ 6.45	11%
Deloitte MarketPoint	$ 6.11	$ 6.37	4%

Source: Brookings Institute for all estimates besides Deloitte MarketPoint's

[4] "Effect of Increased Natural Gas Exports on Domestic Energy Markets," Howard Gruenspecht, EIA, January 2012.

rather anticipate events. Accordingly, prices will rise to induce producers to develop supplies in time to meet future demand.

Other models, primarily based on linear programming (LP)[5] or similar approaches, use static representation of supply in that supply does not anticipate price or demand growth. These static supply models require the user to input estimates of productive capacities in each future time period. The Brookings Institution completed a study assessing the impact of LNG exports and analyzing different economic approaches.[6] . As the Brookings study states:

"… static supply model, which, unlike dynamic supply models, does not fully take account of the effect that higher prices have on spurring additional production."

Since the supply volumes available in each time period is an input into LP models, the user must input how supply will respond to demand. In the case of LNG exports, the user must input how much supplies will increase and how quickly given the export volumes. Hence, the price impact is largely determined by how the user changes these inputs.

The purpose of this discussion is not to assert which approach is best, but rather to understand the differences so that the projections can be understood in their proper context. Assuming little or no price anticipation will tend to elevate the projected price impact while assuming price anticipation will tend to mitigate the projected price impact. Depending on the issue being analyzed, one approach may be more appropriate than the other. In the case of LNG export terminals, our belief is that the assumption of dynamic supply demand balance is appropriate. Given the long lead time, expected to be at least five years, required to permit, site, and construct an LNG export terminal, producers will have both ample time and plenty of notice to prepare for the export volumes. It would be a different matter if exports were to begin with little advanced notice.

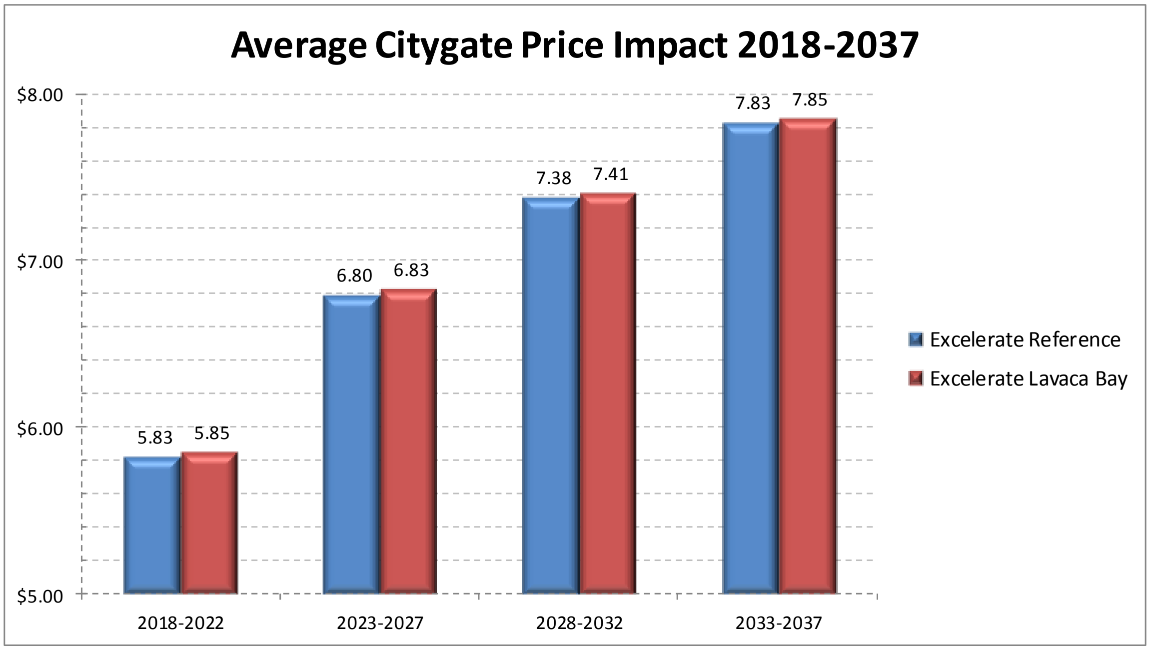
The importance of timing is evident in EIA's projections. The projected price impact is highly dependent on how quickly export volumes are assumed to ramp up. Furthermore, in all cases, the impacts are the greatest in the early years of exports. The impacts dissipate over time as supplies are assumed to eventually catch up with the demand growth.

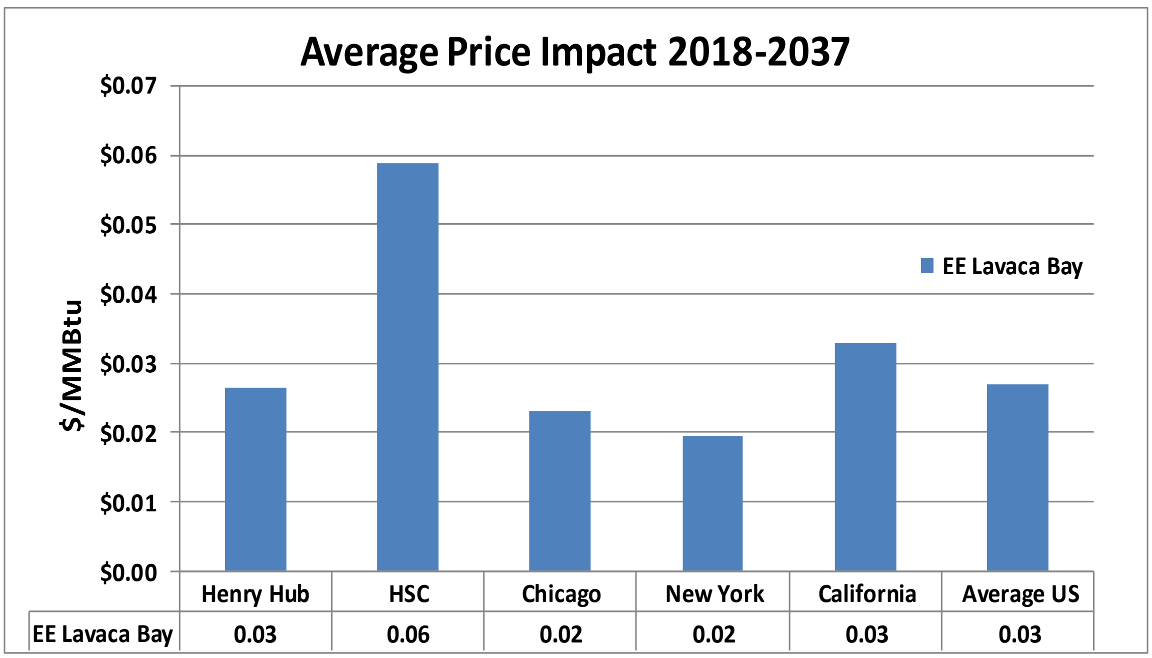
Natural gas producers are highly sophisticated companies with analytical teams monitoring and forecasting market conditions. Producers, well aware of the potential LNG export projects, are looking forward to the opportunity to supply these projects.

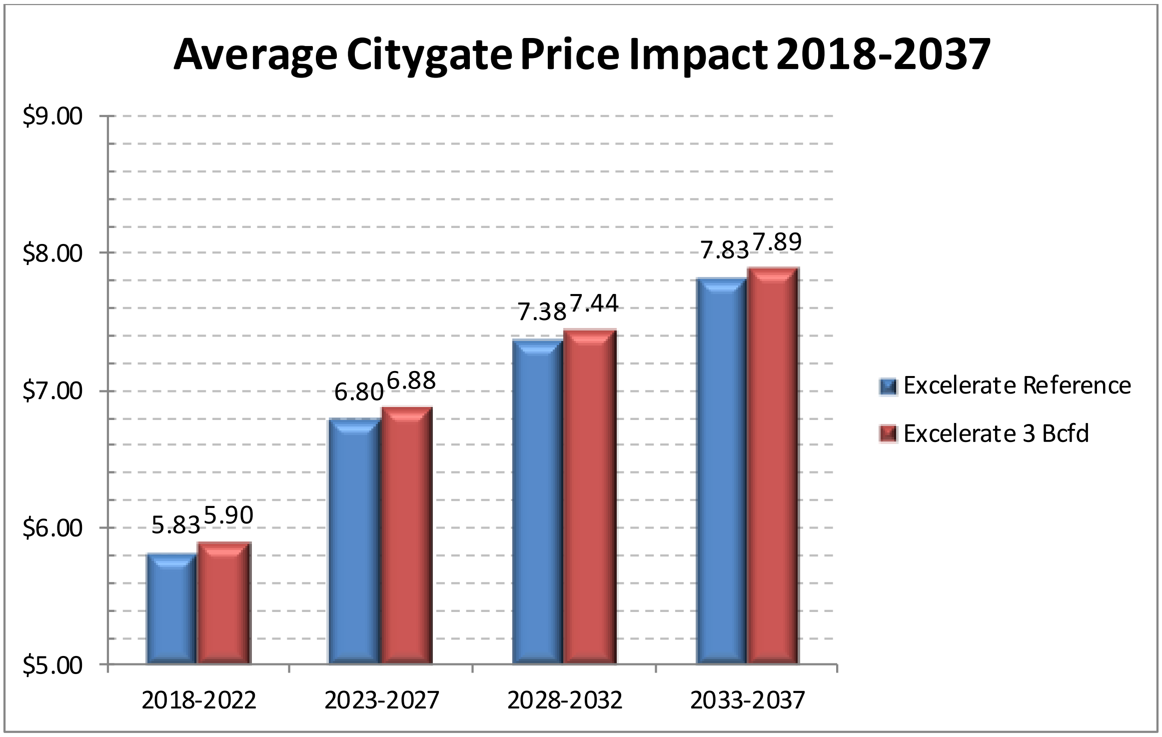
[5] Linear programming ("LP") is a mathematical technique for solving a global objective function subject to a series of linear constraints

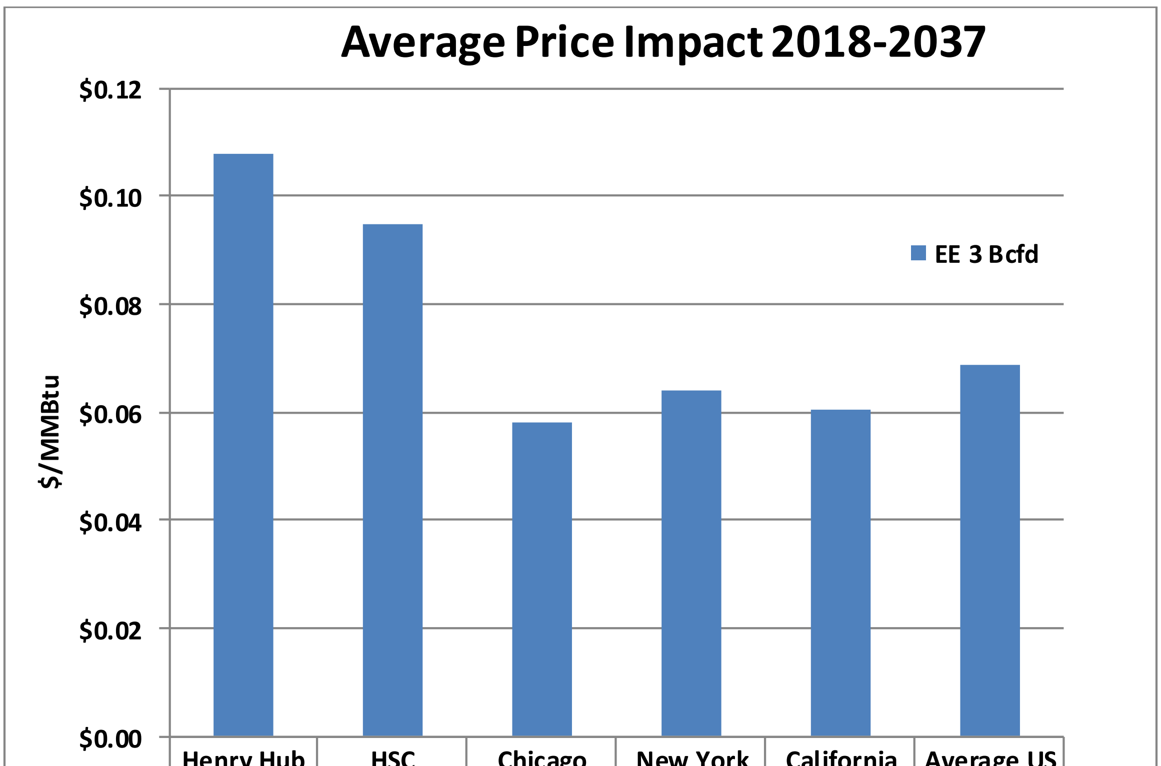
[6] "Liquid Markets: Assessing the Case for U.S. Exports of Liquefied Natural Gas," Brookings Institution (2012).

Appendix A: Price Impact Charts for other Export Cases

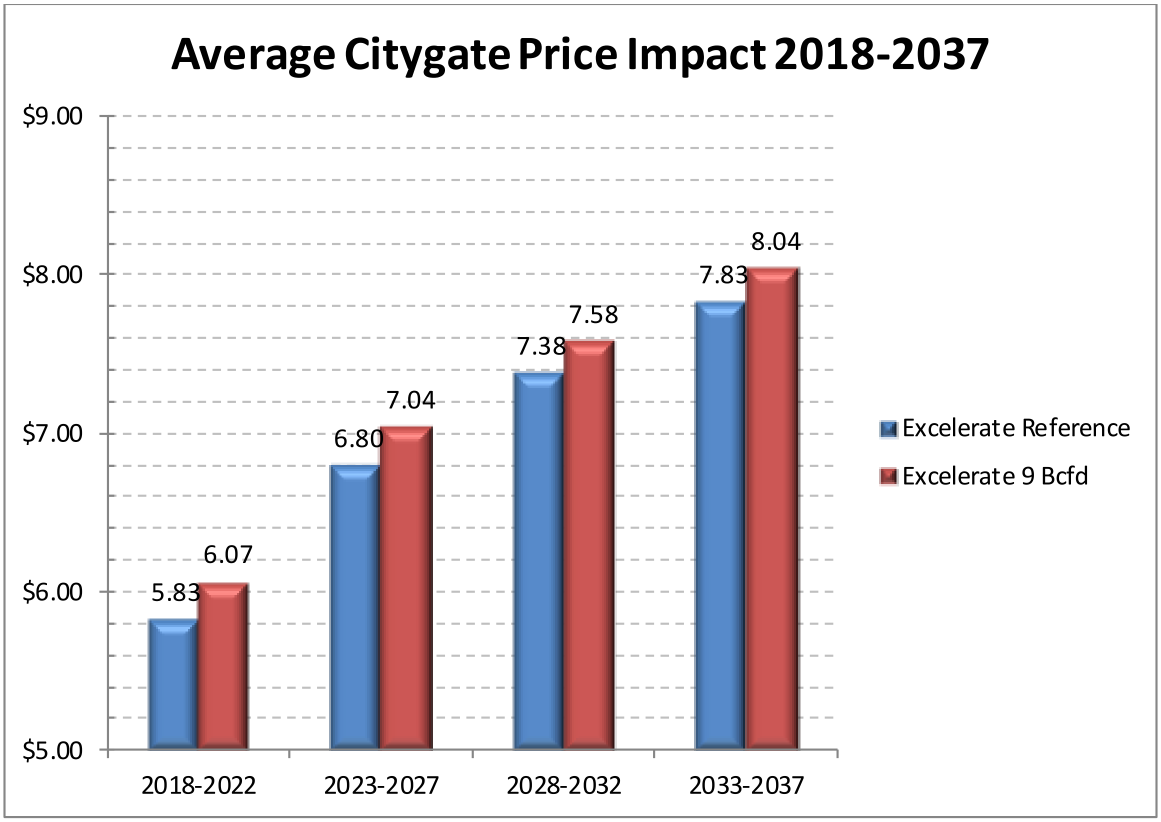


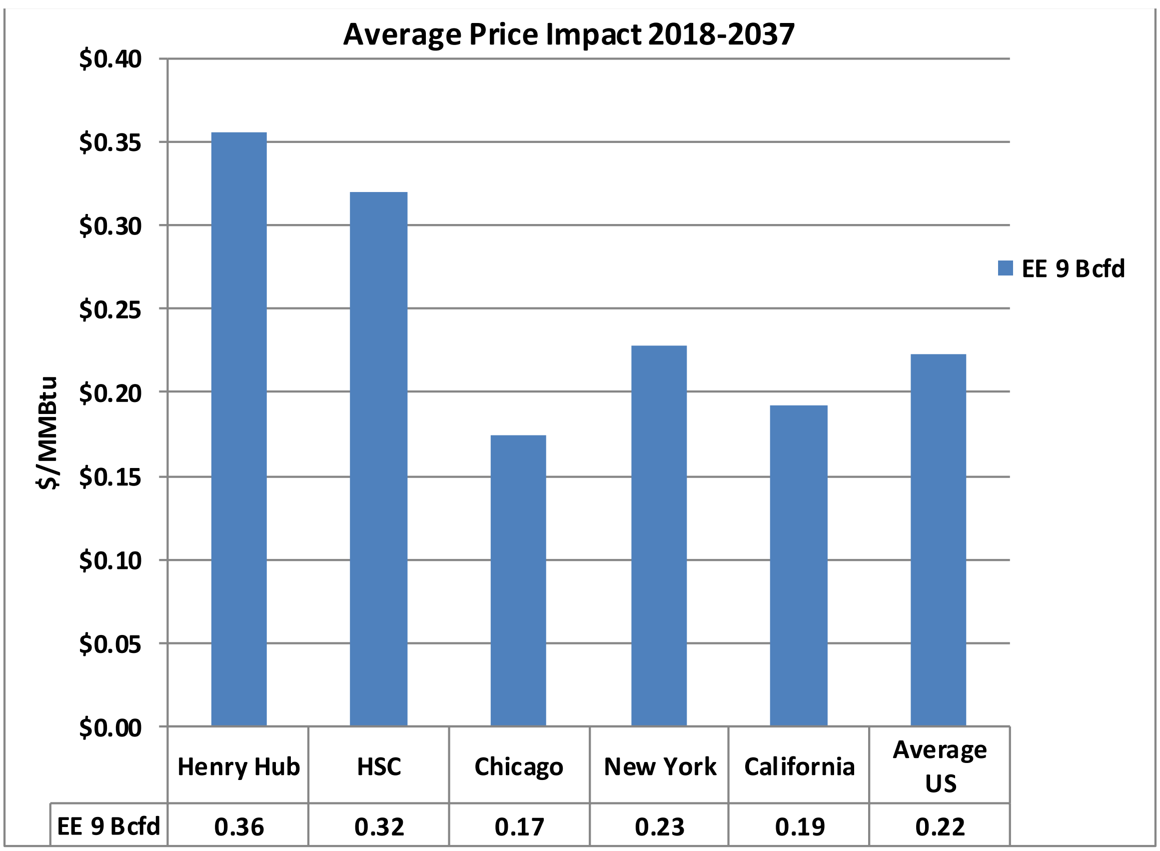


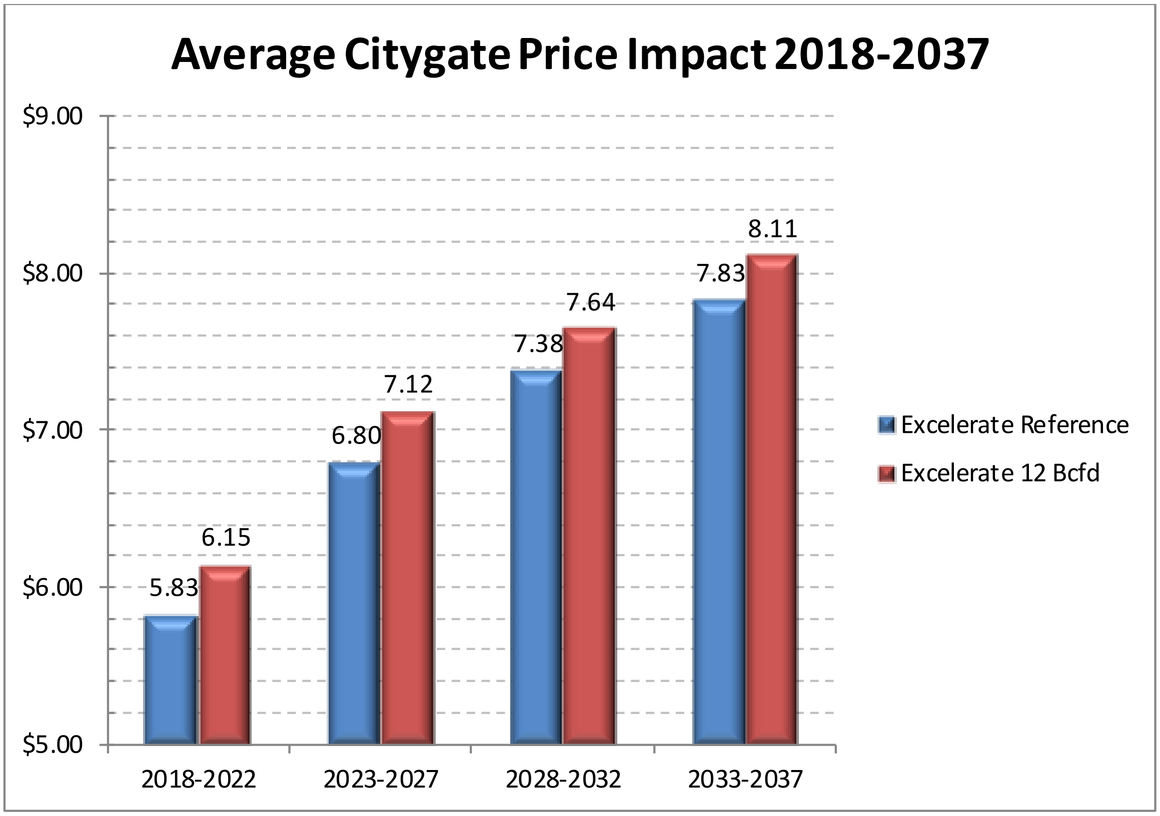


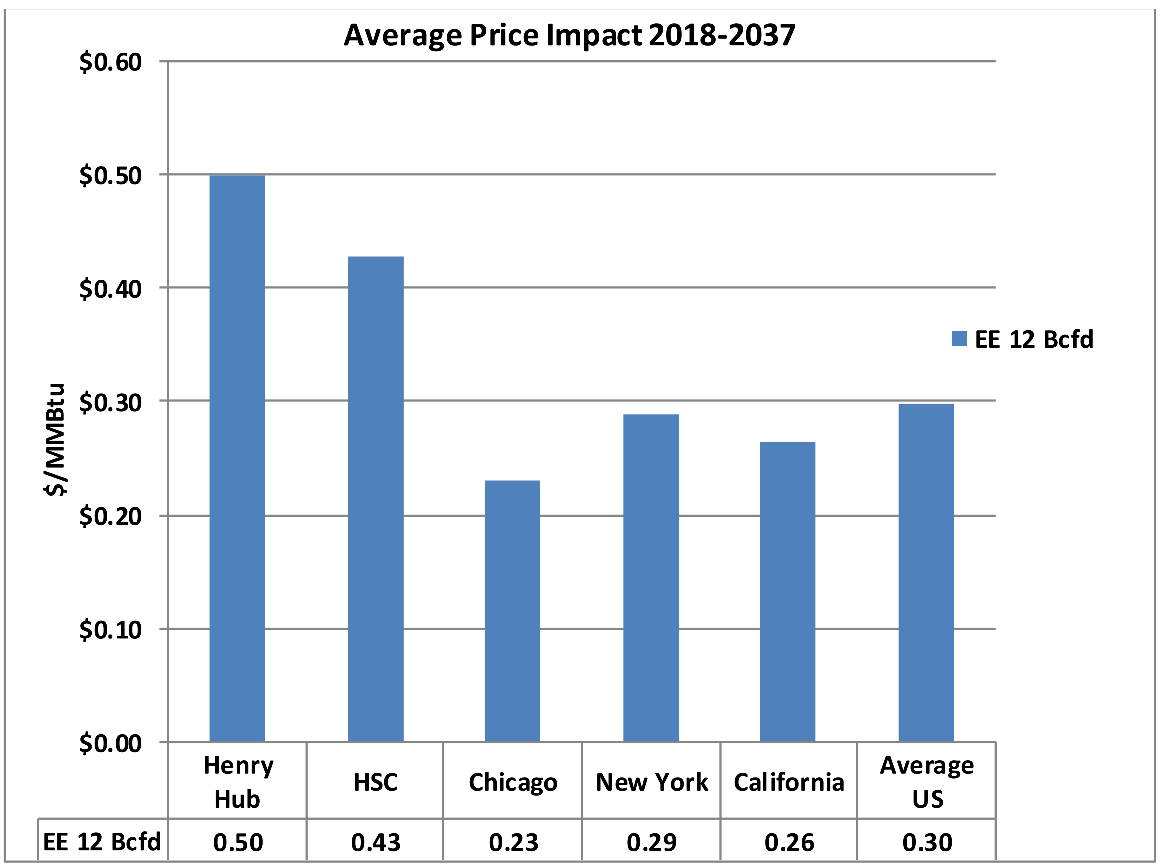


	Henry Hub	HSC	Chicago	New York	California	Average US
EE 3 Bcfd	0.11	0.09	0.06	0.06	0.06	0.07


Average Citygate Price Impact 2018-2037
$9.00
$8.00
$7.00
$6.00
$5.00
5.83
6.07
6.80
7.04
7.38
7.58
7.83
8.04
2018-2022
2023-2027
2028-2032
2033-2037
Excelerate Reference
Excelerate 9 Bcfd


Average Price Impact 2018-2037
$/MMBtu
$0.40
$0.35
$0.30
$0.25
$0.20
$0.15
$0.10
$0.05
$0.00
EE 9 Bcfd
Henry Hub
HSC
Chicago
New York
California
Average US
EE 9 Bcfd
0.36
0.32
0.17
0.23
0.19
0.22


Average Citygate Price Impact 2018-2037
$9.00
$8.00
$7.00
$6.00
$5.00
5.83
6.15
6.80
7.12
7.38
7.64
7.83
8.11
2018-2022
2023-2027
2028-2032
2033-2037
Excelerate Reference
Excelerate 12 Bcfd


Average Price Impact 2018-2037
$/MMBtu
$0.60
$0.50
$0.40
$0.30
$0.20
$0.10
$0.00
EE 12 Bcfd
Henry Hub
HSC
Chicago
New York
California
Average US
EE 12 Bcfd
0.50
0.43
0.23
0.29
0.26
0.30

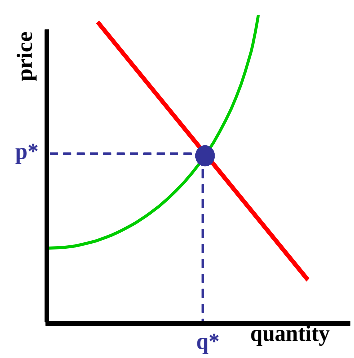
Appendix B: DMP's World Gas Model and data

To help understand the complexities and dynamics of global natural gas markets, DMP uses its World Gas Model ("WGM") developed in our proprietary MarketBuilder software. The WGM, based on sound economic theories and detailed representations of global gas demand, supply basins, and infrastructure, projects market clearing prices and quantities over a long time horizon on a monthly basis. The projections are based on market fundamentals rather than historical trends or statistical extrapolations.

WGM represents fundamental producer decisions regarding the timing and quantity of reserves to develop given the producer's resource endowments and anticipated forward prices. This supply-demand dynamic is particularly important in analyzing the market value of gas supply in remote parts of the world. The WGM uses sophisticated depletable resource logic in which today's drilling decisions affect tomorrow's price and tomorrow's price affects today's drilling decisions. It captures the market dynamics between suppliers and consumers.

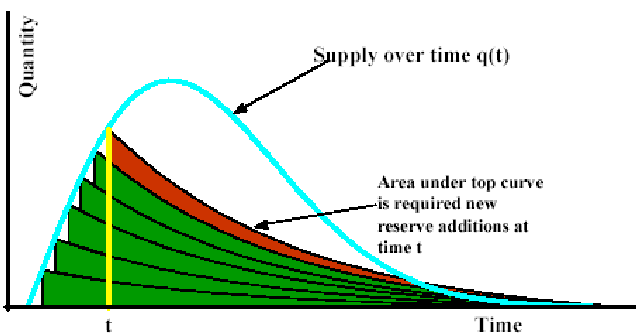
WGM simulates how regional interactions among supply, transportation, and demand interact to determine market clearing prices, flowing volumes, reserve additions, and pipeline entry and exit through 2046. The WGM divides the world into major geographic regions that are connected by marine freight. Within each major region are very detailed representations of many market elements: production, liquefaction, transportation, market hubs, regasification and demand by country or sub area. All known significant existing and prospective trade routes, LNG liquefaction plants, LNG regasification plants and LNG terminals are represented. Competition with oil and coal is modeled in each region. The capability to model the related markets for emission credits and how these may impact LNG markets is included. The model includes detailed representation of LNG liquefaction, shipping, and regasification; pipelines; supply basins; and demand by sector. Each regional diagram describes how market elements interact internally and with other regions.

Agent based economic methodology. MarketBuilder rigorously adheres to accepted microeconomic theory to solve for supply and demand using an "agent based" approach. To understand the benefits of the agent based approach, suppose you have a market comprised of 1000 agents, i.e., producers, pipelines, refineries, ships, distributors, and consumers. If your model of that market is to be correct, how many optimization problems must there be in your model of that 1000 agent market? The answer is clear—there must be 1000 distinct, independent optimization problems. Every individual agent must be represented as simultaneously solving and pursuing his or her own maximization problem, vying for market share and trying to maximize his or her own individual profits. Market prices



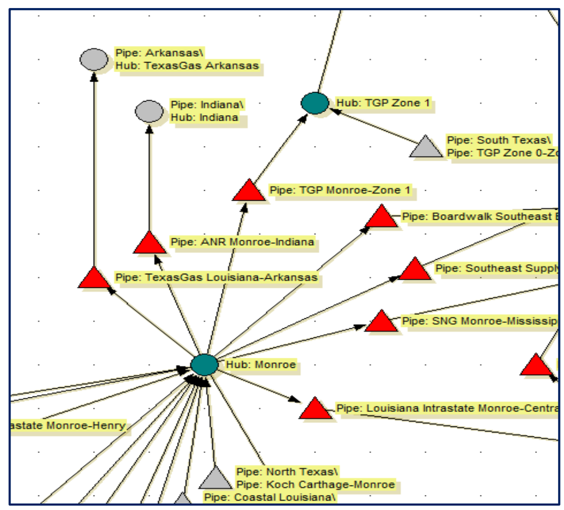
arise from the competition among these 1000 disparate, profit-seeking agents. This is the essence of microeconomic theory and competitive markets — people vying in markets for profits — and MarketBuilder rigorously approaches the problem from this perspective. In contrast, LP models postulate a single optimization problem no matter how many agents there are in the market; they only allow one, overall, global optimization problem. With LP, all 1000 agents are assumed to be manipulated by a "central authority" who forces them to act in lockstep to minimize the worldwide cost of production, shipment, and consumption of oil, i.e., to minimize the total cost of gas added up over the entire world.

Supply methodology and data. Working with data from agencies such as the United States Geological Survey (USGS), Energy Information Administration (EIA), and International Energy Agency (IEA), we have compiled a full and credible database of global supplies. In

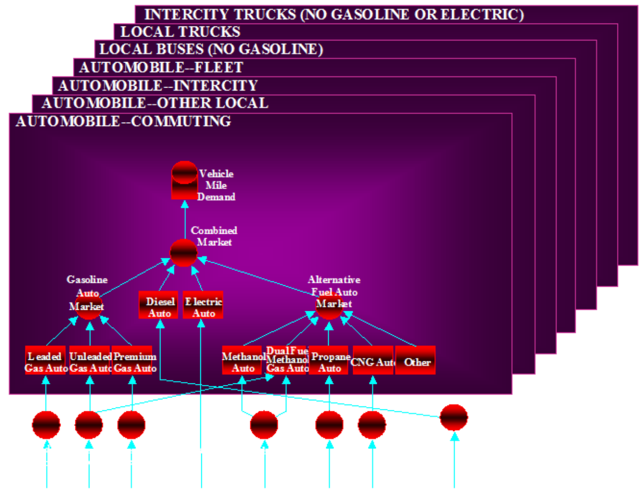


particular, we relied on USGS' world oil and gas supply data including proved reserves, conventional undiscovered resources, growth of reserves in existing fields, continuous and unconventional deposits, deep water potential, and exotic sources. Derived from detailed probabilistic analysis of the world oil and gas resource base (575 plays in the US alone), the USGS data lies at the heart of DMP' reference case resource database. Only the USGS does a worldwide, "bottom up" resource assessment. Customers can easily substitute their own proprietary view where they believe they have better information. MarketBuilder allows the use of sophisticated depletable resource modeling to represent production of primary oil and gas (an extended Hotelling model). The DMP Hotelling depletable resource model uses a "rational expectations" approach, which assumes that today's drilling affects tomorrow's price and tomorrow's price affects today's drilling. Thus MarketBuilder combines a resource model that approaches resource development the same way real producers do given the available data.

Transportation data. DMP maintains a global pipeline and transportation database. DMP and our clients regularly revise and update the transportation data including capacity, tariffs, embedded cost, discounting behavior, dates of entry of prospective new pipelines, and costs of those new pipelines.



Non-linear demand methodology. MarketBuilder allows the use of multi-variate nonlinear representations of demand by sector, without limit on the number of demand sectors. DMP is skilled at performing regression analyses on historical data to evaluate the effect of price, weather, GNP, etc. on demand. Using our methodology, DMP systematically models the impact of price change on demand (demand price feedback) to provide realistic results.



Applications Received by DOE/FE to Export Domestically Produced LNG from the Lower-48 States (as of April 2, 2013)

All Changes Since March 7, 2013 Update Are In Red

Company	Quantity [a]	FTA Applications [b] (Docket Number)	Non-FTA Applications [c] (Docket Number)
Sabine Pass Liquefaction, LLC	2.2 billion cubic feet per day (Bcf/d) [d]	Approved (10-85-LNG)	Approved (10-111-LNG)
Freeport LNG Expansion, L.P. and FLNG Liquefaction, LLC	1.4 Bcf/d [d]	Approved (10-160-LNG)	Under DOE Review (10-161-LNG)
Lake Charles Exports, LLC	2.0 Bcf/d [e]**	Approved (11-59-LNG)	Under DOE Review (11-59-LNG)
Carib Energy (USA) LLC	0.03 Bcf/d: FTA 0.01 Bcf/d: non-FTA [f]	Approved (11-71-LNG)	Under DOE Review (11-141-LNG)
Dominion Cove Point LNG, LP	1.0 Bcf/d [d]	Approved (11-115-LNG)	Under DOE Review (11-128-LNG)
Jordan Cove Energy Project, L.P.	1.2 Bcf/d: FTA 0.8 Bcf/d: non-FTA [g]	Approved (11-127-LNG)	Under DOE Review (12-32-LNG)
Cameron LNG, LLC	1.7 Bcf/d [d]	Approved (11-145-LNG)	Under DOE Review (11-162-LNG)
Freeport LNG Expansion, L.P. and FLNG Liquefaction, LLC [h]	1.4 Bcf/d [d]	Approved (12-06-LNG)	Under DOE Review (11-161-LNG)
Gulf Coast LNG Export, LLC [i]	2.8 Bcf/d[d]	Approved (12-05-LNG)	Under DOE Review (12-05-LNG)
Gulf LNG Liquefaction Company, LLC	1.5 Bcf/d[d]	Approved (12-47-LNG)	Under DOE Review (12-101-LNG)
LNG Development Company, LLC (d/b/a Oregon LNG)	1.25 Bcf/d[d]	Approved (12-48-LNG)	Under DOE Review (12-77-LNG)
SB Power Solutions Inc.	0.07 Bcf/d	Approved (12-50-LNG)	n/a
Southern LNG Company, L.L.C.	0.5 Bcf/d[d]	Approved (12-54-LNG)	Under DOE Review (12-100-LNG)
Excelerate Liquefaction Solutions I, LLC	1.38 Bcf/d[d]	Approved (12-61-LNG)	Under DOE Review (12-146-LNG)
Golden Pass Products LLC	2.6 Bcf/d[d]	Approved (12-88 -LNG)	Under DOE Review (12-156-LNG)
Cheniere Marketing, LLC	2.1 Bcf/d[d]	Approved (12-99-LNG)	Under DOE Review (12-97-LNG)
Main Pass Energy Hub, LLC	3.22 Bcf/d***	Approved (12-114-LNG)	n/a
CE FLNG, LLC	1.07 Bcf/d[d]	Approved (12-123-LNG)	Under DOE Review (12-123-LNG)
Waller LNG Services, LLC	0.16 Bcf/d	Approved (12-152-LNG)	n/a
Pangea LNG (North America) Holdings, LLC	1.09 Bcf/d[d]	Approved (12-174-LNG)	Under DOE Review (12-184-LNG)
Magnolia LNG, LLC	0.54 Bcf/d	Approved (12-183-LNG)	n/a

Applications Received by DOE/FE to Export Domestically Produced LNG from the Lower-48 States (as of April 2, 2013)

All Changes Since March 7, 2013 Update Are In Red

Company	Quantity [(a)]	FTA Applications [(b)] (Docket Number)	Non-FTA Applications [(c)] (Docket Number)
Trunkline LNG Export, LLC	2.0 Bcf/d**	Approved (13-04-LNG)	Under DOE Review (13-04-LNG)
Gasfin Development USA, LLC	0.2 Bcf/d	Approved (13-06-LNG)	n/a
Freeport-McMoRan Energy LLC	3.22 Bcf/d***	Pending Approval (13-26-LNG)	Under DOE Review (13-26-LNG)
Sabine Pass Liquefaction, LLC	0.28 Bcf/d[(d)]	Pending Approval (13-30-LNG)	Under DOE Review (13-30-LNG)
Sabine Pass Liquefaction, LLC	0.24 Bcf/d[(d)]	Pending Approval (13-42-LNG)	Under DOE Review (13-42-LNG)
Total of all Applications Received		**29.93 Bcf/d(**) (***)**	**28.54 Bcf/d**

** Lake Charles Exports, LLC (LCE) and Trunkline LNG Export, LLC (TLNG), the owner of the Lake Charles Terminal, have both filed an application to export up to 2.0 Bcf/d of LNG from the Lake Charles Terminal. The total quantity of combined exports requested between LCE and TLNG does not exceed 2.0 Bcf/d (i.e., both requests are not additive and only 2 Bcf/d is included in the bottom-line total of applications received).

*** Main Pass Energy Hub, LLC (MPEH) and Freeport McMoRan Energy LLC (FME), have both filed an application to export up to 3.22 Bcf/d of LNG from the Main Pass Energy Hub. (The existing Main Pass Energy Hub structures are owned by FME). The total quantity of combined FTA exports requested between MPEH and FME does not exceed 3.22 Bcf/d (i.e., both requests are not additive and only 3.22 Bcf/d is included in the bottom-line total of FTA applications received). FME's application includes exports of 3.22 Bcf/d to non-FTA countries and is included in the bottom line total of non-FTA applications received, while MPEH has not submitted an application to export LNG to non-FTA countries.

(a) Actual applications were in the equivalent annual quantities.

(b) FTA – Applications to export to free trade agreement (FTA) countries. The Natural Gas Act, as amended, has deemed FTA exports to be in the public interest and applications shall be authorized without modification or delay.

(c) Non-FTA applications require DOE to post a notice of application in the Federal Register for comments, protests and motions to intervene, and to evaluate the application to make a public interest consistency determination.

(d) Requested approval of this quantity in both the FTA and non-FTA export applications. Total facility is limited to this quantity (i.e., FTA and non-FTA volumes are not additive at a facility).

(e) Lake Charles Exports, LLC submitted one application seeking separate authorizations to export LNG to FTA countries and another authorization to export to Non-FTA countries. The proposed facility has a capacity of 2.0 Bcf/d, which is the volume requested in both the FTA and Non-FTA authorizations.

(f) Carib Energy (USA) LLC requested authority to export the equivalent of 11.53 Bcf per year of natural gas to FTA countries and 3.44 Bcf per year to non-FTA countries.

(g) Jordan Cove Energy Project, L.P. requested authority to export the equivalent of 1.2 Bcf/d of natural gas to FTA countries and 0.8 Bcf/d to non-FTA countries.

(h) DOE/FE received a new application (11-161-LNG) by FLEX to export an additional 1.4 Bcf/d of LNG from new trains to be located at the Freeport LNG Terminal, to non-FTA countries, and a separate application (12-06-LNG) to export this same 1.4 Bcf/d of LNG to FTA countries (received January 12, 2012). This 1.4 Bcf/d is in addition to the 1.4 Bcf/d FLEX requested in dockets (10-160-LNG and 10-161-LNG).

(i) An application was submitted by Gulf Coast on January 10, 2012, seeking one authorization to export LNG to any country not prohibited by U.S. law or policy. On September 11, 2012, Gulf Coast revised their application by seeking separate authorizations for LNG exports to FTA countries and Non-FTA countries.

(j) Total does not include 2.0 Bcf/d

UNITED STATES ENVIRONMENTAL PROTECTION AGENCY
REGION 10
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OFFICE OF
ECOSYSTEMS,
TRIBAL AND PUBLIC
AFFAIRS

October 29, 2012

The Honorable Kimberly D. Bose, Secretary
Federal Energy Regulatory Commission
888 First Street, NE, Room 1A
Washington, DC 20426

Re: SCOPING COMMENTS – The Jordan Cove Energy Project LP and the Pacific Connector Gas Pipeline Notice of Intent to Prepare an Environmental Impact Statement. EPA Region 10 Project Number: 12-0042-FRC and 12-0049-AFS. *FERC Docket Nos. PF12-7-000 and PF12-17-000.*

Dear Secretary Bose:

The U.S. Environmental Protection Agency (EPA) would like to provide detailed scoping comments in response to the Federal Energy Regulatory Commission's (FERC's) August 13, 2012 Notice of Intent (NOI) to prepare an Environmental Impact Statement (EIS) for the Jordan Cove Energy Project and Pacific Connector Gas Pipeline. With these comments we are also responding to the September 21, 2012 NOI to prepare an EIS issued by the Forest Service and BLM for Right of Way grants and land use amendments related to the Pacific Connector Gas Pipeline. These comments were prepared in accordance with our authorities pursuant to the National Environmental Policy Act (NEPA), Section 309 of the Clean Air Act, the Clean Water Act, and our responsibilities as a Cooperating Agency. We appreciate the opportunity for early involvement at this step of the NEPA process.

The Clean Air Act Section 309 directs the EPA to review and comment in writing on the environmental impacts resulting from certain proposed actions of other federal agencies and the adequacy of the Draft EIS in meeting the procedural and public disclosure requirements in accordance with NEPA. Please see the EPA's review criteria for rating Draft EISs at the EPA web site: (http://www.epa.gov/compliance/nepa/comments/ratings.html). Our review authorities under Section 309 are independent of our responsibilities as a Cooperating Agency for this EIS.

The FERC's NOI describes Jordan Cove's proposal to construct and operate an LNG export terminal on the North Spit of Coos Bay. The terminal would have the capacity to produce approximately six million metric tons per annum of LNG (equivalent to 0.9 billion cubic feet per day [Bcf/d] of natural gas). Facilities would include:

- 7.3 mile long waterway in Coos Bay for about 80 LNG carriers per year;
- 0.3 mile long access channel and marine berth;
- A cryogenic transfer pipeline;
- Two 160,000 cubic meter LNG storage tanks;
- Four liquefaction trains (each with a capacity of 1.5 million metric tons per annum);
- Two feed gas and dehydration trains with a combined throughput of 1Bcf/d of natural gas; and
- A 350 megawatt South Dunes power plant.

The attendant Pacific Connector pipeline would be 36 inches in diameter and about 230 miles long, extending from interconnections with other interstate pipelines near Malin, Oregon to the Jordan Cove LNG terminal at Coos Bay. The pipeline would have a design capacity of 0.9 Bcf/d of natural gas. Related facilities include:

- Two meter stations at the interconnections with the existing Gas Transmission Northwest and Ruby pipelines near Malin, Oregon;
- A 23,000 horsepower compressor station adjacent to the GTN and Ruby meter stations;
- A meter station at the interconnection with the existing Williams Northwest Pipeline system near Myrtle Creek, Oregon; and
- A meter station at the Jordan Cove terminal.

The enclosed scoping comments were prepared based on our review of the NOIs referenced above and the draft Resource Reports 1 and 10. Our comments reflect a broad range of issues that we believe to be significant and warrant treatment in the EIS. Among these issues is the range of alternatives. We encourage the FERC to consider a broad range of reasonable alternatives in the EIS that are capable of meeting the project's purpose and need and we look forward to continued discussions on this matter. For example, we would be interested in discussing whether an intertie with the Williams pipeline could be considered as a reasonable alternative and examined in the EIS. We also recommend expanding the scope of analysis to capture the non-jurisdictional South Dunes power plant as well as indirect effects related to gas drilling and combustion.

As a Cooperating Agency, we look forward to continued communication with your office throughout the development of the EIS, and we are available to work with FERC to review and comment on preliminary sections of the document. If you have any questions regarding our scoping comments, please do not hesitate to contact me at (206) 553-1601 or by electronic mail at reichgott.christine@epa.gov, or you may contact Teresa Kubo of my staff in the Oregon Operations Office at (503) 326-2859 or by electronic mail at kubo.teresa@epa.gov. We look forward to our continued coordination and involvement in this project.

Sincerely,

Christine B. Reichgott

Christine B. Reichgott, Manager
Environmental Review and Sediment Management Unit

Enclosure

U.S. Environmental Protection Agency
Detailed Scoping Comments to Address the Federal Energy Regulatory Commission's Notice of Intent to Prepare an Environmental Impact Statement for the Jordan Cove Energy Project and Pacific Connector Gas Pipeline
FERC Docket Nos. PF12-7-000 and PF12-17-000

Purpose and Need
The EIS should include a clear and concise statement of the underlying purpose and need for the proposed project, consistent with the implementing regulations for NEPA (see 40 CFR 1502.13). In presenting the purpose and need for the project, the EIS should reflect not only the FERC's purpose, but also the broader public interest and need.

In supporting the statement of purpose and need, we recommend discussing the proposed project in the context of the larger energy market, including existing export capacity and export capacity under application to the Department of Energy, and clearly describe how the need for the proposed action has been determined.

Alternatives Analysis
NEPA requires evaluation of reasonable alternatives, including those that may not be within the jurisdiction of the lead agency[1]. A robust range of alternatives will include options for avoiding significant environmental impacts. The EIS should "rigorously explore and objectively evaluate all reasonable alternatives"[2] by developing a screening process. The screening process should rate each alternative against a set of pre-determined criteria. Each alternative should then be analyzed for its level of impact on a resource (e.g. no effect, negligible effect, minor effect, major effect, significant effect). Only the alternative that effectively meets or best meets all of the screening criteria should be recommended as the preferred alternative. The EIS should provide a clear discussion of the reasons for the elimination of alternatives which are not evaluated in detail.

We appreciate that Resource Report 10 for the Pacific Connector Pipeline Project (Section 10.4) evaluates system alternatives for the pipeline route. In the EIS we would like to see a more rigorous exploration of those alternatives. The basis for conclusions reached in Section 10.4.4 is not clear. Specifically, it is not clear how it was determined that an intertie with the Williams pipeline would result in prohibitive costs, associated rates, and environmental impacts. Because such a route would be significantly shorter than the currently proposed route, we recommend that the EIS give this route alternative additional consideration.

Non-Jurisdictional Facilities
In Section 1.9.2 of Resource Report 1, it is determined that as a non-jurisdictional facility, the South Dunes Power Plant does not need to be included in the DEIS. This assertion is based on the Report's interpretation of FERC's NEPA regulations at 18 CFR § 380.12(c)(2)(ii). Per those regulations, four factors are applied to determine the need for FERC to do an environmental review of project-related non-jurisdictional facilities. These factors include:

[1] 40 CFR 1502.14(c)
[2] 40 CFR 1502.14(a)

1. Whether or not the regulated activity comprises "merely a link" in a corridor type project (such as a transportation or utility transmission project);
2. Whether there are aspects of the non-jurisdictional facility in the immediate vicinity of the regulated activity which affect the location and configuration of the regulated activity;
3. The extent to which the entire project will be within the FERC's jurisdiction; and
4. The extent of cumulative federal control and responsibility.

Resource Report 1 considers each of these factors and finds that FERC environmental review is not warranted. We believe the Resource Report's interpretation of these criteria to be overly narrow. In particular, because the South Dunes Power Plant and the Jordan Cove Export Facility are interdependent and interconnected, we believe the power plant inherently affects the location of the export facility. Without the power supplied by the power plant, the export facility cannot be built; and without the export facility, there is no need for the power plant to be built.

In addition, CEQ NEPA regulations at 40 CFR 1508.25(a)(1) address connected actions, and clearly call for actions to be considered within the scope of an EIS if they "cannot or will not proceed unless other actions are taken previously or simultaneously" or " are interdependent parts of a larger action and depend on the larger action for their justification"[3]. It is clear from Resource Report 1 that the Power Plant is being constructed for the purpose of supporting the Project. The Power Plant is not being constructed for a purpose independent from the Project. On the contrary, it is being constructed specifically to support the power needs of the Project.

Section 40 C.F.R. 1508.25(a)(3) states that two actions should be evaluated in a single EIS when they are "similar actions, which when viewed with other reasonably foreseeable or proposed agency actions have similarities that provide a basis for evaluating their environmental consequences together, such as common timing and geography." The Power Plant will be built in a timeframe that will coincide with the Project's power needs. The Power Plant is specifically sited in proximity to the Project so that it can operate in conjunction with the Project. Because the South Dunes Power Plan and the Jordan Cove Export Facility are interdependent and interconnected, the locations of the two were selected to enhance the effectiveness of their co-operation. Therefore, we recommend that the FERC include the South Dunes Power Plant within the scope of the EIS.

Environmental Consequences

According to 40 CFR Part 1502.1, an Environmental Impact Statement, "...shall provide full and fair discussion of significant environmental impacts and shall inform decision makers and the public of the reasonable alternatives which would avoid or minimize adverse impacts or enhance the quality of the environment." In order to facilitate a full and fair discussion on significant environmental issues, we encourage the FERC to establish thresholds of significance for each resource of concern, and to analyze environmental consequences in a clear, repeatable manner. For each action, a series of questions should be considered: 1) What is the action? 2) What is the intensity or extent of impacts? 3) Based on identified thresholds, is that significant? If an impact of the action is significant, then the EIS must contain appropriate mitigation measures.

[3] 40 CFR 1508.25(a)(1)(ii) and (iii)

Water Quality
In order to adequately address water quality issues, the EPA recommends the EIS identify water bodies likely to be impacted by the project, the nature of the potential impacts, and the specific discharges and pollutants likely to impact those waters (addressing both Section 402 and 404 discharges and potential impairments to water quality standards). We also recommend the EIS disclose information regarding relevant Total Maximum Daily Load allocations, the water bodies to which they apply, water quality standards and pollutants of concern.

Clean Water Act Section 303(d) listed waters should not be further degraded. If additional pollutant loading is predicted to occur to a 303(d) listed stream as a result of a project, the EIS should include measures to control existing sources of pollution to offset pollutant additions.

Consider implementing watershed or aquatic habitat restoration activities to compensate for past impacts to water resources, particularly in watersheds with 303(d) listed waters where development may have contributed to impairments through past channelization, riverine or floodplain encroachments, sediment delivery during construction, and other activities that may have affected channel stability, water quality, aquatic habitat, and designated waterbody uses. Provisions for antidegradation of water quality apply to water bodies where water quality standards are presently being met. We recommend the EIS describe how antidegradation provisions would be met.

Hydrostatic Test Water
Hydrostatic testing of pipelines and tanks will be required to verify their integrity. We recommend that the EIS identify the water sources and withdrawal rates that would be required for hydrostatic testing. We recommend that the EIS identify and describe the location of these water sources (surface areas, depth, volumes, withdrawal rates, and project requirements). For each water source, we recommend that the EIS discuss the presence of any anadromous and/or resident fish species, including a discussion of any direct and cumulative impacts to fisheries resources. In addition, we recommend that the locations of discharge to land and/or surface waters, and discharge methods be specified in the EIS. Emphasis should be placed on minimizing interbasin transfers of water to the maximum extent practicable in order to minimize the risk of mobilizing invasive species. We recommend that the EIS describe the mitigation measures and control devices that would be implemented to minimize environmental impacts.

Source Water Protection
Public drinking water supplies and/or their source areas often exist in many watersheds. Source water areas may exist within watersheds where the pipeline and associated facilities would be located. Source waters are streams, rivers, lakes, springs, and aquifers used as supply for drinking water. Source water areas are delineated and mapped by the states for each federally-regulated public water system. The 1996 amendments to the Safe Drinking Water Act require federal agencies to protect sources of drinking water for communities. As a result, state agencies have been delegated responsibility to conduct source water assessments and provide a database of information about the watersheds and aquifers that supply public water systems.

Since construction, operation, and maintenance of a buried natural gas pipeline may impact sources of drinking water, the EPA recommends that the FERC work with the Oregon Department of Environmental Quality to identify source water protection areas. Typical databases contain information about the watersheds and aquifer recharge areas, the most sensitive zones within those areas, and the numbers and types of potential contaminant sources for each system. We recommend that the EIS identify source water protection areas within the project area, activities (e.g., trenching and excavation, water withdrawal, etc.) that could potentially affect source water areas, potential contaminants that may result from the proposed project and mitigation measures that would be taken to protect the source water protection areas.

Wetlands and Aquatic Habitats

In the EIS, we recommend describing aquatic habitats in the affected environment (e.g., habitat type, plant and animal species, functional values, and integrity) and the environmental consequences of the proposed alternatives on these resources. Impacts to aquatic resources should be evaluated in terms of the areal (acreage) or linear extent to be impacted and by the functions they perform.

The proposed activities will require a Clean Water Act Section 404 permit from the Army Corps of Engineers. For wetlands and other special aquatic sites, the Section 404(b) (1) guidelines establish a presumption that upland alternatives are available for non-water dependent activities. The 404(b)(1) guidelines require that impacts to aquatic resources be (1) avoided, (2) minimized, and (3) mitigated, in that sequence. We recommend the EIS discuss in detail how planning efforts (and alternative selection) conform with Section 404(b)(1) guidelines sequencing and criteria. In other words, we request the FERC show that impacts to wetlands and other special aquatic sites have been avoided to the maximum extent practicable. The EPA also recommends the EIS discuss alternatives that would avoid wetlands and aquatic resource impacts from fill placement, water impoundment, construction, and other activities before proceeding to minimization/ mitigation measures.

The EPA recommends the EIS describe all waters of the U.S. that could be affected by the project alternatives, and include maps that clearly identify all waters within the project area. We also request the document include data on acreages and channel lengths, habitat types, values, and functions of these waters. As discussed above, projects affecting waters of the U.S. may need to comply with CWA Section 404 requirements. If project alternatives involve discharge of dredged or fill material into waters of the U.S., the EIS should include information regarding alternatives to avoid the discharges or how potential impacts caused by the discharges would be minimized and mitigated. This mitigation discussion would include the following elements:

- acreage and habitat type of waters of the U.S. that would be created or restored;
- water sources to maintain the mitigation area;
- re-vegetation plans, including the numbers and age of each species to be planted, as well as special techniques that may be necessary for planting;
- maintenance and monitoring plans, including performance standards to determine mitigation success;
- size and location of mitigation zones;
- mitigation banking and/or in lieu fees where appropriate;
- parties that would be ultimately responsible for the plan's success; and
- contingency plans that would be enacted if the original plan fails.

Where possible, mitigation should be implemented in advance of the impacts to avoid habitat losses due to the lag time between the occurrence of the impact and successful mitigation.

Water Body Crossing
As noted in Section 1.6.4 of Resource Report 1, the PCGP Project would affect 383 waterbodies. We appreciate the effort that the FERC and the proponent have made in the past to establish appropriate water body crossing procedures. We encourage the FERC to build upon these efforts through the use of risk screening tools that have been developed since the FEIS for the Jordan Cove LNG Export Facility was finalized. Specifically, we encourage the use of 1) a Project Screening Risk Matrix to evaluate the potential risks posed by the project to species or habitat, and to prioritize reviews; 2) a Project Information Checklist to evaluate whether all the necessary information is available to facilitate critical and thorough project evaluation; and 3) the River Restoration Assessment Tool, which can promote consistent and comprehensive project planning and review. These tools are available at www.restorationreview.com.

Maintenance Dredging
Resource Report 1 (Section 1.1.2.2) states that maintenance dredging requirements have been revised based on new modeling. The new estimate is that approximately 37,700 cubic yards would need to be dredged for maintenance at year 1. At year 10 that volume would be expected to decrease to 34,600 cubic yards. This is a substantial reduction from estimates of maintenance dredging included in the FEIS for the Jordan Cove Import Facility. We continue to request the inclusion of an analysis supporting the assertion that the capacity of the EPA's Ocean Disposal Site F would be unaffected by the addition of maintenance dredging material over the next 20 years in the EIS. In order for the EPA to concur with the issuance of a Section 103 permit, this will need to be clearly demonstrated.

In addition, we encourage the development of a Maintenance Dredging Plan in consultation with the U.S. Army Corps of Engineers and the EPA. That plan, including disposal, should be consistent with the site management and monitoring plan and reviewed and approved as part of the Section 103 permit process.

Air Quality
The EPA recommends the EIS provide a detailed discussion of ambient air conditions (baseline or existing conditions), National Ambient Air Quality Standards, criteria pollutant nonattainment areas, and potential air quality impacts of the proposed project (including cumulative and indirect impacts). Such an evaluation is necessary to assure compliance with State and Federal air quality regulations, and to disclose the potential impacts from temporary or cumulative degradation of air quality. The EPA recommends the EIS describe and estimate air emissions from potential construction, operation, and maintenance activities, including emissions associated with LNG carriers at berth. The analysis should also include assumptions used regarding the types of fuel burned and/or the ability for carriers to utilize dockside power (i.e. cold ironing). Emissions at berth are of particular relevance because the deep draft LNG carriers would be required to remain docked between high tides. We also recommend proposing mitigation measures in the EIS to address identified emissions impacts.

Fugitive Dust Emissions
Fugitive dust may contain small airborne particles that have the potential to adversely affect human health and the environment. The EPA defines fugitive dust as "particulate matter that is generated or emitted from open air operations (emissions that do not pass through a stack or a vent)". The most common forms of particulate matter (PM) are known as PM_{10} and $PM_{2.5}$ (particulate matter size less than 10 and 2.5 microns, respectively).

Sources of fugitive dust from this project may include unpaved gravel roads and facility pads, and clearing and construction sites. Effects of fugitive dust to the natural environment may include visibility reduction and haze, surface water impacts, impacts to wetlands, and reduction in plant growth. Fugitive dust may pose a human health risk due to chronic exposure in areas with vulnerable populations, such as infants and the elderly. The EPA recommends the EIS evaluate the magnitude and significance of fugitive dust emissions resulting from this project and potential impacts on human health.

We also recommend that a Dust Control Plan be developed and included as an appendix to the EIS. This plan should include provisions for monitoring fugitive dust during construction and operations, and implementing measures to reduce fugitive dust emissions, such as wetting the source material, installing barriers to prevent dust from leaving the source area, and halting operations during high wind events. We recommend that the EIS identify mitigation measures to avoid and minimize potential adverse impacts to the natural and human environment.

Biological Resources, Habitat and Wildlife

The EPA recommends the EIS identify all petitioned and listed threatened and endangered species under the Endangered Species Act, as well as critical habitat that might occur within the project area. We also recommend the EIS identify and quantify which species or critical habitat might be directly, indirectly, or cumulatively affected by each alternative and mitigate impacts to those species. The EPA recommends that the FERC continue to work with the U.S. Fish and Wildlife Service and the National Marine Fisheries Service. The EPA also recommends that the FERC continue to coordinate with the Oregon Department of Fish and Wildlife to ensure that State sensitive species are adequately addressed within the analysis and that current and consistent surveying, monitoring, and reporting protocols are applied in protection and mitigation efforts.

The EPA recommends the EIS also identify species listed under the Marine Mammal Protection Act. Marine barge/vessel traffic may result in potential conflicts with threatened and/or endangered marine mammals and their migration patterns and routes. We also recommend that the EIS describe the barge/vessel traffic schedule, patterns and marine transportation routes, as well as the migration period, patterns, and routes of potentially affected marine mammals. The direct, indirect and cumulative impacts from barge/vessel traffic on marine mammals, threatened and endangered species, critical habitats, and subsistence resources should be analyzed in the EIS.

Land Use Impacts

Land use impacts would include, but not be limited to, disturbance of existing land uses within construction work areas during construction and creation of permanent right-of-ways for construction, operations, and maintenance of the pipeline and above ground facilities. The EPA recommends the EIS document all land cover and uses within the project corridor, impacts by the project to the land cover and uses, and mitigation measures that would be implemented to reduce the impacts.

The primary impact of construction on forests and other open land use types would be the removal of trees, shrubs, and other vegetation. Although these can be regenerated or replanted, their re-establishment can take up to 20 years or more, making the construction impacts to these resources long term and in some cases permanent. The impact on forest land use, for example, in the permanent right-of-way areas would be a permanent change to open land. We recommend the EIS describe the impacts to forest and open land use types, indicate if the impacts would be permanent or temporary, and state measures that would be taken to compensate landowners for loss of their resources because of the project.

If the project would cross sensitive areas then the EIS should specify the areas, indicate impacts to the areas, and document any easement conditions for use of the areas, including mitigation measures.

Invasive Species

The establishment of invasive nuisance species has become an issue of environmental and economic significance. The EPA recommends consideration of impacts associated with invasive nuisance species consistent with *E.O. 13112 Invasive Species.* In particular, construction activities associated with buried pipelines which disturb the ground may expose areas and could facilitate propagation of invasive species. Mitigation, monitoring and control measures should be identified and implemented to manage establishment of invasive species throughout the entire pipeline corridor right-of-way. We recommend that the EIS include a project design feature that calls for the development of an invasive species management plan to monitor and control noxious weeds, and to utilize native plants for restoration of disturbed areas after construction.

If pesticides and herbicides will be applied during construction, operation, and maintenance of the project, we recommend that the EIS address any potential toxic hazards related to the application of the chemicals, and describe what actions will be taken to assure that impacts by toxic substances released to the environment will be minimized.

Ballast water from barges/vessels is a major source of introducing non-native species into the marine ecosystems where they would not otherwise be present. Non-native species can adversely impact the economy, the environment, or cause harm to human health. Impacts may include reduction of biodiversity of species inhabiting coastal waters from competition between non-native and native species for food and resources. We recommend that the EIS discuss potential impacts from non-native invasive species associated with ballast water and identify mitigation measures to minimize adverse impacts to the marine environment and human health.

Hazardous Materials/Hazardous Waste/Solid Waste

The EPA recommends EIS address potential direct, indirect, and cumulative impacts of hazardous waste from construction and operation of the proposed project. The document should identify projected hazardous waste types and volumes, and expected storage, disposal, and management plans. It should identify any hazardous materials sites within the project's study area and evaluate whether those sites would impact the project in any way.

Seismic and Other Risks

Construction and operation of the proposed facility and pipeline may cause or be affected by increased seismicity (earthquake activity) in tectonically active zones. We recommend that the EIS identify potentially active and inactive fault zones where the proposed pipeline may cross. This analysis should discuss the potential for seismic risk and how this risk will be evaluated, monitored, and managed. A map depicting these geologic faults should be included in the EIS. The construction of the proposed project must use appropriate seismic design and construction standards and practices. Ground movement on these faults can cause a pipeline to rupture, resulting in discharge of gas and subsequent explosion. Particular attention should be paid to areas where the pipeline may cross areas with high population densities. Mitigation measures should be identified in the EIS to minimize effects on the pipeline due to seismic activities.

Blasting Activities
During project construction, blasting may be required in certain areas along the pipeline route corridor and adjacent facilities, resulting in increased noise and related effects to local residents, and disruption and displacement of bird and wildlife species. We recommend that the EIS discuss where blasting in the project area would be required, blasting methods that would be used, and how blasting effects would be controlled and mitigated. Noise levels in the project area should be quantified and the effects of blasting to the public and to wildlife should also be evaluated in the EIS. We recommend that a Blasting Management Plan be developed and the environmental impacts evaluated in the EIS.

National Historic Preservation Act
Consultation for tribal cultural resources is required under Section 106 of the National Historic Preservation Act (NHPA). Historic properties under the NHPA are properties that are included in the National Register of Historic Places or that meet the criteria for the National Register. Section 106 of the NHPA requires a federal agency, upon determining that activities under its control could affect historic properties, consult with the appropriate State Historic Preservation Officer /Tribal Historic Preservation Officer. Under NEPA, any impacts to tribal, cultural, or other treaty resources must be discussed and mitigated. Section 106 of the NHPA requires that federal agencies consider the effects of their actions on cultural resources, following regulation in 36 CFR 800.

Environmental Justice and Impacted Communities
In compliance with NEPA and with Executive Order (EO) 12898 on Environmental Justice, actions should be taken to conduct adequate public outreach and participation that ensures the public and Native American tribes understand the possible impacts to their communities and trust resources.

EO 12898 requires each Federal agency to identify and address disproportionately high and adverse human health or environmental effects of its programs, policies, and activities on minority populations, low-income populations, and Native American tribes.[4] The EPA also considers children, the disabled, the elderly, and those of limited English proficiency to be potential Environmental Justice communities due to their unique vulnerabilities.

According to the Council on Environmental Quality, when determining whether environmental effects are disproportionately high and adverse, agencies should consider the following factors: [5]

- Whether environmental effects are or may be having an adverse impact on minority populations, low-income populations, or Indian tribes that appreciably exceeds or is likely to appreciably exceed those on the general population or other appropriate comparison group
- Whether the disproportionate impacts occur or would occur in a minority population, low-income population, or Indian tribe affected by cumulative or multiple adverse exposures from environmental hazards

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[4] EO 12898: Federal Actions to Address Environmental Justice in Minority Populations and Low-income Populations. February 11, 1994.
[5] http://ceq.hss.doe.gov/nepa/regs/ej/justice.pdf

Socioeconomic Impacts
Council on Environmental Quality Regulations at 40 CFR 1500-1508 state that the "human environment" is to be "interpreted comprehensively" to include "the natural and physical environment and the relationship of people with that environment" (40 CFR 1508.14). Consistent with this direction, agencies need to assess not only "direct" effects, but also "aesthetic, historic, cultural, economic, social, or health" effects, "whether direct, indirect, or cumulative" (40 CFR 1508.8).

Social impact assessment variables point to measurable change in human population, communities, and social relationships resulting from a development project or policy change. We suggest that the EIS analyze the following social variables:

- Population Characteristics
- Community and Institutional Structures
- Political and Social Resources
- Individual and Family Changes
- Community Resources

Impacts to these social variables should be considered for each stage of the project (development, construction, operation, decommissioning). With regard to the construction and operation phase of the project, we recommend the analysis give consideration to how marine traffic might change, and how this may affect commercial or recreational use on the bay and travel over the bar.

Greenhouse Gas (GHG) Emissions
On February 18, 2010, the CEQ issued draft guidance to Federal Agencies on analyzing the effects of Greenhouse Gas (GHG) emissions and climate change when describing the environmental effects of a proposed agency action in accordance with NEPA[6].

CEQ's draft guidance defines GHG emissions in accordance with Section 19(i) of *E.O. 13514 Federal Leadership in Environment, Energy, and Economic Performance (October 5, 2009)* to include carbon dioxide (CO_2), methane (CH_4), nitrous oxide (N_2O), hydrofluorcarbon (HFCs), perfluorcarbon (PFCs), and sulfurhexafluoride (SF_6). Because CO_2 is the reference gas for climate change based on their potential to absorb heat in the atmosphere, measures of non-CO_2 GHGs should be reflected as CO_2-equivalent (CO_2-e) values.

The EPA supports evaluation and disclosure of GHG emissions and climate change effects resulting from the proposed project during all project phases, including (1) pre-construction (e.g., transportation, mobilization, and staging), (2) construction, (3) operation, (4) maintenance, and (5) decommissioning. We recommend that the GHG emission accounting/inventory include each proposed stationary source (e.g., power plant, liquefaction facility, compressor and metering stations, etc.) and mobile emission source (e.g., heavy equipment, supply barges, rail transports, etc.). We also recommend that the EIS establish reasonable spatial and temporal boundaries for this analysis, and that the EIS quantify and disclose the expected annual direct and indirect GHG emissions for the proposed action. In the analysis of direct effects, we recommend that the EIS quantify cumulative emissions over the life of the project, discuss measures to reduce GHG emissions, including consideration of reasonable alternatives

[6]See http://ceq.hss.doe.gov/current_developments/new_ceq_nepa_guidance.html

We recommend that the EIS consider mitigation measures and reasonable alternatives to reduce action-related GHG emissions, and include a discussion of cumulative effects of GHG emissions related to the proposed action. We recommend that this discussion focus on an assessment of annual and cumulative emissions of the proposed action and the difference in emissions associated with the alternatives.

In addition, greenhouse gas emission sources in the petroleum and natural gas industry are required to report GHG emissions under 40CFR Part 98 (subpart W), the Greenhouse Gas Reporting Program. Consistent with draft CEQ guidance[5], we recommend that this information be included in the EIS for consideration by decision makers and the public. Please see http://www.epa.gov/climatechange/emissions/ghgrulemaking.html.

Climate Change
Scientific evidence supports the concern that continued increases in greenhouse gas emissions resulting from human activities will contribute to climate change. Global warming is caused by emissions of carbon dioxide and other heat-trapping gases. On December 7, 2009, the EPA determined that emissions of GHGs contribute to air pollution that "endangers public health and welfare" within the meaning of the Clean Air Act. Higher temperatures and increased winter rainfall will be accompanied by a reduction in snow pack, earlier snowmelts, and increased runoff. Some of the impacts, such as reduced groundwater discharge, and more frequent and severe drought conditions, may impact the proposed projects. The EPA recommends the EIS consider how climate change could potentially influence the proposed project, specifically within sensitive areas, and assess how the projected impacts could be exacerbated by climate change.

Coordination with Tribal Governments
Executive Order 13175, Consultation and Coordination with Indian Tribal Governments (November 6, 2000), was issued in order to establish regular and meaningful consultation and collaboration with tribal officials in the development of federal policies that have tribal implications, and to strengthen the United States government-to-government relationships with Indian tribes. The EIS should describe the process and outcome of government-to-government consultation between the FERC and tribal governments within the project area, issues that were raised, and how those issues were addressed in the selection of the proposed alternative.

Indirect Impacts
Per CEQ regulations at CFR 1508.8(b), the indirect effects analysis "may include growth inducing effects and other effects related to induced changes in the pattern of land use, population density or growth rate, and related effects on air and water and other natural systems, including ecosystems." The 2012 report from the Energy Information Administration[7] states that, "natural gas markets in the United States balance in response to increased natural gas exports largely through increased natural gas production." That report goes on to say that about three-quarters of that increase production would be from shale resources. We believe it is appropriate to consider available information about the extent to which drilling activity might be stimulated by the construction of an LNG export facility on the west coast, and any potential environmental effects associated with that drilling expansion.

[7] Energy Information Administration, Effects of Increased Natural Gas Exports on Domestic Energy Markets, 6 (January 2012) available at http://www.eia.gov/analysis/requests/fe/pdf/fe_lng.pdf

Cumulative Impacts
The cumulative impacts analysis should identify how resources, ecosystems, and communities in the vicinity of the project have already been, or will be affected by past, present, or future activities in the project area. These resources should be characterized in terms of their response to change and capacity to withstand stresses. Trends data should be used to establish a baseline for the affected resources, to evaluate the significance of historical degradation, and to predict the environmental effects of the project components.

For the cumulative impacts assessment, we recommend focusing on resources of concern or resources that are "at risk" and /or are significantly impacted by the proposed project, before mitigation. For this project, the FERC should conduct a thorough assessment of the cumulative impacts to aquatic and biological resources (including plover habitat), air quality, and commercial and recreational use of the bay. We believe the EIS should consider the Oregon Gateway Marine Terminal Complex as described by the Port of Coos Bay (http://www.portofcoosbay.com/orgate.htm) as reasonably foreseeable for the purposes of cumulative effects analysis. We recognize that uncertainty about future development of the North Spit remains, but we believe the stated aspirations of the Port and the Oregon Department of State Lands' 2011 issuance of a removal-fill permit for the development of an access channel and multi-purpose vessel slip provide sufficient reason for including the marine terminal complex in the effects analysis.

The EPA also recommends the EIS delineate appropriate geographic boundaries, including natural ecological boundaries, whenever possible, and should evaluate the time period of the project's effects. For instance, for a discussion of cumulative wetland impacts, a natural geographic boundary such as a watershed or sub-watershed could be identified. The time period, or temporal boundary, could be defined as from 1972 (when the Clean Water Act established section 404) to the present.

Please refer to CEQ's "Considering Cumulative Effects Under the National Environmental Policy Act"[8] and the EPA's "Consideration of Cumulative Impacts in EPA Review of NEPA Documents"[9] for assistance with identifying appropriate boundaries and identifying appropriate past, present, and reasonably foreseeable future projects to include in the analysis.

Mitigation and Monitoring
On February 18, 2010, CEQ issued draft guidance on the Appropriate Use of Mitigation and Monitoring. This guidance seeks to enable agencies to create successful mitigation planning and implementation procedures with robust public involvement and monitoring programs[10].

We recommend that the EIS include a discussion and analysis of proposed mitigation measures and compensatory mitigation under CWA §404. The EIS should identify the type of activities which would require mitigation measures either during construction, operation, and maintenance phases of this project. To the extent possible, mitigation goals and measureable performance standards should be identified in the EIS to reduce impacts to a particular level or adopted to achieve an environmentally preferable outcome.

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[8] http://ceq.hss.doe.gov/nepa/ccenepa/ccenepa.htm
[9] http://www.epa.gov/compliance/resources/policies/nepa/cumulative.pdf
[10] http://ceq.hss.doe.gov/current_developments/docs/Mitigation_and_Monitoring_Guidance_14Jan2011.pdf

Mitigation measures could include best management practices and options for avoiding and minimizing impacts to important aquatic habitats and to compensate for the unavoidable impacts. Compensatory mitigation options could include mitigation banks, in-lieu fee, preservation, applicant proposed mitigation, etc. and should be consistent with the *Compensatory Mitigation for Losses of Aquatic Resources; Final Rule* (33 CFR Parts 325 and 332 and 40 CFR Part 230). A mitigation plan should be developed in compliance with 40 CFR Part 230 Subpart J 230.94, and included in the EIS.

An environmental monitoring program should be designed to assess both impacts from the project and that mitigation measures being implemented are effective. We recommend the EIS identify clear monitoring goals and objectives, such as what parameters are to be monitored, where and when monitoring will take place, who will be responsible, how the information will be evaluated, what actions (contingencies, triggers, adaptive management, corrective actions, etc.) will be taken based on the information. Furthermore, we recommend the EIS discuss public participation, and how the public can get information on mitigation effectiveness and monitoring results.

ORIGINAL

UNITED STATES ENVIRONMENTAL PROTECTION AGENCY
REGION III
1650 Arch Street
Philadelphia, Pennsylvania 19103-2029

November 15, 2012

Kimberly D. Bose, Secretary
Federal Energy Regulatory Commission
888 First Street NE, Room 1A
Washington, DC 20426

RE: EPA Region 3 Scoping Comments in Response to FERC's Notice of Intent to Prepare an Environmental Assessment (EA) for the Planned Cove Point Liquefaction Project; FERC Docket No. PF12-16-000

Dear Secretary Bose:

The U.S. Environmental Protection Agency (EPA), Region III Office, has conducted a review of the above Notice in conjunction with our responsibilities under the National Environmental Policy Act (NEPA), the Clean Water Act (CWA) and Section 309 of the Clean Air Act. As part of the FERC pre-filing process of soliciting public and agency comments for development of the EA, EPA offers the following scoping comments.

The NOI describes Dominion's proposal to add an LNG export terminal to its existing LNG import terminal on the Chesapeake Bay in Lusby, Maryland. The new terminal would have capacity to process and export up to 750 million standard cubic feet of natural gas per day (0.75 billion cubic feet/day). Facilities would include:

- Natural gas fired turbines to drive the main refrigerant compressors;
- One or two LNG drive trains and new processing facilities;
- 29,000 to 34,000 additional horsepower compression at its existing Loudon County, VA
- Compressor Station and/or its existing Pleasant Valley (Fairfax County, VA) Compressor Station;
- Additional on-site power generation
- Minor modifications to the existing off-shore pier;
- Use of nearby properties and possible relocation of administrative functions

The Project would not include new LNG storage tanks or an increase in the size and/or frequency of LNG marine traffic currently authorized for the Cove Point LNG Terminal. The NEPA document should include a clear and robust justification of the underlying purpose and need for the proposed project. In order for the project to move forward, FERC would need to issue a certificate of "public convenience and necessity". We recommend discussing the proposal in the context of the broader energy market, including existing and proposed LNG export capacity, describing the factors involved in determining public convenience and necessity for this facility.

EPA recommends assessing the cumulative environmental effects resulting from implementation of the proposed project, when combined with other past, present and reasonably foreseeable future actions, regardless of whether these actions are energy related or not, or whether or not FERC has jurisdiction over them. We recommend focusing on resources or communities of concern, or resources "at risk" which could be cumulatively impacted by all of the above actions. Please refer to the Council on Environmental Quality (CEQ) guidance on "Considering Cumulative Effects Under the National Environmental Policy Act", and EPA's "Consideration of Cumulative Impacts in EPA Review of NEPA Documents" for further assistance in identifying appropriate spatial and temporal boundaries for this analysis.

We also recommend expanding the scope of analysis to include indirect effects related to gas drilling and combustion. A 2012 report (http://www.eia.gov/analysis/requests/fe/) from the Energy Information Administration (EIA) states that, "natural gas markets in the United States balance in response to increased natural gas exports largely through increased natural gas production." That report also indicated that about three-quarters of that increase production would be from shale resources and that domestic natural gas prices could rise by more than 50% if permitted to be exported. We believe it is appropriate to consider the extent to which implementation of the proposed project, combined with implementation of other similar facilities nationally, could increase the demand for domestic natural gas extraction and increase domestic natural gas prices. As part of this assessment, please discuss the extent to which implementation of the proposed project would create a demand for construction of new gas pipelines or expansion of existing pipelines, in order to accommodate the increased volumes of gas supplied to the Cove Point and other facilities.

In the air impact analysis for the Cove Point Project, we recommend considering the direct, temporary emissions from construction of all facilities, as well as permanent air emission impacts from facility operations, including all compressor stations and any vessel traffic related to LNG exports. Additionally, indirect and reasonably foreseeable cumulative impacts from past, present and future actions, when added to the incremental impacts of the Project proposed should be evaluated. These other actions should include FERC jurisdictional facilities and energy generating and transporting-related facilities, as well as actions or facilities which might have air emissions which could impact the same air receptors as the Project, including downstream combustion.

Please note whether construction or operation of the Project would involve any discharges to Waters of the United States, and whether it would affect the Chesapeake Bay Total Maximum Daily Load (TMDL) or any related Watershed Implementation Plans (WIPs).

As part of any environmental documentation, please include evaluation of the Project's direct and indirect impacts on the nearby Chesapeake Bay fisheries and fishermen (both recreational and commercial). Will any additional dredging of waterways be required to accommodate the vessels exporting LNG? What biosecurity controls and protocols will be instituted to prevent introduction of invasive species due to ballast water releases? Please include a discussion of how the Project will comply with the Magnuson-Stevens Fishery Conservation and Management Act, as amended by the Sustainable Fisheries Act of 1966 (PL 04-267)(Essential Fish Habitat).

Please express the volume of natural gas proposed to be exported in terms that the average reader can more easily understand. For example, in addition to indicating that the Project would be capable of processing an average of 750 million standard cubic feet of natural gas per day, also express that figure as an equivalent number of average homes this amount of gas could heat, or how many tankers, and of what size, this amount of gas would fill. Also, please calculate how many production wells, on average, would need to be drilled in order to produce this amount of gas.

The NOI states that the Project would not increase the size and/or frequency of LNG marine traffic currently authorized for the Cove Point LNG Terminal. Please discuss in the NEPA document whether this would be accomplished by reducing the volume of LNG imports to match the volume of proposed exports, or by employing some other approach.

Please indicate the number, location, size and capacity of the network of bidirectional pipelines from which the proposed Project would or could receive natural gas, and also indicate whether any of those pipelines would need to be expanded or modified in order to provide the volumes of gas anticipated.

Please indicate whether any aspect of the Project would trigger any requirements for hazardous waste management under the Resource Conservation and Recovery Act (RCRA) or other Federal statutes involving management of such waste.

The proposed Dominion Cove Point facility represents one of sixteen (16) applications currently pending before the U.S. Department of Energy (DOE) for approval to export LNG to countries which do not have Free Trade Agreements (FTA) with the United States. At this time, it appears that only one facility has been initially granted full approval (Sabine Pass in Cameron Parish, Louisiana). Although we are aware of the DOE national study in progress on the cumulative *economic* impacts of allowing natural gas exports, EPA believes that the Cove Point NEPA process represents an opportunity for FERC and DOE to jointly and thoroughly consider the indirect and cumulative *environmental* impacts of exporting LNG from Cove Point. The environmental study of the Cove Point Project should be a comprehensive and robust evaluation of potential impacts, which may require a higher level analysis particularly in consideration of the potential for significant cumulative impacts and the level of community interest.

Thank you for the opportunity to comment on this Notice. EPA welcomes the opportunity to discuss these topics by phone or in-person, at your convenience. If you have any questions concerning these comments, please contact Mr. Thomas Slenkamp of this Office at (215) 814-2750.

Sincerely,

Jeffrey D. Lapp, Associate Director
Office of Environmental Programs

Document Content(s)

UNITED STATES ENVIRONMENTAL PROTECTION AGENCY
REGION 10
1200 Sixth Avenue, Suite 900
Seattle, WA 98101-3140

OFFICE OF
ECOSYSTEMS,
TRIBAL AND PUBLIC
AFFAIRS

December 26, 2012

The Honorable Kimberly D. Bose, Secretary
Federal Energy Regulatory Commission
888 First Street, NE, Room 1A
Washington, DC 20426

Re: SCOPING COMMENTS – The Oregon LNG Export Project and Washington Expansion Project. EPA Region 10 Project Number: 12-0055-FRC. *FERC Docket Nos. PF12-18-000 and PF12-20-000.*

Dear Secretary Bose:

The U.S. Environmental Protection Agency would like to provide detailed scoping comments in response to the Federal Energy Regulatory Commission's (FERC's) September 24, 2012 Notice of Intent (NOI) to prepare an Environmental Impact Statement (EIS) for the Oregon Liquefied Natural Gas (LNG) Export Project and Washington Expansion. These comments were prepared in accordance with our authorities pursuant to the National Environmental Policy Act (NEPA), Section 309 of the Clean Air Act, the Clean Water Act, and our responsibilities as a Cooperating Agency. We appreciate the opportunity for early involvement at this step of the NEPA process.

The Clean Air Act Section 309 directs the EPA to review and comment in writing on the environmental impacts resulting from certain proposed actions of other federal agencies and the adequacy of the Draft EIS in meeting the procedural and public disclosure requirements in accordance with NEPA. Please see the EPA's review criteria for rating Draft EISs at the EPA web site: (http://www.epa.gov/compliance/nepa/comments/ratings.html). Our review authorities under Section 309 are independent of our responsibilities as a Cooperating Agency for this EIS.

As described in the NOI, the Oregon LNG export project would consist of components new to and modified from the originally proposed import-only LNG terminal and pipeline (Docket Nos. CP09-6-000 and CP09-7-000) to allow Oregon LNG to export LNG. The export project would be capable of liquefying approximately 1.3 billion cubic feet per day (Bcf/d) of pretreated natural gas for the export of approximately 9 million metric tons per annum (MTPA) of LNG via LNG carriers.

Specifically, the Export Project would be comprised of liquefaction and export facilities at Warrenton, Oregon and approximately 39 miles of new pipeline. Liquefaction facilities would include:

- A natural gas pretreatment facility to remove sulfur compounds, water, mercury, and other impurities;
- Two liquefaction process trains, each capable of a liquefaction capacity of approximately 4.5 MTPA;
- Refrigerant storage;
- New flare system;

- New water intake on the Columbia River and water delivery pipeline from the intake to a new water treatment system.

Pipeline facilities would include:

- 39 miles of new pipeline commencing at milepost (MP) 47.5 of the pending proposed Oregon Pipeline; and
- A new compressor station at MP 80.8.

The connected Washington Expansion Project (WEP) would expand the capacity of Northwest Pipeline GP (Northwest) between Sumas and Woodland, Washington, by 750,000 dekatherms per day to provide natural gas to the proposed Oregon LNG terminal, and to markets in the state of Washington.

Pipeline facilities for the WEP would include:

- Approximately 140 miles of 36-inch-diameter pipeline loop along Northwest's existing Northwest Pipeline in 10 segments; and
- An additional 96,000 horsepower (hp) of compression at five existing compressor stations.

The enclosed scoping comments were prepared based on our review of the NOI referenced above and the draft Resource Report 1. Our comments reflect a broad range of issues that we believe to be significant and warrant treatment in the EIS.

As a Cooperating Agency, we look forward to continued communication with your office throughout the development of the EIS, and we are available to work with FERC to review and comment on preliminary sections of the document. If you have any questions regarding our scoping comments, please do not hesitate to contact me at (206) 553-1601 or by electronic mail at reichgott.christine@epa.gov, or you may contact Teresa Kubo of my staff in the Oregon Operations Office at (503) 326-2859 or by electronic mail at kubo.teresa@epa.gov. We look forward to our continued coordination and involvement in this project.

Sincerely,

Christine B. Reichgott

Christine B. Reichgott, Manager
Environmental Review and Sediment Management Unit

Enclosure

U.S. Environmental Protection Agency
Detailed Scoping Comments to Address the Federal Energy Regulatory Commission's Notice of Intent to Prepare an Environmental Impact Statement for the Oregon LNG Export Project and Washington Expansion Project
FERC Docket Nos. PF12-18-000 and PF12-20-000

Purpose and Need
The EIS should include a clear and concise statement of the underlying purpose and need for the proposed project, consistent with the implementing regulations for NEPA (see 40 CFR 1502.13). In presenting the purpose and need for the project, the EIS should reflect not only the FERC's purpose, but also the broader public interest and need.

In supporting the statement of purpose and need, we recommend discussing the proposed project in the context of the larger energy market, including existing export capacity and export capacity under application to the Department of Energy, and clearly describing how the need for the proposed action has been determined.

Alternatives Analysis
NEPA requires evaluation of reasonable alternatives, including those that may not be within the jurisdiction of the lead agency[1]. A robust range of alternatives will include options for avoiding significant environmental impacts. The EIS should "rigorously explore and objectively evaluate all reasonable alternatives"[2] by developing a screening process. The screening process should rate each alternative against a set of pre-determined criteria. Each alternative should then be analyzed for its level of impact on a resource (e.g. no effect, negligible effect, minor effect, major effect, significant effect). Only the alternative that effectively meets or best meets all of the screening criteria should be recommended as the preferred alternative. The EIS should provide a clear discussion of the reasons for the elimination of alternatives which are not evaluated in detail.

Environmental Consequences
According to 40 CFR Part 1502.1, an Environmental Impact Statement, "...shall provide full and fair discussion of significant environmental impacts and shall inform decision makers and the public of the reasonable alternatives which would avoid or minimize adverse impacts or enhance the quality of the environment." In order to facilitate a full and fair discussion on significant environmental issues, we encourage the FERC to establish thresholds of significance for each resource of concern, and to analyze environmental consequences in a clear, repeatable manner. For each action, a series of questions should be considered: 1) What is the action? 2) What is the intensity or extent of impacts? 3) Based on identified thresholds, is that significant? If an impact of the action is significant, then the EIS must contain appropriate mitigation measures.

Water Quality
In order to adequately address water quality issues, the EPA recommends the EIS identify water bodies likely to be impacted by the project, the nature of the potential impacts, and the specific discharges and pollutants likely to impact those waters (addressing both Section 402 and 404 discharges and potential impairments to water quality standards). We also recommend the EIS disclose information regarding

[1] 40 CFR 1502.14(c)
[2] 40 CFR 1502.14(a)

relevant Total Maximum Daily Load allocations, the water bodies to which they apply, water quality standards and pollutants of concern.

Clean Water Act Section 303(d) listed waters should not be further degraded. If additional pollutant loading is predicted to occur to a 303(d) listed stream as a result of a project, the EIS should include measures to control existing sources of pollution to offset pollutant additions.

Consider implementing watershed or aquatic habitat restoration activities to compensate for past impacts to water resources, particularly in watersheds with 303(d) listed waters where development may have contributed to impairments through past channelization, riverine or floodplain encroachments, sediment delivery during construction, and other activities that may have affected channel stability, water quality, aquatic habitat, and designated waterbody uses. Provisions for antidegradation of water quality apply to water bodies where water quality standards are presently being met. We recommend the EIS describe how antidegradation provisions would be met.

Hydrostatic Test Water
Hydrostatic testing of pipelines and tanks will be required to verify their integrity. We recommend that the EIS identify the water sources and withdrawal rates that would be required for hydrostatic testing. We recommend that the EIS identify and describe the location of these water sources (surface areas, depth, volumes, withdrawal rates, and project requirements). For each water source, we recommend that the EIS discuss the presence of any anadromous and/or resident fish species, including a discussion of any direct and cumulative impacts to fisheries resources. In addition, we recommend that the locations of discharge to land and/or surface waters, and discharge methods be specified in the EIS. Emphasis should be placed on minimizing interbasin transfers of water to the maximum extent practicable in order to minimize the risk of mobilizing invasive species. We recommend that the EIS describe the mitigation measures and control devices that would be implemented to minimize environmental impacts.

Source Water Protection
Public drinking water supplies and/or their source areas often exist in many watersheds. Source water areas may exist within watersheds where the pipeline and associated facilities would be located. Source waters are streams, rivers, lakes, springs, and aquifers used as supply for drinking water. Source water areas are delineated and mapped by the states for each federally-regulated public water system. The 1996 amendments to the Safe Drinking Water Act require federal agencies to protect sources of drinking water for communities. As a result, state agencies have been delegated responsibility to conduct source water assessments and provide a database of information about the watersheds and aquifers that supply public water systems.

Since construction, operation, and maintenance of a buried natural gas pipeline may impact sources of drinking water, the EPA recommends that the FERC work with the Oregon Department of Environmental Quality to identify source water protection areas. Typical databases contain information about the watersheds and aquifer recharge areas, the most sensitive zones within those areas, and the numbers and types of potential contaminant sources for each system. We recommend that the EIS identify source water protection areas within the project area, activities (e.g., trenching and excavation, water withdrawal, etc.) that could potentially affect source water areas, potential contaminants that may result from the proposed project and mitigation measures that would be taken to protect the source water protection areas.

Wetlands and Aquatic Habitats
In the EIS, we recommend describing aquatic habitats in the affected environment (e.g., habitat type, plant and animal species, functional values, and integrity) and the environmental consequences of the proposed alternatives on these resources. Impacts to aquatic resources should be evaluated in terms of the areal (acreage) or linear extent to be impacted and by the functions they perform.

The proposed activities will require a Clean Water Act Section 404 permit from the Army Corps of Engineers. For wetlands and other special aquatic sites, the Section 404(b) (1) guidelines establish a presumption that upland alternatives are available for non-water dependent activities. The 404(b)(1) guidelines require that impacts to aquatic resources be (1) avoided, (2) minimized, and (3) mitigated, in that sequence. We recommend the EIS discuss in detail how planning efforts (and alternative selection) conform with Section 404(b)(1) guidelines sequencing and criteria. In other words, we request the FERC show that impacts to wetlands and other special aquatic sites have been avoided to the maximum extent practicable. The EPA also recommends the EIS discuss alternatives that would avoid wetlands and aquatic resource impacts from fill placement, water impoundment, construction, and other activities before proceeding to minimization/ mitigation measures.

The EPA recommends the EIS describe all waters of the U.S. that could be affected by the project alternatives, and include maps that clearly identify all waters within the project area. We also request the document include data on acreages and channel lengths, habitat types, values, and functions of these waters. As discussed above, projects affecting waters of the U.S. may need to comply with CWA Section 404 requirements. If project alternatives involve discharge of dredged or fill material into waters of the U.S., the EIS should include information regarding alternatives to avoid the discharges or how potential impacts caused by the discharges would be minimized and mitigated. This mitigation discussion would include the following elements:

- acreage and habitat type of waters of the U.S. that would be created or restored;
- water sources to maintain the mitigation area;
- re-vegetation plans, including the numbers and age of each species to be planted, as well as special techniques that may be necessary for planting;
- maintenance and monitoring plans, including performance standards to determine mitigation success;
- size and location of mitigation zones;
- mitigation banking and/or in lieu fees where appropriate;
- parties that would be ultimately responsible for the plan's success; and
- contingency plans that would be enacted if the original plan fails.

Where possible, mitigation should be implemented in advance of the impacts to avoid habitat losses due to the lag time between the occurrence of the impact and successful mitigation.

Water Body Crossing
We appreciate the effort that the FERC and the proponent have made in the past to establish appropriate water body crossing procedures. We encourage the FERC to build upon these efforts through the use of risk screening tools that have been developed more recently. Specifically, we encourage the use of 1) a Project Screening Risk Matrix to evaluate the potential risks posed by the project to species or habitat, and to prioritize reviews; 2) a Project Information Checklist to evaluate whether all the necessary information is available to facilitate critical and thorough project evaluation; and 3) the River

Restoration Assessment Tool, which can promote consistent and comprehensive project planning and review. These tools are available at www.restorationreview.com.

Dredging

According to Resource Report 1, Oregon LNG expects that construction of the berth and turning basin will require an estimated 1,275,000 cubic yards of dredge material requiring removal. (Section 1.3.1). Oregon LNG has been actively working with agencies and stakeholders to identify an appropriate location for dredge material disposal. We understand that Oregon LNG priority sites have shifted to the USEPA Deepwater Site, the USEPA Shallow Water Site, the US Army Corps of Engineers (USACE) North Jetty S, and the USACE South Jetty Nearshore Site. We provide the following comments for FERC's consideration as Resource Report 10 and the DEIS are developed:

- Capacity at the USEPA Deep Water Site has been characterized by the proponent as "unlimited"[3]. The EPA agrees that capacity at the site is large, but it is not unlimited. The EPA has asked USACE to conduct an assessment of long term capacity as part of the Annual Use Plan for 2014.
- The USEPA Shallow Water Site is used to capacity every season, and accretion limits are very low. Because shoaling is an unacceptable outcome, disposals at this site would need to be monitored with USACE and the EPA.
- The South Jetty Nearshore Site (Oregon) was accepted by the Lower Columbia Solutions Group (LCSG) on a provisional basis in 2011. Future use of this site would need to be coordinated with the LCSG as well as the USACE. The crab fishing community has requested demonstrable proof over multiple seasons that crabs will not be affected by dredge material disposal activity.

The EPA supports and appreciates the long standing efforts of the proponents and FERC to identify alternative disposal site locations. We will continue to work with the proponent and FERC to identify disposal locations that meet established criteria under Section 103 of the Marine Protection, Research and Sanctuaries Act (MPRSA).

Air Quality

The EPA recommends the EIS provide a detailed discussion of ambient air conditions (baseline or existing conditions), National Ambient Air Quality Standards, criteria pollutant nonattainment areas, and potential air quality impacts of the proposed project (including cumulative and indirect impacts). Such an evaluation is necessary to assure compliance with State and Federal air quality regulations, and to disclose the potential impacts from temporary or cumulative degradation of air quality. The EPA recommends the EIS describe and estimate air emissions from potential construction, operation, and maintenance activities, including emissions associated with LNG carriers at berth. The analysis should also include assumptions used regarding the types of fuel burned and/or the ability for carriers to utilize dockside power (i.e. cold ironing). Emissions at berth are of particular relevance because the deep draft LNG carriers would be required to remain docked between high tides. We also recommend proposing mitigation measures in the EIS to address identified emissions impacts.

Fugitive Dust Emissions

Fugitive dust may contain small airborne particles that have the potential to adversely affect human health and the environment. The EPA defines fugitive dust as "particulate matter that is generated or emitted from open air operations (emissions that do not pass through a stack or a vent)". The most

[3] Attachment 10-1 Table of Dredge Material Disposal Sites

common forms of particulate matter (PM) are known as PM_{10} and $PM_{2.5}$ (particulate matter size less than 10 and 2.5 microns, respectively).

Sources of fugitive dust from this project may include unpaved gravel roads and facility pads, and clearing and construction sites. Effects of fugitive dust to the natural environment may include visibility reduction and haze, surface water impacts, impacts to wetlands, and reduction in plant growth. Fugitive dust may pose a human health risk due to chronic exposure in areas with vulnerable populations, such as infants and the elderly. The EPA recommends the EIS evaluate the magnitude and significance of fugitive dust emissions resulting from this project and potential impacts on human health.

We also recommend that a Dust Control Plan be developed and included as an appendix to the EIS. This plan should include provisions for monitoring fugitive dust during construction and operations, and implementing measures to reduce fugitive dust emissions, such as wetting the source material, installing barriers to prevent dust from leaving the source area, and halting operations during high wind events. We recommend that the EIS identify mitigation measures to avoid and minimize potential adverse impacts to the natural and human environment.

Biological Resources, Habitat and Wildlife

The EPA recommends the EIS identify all petitioned and listed threatened and endangered species under the Endangered Species Act, as well as critical habitat that might occur within the project area. We also recommend the EIS identify and quantify which species or critical habitat might be directly, indirectly, or cumulatively affected by each alternative and mitigate impacts to those species. The EPA recommends that the FERC continue to work with the U.S. Fish and Wildlife Service and the National Marine Fisheries Service. The EPA also recommends that the FERC continue to coordinate with the Oregon Department of Fish and Wildlife to ensure that State sensitive species are adequately addressed within the analysis and that current and consistent surveying, monitoring, and reporting protocols are applied in protection and mitigation efforts.

The EPA recommends the EIS also identify species listed under the Marine Mammal Protection Act. Marine barge/vessel traffic may result in potential conflicts with threatened and/or endangered marine mammals and their migration patterns and routes. We also recommend that the EIS describe the barge/vessel traffic schedule, patterns and marine transportation routes, as well as the migration period, patterns, and routes of potentially affected marine mammals. The direct, indirect and cumulative impacts from barge/vessel traffic on marine mammals, threatened and endangered species, critical habitats, and subsistence resources should be analyzed in the EIS.

Land Use Impacts

Land use impacts would include, but not be limited to, disturbance of existing land uses within construction work areas during construction and creation of permanent right-of-ways for construction, operations, and maintenance of the pipeline and above ground facilities. The EPA recommends the EIS document all land cover and uses within the project corridor, impacts by the project to the land cover and uses, and mitigation measures that would be implemented to reduce the impacts.

The primary impact of construction on forests and other open land use types would be the removal of trees, shrubs, and other vegetation. Although these can be regenerated or replanted, their re-establishment can take up to 20 years or more, making the construction impacts to these resources long term and in some cases permanent. The impact on forest land use, for example, in the permanent right-of-way areas would be a permanent change to open land. We recommend the EIS describe the impacts to forest and open land use types, indicate if the impacts would be permanent or temporary, and state measures that would be taken to compensate landowners for loss of their resources because of the project.

If the project would cross sensitive areas then the EIS should specify the areas, indicate impacts to the areas, and document any easement conditions for use of the areas, including mitigation measures.

Invasive Species
The establishment of invasive nuisance species has become an issue of environmental and economic significance. The EPA recommends consideration of impacts associated with invasive nuisance species consistent with *E.O. 13112 Invasive Species*. In particular, construction activities associated with buried pipelines which disturb the ground may expose areas and could facilitate propagation of invasive species. Mitigation, monitoring and control measures should be identified and implemented to manage establishment of invasive species throughout the entire pipeline corridor right-of-way. We recommend that the EIS include a project design feature that calls for the development of an invasive species management plan to monitor and control noxious weeds, and to utilize native plants for restoration of disturbed areas after construction.

If pesticides and herbicides will be applied during construction, operation, and maintenance of the project, we recommend that the EIS address any potential toxic hazards related to the application of the chemicals, and describe what actions will be taken to assure that impacts by toxic substances released to the environment will be minimized.

Ballast water from barges/vessels is a major source of introducing non-native species into the marine ecosystems where they would not otherwise be present. Non-native species can adversely impact the economy, the environment, or cause harm to human health. Impacts may include reduction of biodiversity of species inhabiting coastal waters from competition between non-native and native species for food and resources. We recommend that the EIS discuss potential impacts from non-native invasive species associated with ballast water and identify mitigation measures to minimize adverse impacts to the marine environment and human health.

Hazardous Materials/Hazardous Waste/Solid Waste
The EPA recommends the EIS address potential direct, indirect, and cumulative impacts of hazardous waste from construction and operation of the proposed project. The document should identify projected hazardous waste types and volumes, and expected storage, disposal, and management plans. It should identify any hazardous materials sites within the project's study area and evaluate whether those sites would impact the project in any way.

As an example, page 1-9 of Draft Resource Report 1 indicates that as a part of the gas conditioning process, sweetened gas will pass through multiple, consumable parallel carbon beds for the removal of any mercury in the gas. Because the carbon beds cannot be regenerated, it will be necessary to replace them after a design life of several years. We recommend the EIS address the expected mercury content of the expended carbon beds, and address disposal requirements consistent with 40 CFR 268.40.

We also note that the proposed pipeline route between MP 3 and MP 4 passes just upstream of the Astoria Marine Construction Company Site. This site and adjacent river sediments are contaminated with tributyltin and heavy metals from ship refurbishment operations from 1926 to present[4]. The Oregon Department of Environmental Quality (DEQ) will oversee the investigation and cleanup of contaminated soil, groundwater and sediments at the site under an agreement signed with the EPA. We recommend that FERC and the proponents collaborate closely with Oregon DEQ as the pipeline route is analyzed. Should additional construction BMPs be required at this location, those measures should be included in the EIS.

Seismic and Other Risks
Construction and operation of the proposed facility and pipeline may cause or be affected by increased seismicity (earthquake activity) in tectonically active zones. We recommend that the EIS identify potentially active and inactive fault zones where the proposed pipeline may cross. This analysis should discuss the potential for seismic risk and how this risk will be evaluated, monitored, and managed. A map depicting these geologic faults should be included in the EIS. The construction of the proposed project must use appropriate seismic design and construction standards and practices. Ground movement on these faults can cause a pipeline to rupture, resulting in discharge of gas and subsequent explosion. Particular attention should be paid to areas where the pipeline may cross areas with high population densities. Mitigation measures should be identified in the EIS to minimize effects on the pipeline due to seismic activities.

Blasting Activities
During project construction, blasting may be required in certain areas along the pipeline route corridor and adjacent facilities, resulting in increased noise and related effects to local residents, and disruption and displacement of bird and wildlife species. We recommend that the EIS discuss where blasting in the project area would be required, blasting methods that would be used, and how blasting effects would be controlled and mitigated. Noise levels in the project area should be quantified and the effects of blasting to the public and to wildlife should also be evaluated in the EIS. We recommend that a Blasting Management Plan be developed and the environmental impacts evaluated in the EIS.

National Historic Preservation Act
Consultation for tribal cultural resources is required under Section 106 of the National Historic Preservation Act (NHPA). Historic properties under the NHPA are properties that are included in the National Register of Historic Places or that meet the criteria for the National Register. Section 106 of the NHPA requires a federal agency, upon determining that activities under its control could affect historic properties, consult with the appropriate State Historic Preservation Officer /Tribal Historic Preservation Officer. Under NEPA, any impacts to tribal, cultural, or other treaty resources must be discussed and mitigated. Section 106 of the NHPA requires that federal agencies consider the effects of their actions on cultural resources, following regulation in 36 CFR 800.

Environmental Justice and Impacted Communities
In compliance with NEPA and with Executive Order (EO) 12898 on Environmental Justice, actions should be taken to conduct adequate public outreach and participation that ensures the public and Native American tribes understand the possible impacts to their communities and trust resources.

EO 12898 requires each Federal agency to identify and address disproportionately high and adverse human health or environmental effects of its programs, policies, and activities on minority populations,

[4] http://www.deq.state.or.us/lq/cu/nwr/AstoriaMarine/AstoriaMarineConstructionCo.pdf

low-income populations, and Native American tribes.[5] The EPA also considers children, the disabled, the elderly, and those of limited English proficiency to be potential Environmental Justice communities due to their unique vulnerabilities.

According to the Council on Environmental Quality, when determining whether environmental effects are disproportionately high and adverse, agencies should consider the following factors: [6]

- Whether environmental effects are or may be having an adverse impact on minority populations, low-income populations, or Indian tribes that appreciably exceeds or is likely to appreciably exceed those on the general population or other appropriate comparison group.
- Whether the disproportionate impacts occur or would occur in a minority population, low-income population, or Indian tribe affected by cumulative or multiple adverse exposures from environmental hazards.

Socioeconomic Impacts

Council on Environmental Quality Regulations at 40 CFR 1500-1508 state that the "human environment" is to be "interpreted comprehensively" to include "the natural and physical environment and the relationship of people with that environment" (40 CFR 1508.14). Consistent with this direction, agencies need to assess not only "direct" effects, but also "aesthetic, historic, cultural, economic, social, or health" effects, "whether direct, indirect, or cumulative" (40 CFR 1508.8).

Social impact assessment variables point to measurable change in human population, communities, and social relationships resulting from a development project or policy change. We suggest that the EIS analyze the following social variables:

- Population Characteristics
- Community and Institutional Structures
- Political and Social Resources
- Community Resources.

Impacts to these social variables should be considered for each stage of the project (development, construction, operation, decommissioning). With regard to the construction and operation phase of the project, we recommend the analysis give consideration to how marine traffic might change, and how this may affect commercial or recreational use within the project area and travel over the bar.

Greenhouse Gas (GHG) Emissions

On February 18, 2010, the CEQ issued draft guidance to Federal Agencies on analyzing the effects of Greenhouse Gas (GHG) emissions and climate change when describing the environmental effects of a proposed agency action in accordance with NEPA[7].

CEQ's draft guidance defines GHG emissions in accordance with Section 19(i) of *E.O. 13514 Federal Leadership in Environment, Energy, and Economic Performance (October 5, 2009)* to include carbon dioxide (CO_2), methane (CH_4), nitrous oxide (N_2O), hydrofluorcarbon (HFCs), perfluorcarbon (PFCs),

[5] EO 12898: Federal Actions to Address Environmental Justice in Minority Populations and Low-income Populations. February 11, 1994.

[6] http://ceq.hss.doe.gov/nepa/regs/ej/justice.pdf

[7] See http://ceq.hss.doe.gov/current_developments/new_ceq_nepa_guidance.html

and sulfurhexafluoride (SF_6). Because CO_2 is the reference gas for climate change based on their potential to absorb heat in the atmosphere, measures of non-CO_2 GHGs should be reflected as CO_2-equivalent (CO_2-e) values.

The EPA supports evaluation and disclosure of GHG emissions and climate change effects resulting from the proposed project during all project phases, including (1) pre-construction (e.g., transportation, mobilization, and staging), (2) construction, (3) operation, (4) maintenance, and (5) decommissioning. We recommend that the GHG emission accounting/inventory include each proposed stationary source (e.g., power plant, liquefaction facility, compressor and metering stations, etc.) and mobile emission source (e.g., heavy equipment, supply barges, rail transports, etc.). We also recommend that the EIS establish reasonable spatial and temporal boundaries for this analysis, and that the EIS quantify and disclose the expected annual direct and indirect GHG emissions for the proposed action. In the analysis of direct effects, we recommend that the EIS quantify cumulative emissions over the life of the project, discuss measures to reduce GHG emissions, including consideration of reasonable alternatives
We recommend that the EIS consider mitigation measures and reasonable alternatives to reduce action-related GHG emissions, and include a discussion of cumulative effects of GHG emissions related to the proposed action. We recommend that this discussion focus on an assessment of annual and cumulative emissions of the proposed action and the difference in emissions associated with the alternatives.

In addition, greenhouse gas emission sources in the petroleum and natural gas industry are required to report GHG emissions under 40CFR Part 98 (subpart W), the Greenhouse Gas Reporting Program. Consistent with draft CEQ guidance[5], we recommend that this information be included in the EIS for consideration by decision makers and the public. Please see http://www.epa.gov/climatechange/emissions/ghgrulemaking.html.

Climate Change

Scientific evidence supports the concern that continued increases in greenhouse gas emissions resulting from human activities will contribute to climate change. Global warming is caused by emissions of carbon dioxide and other heat-trapping gases. On December 7, 2009, the EPA determined that emissions of GHGs contribute to air pollution that "endangers public health and welfare" within the meaning of the Clean Air Act. Higher temperatures and increased winter rainfall will be accompanied by a reduction in snow pack, earlier snowmelts, and increased runoff. Some of the impacts, such as reduced groundwater discharge, and more frequent and severe drought conditions, may impact the proposed projects. The EPA recommends the EIS consider how climate change could potentially influence the proposed project, specifically within sensitive areas, and assess how the projected impacts could be exacerbated by climate change.

Coordination with Tribal Governments

Executive Order 13175, Consultation and Coordination with Indian Tribal Governments (November 6, 2000), was issued in order to establish regular and meaningful consultation and collaboration with tribal officials in the development of federal policies that have tribal implications, and to strengthen the United States government-to-government relationships with Indian tribes. The EIS should describe the process and outcome of government-to-government consultation between the FERC and tribal governments within the project area, issues that were raised, and how those issues were addressed in the selection of the proposed alternative.

Indirect Impacts
Per CEQ regulations at CFR 1508.8(b), the indirect effects analysis "may include growth inducing effects and other effects related to induced changes in the pattern of land use, population density or growth rate, and related effects on air and water and other natural systems, including ecosystems." The 2012 report from the Energy Information Administration[8] states that, "natural gas markets in the United States balance in response to increased natural gas exports largely through increased natural gas production." That report also notes that about three-quarters of that increased production would be from shale resources. We recommend that FERC consider available information about the extent to which drilling activity might be stimulated by the construction of an LNG export facility on the west coast, and any potential environmental effects associated with that drilling expansion.

Cumulative Impacts
The cumulative impacts analysis should identify how resources, ecosystems, and communities in the vicinity of the project have already been, or will be affected by past, present, or future activities in the project area. These resources should be characterized in terms of their response to change and capacity to withstand stresses. Trends data should be used to establish a baseline for the affected resources, to evaluate the significance of historical degradation, and to predict the environmental effects of the project components.

For the cumulative impacts assessment, we recommend focusing on resources of concern or resources that are "at risk" and /or are significantly impacted by the proposed project, before mitigation. For this project, the FERC should conduct a thorough assessment of the cumulative impacts to aquatic and biological resources, air quality, and commercial and recreational use of the Columbia River within the projects area of influence.

The EPA also recommends the EIS delineate appropriate geographic boundaries, including natural ecological boundaries, whenever possible, evaluate the time period of the project's effects. For instance, for a discussion of cumulative wetland impacts, a natural geographic boundary such as a watershed or sub-watershed could be identified. The time period, or temporal boundary, could be defined as from 1972 (when the Clean Water Act established section 404) to the present.

Please refer to CEQ's "Considering Cumulative Effects Under the National Environmental Policy Act"[9] and the EPA's "Consideration of Cumulative Impacts in EPA Review of NEPA Documents"[10] for assistance with identifying appropriate boundaries and identifying appropriate past, present, and reasonably foreseeable future projects to include in the analysis.

Mitigation and Monitoring
On February 18, 2010, CEQ issued draft guidance on the Appropriate Use of Mitigation and Monitoring. This guidance seeks to enable agencies to create successful mitigation planning and implementation procedures with robust public involvement and monitoring programs[11].

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[8] Energy Information Administration, Effects of Increased Natural Gas Exports on Domestic Energy Markets, 6 (January 2012) available at http://www.eia.gov/analysis/requests/fe/pdf/fe_lng.pdf
[9] http://ceq.hss.doe.gov/nepa/ccenepa/ccenepa.htm
[10] http://www.epa.gov/compliance/resources/policies/nepa/cumulative.pdf
[11] http://ceq.hss.doe.gov/current_developments/docs/Mitigation_and_Monitoring_Guidance_14Jan2011.pdf

We recommend that the EIS include a discussion and analysis of proposed mitigation measures and compensatory mitigation under CWA §404. The EIS should identify the type of activities which would require mitigation measures either during construction, operation, and maintenance phases of this project. To the extent possible, mitigation goals and measureable performance standards should be identified in the EIS to reduce impacts to a particular level or adopted to achieve an environmentally preferable outcome.

Mitigation measures could include best management practices and options for avoiding and minimizing impacts to important aquatic habitats and to compensate for the unavoidable impacts. Compensatory mitigation options could include mitigation banks, in-lieu fee, preservation, applicant proposed mitigation, etc. and should be consistent with the *Compensatory Mitigation for Losses of Aquatic Resources; Final Rule* (33 CFR Parts 325 and 332 and 40 CFR Part 230). A mitigation plan should be developed in compliance with 40 CFR Part 230 Subpart J 230.94, and included in the EIS.

An environmental monitoring program should be designed to assess both impacts from the project and that mitigation measures being implemented are effective. We recommend the EIS identify clear monitoring goals and objectives, such as what parameters are to be monitored, where and when monitoring will take place, who will be responsible, how the information will be evaluated, what actions (contingencies, triggers, adaptive management, corrective actions, etc.) will be taken based on the information. Furthermore, we recommend the EIS discuss public participation, and how the public can get information on mitigation effectiveness and monitoring results.

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From:	Tyner, Wallace E.
To:	LNGStudy
Subject:	2012 LNG Export Study
Date:	Monday, January 14, 2013 11:25:34 AM
Attachments:	Comparison of Analysis of Natural Gas Export Impacts w exec sum Jan rev.pdf

Comments attached.

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Comparison of Analysis of Natural Gas Export Impacts from Studies Done by NERA Economic Consultants and Purdue University

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Executive Summary

The U.S. Department of Energy (DOE) is soon to make decisions on the extent to which natural gas exports will be approved. With the shale gas boom, the US is expected to have very large natural gas resources, so the key question is would it be better to rely completely on free market resource allocations which would lead to large exports of natural gas or to limit natural gas exports so that more could be used in the US. There are two economic studies of the impacts on the U.S. economy of increased natural gas exports – one done for DOE by NERA Economic Consultants and the other by Tyner and Sarica of Purdue University. The NERA study results in a very small income gain for the U.S. from increased natural gas exports, and the Purdue study results in a small economic loss.

Any time trade policy questions are raised, it is often not so much about net gains as about winners and losers. Net gains or losses, whichever may be the case are tiny. The $10 billion gain in the NERA study amounts to 6 hours of U.S. economic activity. In the NERA analysis, the losses are in wage and capital income in energy intensive industries, and the gains are almost exclusively wealth transfers to owners of natural gas resources. Perhaps a more important question is should the nation accept the economic losses in many key economic sectors to provide wealth transfers to natural gas resource owners? In addition, while U.S. industry and consumers would face higher natural gas and electricity prices, foreign competitors would face lower energy costs with increased U.S. natural gas exports.

Beyond the economic and income distribution issues, there are also associated environmental impacts not covered in the NERA study. In the Purdue study, U.S. GHG emissions increase when there are increased natural gas exports. An argument could be made that GHG emissions might fall in other regions as they replace coal or other fossil fuels with cleaner natural gas. However, there likely would be a sort of emissions transactions cost in liquefying, transport, and de-liquefying the gas that would result still in a net GHG increase. In addition, because less natural gas would be used in local fleets because of natural gas exports, there would be an increase in local particulate emissions due to relatively more use of diesel and less use of CNG.

The bottom line is that there are very important issues concerning whether or to what extent there really are any economic gains to the U.S. from exporting natural gas instead of using it domestically. There are income distribution consequences of natural gas export impacts that need to be factored into the export permit decisions, and there are environmental impacts that should be counted as well. The results of these two studies, while showing some similarities are different enough in final outcomes to warrant much more informed debate on this critically important national policy issue.

Comparison of Analysis of Natural Gas Export Impacts from Studies Done by NERA Economic Consultants and Purdue University

Wallace E. Tyner, James and Lois Ackerman Professor
Kemal Sarica, Post-doctoral Associate
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The U.S. Department of Energy (DOE) is soon to make decisions on the extent to which natural gas exports will be approved. With the shale gas boom, the US is expected to have very large natural gas resources, so the key question is would it be better to rely completely on free market resource allocations which would lead to large exports of natural gas or to limit natural gas exports so that more could be used in the US. Exports would be economically attractive because there is a very large price gap at present between US natural gas price (around $3.50/MCF) and prices in foreign markets, which can range up to $15/MCF. On the other side, there is potentially large domestic demand for natural gas in electricity generation, industrial applications, the transportation sector, and for other uses. There is no doubt that exporting a large amount of natural gas would increase the domestic natural gas price for all these potential uses. Higher natural gas prices would, in turn, mean higher electricity prices, so the higher energy costs would go beyond just natural gas users. These higher energy costs would also lead to contraction in energy intensive sectors relative to the reference case with small natural gas exports.

NERA Economic Consulting study

In December 2012, DOE released a commissioned study done by NERA Economic Consultants, a private consulting firm[1]. They used their own proprietary energy-economy model named NewERA for the analysis. Their results suggest that the US achieves economic gains from natural gas exports and that the gains increase as the level of natural gas exports grows. Their result is the classical economic result that free trade provides net gains to the economy under most conditions. While economic theory does not suggest that free trade always produces economic gains for all parties under all conditions, the general argument is that under a wide range of conditions, free trade does provide net benefits with some winners and some losers. The NERA results do show higher natural gas prices due to exports with the magnitude of the increase depending on domestic and global supply and demand factors. The NERA study used input data and information from a companion study done by the Energy information Agency in DOE [2], which estimated the impacts of export levels on US natural gas prices.

The NERA analysis focused on export levels of 6 and 12 BCF per day, but there were many other scenarios and sensitivity analyses. In general, the welfare or net income increases estimated in the NERA scenarios were very small, generally ranging from 0.01 to 0.025 percent over the reference case. There were considerable losses in capital and wage income in sectors affected by the higher natural gas prices, and income gains to natural gas resource owners through export earnings and wealth transfers to resource owners. By 2030 the total net increase in GDP amounted to about $10 billion 2010$, which could be perceived as being quite small in a $15 trillion economy [3]. Wage income falls in agriculture, energy intensive sectors, and the electricity sector. The percentage declines in wages in these sectors were generally much greater than the percentage increases in net national income. Natural gas price increases did not exceed 20 percent in any of the simulations. The NewERA energy-economy model takes inputs from the EIA NEMS natural gas projections [2] and from a global natural gas model.

Purdue MARKAL-Macro Analysis

The Purdue approach was to use a well-established bottom-up energy model named MARKAL (MARKet ALlocation). Bottom-up means that the model is built upon thousands of current and future prospective energy technologies and resources. These energy resources supply projected energy service demands for the various sectors of the economy. In addition to the standard MARKAL model, we also have adapted a version of the MARKAL-Macro model which permits us to include feedbacks between energy prices and economic activity. Thus the GDP effects of alternative energy policies are captured as well as technology and supply impacts. For these reasons, MARKAL-Macro is an ideal tool for this kind of analysis. The Purdue analysis was done for the two levels from the EIA and NERA reports (6 BCF/day and 12 BCF/day plus 18 BCF per day). The EIA NEMS model is a bottom-up model somewhat similar to MARKAL. Details of the analysis are available in Sarica and Tyner [4].

The Purdue analysis shows that increasing natural gas exports actually results in a slight decline in GDP. Essentially the gains from exports are less than the losses in electricity and energy intensive sectors in the economy. The GDP losses are around 0.04%, 0.11%, and 0.17% for the 6, 12, and 18 BCF/day cases respectively for the year 2035.

The general trends in the change in energy resource mix for 2035 are as follows: 1)the domestic energy share for natural gas falls from 25 to 22 percent) as exports of natural gas increase; 2)domestic use of coal increases from 21 to 23 percent as natural gas exports increase; 3)the fraction of oil in total consumption increases from 36 to 37 percent; 4)there are small increases in nuclear and renewables (hydro, solar, wind, and biomass).

The impacts on the electricity sector come in higher electricity prices and higher GHG emissions. In 2035, electricity price is up compared with the reference case by 1.1%, 4.3%, and 7.2% for the 6 BCF, 12 BCF, and 18 BCF cases respectively. Of course, these higher electricity prices are passed through the entire economy through industrial, commercial, and residential sectors. Electricity GHG emissions in the early years of the simulation horizon are around 2% higher for the 6 BCF case, and 7-12% higher for the 12 and 18 BCF cases.

In 2035, CNG use in transportation for the reference case is 1.3 bil. gal. gasoline equivalent, but it drops to 0.2-0.3 in the three export cases. CNG use in heavy duty vehicles disappears in the 12 BCF case, and CNG use in most of the vehicle categories drops considerably. The bottom line is that while CNG use in transport is not large even in the reference case, it plummets in the export cases.

We examined impacts on the metals, non-metals, paper, and chemical sectors. Total energy use and thus also economic output declines from 1 to 4 percent in all the energy intensive sectors depending on the sector and the level of natural gas exports. Thus, it is easy to see how the Purdue results show a decline in GDP since there are declines in several key sectors in the economy driven by the higher natural gas prices.

Comparison

These studies use different models, somewhat different data sets, and different modeling parameters. The results are different, but there are some important similarities. On GDP impacts, the sign of the change is different. NERA gets a very small but positive welfare impact, and Purdue MARKAL-Macro gets a small negative impact. Our view is that because the net income impacts are so small, it is not appropriate to place much emphasis on that outcome. What is important is to explain the differences and to understand the drivers of the differences.

Purdue MARKAL-Macro gets larger natural gas price increases, which, in-turn leads to electricity price increases and to declines in energy use and output for key energy intensive sectors. The decline in economic activity of these sectors is a key driver in the decline in GDP. In fact, since neither the Purdue nor the NERA model are complete global CGE models, the estimated decline in economic activity of these sectors is probably an underestimate because all these sectors would face higher costs and would be less competitive on the global market with higher natural gas exports. In other words, U.S, economic losses likely would be larger than estimated by either model. Also, other nations would face lower energy costs with our LNG exports.

Any time trade policy questions are raised, it is often not so much about net gains as about winners and losers. Net gains or losses, whichever may be the case are tiny. The $10 billion gain in the NERA study amounts to 6 hours of U.S. economic activity. In the NERA analysis, the losses are in wage and capital income in energy intensive industries, and the gains are almost exclusively wealth transfers to owners of natural gas resources. Perhaps a more important question is should the nation accept the economic losses in many key economic sectors to provide wealth transfers to natural gas resource owners?

In addition to the economic and income distribution issues, there are also associated environmental impacts not covered in the NERA study. In the Purdue study, U.S. GHG emissions increase when there are increased natural gas exports. An argument could be made that GHG emissions might fall in other regions as they replace coal or other fossil fuels with cleaner natural gas. However, there likely would be a sort of emissions transactions cost in liquefying, transport, and de-liquefying the gas that would result still in a net GHG increase. In addition, because less natural gas would be used in local fleets because of natural gas exports, there would be an increase in local particulate emissions due to relatively more use of diesel and less use of CNG.

Conclusions

Beyond the analysis conducted here, it is important to note that neither the model used in this analysis nor the NERA model are global in scope. Thus, neither includes the trade impacts of US natural gas exports. However, we can describe those impacts qualitatively. Increased US natural gas exports will reduce energy costs for industry and consumers in foreign countries and increase those costs for the US. Thus, US industry will be rendered less competitive compared with foreign industry. This loss of export revenue would be in addition to the GDP loss estimated in this analysis. Moreover, US consumers lose due to higher energy prices, and foreign consumers gain.

Given all the results of this analysis, it is clear that policy makers need to be very careful in approving US natural gas exports. While we are normally disciples of the free trade orthodoxy, one must examine the evidence in each case. We have done that, and the analysis shows that this case is different. Using the natural gas in the US is more advantageous than exports, both economically and environmentally.

The bottom line is that there are very important issues concerning whether or to what extent there really are any economic gains to the U.S. from exporting natural gas instead of using it domestically. There are income distribution consequences of natural gas export impacts that need to be factored into the export permit decisions, and there are environmental impacts that should be counted as well. The results of these two studies, while showing some similarities are different enough in final outcomes to warrant much more research and informed debate on this critically important national policy issue.

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Regulatory Impact Analysis

Proposed New Source Performance Standards and Amendments to the National Emissions Standards for Hazardous Air Pollutants for the Oil and Natural Gas Industry

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1 EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

1.1 Background

The U.S. Environmental Protection Agency (EPA) reviewed the New Source Performance Standards (NSPS) for volatile organic compound and sulfur dioxide emissions from Natural Gas Processing Plants. As a result of these NSPS, this proposal amends the Crude Oil and Natural Gas Production source category currently listed under section 111 of the Clean Air Act to include Natural Gas Transmission and Distribution, amends the existing NSPS for volatile organic compounds (VOCs) from Natural Gas Processing Plants, and proposes NSPS for stationary sources in the source categories that are not covered by the existing NSPS. In addition, this proposal addresses the residual risk and technology review conducted for two source categories in the Oil and Natural Gas sector regulated by separate National Emission Standards for Hazardous Air Pollutants (NESHAP). It also proposes standards for emission sources not currently addressed, as well as amendments to improve aspects of these NESHAP related to applicability and implementation. Finally, it addresses provisions in these NESHAP related to emissions during periods of startup, shutdown, and malfunction.

As part of the regulatory process, EPA is required to develop a regulatory impact analysis (RIA) for rules that have costs or benefits that exceed $100 million. EPA estimates the proposed NSPS will have costs that exceed $100 million, so the Agency has prepared an RIA. Because the NESHAP amendments are being proposed in the same rulemaking package (i.e., same Preamble), we have chosen to present the economic impact analysis for the proposed NESHAP amendments within the same document as the NSPS RIA.

This RIA includes an economic impact analysis and an analysis of human health and climate impacts anticipated from the proposed NSPS and NESHAP amendments. We also estimate potential impacts of the proposed NSPS on the national energy economy using the U.S. Energy Information Administration's National Energy Modeling System (NEMS). The engineering compliance costs are annualized using a 7 percent discount rate. This analysis assumes an analysis year of 2015.

Several proposed emission controls for the NSPS capture VOC emissions that otherwise would be vented to the atmosphere. Since methane is co-emitted with VOCs, a large proportion of the averted methane emissions can be directed into natural gas production streams and sold. One emissions control option, reduced emissions well completions, also recovers saleable hydrocarbon condensates which would otherwise be lost to the environment. The revenues derived from additional natural gas and condensate recovery are expected to offset the engineering costs of implementing the NSPS in the proposed option. In the economic impact and energy economy analyses for the NSPS, we present results for three regulatory options that include the additional product recovery and the revenues we expect producers to gain from the additional product recovery.

1.2 NSPS Results

For the proposed NSPS, the key results of the RIA follow and are summarized in Table 1-1:

- **Benefits Analysis:** The proposed NSPS is anticipated to prevent significant new emissions, including 37,000 tons of hazardous air pollutants (HAPs), 540,000 tons of VOCs, and 3.4 million tons of methane. While we expect that these avoided emissions will result in improvements in ambient air quality and reductions in health effects associated with exposure to HAPs, ozone, and particulate matter (PM), we have determined that quantification of those benefits cannot be accomplished for this rule. This is not to imply that there are no benefits of the rules; rather, it is a reflection of the difficulties in modeling the direct and indirect impacts of the reductions in emissions for this industrial sector with the data currently available. In addition to health improvements, there will be improvements in visibility effects, ecosystem effects, as well as additional natural gas recovery. The methane emissions reductions associated with the proposed NSPS are likely to result in significant climate co-benefits. The specific control technologies for the proposed NSPS are anticipated to have minor secondary disbenefits, including an increase of 990,000 tons of carbon dioxide (CO_2), 510 tons of nitrogen oxides NOx, 7.6 tons of PM, 2,800 tons of CO, and 1,000 tons of total hydrocarbons (THC) as well as emission reductions associated with the energy system impacts. The net CO_2-equivalent emission reductions are 62 million metric tons.
- **Engineering Cost Analysis:** EPA estimates the total capital cost of the proposed NSPS will be $740 million. The total annualized engineering costs of the proposed NSPS will be $740 million. When estimated revenues from additional natural gas and condensate recovery are included, the annualized engineering costs of the proposed NSPS are estimated at $-45 million, assuming a wellhead natural gas price of $4/thousand cubic feet (Mcf) and condensate price of $70/barrel. Possible explanations for why there appear to be negative cost control technologies are discussed in the engineering costs analysis section in the RIA. The estimated engineering compliance costs that include the product recovery are sensitive to the assumption about the price of the recovered product. There is also geographic variability in wellhead prices, which can also influence estimated engineering costs. For example, $1/Mcf change in the wellhead price causes a change in estimated engineering compliance costs of about $180 million, given EPA estimates that 180 billion cubic feet of natural gas

will be recovered by implementing the proposed NSPS option. All estimates are in 2008 dollars.

- **Energy System Impacts:** Using the NEMS, when additional natural gas recovery is included, the analysis of energy system impacts for the proposed NSPS shows that domestic natural gas production is likely to increase slightly (about 20 billion cubic feet or 0.1 percent) and average natural gas prices to decrease slightly (about $0.04/Mcf or 0.9 percent at the wellhead for onshore production in the lower 48 states). Domestic crude oil production is not expected to change, while average crude oil prices are estimated to decrease slightly (about $0.02/barrel or less than 0.1 percent at the wellhead for onshore production in the lower 48 states). All prices are in 2008 dollars.
- **Small Entity Analyses:** EPA performed a screening analysis for impacts on small entities by comparing compliance costs to revenues. For the proposed NSPS, we found that there will not be a significant impact on a substantial number of small entities (SISNOSE).
- **Employment Impacts Analysis:** EPA estimated the labor impacts due to the installation, operation, and maintenance of control equipment, as well as labor associated with new reporting and recordkeeping requirements. We estimate up-front and continual, annual labor requirements by estimating hours of labor required for compliance and converting this number to full-time equivalents (FTEs) by dividing by 2,080 (40 hours per week multiplied by 52 weeks). The up-front labor requirement to comply with the proposed NSPS is estimated at 230 full-time-equivalent employees. The annual labor requirement to comply with proposed NSPS is estimated at about 2,400 full-time-equivalent employees. We note that this type of FTE estimate cannot be used to make assumptions about the specific number of people involved or whether new jobs are created for new employees.

Table 1-1 Summary of the Monetized Benefits, Costs, and Net Benefits for the Oil and Natural Gas NSPS Regulatory Options in 2015 (millions of 2008$)[1]

	Option 1: Alternative	Option 2: Proposed[4]	Option 3: Alternative
Total Monetized Benefits[2]	N/A	N/A	N/A
Total Costs[3]	-$19 million	-$45 million	$77 million
Net Benefits	N/A	N/A	N/A
Non-monetized Benefits	17,000 tons of HAPs[5]	37,000 tons of HAPs[5]	37,000 tons of HAPs[5]
	270,000 tons of VOCs	540,000 tons of VOCs	550,000 tons of VOCs
	1.6 million tons of methane[5]	3.4 million tons of methane[5]	3.4 million tons of methane[5]
	Health effects of HAP exposure[5]	Health effects of HAP exposure[5]	Health effects of HAP exposure[5]
	Health effects of $PM_{2.5}$ and ozone exposure	Health effects of $PM_{2.5}$ and ozone exposure	Health effects of $PM_{2.5}$ and ozone exposure
	Visibility impairment	Visibility impairment	Visibility impairment
	Vegetation effects	Vegetation effects	Vegetation effects
	Climate effects[5]	Climate effects[5]	Climate effects[5]

[1] All estimates are for the implementation year (2015) and include estimated revenue from additional natural gas recovery as a result of the NSPS.

[2] While we expect that these avoided emissions will result in improvements in air quality and reductions in health effects associated with HAPs, ozone, and particulate matter (PM) as well as climate effects associated with methane, we have determined that quantification of those benefits and co-benefits cannot be accomplished for this rule in a defensible way. This is not to imply that there are no benefits or co-benefits of the rules; rather, it is a reflection of the difficulties in modeling the direct and indirect impacts of the reductions in emissions for this industrial sector with the data currently available. The specific control technologies for the proposed NSPS are anticipated to have minor secondary disbenefits, including an increase of 990,000 tons of CO_2, 510 tons of NOx, 7.6 tons of PM, 2,800 tons of CO, and 1,000 tons of total hydrocarbons (THC) as well as emission reductions associated with the energy system impacts. The net CO_2-equivalent emission reductions are 62 million metric tons.

[3] The engineering compliance costs are annualized using a 7 percent discount rate.

[4] The negative cost for the NSPS Options 1 and 2 reflects the inclusion of revenues from additional natural gas and hydrocarbon condensate recovery that are estimated as a result of the proposed NSPS. Possible explanations for why there appear to be negative cost control technologies are discussed in the engineering costs analysis section in the RIA.

[5] Reduced exposure to HAPs and climate effects are co-benefits.

1.3 NESHAP Amendments Results

For the proposed NESHAP amendments, the key results of the RIA follow and are summarized in Table 1-2:

- **Benefits Analysis:** The proposed NESHAP amendments are anticipated to reduce a significant amount of existing emissions, including 1,400 tons of HAPs, 9,200 tons of VOCs, and 4,900 tons of methane. Results from the residual risk assessment indicate that for existing natural gas transmission and storage, the maximum individual cancer risk decreases from 90-in-a-million before controls to 20-in-a-million after controls with benzene as the primary cancer risk driver. While we expect that these avoided emissions will result in improvements in ambient air quality and reductions in health effects associated with exposure to HAPs, ozone, and PM, we have determined that quantification of those benefits cannot be accomplished for this rule. This is not to imply that there are no benefits of the rules; rather, it is a reflection of the difficulties in modeling the direct and indirect impacts of the reductions in emissions for this industrial sector with the data currently available. In addition to health improvements, there will be improvements in visibility effects, ecosystem effects, and climate effects as well as additional natural gas recovery. The specific control technologies for the proposed NESHAP is anticipated to have minor secondary disbenefits, including an increase of 5,500 tons of CO_2, 2.9 tons of NOx, 16 tons of CO, and 6.0 tons of total hydrocarbons (THC) as well as emission reductions associated with the energy system impacts. The net CO_2-equivalent emission reductions are 93 thousand metric tons.
- **Engineering Cost Analysis:** EPA estimates the total capital costs of the proposed NESHAP amendments to be $52 million. Total annualized engineering costs of the proposed NESHAP amendments are estimated to be $16 million. All estimates are in 2008 dollars.
- **Energy System Impacts:** We did not estimate the energy economy impacts of the proposed NESHAP amendments as the expected costs of the rule are not likely to have estimable impacts on the national energy economy.
- **Small Entity Analyses:** EPA performed a screening analysis for impacts on small entities by comparing compliance costs to revenues. For the proposed NESHAP amendments, we found that there will not be a significant impact on a substantial number of small entities (SISNOSE).
- **Employment Impacts Analysis:** EPA estimated the labor impacts due to the installation, operation, and maintenance of control equipment, as well as labor associated with new reporting and recordkeeping requirements. We estimate up-front and continual, annual labor requirements by estimating hours of labor required for compliance and converting this number to full-time equivalents (FTEs) by dividing by 2,080 (40 hours per week multiplied by 52 weeks). The up-front labor requirement to comply with the proposed NESHAP Amendments is estimated at 120 full-time-equivalent employees. The annual labor requirement to comply with proposed NESHAP Amendments is estimated at about 102 full-time-equivalent employees. We note that this type of FTE estimate cannot be used to make assumptions about the specific number of people involved or whether new jobs are created for new employees.

- **Break-Even Analysis:** A break-even analysis suggests that HAP emissions would need to be valued at $12,000 per ton for the benefits to exceed the costs if the health benefits, ecosystem and climate co-benefits from the reductions in VOC and methane emissions are assumed to be zero. If we assume the health benefits from HAP emission reductions are zero, the VOC emissions would need to be valued at $1,700 per ton or the methane emissions would need to be valued at $3,300 per ton for the benefits to exceed the costs. Previous assessments have shown that the $PM_{2.5}$ benefits associated with reducing VOC emissions were valued at $280 to $7,000 per ton of VOC emissions reduced in specific urban areas. Previous assessments have shown that the $PM_{2.5}$ benefits associated with reducing VOC emissions were valued at $280 to $7,000 per ton of VOC emissions reduced in specific urban areas, ozone benefits valued at $240 to $1,000 per ton of VOC emissions reduced, and climate co-benefits valued at $110 to $1,400 per short ton of methane reduced. All estimates are in 2008 dollars.

Table 1-2 Summary of the Monetized Benefits, Costs, and Net Benefits for the Proposed Oil and Natural Gas NESHAP in 2015 (millions of 2008$)[1]

	Option 1: Proposed (Floor)
Total Monetized Benefits[2]	N/A
Total Costs[3]	$16 million
Net Benefits	N/A
Non-monetized Benefits	1,400 tons of HAPs
	9,200 tons of VOCs[4]
	4,900 tons of methane[4]
	Health effects of HAP exposure
	Health effects of $PM_{2.5}$ and ozone exposure[4]
	Visibility impairment[4]
	Vegetation effects[4]
	Climate effects[4]

[1] All estimates are for the implementation year (2015).

[2] While we expect that these avoided emissions will result in improvements in air quality and reductions in health effects associated with HAPs, ozone, and PM as well as climate effects associated with methane, we have determined that quantification of those benefits and co-benefits cannot be accomplished for this rule in a defensible way. This is not to imply that there are no benefits or co-benefits of the rules; rather, it is a reflection of the difficulties in modeling the direct and indirect impacts of the reductions in emissions for this industrial sector with the data currently available. The specific control technologies for the proposed NESHAP are anticipated to have minor secondary disbenefits, including an increase of 5,500 tons of CO_2, 2.9 tons of NOx, 16 tons of CO, and 6.0 tons of THC as well as emission reductions associated with the energy system impacts. The net CO_2-equivalent emission reductions are 93 thousand metric tons.

[3] The engineering compliance costs are annualized using a 7 percent discount rate.

[4] Reduced exposure to VOC emissions, PM2.5 and ozone exposure, visibility and vegetation effects, and climate effects are co-benefits.

1.4 Organization of this Report

The remainder of this report details the methodology and the results of the RIA. Section 2 presents the industry profile of the oil and natural gas industry. Section 3 describes the emissions and engineering cost analysis. Section 4 presents the benefits analysis. Section 5 presents statutory and executive order analyses. Section 6 presents a comparison of benefits and costs. Section 7 presents energy system impact, employment impact, and small business impact analyses.

2 INDUSTRY PROFILE

2.1 Introduction

The oil and natural gas industry includes the following five segments: drilling and extraction, processing, transportation, refining, and marketing. The Oil and Natural Gas NSPS and NESHAP amendments propose controls for the oil and natural gas products and processes of the drilling and extraction of crude oil and natural gas, natural gas processing, and natural gas transportation segments.

Most crude oil and natural gas production facilities are classified under NAICS 211: Crude Petroleum and Natural Gas Extraction (211111) and Natural Gas Liquid Extraction (211112). The drilling of oil and natural gas wells is included in NAICS 213111. Most natural gas transmission and storage facilities are classified under NAICS 486210—Pipeline Transportation of Natural Gas. While other NAICS (213112—Support Activities for Oil and Gas Operations, 221210—Natural Gas Distribution, 486110—Pipeline Transportation of Crude Oil, and 541360—Geophysical Surveying and Mapping Services) are often included in the oil and natural gas sector, these are not discussed in detail in the Industry Profile because they are not directly affected by the proposed NSPS and NESHAP amendments.

The outputs of the oil and natural gas industry are inputs for larger production processes of gas, energy, and petroleum products. As of 2009, the Energy Information Administration (EIA) estimates that about 526,000 producing oil wells and 493,000 producing natural gas wells operated in the United States. Domestic dry natural gas production was 20.5 trillion cubic feet (tcf) in 2009, the highest production level since 1970. The leading five natural gas producing states are Texas, Alaska, Wyoming, Oklahoma, and New Mexico. Domestic crude oil production in 2009 was 1,938 million barrels (bbl). The leading five crude oil producing states are Texas, Alaska, California, Oklahoma, and New Mexico.

The Industry Profile provides a brief introduction to the components of the oil and natural gas industry that are relevant to the proposed NSPS and NESHAP Amendments. The purpose is to give the reader a general understanding of the geophysical, engineering, and economic aspects of the industry that are addressed in subsequent economic analysis in this RIA. The Industry Profile relies heavily on background material from the U.S. EPA's "Economic Analysis of Air

Pollution Regulations: Oil and Natural Gas Production" (1996) and the U.S. EPA's "Sector Notebook Project: Profile of the Oil and Gas Extraction Industry" (2000).

2.2 Products of the Crude Oil and Natural Gas Industry

Each producing crude oil and natural gas field has its own unique properties. The composition of the crude oil and natural gas and reservoir characteristics are likely to be different from that of any other reservoir.

2.2.1 Crude Oil

Crude oil can be broadly classified as paraffinic, naphthenic (or asphalt-based), or intermediate. Generally, paraffinic crudes are used in the manufacture of lube oils and kerosene. Paraffinic crudes have a high concentration of straight chain hydrocarbons and are relatively low in sulfur compounds. Naphthenic crudes are generally used in the manufacture of gasolines and asphalt and have a high concentration of olefin and aromatic hydrocarbons. Naphthenic crudes may contain a high concentration of sulfur compounds. Intermediate crudes are those that are not classified in either of the above categories.

Another classification measure of crude oil and other hydrocarbons is by API gravity. API gravity is a weight per unit volume measure of a hydrocarbon liquid as determined by a method recommended by the American Petroleum Institute (API). A heavy or paraffinic crude oil is typically one with API gravity of 20^{o} or less, while a light or naphthenic crude oil, which typically flows freely at atmospheric conditions, usually has API gravity in the range of the high 30's to the low 40's.

Crude oils recovered in the production phase of the petroleum industry may be referred to as live crudes. Live crudes contain entrained or dissolved gases which may be released during processing or storage. Dead crudes are those that have gone through various separation and storage phases and contain little, if any, entrained or dissolved gases.

2.2.2 Natural Gas

Natural gas is a mixture of hydrocarbons and varying quantities of non-hydrocarbons that exists in a gaseous phase or in solution with crude oil or other hydrocarbon liquids in natural underground reservoirs. Natural gas may contain contaminants, such as hydrogen sulfide (H_2S), CO_2, mercaptans, and entrained solids.

Natural gas may be classified as wet gas or dry gas. Wet gas is unprocessed or partially processed natural gas produced from a reservoir that contains condensable hydrocarbons. Dry gas is either natural gas whose water content has been reduced through dehydration or natural gas that contains little or no recoverable liquid hydrocarbons.

Natural gas streams that contain threshold concentrations of H_2S are classified as sour gases. Those with threshold concentrations of CO_2 are classified as acid gases. The process by which these two contaminants are removed from the natural gas stream is called sweetening. The most common sweetening method is amine treating. Sour gas contains a H_2S concentration of greater than 0.25 grain per 100 standard cubic feet, along with the presence of CO_2. Concentrations of H_2S and CO_2, along with organic sulfur compounds, vary widely among sour gases. A majority total onshore natural gas production and nearly all of offshore natural gas production is classified as sweet.

2.2.3 Condensates

Condensates are hydrocarbons in a gaseous state under reservoir conditions, but become liquid in either the wellbore or the production process. Condensates, including volatile oils, typically have an API gravity of 40^o or more. In addition, condensates may include hydrocarbon liquids recovered from gaseous streams from various oil and natural gas production or natural gas transmission and storage processes and operations.

2.2.4 Other Recovered Hydrocarbons

Various hydrocarbons may be recovered through the processing of the extracted hydrocarbon streams. These hydrocarbons include mixed natural gas liquids (NGL), natural gasoline, propane, butane, and liquefied petroleum gas (LPG).

2.2.5 Produced Water

Produced water is the water recovered from a production well. Produced water is separated from the extracted hydrocarbon streams in various production processes and operations.

2.3 Oil and Natural Gas Production Processes

2.3.1 Exploration and Drilling

Exploration involves the search for rock formations associated with oil or natural gas deposits and involves geophysical prospecting and/or exploratory drilling. Well development occurs after exploration has located an economically recoverable field and involves the construction of one or more wells from the beginning (called spudding) to either abandonment if no hydrocarbons are found or to well completion if hydrocarbons are found in sufficient quantities.

After the site of a well has been located, drilling commences. A well bore is created by using a rotary drill to drill into the ground. As the well bore gets deeper sections of drill pipe are added. A mix of fluids called drilling mud is released down into the drill pipe then up the walls of the well bore, which removes drill cuttings by taking them to the surface. The weight of the mud prevents high-pressure reservoir fluids from pushing their way out ("blowing out"). The well bore is cased in with telescoping steel piping during drilling to avoid its collapse and to prevent water infiltration into the well and to prevent crude oil and natural gas from contaminating the water table. The steel pipe is cemented by filling the gap between the steel casing and the wellbore with cement.

Horizontal drilling technology has been available since the 1950s. Horizontal drilling facilitates the construction of horizontal wells by allowing for the well bore to run horizontally underground, increasing the surface area of contact between the reservoir and the well bore so that more oil or natural gas can move into the well. Horizontal wells are particularly useful in unconventional gas extraction where the gas is not concentrated in a reservoir. Recent advances have made it possible to steer the drill in different directions (directional drilling) from the surface without stopping the drill to switch directions and allowing for a more controlled and precise drilling trajectory.

Hydraulic fracturing (also referred to as "fracking") has been performed since the 1940s (U.S. DOE, 2009). Hydraulic fracturing involves pumping fluids into the well under very high pressures in order to fracture the formation containing the resource. Proppant is a mix of sand and other materials that is pumped down to hold the fractures open to secure gas flow from the formation (U.S. EPA, 2004).

2.3.2 Production

Production is the process of extracting the hydrocarbons and separating the mixture of liquid hydrocarbons, gas, water, and solids, removing the constituents that are non-saleable, and selling the liquid hydrocarbons and gas. The major activities of crude oil and natural gas production are bringing the fluid to the surface, separating the liquid and gas components, and removing impurities.

Oil and natural gas are found in the pores of rocks and sand (Hyne, 2001). In a conventional source, the oil and natural gas have been pushed out of these pores by water and moved until an impermeable surface had been reached. Because the oil and natural gas can travel no further, the liquids and gases accumulate in a reservoir. Where oil and gas are associated, a gas cap forms above the oil. Natural gas is extracted from a well either because it is associated with oil in an oil well or from a pure natural gas reservoir. Once a well has been drilled to reach the reservoir, the oil and gas can be extracted in different ways depending on the well pressure (Hyne, 2001).

Frequently, oil and natural gas are produced from the same reservoir. As wells deplete the reservoirs into which they are drilled, the gas to oil ratio increases (as does the ratio of water to hydrocarbons). This increase of gas over oil occurs because natural gas usually is in the top of the oil formation, while the well usually is drilled into the bottom portion to recover most of the liquid. Production sites often handle crude oil and natural gas from more than one well (Hyne, 2001).

Well pressure is required to move the resource up from the well to the surface. During **primary extraction,** pressure from the well itself drives the resource out of the well directly. Well pressure depletes during this process. Typically, about 30 to 35 percent of the resource in the reservoir is extracted this way (Hyne, 2001). The amount extracted depends on the specific well characteristics (such as permeability and oil viscosity). Lacking enough pressure for the resource to surface, gas or water is injected into the well to increase the well pressure and force the resource out (**secondary** or **improved oil recovery).** Finally, **in tertiary extraction** or **enhanced recovery,** gas, chemicals or steam are injected into the well. This can result in recovering up to 60 percent of the original amount of oil in the reservoir (Hyne, 2001).

In contrast to conventional sources, unconventional oil and gas are trapped in rock or sand or, in the case of oil, are found in rock as a chemical substance that requires a further chemical transformation to become oil (U.S. DOE, 2009). Therefore, the resource does not move into a reservoir as in the case with a conventional source. Mining, induced pressure, or heat is required to release the resource. The specific type of extraction method needed depends on the type of formation where the resource is located. Unconventional natural gas resource types relevant for this proposal include:

- **Shale Natural Gas:** Shale natural gas comes from sediments of clay mixed with organic matter. These sediments form low permeability shale rock formations that do not allow the gas to move. To release the gas, the rock must be fragmented, making the extraction process more complex than it is for conventional gas extraction. Shale gas can be extracted by drilling either vertically or horizontally, and breaking the rock using hydraulic fracturing (U.S. DOE, 2009).

- **Tight Sands Natural Gas:** Reservoirs are composed of low-porosity sandstones and carbonate into which natural gas has migrated from other sources. Extraction of the natural gas from tight gas reservoirs is often performed using horizontal wells. Hydraulic fracturing is often used in tight sands (U.S. DOE, 2009).

- **Coalbed Methane:** Natural gas is present in a coal bed due to the activity of microbes in the coal or from alterations of the coal through temperature changes. Horizontal drilling is used but given that coalbed methane reservoirs are frequently associated with underground water reservoirs, hydraulic fracturing is often restricted (Andrews, 2009).

2.3.3 Natural Gas Processing

Natural gas conditioning is the process of removing impurities from the gas stream so that it is of sufficient quality to pass through transportation systems and used by final consumers. Conditioning is not always required. Natural gas from some formations emerges from the well sufficiently pure that it can be sent directly to the pipeline. As the natural gas is separated from the liquid components, it may contain impurities that pose potential hazards or other problems.

The most significant impurity is H_2S, which may or may not be contained in natural gas. H_2S is toxic (and potentially fatal at certain concentrations) to humans and is corrosive for pipes. It is therefore desirable to remove H_2S as soon as possible in the conditioning process.

Another concern is that posed by water vapor. At high pressures, water can react with components in the gas to form gas hydrates, which are solids that can clog pipes, valves, and gauges, especially at cold temperatures (Manning and Thompson, 1991). Nitrogen and other gases may also be mixed with the natural gas in the subsurface. These other gases must be separated from the methane prior to sale. High vapor pressure hydrocarbons that are liquids at surface temperature and pressure (benzene, toluene, ethylbenzene, and xylene, or BTEX) are removed and processed separately.

Dehydration removes water from the gas stream. Three main approaches toward dehydration are the use of a liquid or solid desiccant, and refrigeration. When using a liquid desiccant, the gas is exposed to a glycol that absorbs the water. The water can be evaporated from the glycol by a process called heat regeneration. The glycol can then be reused. Solid desiccants, often materials called molecular sieves, are crystals with high surface areas that attract the water molecules. The solids can be regenerated simply by heating them above the boiling point of water. Finally, particularly for gas extracted from deep, hot wells, simply cooling the gas to a temperature below the condensation point of water can remove enough water to transport the gas. Of the three approaches mentioned above, glycol dehydration is the most common when processing at or near the well.

Sweetening is the procedure in which H_2S and sometimes CO_2 are removed from the gas stream. The most common method is amine treatment. In this process, the gas stream is exposed to an amine solution, which will react with the H_2S and separate them from the natural gas. The contaminant gas solution is then heated, thereby separating the gases and regenerating the amine. The sulfur gas may be disposed of by flaring, incinerating, or when a market exists, sending it to a sulfur-recovery facility to generate elemental sulfur as a salable product.

2.3.4 Natural Gas Transmission and Distribution

After processing, natural gas enters a network of compressor stations, high-pressure transmission pipelines, and often-underground storage sites. Compressor stations are any facility which supplies energy to move natural gas at increased pressure in transmission pipelines or into underground storage. Typically, compressor stations are located at intervals along a transmission pipeline to maintain desired pressure for natural gas transport. These stations will use either large internal combustion engines or gas turbines as prime movers to provide the necessary horsepower to maintain system pressure. Underground storage facilities are subsurface facilities utilized for storing natural gas which has been transferred from its original location for the primary purpose of load balancing, which is the process of equalizing the receipt and delivery of natural gas. Processes and operations that may be located at underground storage facilities include compression and dehydration.

2.4 Reserves and Markets

Crude oil and natural gas have historically served two separate and distinct markets. Oil is an international commodity, transported and consumed throughout the world. Natural gas, on the other hand, has historically been consumed close to where it is produced. However, as pipeline infrastructure and LNG trade expand, natural gas is increasingly a national and international commodity. The following subsections provide historical and forecast data on the U.S. reserves, production, consumption, and foreign trade of crude oil and natural gas.

2.4.1 Domestic Proved Reserves

Table 2-1 shows crude oil and natural gas proved reserves, inferred reserves, and undiscovered and total technically recoverable resources as of 2007. According to EIA[1], these concepts are defined as:

- **Proved reserves:** estimated quantities of energy sources that analysis of geologic and engineering data demonstrates with reasonable certainty are recoverable under existing economic and operating conditions.

- **Inferred reserves:** the estimate of total volume recovery from known crude oil or natural gas reservoirs or aggregation of such reservoirs is expected to increase during the time between discovery and permanent abandonment.

- **Technically recoverable:** resources that are producible using current technology without reference to the economic viability of production.

The sum of proved reserves, inferred reserves, and undiscovered technically recoverable resources equal the total technically recoverable resources. As seen in Table 2-1, as of 2007, proved domestic crude oil reserves accounted for about 12 percent of the totally technically recoverable crude oil resources.

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[1] U.S. Department of Energy, Energy Information Administration, Glossary of Terms <http://www.eia.doe.gov/glossary/index.cfm?id=P> Accessed 12/21/2010.

Table 2-1 Technically Recoverable Crude Oil and Natural Gas Resource Estimates, 2007

Region	Proved Reserves	Inferred Reserves	Undiscovered Technically Recoverable Resources	Total Technically Recoverable Resources
Crude Oil and Lease Condensate (billion bbl)				
48 States Onshore	14.2	48.3	25.3	87.8
48 States Offshore	4.4	10.3	47.2	61.9
Alaska	4.2	2.1	42.0	48.3
Total U.S.	22.8	60.7	114.5	198.0
Dry Natural Gas (tcf)				
Conventionally Reservoired Fields	194.0	671.3	760.4	1625.7
48 States Onshore Non-Associated Gas	149.0	595.9	144.1	889.0
48 States Offshore Non-Associated Gas	12.4	50.7	233.0	296.0
Associated-Dissolved Gas	20.7		117.2	137.9
Alaska	11.9	24.8	266.1	302.8
Shale Gas and Coalbed Methane	43.7	385	64.2	493.0
Total U.S.	237.7	1056.3	824.6	2118.7

Source: U.S. Energy Information Administration, **Annual Energy Review 2010.** Inferred reserves for associated-dissolved natural gas are included in "Undiscovered Technically Recoverable Resources." Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

Proved natural gas reserves accounted for about 11 percent of the totally technically recoverable natural gas resources. Significant proportions of these reserves exist in Alaska and offshore areas.

Table 2-2 and Figure 2-1 show trends in crude oil and natural gas production and reserves from 1990 to 2008. In Table 2-2, proved ultimate recovery equals the sum of cumulative production and proved reserves. While crude oil and natural gas are nonrenewable resources, the table shows that proved ultimate recovery rises over time as new discoveries become economically accessible. Reserves growth and decline is also partly a function of exploration activities, which are correlated with oil and natural gas prices. For example, when oil prices are high there is more of an incentive to use secondary and tertiary recovery, as well as to develop unconventional sources.

Table 2-2 Crude Oil and Natural Gas Cumulative Domestic Production, Proved Reserves, and Proved Ultimate Recovery, 1977-2008

	Crude Oil and Lease Condensate (million bbl)			Dry Natural Gas (bcf)		
Year	Cumulative Production	Proved Reserves	Proved Ultimate Recovery	Cumulative Production	Proved Reserves	Proved Ultimate Recovery
1990	158,175	27,556	185,731	744,546	169,346	913,892
1991	160,882	25,926	186,808	762,244	167,062	929,306
1992	163,507	24,971	188,478	780,084	165,015	945,099
1993	166,006	24,149	190,155	798,179	162,415	960,594
1994	168,438	23,604	192,042	817,000	163,837	980,837
1995	170,832	23,548	194,380	835,599	165,146	1,000,745
1996	173,198	23,324	196,522	854,453	166,474	1,020,927
1997	175,553	23,887	199,440	873,355	167,223	1,040,578
1998	177,835	22,370	200,205	892,379	164,041	1,056,420
1999	179,981	23,168	203,149	911,211	167,406	1,078,617
2000	182,112	23,517	205,629	930,393	177,427	1,107,820
2001	184,230	23,844	208,074	950,009	183,460	1,133,469
2002	186,327	24,023	210,350	968,937	186,946	1,155,883
2003	188,400	23,106	211,506	988,036	189,044	1,177,080
2004	190,383	22,592	212,975	1,006,564	192,513	1,199,077
2005	192,273	23,019	215,292	1,024,638	204,385	1,229,023
2006	194,135	22,131	216,266	1,043,114	211,085	1,254,199
2007	196,079	22,812	218,891	1,062,203	237,726	1,299,929
2008	197,987	20,554	218,541	1,082,489	244,656	1,327,145

Source: U.S. Energy Information Administration, **Annual Energy Review 2010.**

However, annual production as a percentage of proved reserves has declined over time for both crude oil and natural gas, from above 10 percent in the early 1990s to 8 to 9 percent from 2006 to 2008 for crude oil and from above 11 percent during the 1990s to about 8 percent from 2008 to 2008 for natural gas.

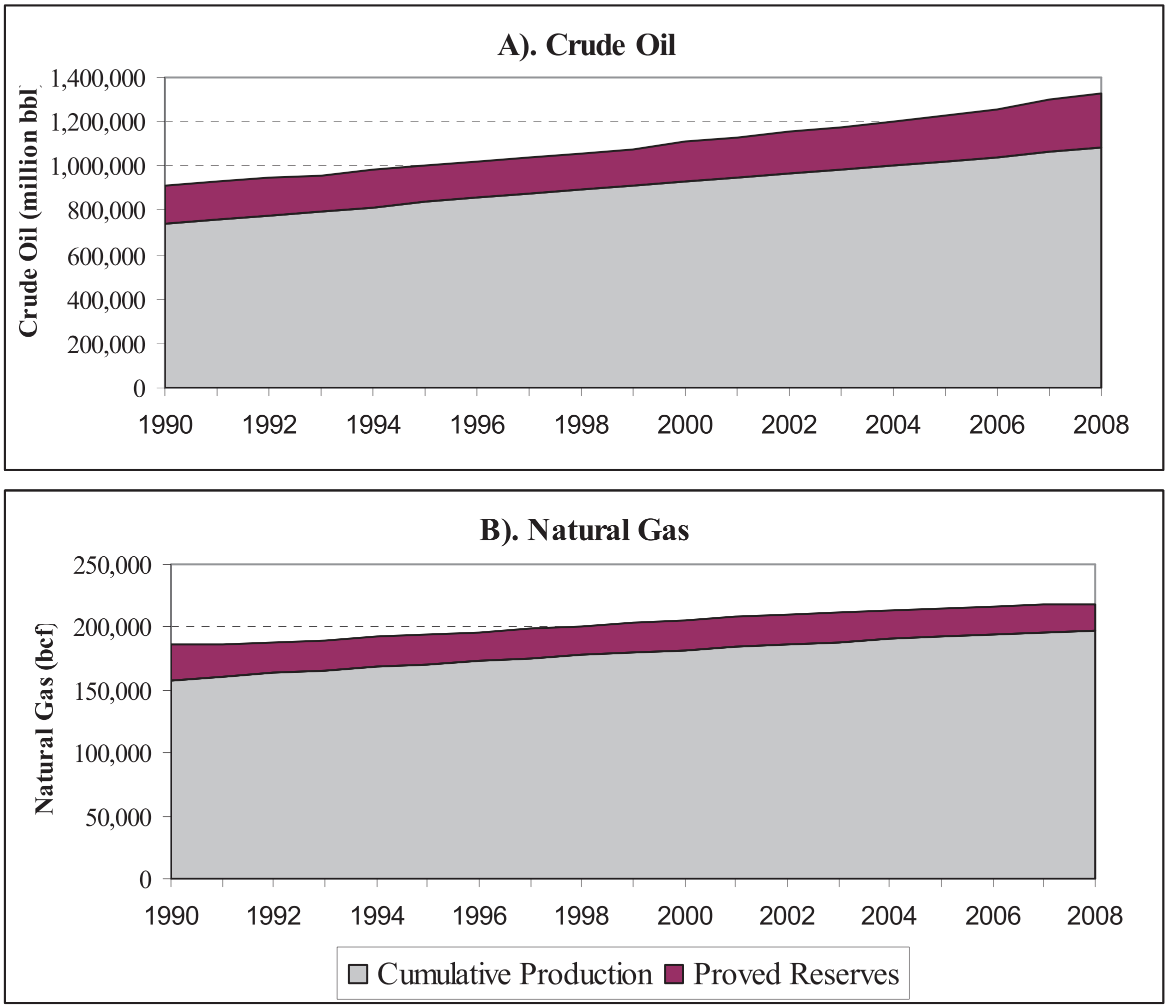

Figure 2-1 A) Domestic Crude Oil Proved Reserves and Cumulative Production, 1990-2008. B) Domestic Natural Gas Proved Reserves and Cumulative Production, 1990-2008

Table 2-3 presents the U.S. proved reserves of crude oil and natural gas by state or producing area as of 2008. Four areas currently account for 77 percent of the U.S. total proved reserves of crude oil, led by Texas and followed by U.S. Federal Offshore, Alaska, and California. The top five states (Texas, Wyoming, Colorado, Oklahoma, and New Mexico) account for about 69 percent of the U.S. total proved reserves of natural gas.

Table 2-3 Crude Oil and Dry Natural Gas Proved Reserves by State, 2008

State/Region	Crude Oil (million bbls)	Dry Natural Gas (bcf)	Crude Oil (percent of total)	Dry Natural Gas (percent of total)
Alaska	3,507	7,699	18.3	3.1
Alabama	38	3,290	0.2	1.3
Arkansas	30	5,626	0.2	2.3
California	2,705	2,406	14.1	1.0
Colorado	288	23,302	1.5	9.5
Florida	3	1	0.0	0.0
Illinois	54	0	0.3	0.0
Indiana	15	0	0.1	0.0
Kansas	243	3,557	1.3	1.5
Kentucky	17	2,714	0.1	1.1
Louisiana	388	11,573	2.0	4.7
Michigan	48	3,174	0.3	1.3
Mississippi	249	1,030	1.3	0.4
Montana	321	1,000	1.7	0.4
Nebraska	8	0	0.0	0.0
New Mexico	654	16,285	3.4	6.7
New York	0	389	0.0	0.2
North Dakota	573	541	3.0	0.2
Ohio	38	985	0.2	0.4
Oklahoma	581	20,845	3.0	8.5
Pennsylvania	14	3,577	0.1	1.5
Texas	4,555	77,546	23.8	31.7
Utah	286	6,643	1.5	2.7
Virginia	0	2,378	0.0	1.0
West Virginia	23	5,136	0.1	2.1
Wyoming	556	31,143	2.9	12.7
Miscellaneous States	24	270	0.1	0.1
U.S. Federal Offshore	3,903	13,546	20.4	5.5
Total Proved Reserves	**19,121**	**244,656**	100.0	100.0

Source: U.S. Energy Information Administration, **Annual Energy Review 2010.** Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

2.4.2 Domestic Production

Domestic oil production is currently in a state of decline that began in 1970. Table 2-4 shows U.S. production in 2009 at 1938 million bbl per year, the highest level since 2004. However, annual domestic production of crude oil has dropped by almost 750 million bbl since 1990.

Table 2-4 Crude Oil Domestic Production, Wells, Well Productivity, and U.S. Average First Purchase Price

Year	Total Production (million bbl)	Producing Wells (1000s)	Avg. Well Productivity (bbl/well)	U.S. Average First Purchase Price/Barrel (2005 dollars)
1990	2,685	602	4,460	27.74
1991	2,707	614	4,409	22.12
1992	2,625	594	4,419	20.89
1993	2,499	584	4,279	18.22
1994	2,431	582	4,178	16.51
1995	2,394	574	4,171	17.93
1996	2,366	574	4,122	22.22
1997	2,355	573	4,110	20.38
1998	2,282	562	4,060	12.71
1999	2,147	546	3,932	17.93
2000	2,131	534	3,990	30.14
2001	2,118	530	3,995	24.09
2002	2,097	529	3,964	24.44
2003	2,073	513	4,042	29.29
2004	1,983	510	3,889	38.00
2005	1,890	498	3,795	50.28
2006	1,862	497	3,747	57.81
2007	1,848	500	3,697	62.63
2008	1,812	526	3,445	86.69
2009	1,938	526	3,685	51.37*

Source: U.S. Energy Information Administration, **Annual Energy Review 2010.**

First purchase price represents the average price at the lease or wellhead at which domestic crude is purchased. * 2009 Oil price is preliminary

Average well productivity has also decreased since 1990 (Table 2-4 and Figure 2-2). These production and productivity decreases are in spite of the fact that average first purchase prices have shown a generally increasing trend. The exception to this general trend occurred in 2008 and 2009 when the real price increased up to 86 dollars per barrel and production in 2009 increased to almost 2 million bbl of oil.

Annual production of natural gas from natural gas wells has increased nearly 3000 bcf from the 1990 to 2009 (Table 2-5). Natural gas extracted from crude oil wells (associated natural gas) has remained more or less constant for the last twenty years. Coalbed methane has become a significant component of overall gas withdrawals in recent years.

Table 2-5 Natural Gas Production and Well Productivity, 1990-2009

	Natural Gas Gross Withdrawals (bcf)					Natural Gas Well Productivity	
Year	Natural Gas Wells	Crude Oil Wells	Coalbed Methane Wells	Total	Dry Gas Production*	Producing Wells (no.)	Avg. Productivity per Well (MMcf)
1990	16,054	5,469	NA	21,523	17,810	269,100	59.657
1991	16,018	5,732	NA	21,750	17,698	276,337	57.964
1992	16,165	5,967	NA	22,132	17,840	275,414	58.693
1993	16,691	6,035	NA	22,726	18,095	282,152	59.157
1994	17,351	6,230	NA	23,581	18,821	291,773	59.468
1995	17,282	6,462	NA	23,744	18,599	298,541	57.888
1996	17,737	6,376	NA	24,114	18,854	301,811	58.770
1997	17,844	6,369	NA	24,213	18,902	310,971	57.382
1998	17,729	6,380	NA	24,108	19,024	316,929	55.938
1999	17,590	6,233	NA	23,823	18,832	302,421	58.165
2000	17,726	6,448	NA	24,174	19,182	341,678	51.879
2001	18,129	6,371	NA	24,501	19,616	373,304	48.565
2002	17,795	6,146	NA	23,941	18,928	387,772	45.890
2003	17,882	6,237	NA	24,119	19,099	393,327	45.463
2004	17,885	6,084	NA	23,970	18,591	406,147	44.036
2005	17,472	5,985	NA	23,457	18,051	425,887	41.025
2006	17,996	5,539	NA	23,535	18,504	440,516	40.851
2007	17,065	5,818	1,780	24,664	19,266	452,945	37.676
2008	18,011	5,845	1,898	25,754	20,286	478,562	37.636
2009	18,881	5,186	2,110	26,177	20,955	495,697	38.089

Source: U.S. Energy Information Administration, **Annual Energy Review 2010.**
*Dry gas production is gas production after accounting for gas used repressurizing wells, the removal of nonhydrocarbon gases, vented and flared gas, and gas used as fuel during the production process.

The number of wells producing natural gas wells has nearly doubled between 1990 and 2009 (Figure 2-2). While the number of producing wells has increased overall, average well productivity has declined, despite improvements in exploration and gas well stimulation technologies.

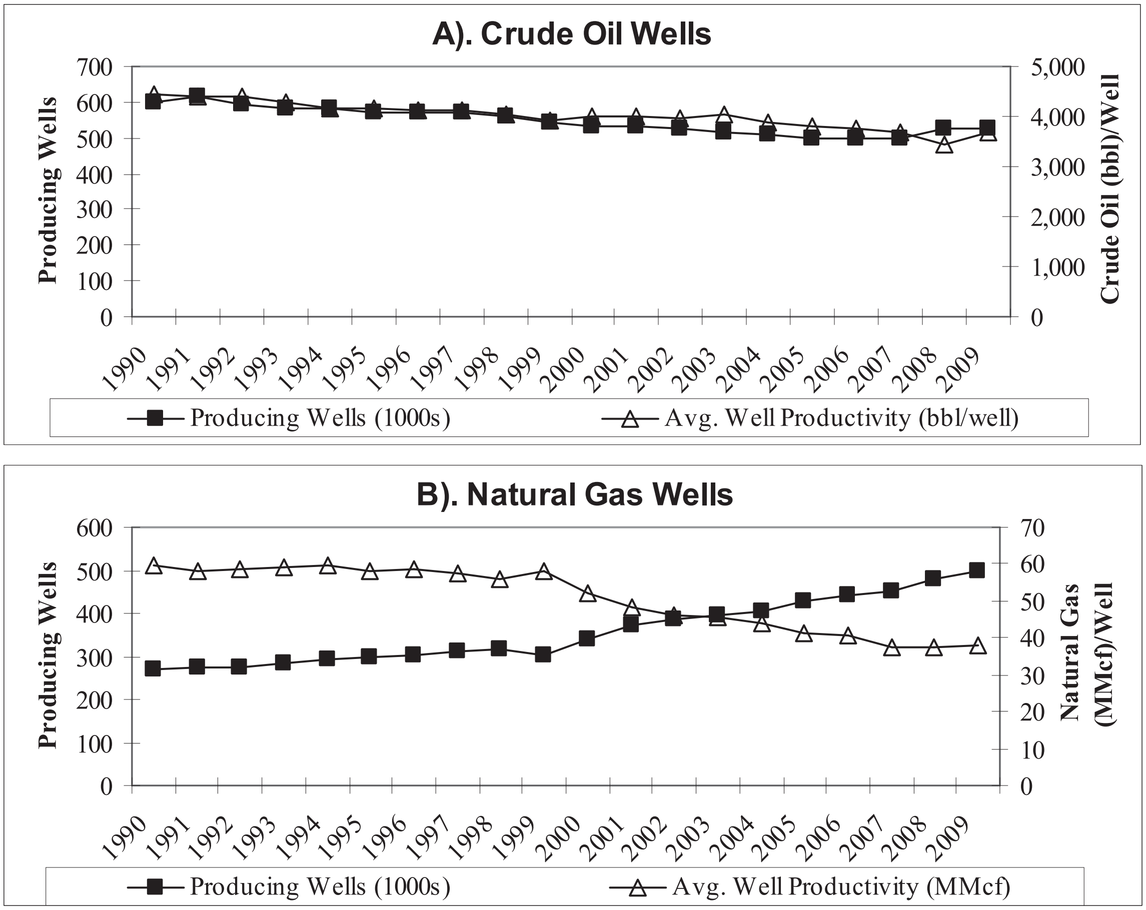

Figure 2-2 A) Total Producing Crude Oil Wells and Average Well Productivity, 1990-2009. B) Total Producing Natural Gas Wells and Average Well Productivity, 1990-2009.

Domestic exploration and development for oil has continued during the last two decades. From 2002 to 2009, crude oil well drilling showed significant increases, although the 1992-2001 period showed relatively low levels of crude drilling activity compared to periods before and after (Table 2-6). The drop in 2009 showed a departure from this trend, likely due to the recession experienced in the U.S.

Meanwhile, natural gas drilling has increased significantly during the 1990-2009 period. Like crude oil drilling, 2009 saw a relatively low level of natural gas drillings. The success rate of wells (producing wells versus dry wells) has also increased gradually over time from 75 percent in 1990, to 86 percent in 2000, to 90 percent in 2009 (Table 2-6). The increasing success rate reflects improvements in exploration technology, as well as technological improvements in well drilling and completion. Similarly, well average depth has also increased by during this period (Table 2-6).

Table 2-6 Crude Oil and Natural Gas Exploratory and Development Wells and Average Depth, 1990-2009

	Wells Drilled					
Year	Crude Oil	Natural Gas	Dry Holes	Total	Successful Wells (percent)	Average Depth (ft)
1990	12,800	11,227	8,237	32,264	75	4,841
1991	12,542	9,768	7,476	29,786	75	4,872
1992	9,379	8,149	5,857	23,385	75	5,138
1993	8,828	9,829	6,093	24,750	75	5,407
1994	7,334	9,358	5,092	21,784	77	5,736
1995	8,230	8,081	4,813	21,124	77	5,560
1996	8,819	9,015	4,890	22,724	79	5,573
1997	11,189	11,494	5,874	28,557	79	5,664
1998	7,659	11,613	4,763	24,035	80	5,722
1999	4,759	11,979	3,554	20,292	83	5,070
2000	8,089	16,986	4,134	29,209	86	4,942
2001	8,880	22,033	4,564	35,477	87	5,077
2002	6,762	17,297	3,728	27,787	87	5,223
2003	8,104	20,685	3,970	32,759	88	5,418
2004	8,764	24,112	4,053	36,929	89	5,534
2005E	10,696	28,500	4,656	43,852	89	5,486
2006E	13,289	32,878	5,183	51,350	90	5,537
2007E	13,564	33,132	5,121	51,817	90	5,959
2008E	17,370	34,118	5,726	57,214	90	6,202
2009E	13,175	19,153	3,537	35,865	90	6,108

Source: U.S. Energy Information Administration, **Annual Energy Review 2010.** Values for 2005-2009 are estimates.

Produced water is an important byproduct of the oil and natural gas industry, as management, including reuse and recycling, of produced water can be costly and challenging. Texas, California, Wyoming, Oklahoma, and Kansas were the top five states in terms of produced water volumes in 2007 (Table 2-7). These estimates do not include estimates of flowback water from hydraulic fracturing activities (ANL 2009).

Table 2-7 U.S. Onshore and Offshore Oil, Gas, and Produced Water Generation, 2007

State	Crude Oil (1000 bbl)	Total Gas (bcf)	Produced Water (1000 bbl)	Total Oil and Natural Gas (1000 bbls oil equivalent)	Barrels Produced Water per Barrel Oil Equivalent
Alabama	5,028	285	119,004	55,758	2.13
Alaska	263,595	3,498	801,336	886,239	0.90
Arizona	43	1	68	221	0.31
Arkansas	6,103	272	166,011	54,519	3.05
California	244,000	312	2,552,194	299,536	8.52
Colorado	2,375	1,288	383,846	231,639	1.66
Florida	2,078	2	50,296	2,434	20.66
Illinois	3,202	no data	136,872	3,202	42.75
Indiana	1,727	4	40,200	2,439	16.48
Kansas	36,612	371	1,244,329	102,650	12.12
Kentucky	3,572	95	24,607	20,482	1.20
Louisiana	52,495	1,382	1,149,643	298,491	3.85
Michigan	5,180	168	114,580	35,084	3.27
Mississippi	20,027	97	330,730	37,293	8.87
Missouri	80	no data	1,613	80	20.16
Montana	34,749	95	182,266	51,659	3.53
Nebraska	2,335	1	49,312	2,513	19.62
Nevada	408	0	6,785	408	16.63
New Mexico	59,138	1,526	665,685	330,766	2.01
New York	378	55	649	10,168	0.06
North Dakota	44,543	71	134,991	57,181	2.36
Ohio	5,422	86	6,940	20,730	0.33
Oklahoma	60,760	1,643	2,195,180	353,214	6.21
Pennsylvania	1,537	172	3,912	32,153	0.12
South Dakota	1,665	12	4,186	3,801	1.10
Tennessee	350	1	2,263	528	4.29
Texas	342,087	6,878	7,376,913	1,566,371	4.71
Utah	19,520	385	148,579	88,050	1.69
Virginia	19	112	1,562	19,955	0.08
West Virginia	679	225	8,337	40,729	0.20
Wyoming	54,052	2,253	2,355,671	455,086	5.18
State Total	***1,273,759***	***21,290***	***20,258,560***	***5,063,379***	***4.00***
Federal Offshore	467,180	2,787	587,353	963,266	0.61
Tribal Lands	9,513	297	149,261	62,379	2.39
Federal Total	***476,693***	***3,084***	***736,614***	***1,025,645***	***0.72***
U.S. Total	**1,750,452**	**24,374**	**20,995,174**	**6,089,024**	**3.45**

Source: Argonne National Laboratory and Department of Energy (2009). Natural gas production converted to barrels oil equivalent to facilitate comparison using the conversion of 0.178 barrels of crude oil equals 1000 cubic feet natural gas. Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

As can be seen in Table 2-7, the amount of water produced is not necessarily correlated with the ratio of water produced to the volume of oil or natural gas produced. Texas, Alaska and Wyoming were the three largest producers in barrels of oil equivalent (boe) terms, but had relatively low rates of water production compared to more Midwestern states, such Illinois, Missouri, Indiana, and Kansas.

Figure 2-3 shows the distribution of produced water management practices in 2007.

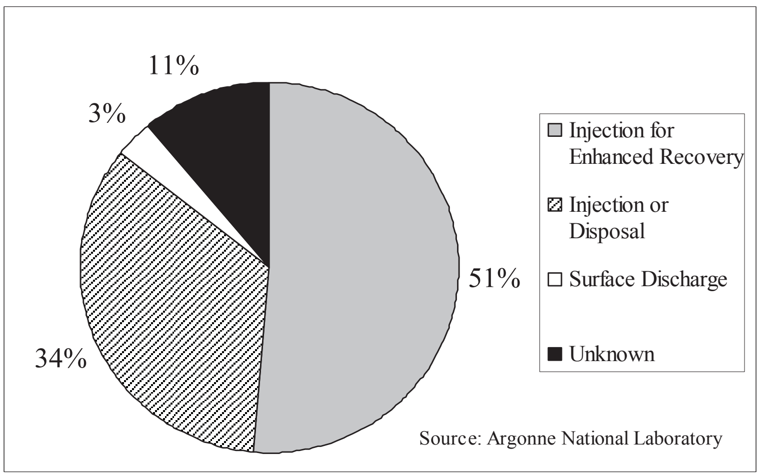

Figure 2-3 U.S. Produced Water Volume by Management Practice, 2007

More than half of the water produced (51 percent) was re-injected to enhance resource recovery through maintaining reservoir pressure or hydraulically pushing oil from the reservoir. Another third (34 percent) was injected, typically into wells whose primary purpose is to sequester produced water. A small percentage (three percent) is discharged into surface water when it meets water quality criteria. The destination of the remaining produced water (11 percent, the difference between the total managed and total generated) is uncertain (ANL, 2009).

The movement of crude oil and natural gas primarily takes place via pipelines. Total crude oil pipeline mileage has decreased during the 1990-2008 period (Table 2-8), appearing to follow the downward supply trend shown in Table 2-4. While exhibiting some variation, pipeline mileage transporting refined products remained relatively constant.

Table 2-8 U.S. Oil and Natural Gas Pipeline Mileage, 1990-2008

	Oil Pipelines			Natural Gas Pipelines			
Year	Crude Lines	Product Lines	Total	Distribution Mains	Transmission Pipelines	Gathering Lines	Total
1990	118,805	89,947	208,752	945,964	291,990	32,420	1,270,374
1991	115,860	87,968	203,828	890,876	293,862	32,713	1,217,451
1992	110,651	85,894	196,545	891,984	291,468	32,629	1,216,081
1993	107,246	86,734	193,980	951,750	293,263	32,056	1,277,069
1994	103,277	87,073	190,350	1,002,669	301,545	31,316	1,335,530
1995	97,029	84,883	181,912	1,003,798	296,947	30,931	1,331,676
1996	92,610	84,925	177,535	992,860	292,186	29,617	1,314,663
1997	91,523	88,350	179,873	1,002,942	294,370	34,463	1,331,775
1998	87,663	90,985	178,648	1,040,765	302,714	29,165	1,372,644
1999	86,369	91,094	177,463	1,035,946	296,114	32,276	1,364,336
2000	85,480	91,516	176,996	1,050,802	298,957	27,561	1,377,320
2001	52,386	85,214	154,877	1,101,485	290,456	21,614	1,413,555
2002	52,854	80,551	149,619	1,136,479	303,541	22,559	1,462,579
2003	50,149	75,565	139,901	1,107,559	301,827	22,758	1,432,144
2004	50,749	76,258	142,200	1,156,863	303,216	24,734	1,484,813
2005	46,234	71,310	131,348	1,160,311	300,663	23,399	1,484,373
2006	47,617	81,103	140,861	1,182,884	300,458	20,420	1,503,762
2007	46,658	85,666	147,235	1,202,135	301,171	19,702	1,523,008
2008	50,214	84,914	146,822	1,204,162	303,331	20,318	1,527,811

Source: U.S. Department of Transportation, Pipeline and Hazardous Materials Safety Administration, Office of Pipeline Safety, *Natural Gas Transmission, Gas Distribution, and Hazardous Liquid Pipeline Annual Mileage*, available at http://ops.dot.gov/stats.htm as of Apr. 28, 2010. Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

Table 2-8 splits natural gas pipelines into three types: distribution mains, transmission pipelines, and gathering lines. Gathering lines are low-volume pipelines that gather natural gas from production sites to deliver directly to gas processing plants or compression stations that connect numerous gathering lines to transport gas primarily to processing plants. Transmission pipelines move large volumes of gas to or from processing plants to distribution points. From these distribution points, the gas enters a distribution system that delivers the gas to final consumers. Table 2-8 shows gathering lines decreasing from 1990 from above 30,000 miles from 1990 to 1995 to around 20,000 miles in 2007 and 2008. Transmission pipelines added about 10,000 miles during this period, from about 292,000 in 1990 to about 303,000 miles in 2008. The most significant growth among all types of pipeline was in distribution, which increased about 260,000 miles during the 1990 to 2008 period, driving an increase in total natural gas pipeline mileage (Figure 2-1). The growth in distribution is likely driven by expanding production as well as expanding gas markets in growing U.S. towns and cities.

2.4.3 Domestic Consumption

Historical crude oil sector-level consumption trends for 1990 through 2009 are shown in Table 2-9 and Figure 2-4. Total consumption rose gradually until 2008 when consumption dropped as a result of the economic recession. The share of residential, commercial, industrial, and electric power on a percentage basis declined during this period, while the share of total consumption by the transportation sector rose from 64 percent in 1990 to 71 percent in 2009.

Table 2-9 Crude Oil Consumption by Sector, 1990-2009

		Percent of Total				
Year	Total (million bbl)	Residential	Commercial	Industrial	Transportation Sector	Electric Power
1990	6,201	4.4	2.9	25.3	64.1	3.3
1991	6,101	4.4	2.8	25.2	64.4	3.1
1992	6,234	4.4	2.6	26.5	63.9	2.5
1993	6,291	4.5	2.4	25.7	64.5	2.9
1994	6,467	4.3	2.3	26.3	64.4	2.6
1995	6,469	4.2	2.2	25.9	65.8	1.9
1996	6,701	4.4	2.2	26.3	65.1	2.0
1997	6,796	4.2	2.0	26.6	65.0	2.2
1998	6,905	3.8	1.9	25.6	65.7	3.0
1999	7,125	4.2	1.9	25.8	65.4	2.7
2000	7,211	4.4	2.1	24.9	66.0	2.6
2001	7,172	4.3	2.1	24.9	65.8	2.9
2002	7,213	4.1	1.9	25.0	66.8	2.2
2003	7,312	4.2	2.1	24.5	66.5	2.7
2004	7,588	4.0	2.0	25.2	66.2	2.6
2005	7,593	3.9	1.9	24.5	67.1	2.6
2006	7,551	3.3	1.7	25.1	68.5	1.4
2007	7,548	3.4	1.6	24.4	69.1	1.4
2008	7,136	3.7	1.8	23.2	70.3	1.1
2009*	6,820	3.8	1.8	22.5	71.1	0.9

Source: U.S. Energy Information Administration, **Annual Energy Review 2010.** 2009 consumption is preliminary.

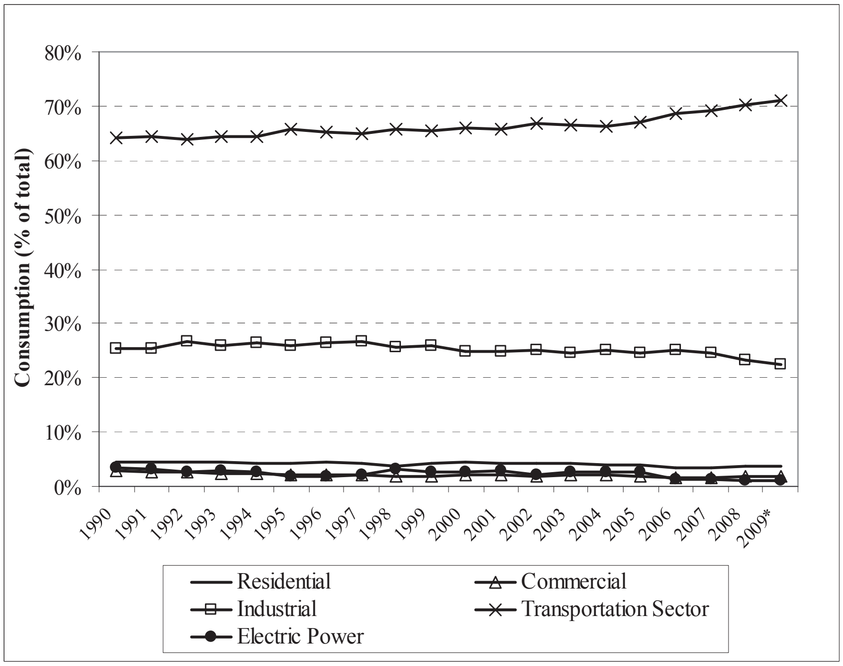

Figure 2-4 Crude Oil Consumption by Sector (Percent of Total Consumption), 1990-2009

Natural gas consumption has increased over the last twenty years. From 1990 to 2009, total U.S. consumption increased by an average of about 1 percent per year (Table 2-10 and Figure 2-5). Over the same period, industrial consumption of natural gas declined, whereas electric power generation increased its consumption quite dramatically, an important trend in the industry as many utilities increasingly use natural gas for peak generation or switch from coal-based to natural gas-based electricity generation. The residential, commercial, and transportation sectors maintained their consumption levels at more or less constant levels during this time period.

Table 2-10 Natural Gas Consumption by Sector, 1990-2009

Year	Total (bcf)	Percent of Total: Residential	Commercial	Industrial	Transportation Sector	Electric Power
1990	19,174	22.9	13.7	43.1	3.4	16.9
1991	19,562	23.3	13.9	42.7	3.1	17.0
1992	20,228	23.2	13.9	43.0	2.9	17.0
1993	20,790	23.8	13.8	42.7	3.0	16.7
1994	21,247	22.8	13.6	42.0	3.2	18.4
1995	22,207	21.8	13.6	42.3	3.2	19.1
1996	22,609	23.2	14.0	42.8	3.2	16.8
1997	22,737	21.9	14.1	42.7	3.3	17.9
1998	22,246	20.3	13.5	42.7	2.9	20.6
1999	22,405	21.1	13.6	40.9	2.9	21.5
2000	23,333	21.4	13.6	39.8	2.8	22.3
2001	22,239	21.5	13.6	38.1	2.9	24.0
2002	23,007	21.2	13.7	37.5	3.0	24.7
2003	22,277	22.8	14.3	37.1	2.7	23.1
2004	22,389	21.7	14.0	37.3	2.6	24.4
2005	22,011	21.9	13.6	35.0	2.8	26.7
2006	21,685	20.1	13.1	35.3	2.8	28.7
2007	23,097	20.4	13.0	34.1	2.8	29.6
2008	23,227	21.0	13.5	33.9	2.9	28.7
2009*	22,834	20.8	13.6	32.4	2.9	30.2

Source: U.S. Energy Information Administration, **Annual Energy Review 2010.** 2009 consumption is preliminary. Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

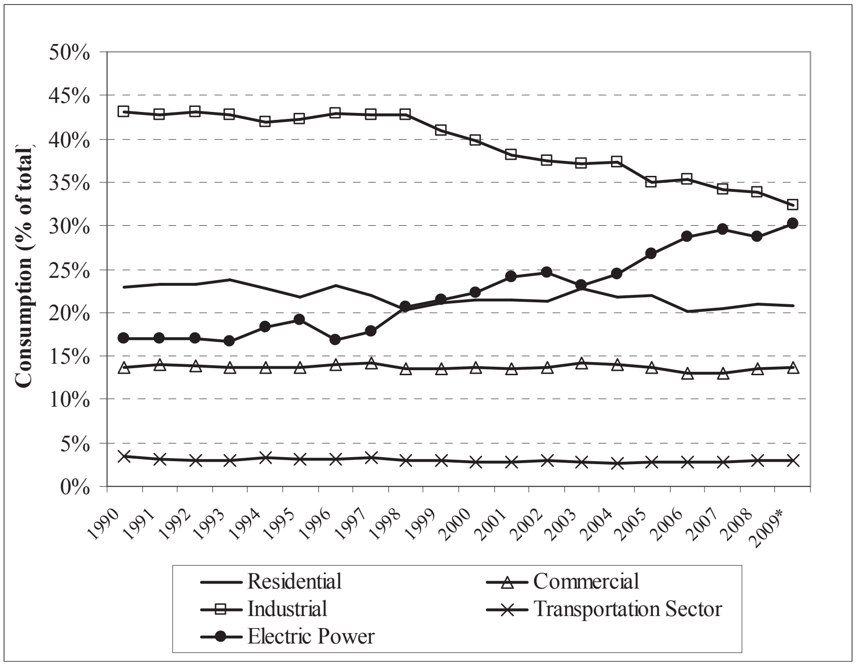

Figure 2-5 Natural Gas Consumption by Sector (Percent of Total Consumption), 1990-2009

2.4.4 International Trade

Imports of crude oil and refined petroleum products have increased over the last twenty years, showing increased substitution of imports for domestic production, as well as imports satisfying growing consumer demand in the U.S (Table 2-11). Crude oil imports have increased by about 2 percent per year on average, whereas petroleum products have increased by 1 percent on average per year.

Table 2-11 Total Crude Oil and Petroleum Products Imports (Million Bbl), 1990-2009

Year	Crude Oil	Petroleum Products	Total Petroleum
1990	2,151	775	2,926
1991	2,111	673	2,784
1992	2,226	661	2,887
1993	2,477	669	3,146
1994	2,578	706	3,284
1995	2,639	586	3,225
1996	2,748	721	3,469
1997	3,002	707	3,709
1998	3,178	731	3,908
1999	3,187	774	3,961
2000	3,320	874	4,194
2001	3,405	928	4,333
2002	3,336	872	4,209
2003	3,528	949	4,477
2004	3,692	1,119	4,811
2005	3,696	1,310	5,006
2006	3,693	1,310	5,003
2007	3,661	1,255	4,916
2008	3,581	1,146	4,727
2009	3,307	973	4,280

Source: U.S. Energy Information Administration, **Annual Energy Review 2010.** * 2009 Imports are preliminary.

Natural gas imports also increased steadily from 1990 to 2007 in volume and percentage terms (Table 2-12). The years 2007 and 2008 saw imported natural gas constituting a lower percentage of domestic natural gas consumption. In 2009, the U.S exported 700 bcf natural gas to Canada, 338 bcf to Mexico via pipeline, and 33 bcf to Japan in LNG-form. In 2009, the U.S. primarily imported natural gas from Canada (3268 bcf, 87 percent) via pipeline, although a growing percentage of natural gas imports are in LNG-form shipped from countries such as Trinidad and Tobago and Egypt. Until recent years, industry analysts forecast that LNG imports would continue to grow as a percentage of U.S consumption. However, it is possible that increasingly accessible domestic unconventional gas resources, such as shale gas and coalbed methane, might reduce the need for the U.S. to import natural gas, either via pipeline or shipped LNG.

Table 2-12 Natural Gas Imports and Exports, 1990-2009

Year	Total Imports (bcf)	Total Exports (bcf)	Net Imports (bcf)	Percent of U.S. Consumption
1990	1,532	86	1,447	7.5
1991	1,773	129	1,644	8.4
1992	2,138	216	1,921	9.5
1993	2,350	140	2,210	10.6
1994	2,624	162	2,462	11.6
1995	2,841	154	2,687	12.1
1996	2,937	153	2,784	12.3
1997	2,994	157	2,837	12.5
1998	3,152	159	2,993	13.5
1999	3,586	163	3,422	15.3
2000	3,782	244	3,538	15.2
2001	3,977	373	3,604	16.2
2002	4,015	516	3,499	15.2
2003	3,944	680	3,264	14.7
2004	4,259	854	3,404	15.2
2005	4,341	729	3,612	16.4
2006	4,186	724	3,462	16.0
2007	4,608	822	3,785	16.4
2008	3,984	1,006	2,979	12.8
2009*	3,748	1,071	2,677	11.7

Source: U.S. Energy Information Administration, **Annual Energy Review 2010.** 2009 Imports are preliminary.

2.4.5 Forecasts

In this section, we provide forecasts of well drilling activity and crude oil and natural gas domestic production, imports, and prices. The forecasts are from the 2011 Annual Energy Outlook produced by EIA, the most current forecast information available from EIA. As will be discussed in detail in Section 3, to analyze the impacts of the proposed NSPS on the national energy economy, we use the National Energy Modeling System (NEMS) that was used to produce the 2011 Annual Energy Outlook.

Table 2-13 and Figure 2-6 present forecasts of successful wells drilled in the U.S. from 2010 to 2035. Crude oil well forecasts for the lower 48 states show a rise from 2010 to a peak in 2019, which is followed by a gradual decline until the terminal year in the forecast, totaling a 28 percent decline for the forecast period. The forecast of successful offshore crude oil wells shows a variable but generally increasing trend.

Table 2-13 Forecast of Total Successful Wells Drilled, Lower 48 States, 2010-2035

	Lower 48 U.S. States					Offshore		Totals	
Year	Crude Oil	Conventional Natural Gas	Tight Sands	Devonian Shale	Coalbed Methane	Crude Oil	Natural gas	Crude Oil	Natural Gas
2010	12,082	7,302	2,393	4,196	2,426	74	56	12,155	16,373
2011	10,271	7,267	2,441	5,007	1,593	81	73	10,352	16,380
2012	10,456	7,228	2,440	5,852	1,438	80	71	10,536	17,028
2013	10,724	7,407	2,650	6,758	1,564	79	68	10,802	18,447
2014	10,844	7,378	2,659	6,831	1,509	85	87	10,929	18,463
2015	10,941	7,607	2,772	7,022	1,609	84	87	11,025	19,096
2016	11,015	7,789	2,817	7,104	1,633	94	89	11,108	19,431
2017	11,160	7,767	2,829	7,089	1,631	104	100	11,264	19,416
2018	11,210	7,862	2,870	7,128	1,658	112	101	11,323	19,619
2019	11,268	8,022	2,943	7,210	1,722	104	103	11,373	20,000
2020	10,845	8,136	3,140	7,415	2,228	89	81	10,934	21,000
2021	10,849	8,545	3,286	7,621	2,324	91	84	10,940	21,860
2022	10,717	8,871	3,384	7,950	2,361	90	77	10,807	22,642
2023	10,680	9,282	3,558	8,117	2,499	92	96	10,772	23,551
2024	10,371	9,838	3,774	8,379	2,626	87	77	10,458	24,694
2025	10,364	10,200	3,952	8,703	2,623	93	84	10,457	25,562
2026	10,313	10,509	4,057	9,020	2,705	104	103	10,417	26,394
2027	10,103	10,821	4,440	9,430	2,862	99	80	10,202	27,633
2028	9,944	10,995	4,424	9,957	3,185	128	111	10,072	28,672
2029	9,766	10,992	4,429	10,138	3,185	121	127	9,887	28,870
2030	9,570	11,161	4,512	10,539	3,240	127	103	9,697	29,556
2031	9,590	11,427	4,672	10,743	3,314	124	109	9,714	30,265
2032	9,456	11,750	4,930	11,015	3,449	143	95	9,599	31,239
2033	9,445	12,075	5,196	11,339	3,656	116	107	9,562	32,372
2034	9,278	12,457	5,347	11,642	3,669	128	92	9,406	33,206
2035	8,743	13,003	5,705	12,062	3,905	109	108	8,852	34,782

Source: U.S. Energy Information Administration, **Annual Energy Outlook 2011.**

Meanwhile, Table 2-13 and Figure 2-6 show increases for all types of natural gas drilling in the lower 48 states. Drilling in shale reservoirs is expected to rise most dramatically, about 190 percent during the forecast period, while drilling in coalbed methane and tight sands reservoirs increase significantly, 61 percent and 138 percent, respectively. Despite the growth in drilling in unconventional reservoirs, EIA forecasts successful conventional natural gas wells to increase about 78 percent during this period. Offshore natural gas wells are also expected to increase during the next 25 years, but not to the degree of onshore drilling.

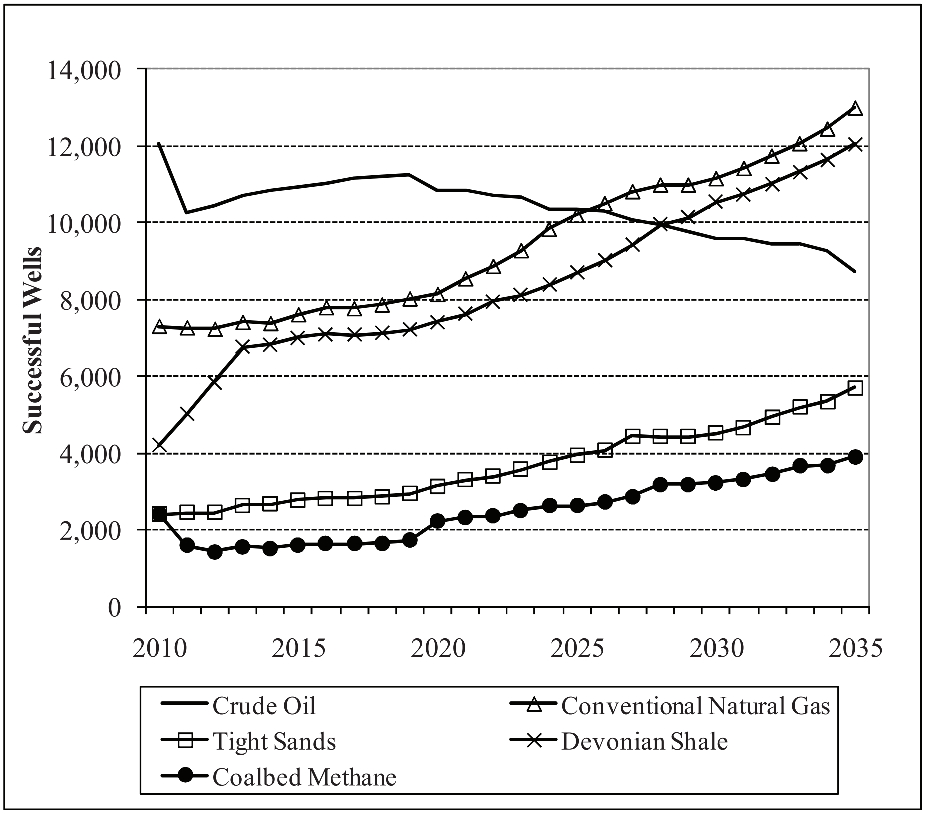

Figure 2-6 Forecast of Total Successful Wells Drilled, Lower 48 States, 2010-2035

Table 2-14 presents forecasts of domestic crude oil production, reserves, imports and prices. Domestic crude oil production increases slightly during the forecast period, with much of the growth coming from onshore production in the lower 48 states. Alaskan oil production is forecast to decline from 2010 to a low of 99 million barrels in 2030, but rising above that level for the final five years of the forecast. Net imports of crude oil are forecast to decline slightly during the forecast period. Figure 2-7 depicts these trends graphically. All told, EIA forecasts total crude oil to decrease about 3 percent from 2010 to 2035.

Table 2-14 Forecast of Crude Oil Supply, Reserves, and Wellhead Prices, 2010-2035

	Domestic Production (million bbls)							
Year	Total Domestic	Lower 48 Onshore	Lower 48 Offshore	Alaska	Lower 48 End of Year Reserves	Net Imports	Total Crude Supply (million bbls)	Lower 48 Average Wellhead Price (2009 dollars per bbl)
2010	2,011	1,136	653	223	17,634	3,346	5,361	78.6
2011	1,993	1,212	566	215	17,955	3,331	5,352	84.0
2012	1,962	1,233	529	200	18,026	3,276	5,239	86.2
2013	2,037	1,251	592	194	18,694	3,259	5,296	88.6
2014	2,102	1,267	648	188	19,327	3,199	5,301	92.0
2015	2,122	1,283	660	179	19,690	3,177	5,299	95.0
2016	2,175	1,299	705	171	20,243	3,127	5,302	98.1
2017	2,218	1,320	735	163	20,720	3,075	5,293	101.0
2018	2,228	1,323	750	154	21,129	3,050	5,277	103.7
2019	2,235	1,343	746	147	21,449	3,029	5,264	105.9
2020	2,219	1,358	709	153	21,573	3,031	5,250	107.4
2021	2,216	1,373	680	163	21,730	3,049	5,265	108.8
2022	2,223	1,395	659	169	21,895	3,006	5,229	110.3
2023	2,201	1,418	622	161	21,921	2,994	5,196	112.0
2024	2,170	1,427	588	155	21,871	2,996	5,166	113.6
2025	2,146	1,431	566	149	21,883	3,010	5,155	115.2
2026	2,123	1,425	561	136	21,936	3,024	5,147	116.6
2027	2,114	1,415	573	125	22,032	3,018	5,131	117.8
2028	2,128	1,403	610	116	22,256	2,999	5,127	118.8
2029	2,120	1,399	614	107	22,301	2,988	5,108	119.3
2030	2,122	1,398	625	99	22,308	2,994	5,116	119.5
2031	2,145	1,391	641	114	22,392	2,977	5,122	119.6
2032	2,191	1,380	675	136	22,610	2,939	5,130	118.8
2033	2,208	1,365	691	152	22,637	2,935	5,143	119.1
2034	2,212	1,351	714	147	22,776	2,955	5,167	119.2
2035	2,170	1,330	698	142	22,651	3,007	5,177	119.5

Source: U.S. Energy Information Administration, **Annual Energy Outlook 2011.** Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

Table 2-14 also shows forecasts of proved reserves in the lower 48 states. The reserves forecast shows steady growth from 2010 to 2035, an increase of 28 percent overall. This increment is larger than the forecast increase in production from the lower 48 states during this period, 8 percent, showing reserves are forecast to grow more rapidly than production. Table 2-14 also shows average wellhead prices increasing a total of 52 percent from 2010 to 2035, from \$78.6 per barrel to \$119.5 per barrel in 2008 dollar terms.

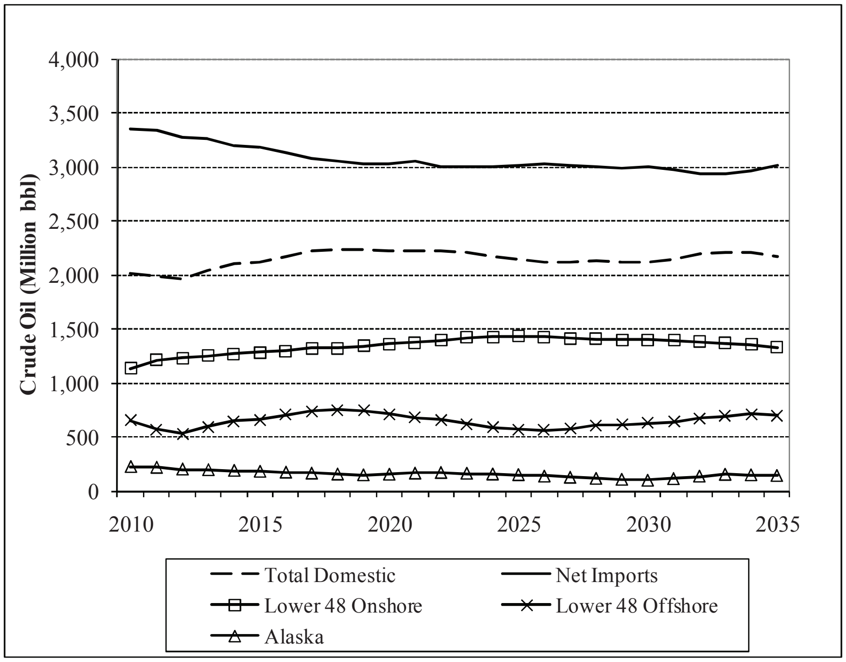

Figure 2-7 Forecast of Domestic Crude Oil Production and Net Imports, 2010-2035

Table 2-15 shows domestic natural gas production is forecast to increase about 24 percent from 2010 to 2035. Contrasted against the much higher growth in natural gas wells drilled as shown in Table 2-13, per well productivity is expected to continue its declining trend. Meanwhile, imports of natural gas via pipeline are expected to decline during the forecast period almost completely, from 2.33 tcf in 2010 to 0.04 in 2035 tcf. Imported LNG also decreases from 0.41 tcf in 2010 to 0.14 tcf in 2035. Total supply, then, increases about 10 percent, from 24.08 tcf in 2010 to 26.57 tcf in 2035.

Table 2-15 Forecast of Natural Gas Supply, Lower 48 Reserves, and Wellhead Price

	Production		Net Imports				
Year	Dry Gas Production	Supplemental Natural Gas	Net Imports (Pipeline)	Net Imports (LNG)	Total Supply	Lower 48 End of Year Dry Reserves	Average Lower 48 Wellhead Price (2009 dollars per Mcf)
2010	21.28	0.07	2.33	0.41	24.08	263.9	4.08
2011	21.05	0.06	2.31	0.44	23.87	266.3	4.09
2012	21.27	0.06	2.17	0.47	23.98	269.1	4.09
2013	21.74	0.06	2.22	0.50	24.52	272.5	4.15
2014	22.03	0.06	2.26	0.45	24.80	276.6	4.16
2015	22.43	0.06	2.32	0.36	25.18	279.4	4.24
2016	22.47	0.06	2.26	0.36	25.16	282.4	4.30
2017	22.66	0.06	2.14	0.41	25.28	286.0	4.33
2018	22.92	0.06	2.00	0.43	25.40	289.2	4.37
2019	23.20	0.06	1.75	0.47	25.48	292.1	4.43
2020	23.43	0.06	1.40	0.50	25.40	293.6	4.59
2021	23.53	0.06	1.08	0.52	25.19	295.1	4.76
2022	23.70	0.06	0.89	0.49	25.14	296.7	4.90
2023	23.85	0.06	0.79	0.45	25.15	297.9	5.08
2024	23.86	0.06	0.77	0.39	25.08	298.4	5.27
2025	23.99	0.06	0.74	0.34	25.12	299.5	5.43
2026	24.06	0.06	0.71	0.27	25.10	300.8	5.54
2027	24.30	0.06	0.69	0.22	25.27	302.1	5.67
2028	24.59	0.06	0.67	0.14	25.47	304.4	5.74
2029	24.85	0.06	0.63	0.14	25.69	306.6	5.78
2030	25.11	0.06	0.63	0.14	25.94	308.5	5.82
2031	25.35	0.06	0.57	0.14	26.13	310.1	5.90
2032	25.57	0.06	0.50	0.14	26.27	311.4	6.01
2033	25.77	0.06	0.38	0.14	26.36	312.6	6.12
2034	26.01	0.06	0.23	0.14	26.44	313.4	6.24
2035	26.33	0.06	0.04	0.14	26.57	314.0	6.42

Source: U.S. Energy Information Administration, **Annual Energy Outlook 2011.** Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

2.5 Industry Costs

2.5.1 Finding Costs

Real costs of drilling oil and natural gas wells have increased significantly over the past two decades, particularly in recent years. Cost per well has increased by an annual average of about 15 percent, and cost per foot has increased on average of about 13 percent per year (Figure 2-8).

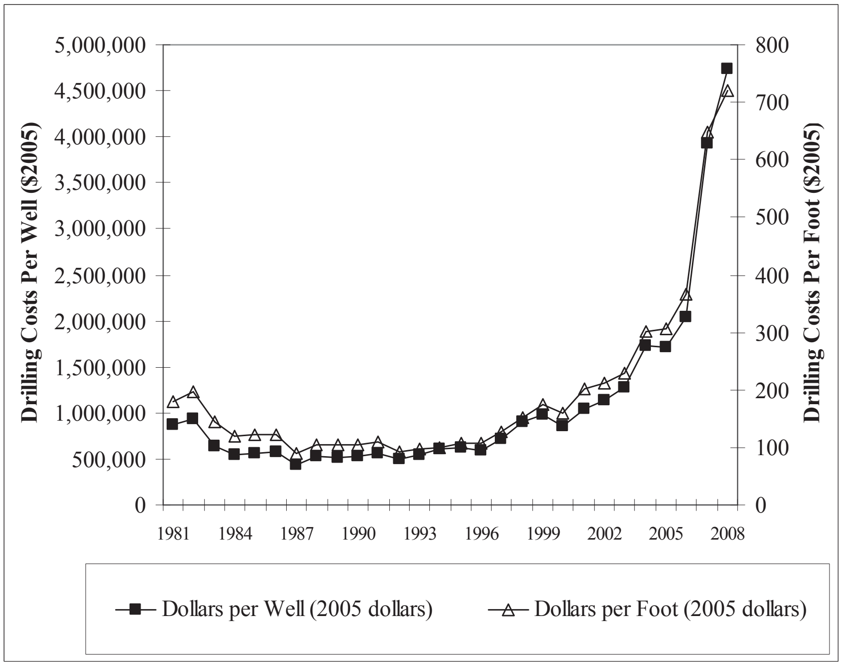

Figure 2-8 Costs of Crude Oil and Natural Gas Wells Drilled, 1981-2008

The average finding costs compiled and published by EIA add an additional level of detail to drilling costs, in that finding costs incorporate the costs more broadly associated with adding proved reserves of crude oil and natural gas. These costs include exploration and development costs, as well as costs associated with the purchase or leasing of real property. EIA publishes finding costs as running three-year averages, in order to better compare these costs, which occur over several years, with annual average lifting costs. Figure 2-9 shows average domestic onshore and offshore and foreign finding costs for the sample of U.S. firms in EIA's Financial Reporting System (FRS) database from 1981 to 2008. The costs are reported in 2008 dollars on a barrel of oil equivalent basis for crude oil and natural gas combined. The average domestic finding costs dropped from 1981 until the mid-1990s. Interestingly, in the mid-1990s, domestic onshore and offshore and foreign finding costs converged for a few years. After this period, offshore finding costs rose faster than domestic onshore and foreign costs.

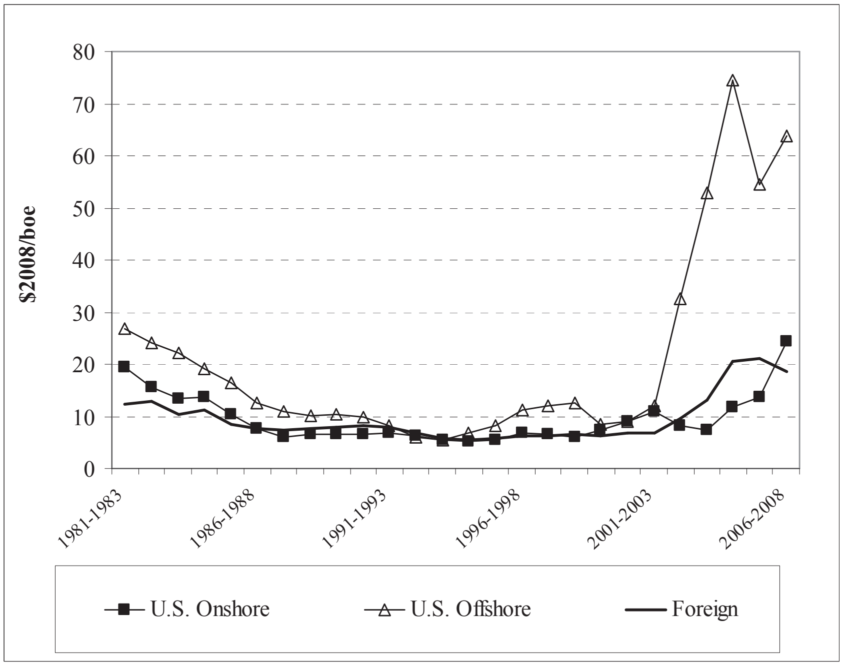

Figure 2-9 Finding Costs for FRS Companies, 1981-2008

After 2000, average finding costs rose sharply, with the finding costs for domestic onshore and offshore and foreign proved reserves diverging onto different trajectories. Note the drilling costs in Figure 2-8 and finding costs in Figure 2-9 present similar trends overall.

2.5.2 Lifting Costs

Lifting costs are the costs to produce crude oil or natural gas once the resource has been found and accessed. EIA's definition of lifting costs includes costs of operating and maintaining wells and associated production equipment. Direct lifting costs exclude production taxes or royalties, while total lifting costs includes taxes and royalties. Like finding costs, EIA reports average lifting costs for FRS firms in 2008 dollars on a barrel of oil equivalent basis. Total lifting costs are the sum of direct lifting costs and production taxes. Figure 2-10 depicts direct lifting cost trends from 1981 to 2008 for domestic and foreign production.

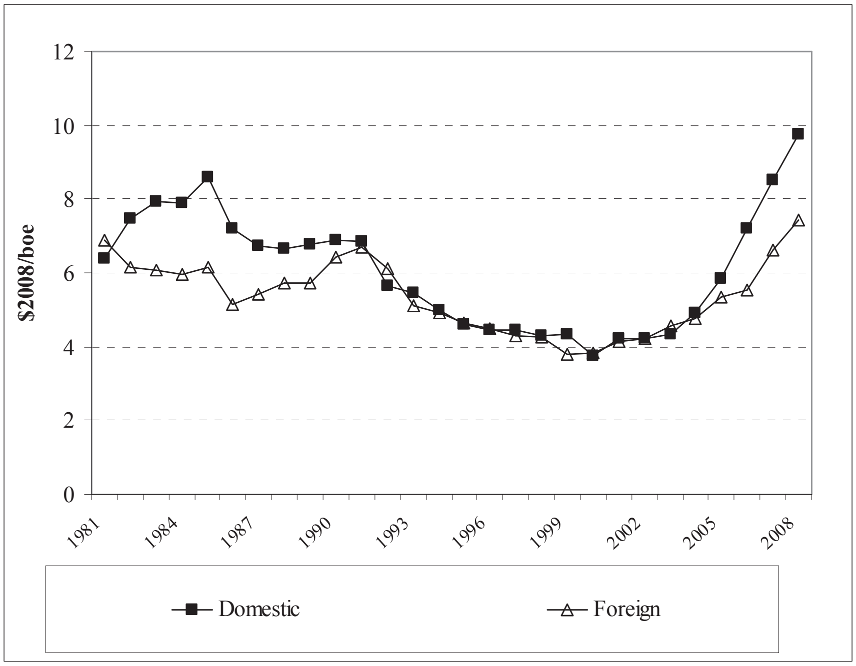

Figure 2-10 Direct Oil and Natural Gas Lifting Costs for FRS Companies, 1981-2008 (3-year Running Average)

Direct lifting costs (excludes taxes and royalties) for domestic production rose a little more than $2 per barrels of oil equivalent from 1981 to 1985, then declined almost $5 per barrel of oil equivalent from 1985 until 2000. From 2000 to 2008, domestic lifting costs increased sharply, about $6 per barrel of oil equivalent. Foreign lifting costs diverged from domestic lifting costs from 1981 to 1991, as foreign lifting costs were lower than domestic costs during this period. Foreign and domestic lifting costs followed a similar track until they again diverged in 2004, with domestic lifting again becoming more expensive. Combined with finding costs, the total finding and lifting costs rose significantly in from 2000 to 2008.

2.5.3 Operating and Equipment Costs

The EIA report, "Oil and Gas Lease Equipment and Operating Costs 1994 through 2009"[2], contains indices and estimated costs for domestic oil and natural gas equipment and production operations. The indices and cost trends track costs for representative operations in

[2] U.S. Energy Information Administration. "Oil and Gas Lease Equipment and Operating Costs 1994 through 2009." September 28, 2010. <http://www.eia.doe.gov/pub/oil_gas/natural_gas/data_publications/cost_indices_equipment_production/current/coststudy.html> Accessed February 2, 2011.

six regions (California, Mid-Continent, South Louisiana, South Texas, West Texas, and Rocky Mountains) with producing depths ranging from 2000 to 16,000 feet and low to high production rates (for example, 50,000 to 1 million cubic feet per day for natural gas).

Figure 2-11 depicts crude oil operating costs and equipment costs indices for 1976 to 2009, as well as the crude oil price in 1976 dollars. The indices show that crude oil operating and equipment costs track the price of oil over this time period, while operating costs have risen more quickly than equipment costs. Operating and equipment costs and oil prices rose steeply in the late 1970s, but generally decreased from about 1980 until the late 1990s.

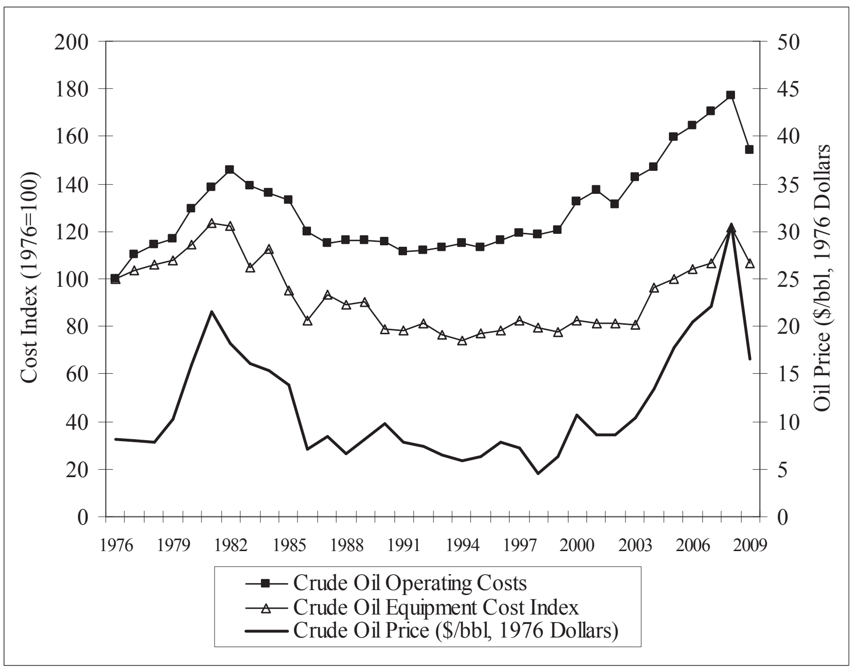

Figure 2-11 Crude Oil Operating Costs and Equipment Costs Indices (1976=100) and Crude Oil Price (in 1976 dollars), 1976-2009

Oil costs and prices again generally rose between 2000 to present, with a peak in 2008. The 2009 index values for crude oil operating and equipment costs are 154 and 107, respectively.

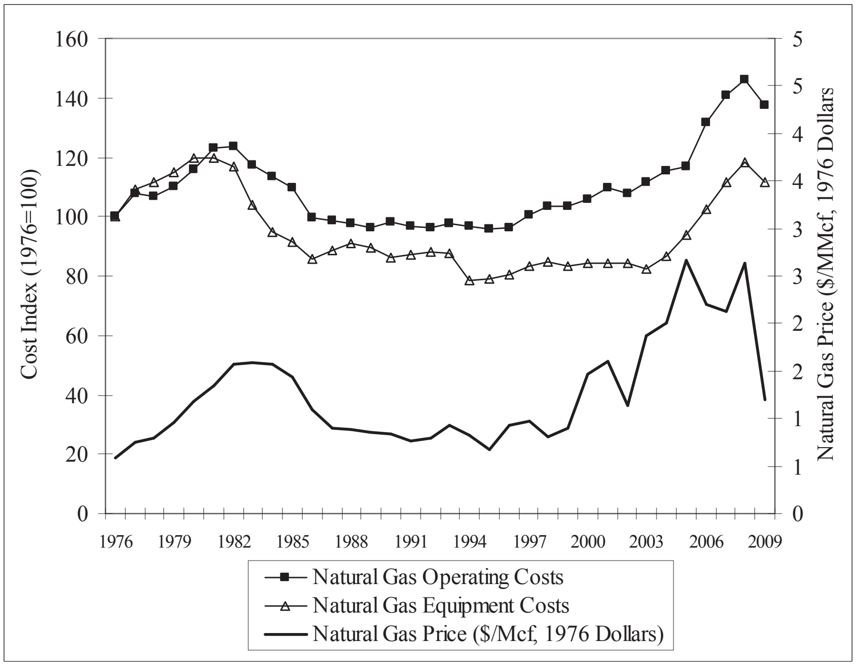

Figure 2-12 Natural Operating Costs and Equipment Costs Indices (1976=100) and Natural Gas Price, 1976-2009

Figure 2-12 depicts natural gas operating and equipment costs indices, as well as natural gas prices. Similar to the cost trends for crude oil, natural gas operating and equipment costs track the price of natural gas over this time period, while operating costs have risen more quickly than equipment costs. Operating and equipment costs and gas prices also rose steeply in the late 1970s, but generally decreased from about 1980 until the mid 1990s. The 2009 index values for natural gas operating and equipment costs are 137 and 112, respectively.

2.6 Firm Characteristics

A regulatory action to reduce pollutant discharges from facilities producing crude oil and natural gas will potentially affect the business entities that own the regulated facilities. In the oil and natural gas production industry, facilities comprise those sites where plant and equipment extract, process, and transport extracted streams recovered from the raw crude oil and natural gas resources. Companies that own these facilities are legal business entities that have the capacity to conduct business transactions and make business decisions that affect the facility.

2.6.1 Ownership

Enterprises in the oil and natural gas industry may be divided into different groups that include producers, transporters, and distributors. The producer segment may be further divided between major and independent producers. Major producers include large oil and gas companies that are involved in each of the five industry segments: drilling and exploration, production, transportation, refining, and marketing. Independent producers include smaller firms that are involved in some but not all of the five activities.

According to the Independent Petroleum Association of America (IPAA), independent companies produce approximately 68 percent of domestic crude oil production of our oil, 85 percent of domestic natural gas, and drill almost 90 percent of the wells in the U.S (IPAA, 2009). Through the mid-1980s, natural gas was a secondary fuel for many producers. However, now it is of primary importance to many producers. IPAA reports that about 50 percent of its members' spending in 2007 was directed toward natural gas production, largely toward production of unconventional gas (IPAA, 2009). Meanwhile, transporters are comprised of the pipeline companies, while distributors are comprised of the local distribution companies.

2.6.2 Size Distribution of Firms in Affected

As of 2007, there were 6,563 firms within the 211111 and 211112 NAICS codes, of which 6427 (98 percent) were considered small businesses (Table 2-16). Within NAICS 211111 and 211112, large firms compose about 2 percent of the firms, but account for 59 percent of employment and generate about 80 percent of estimated receipts listed under the NAICS.

Table 2-16 SBA Size Standards and Size Distribution of Oil and Natural Gas Firms

NAICS	NAICS Description	SBA Size Standard	Small Firms	Large Firms	Total Firms
Number of Firms by Firm Size					
211111	Crude Petroleum and Natural Gas Extraction	500	6,329	95	6,424
211112	Natural Gas Liquid Extraction	500	98	41	139
213111	Drilling Oil and Gas Wells	500	2,010	49	2,059
486210	Pipeline Transportation of Natural Gas	$7.0 million	61*	65*	126
Total Employment by Firm Size					
211111	Crude Petroleum and Natural Gas Extraction	500	55,622	77,664	133,286
211112	Natural Gas Liquid Extraction	500	1,875	6,648	8,523
213111	Drilling Oil and Gas Wells	500	36,652	69,774	106,426
486210	Pipeline Transportation of Natural Gas	$7.0 million	N/A*	N/A*	24,683
Estimated Receipts by Firm Size ($1000)					
211111	Crude Petroleum and Natural Gas Extraction	500	44,965,936	149,141,316	194,107,252
211112	Natural Gas Liquid Extraction	500	2,164,328	37,813,413	39,977,741
213111	Drilling Oil and Gas Wells	500	7,297,434	16,550,804	23,848,238
486210	Pipeline Transportation of Natural Gas	$7.0 million	N/A*	N/A*	20,796,681

Note: *The counts of small and large firms in NAICS 486210 is based upon firms with less than $7.5 million in receipts, rather than the $7 million required by the SBA Size Standard. We used this value because U.S. Census reports firm counts for firms with receipts less than $7.5 million. **Employment and receipts could not be split between small and large businesses because of non-disclosure requirements faced by the U.S. Census Bureau.
Source: U.S. Census Bureau. 2010. "Number of Firms, Number of Establishments, Employment, Annual Payroll, and Estimated Receipts by Enterprise Receipt Size for the United States, All Industries: 2007."
<http://www.census.gov/econ/susb/>

The small and large firms within NAICS 21311 are similarly distributed, with large firms accounting for about 2 percent of firms, but 66 percent and 69 percent of employment and estimated receipts, respectively. Because there are relatively few firms within NAICS 486210, the Census Bureau cannot release breakdowns of firms by size in sufficient detail to perform similar calculation.

2.6.3 *Trends in National Employment and Wages*

As well as producing much of the U.S. energy supply, the oil and natural gas industry directly employs a significant number of people. Table 2-17 shows employment in oil and natural gas-related NAICS codes from 1990 to 2009. The overall trend shows a decline in total industry employment throughout the 1990s, hitting a low of 313,703 in 1999, but rebounding to a 2008 peak of 511,805. Crude Petroleum and Natural Gas Extraction (NAICS 211111) and Support Activities for Oil and Gas Operations (NAICS 213112) employ the majority of workers in the industry.

Table 2-17 Oil and Natural Gas Industry Employment by NAICS, 1990-09

Year	Crude Petroleum and Natural Gas Extraction (211111)	Natural Gas Liquid Extraction (211112)	Drilling of Oil and Natural Gas Wells (213111)	Support Activities for Oil and Gas Ops. (213112)	Pipeline Trans. of Crude Oil (486110)	Pipeline Trans. of Natural Gas (486210)	Total
1990	182,848	8,260	52,365	109,497	11,112	47,533	411,615
1991	177,803	8,443	46,466	116,170	11,822	48,643	409,347
1992	169,615	8,819	39,900	99,924	11,656	46,226	376,140
1993	159,219	7,799	42,485	102,840	11,264	43,351	366,958
1994	150,598	7,373	44,014	105,304	10,342	41,931	359,562
1995	142,971	6,845	43,114	104,178	9,703	40,486	347,297
1996	139,016	6,654	46,150	107,889	9,231	37,519	346,459
1997	137,667	6,644	55,248	117,460	9,097	35,698	361,814
1998	133,137	6,379	53,943	122,942	8,494	33,861	358,756
1999	124,296	5,474	41,868	101,694	7,761	32,610	313,703
2000	117,175	5,091	52,207	108,087	7,657	32,374	322,591
2001	119,099	4,500	62,012	123,420	7,818	33,620	30,469
2002	116,559	4,565	48,596	120,536	7,447	31,556	329,259
2003	115,636	4,691	51,526	120,992	7,278	29,684	329,807
2004	117,060	4,285	57,332	128,185	7,073	27,340	341,275
2005	121,535	4,283	66,691	145,725	6,945	27,341	372,520
2006	130,188	4,670	79,818	171,127	7,202	27,685	420,690
2007	141,239	4,842	84,525	197,100	7,975	27,431	463,112
2008	154,898	5,183	92,640	223,635	8,369	27,080	511,805
2009	155,150	5,538	67,756	193,589	8,753	26,753	457,539

Source: U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, Quarterly Census of Employment and Wages, 2011 , <http://www.bls.gov/cew/>

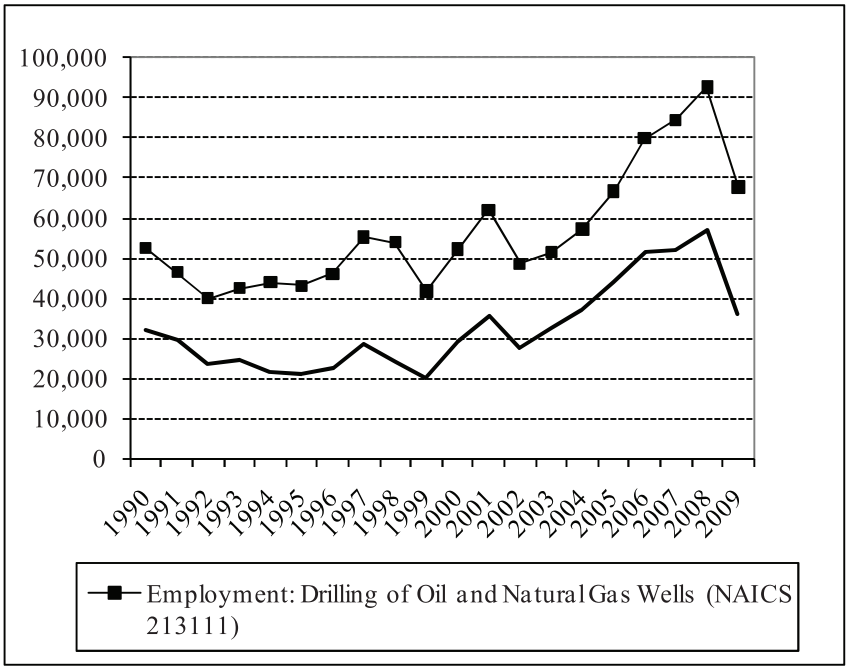

Figure 2-13 Employment in Drilling of Oil and Natural Gas Wells (NAICS 213111), and Total Oil and Natural Gas Wells Drilled, 1990-2009

Figure 2-13 compares employment in Drilling of Oil and Natural Gas Wells (NAICS 213111) with the total number of oil and natural gas wells drilled from 1990 to 2009. The figure depicts a strong positive correlation between employment in the sector with drilling activity. This correlation also holds throughout the period covered by the data.

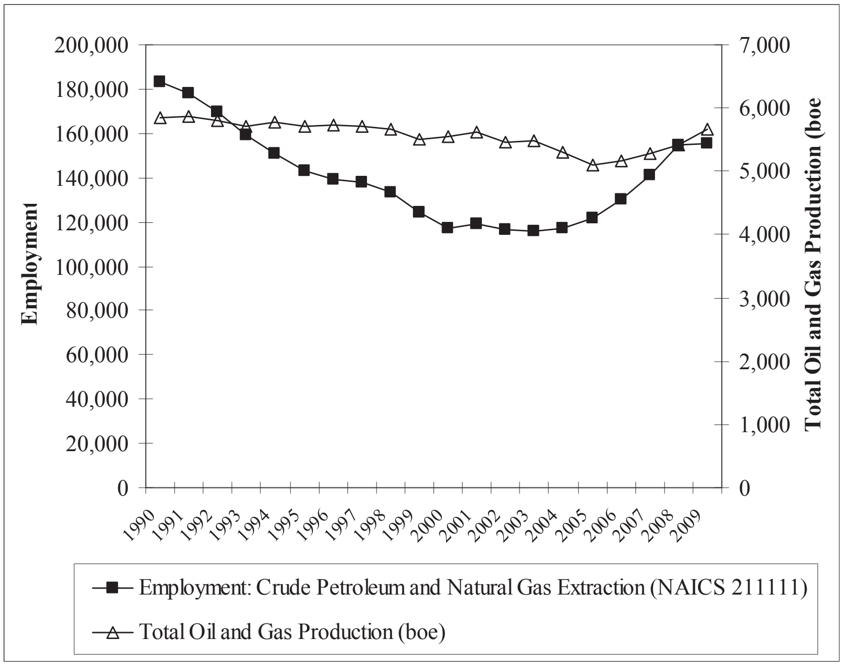

Figure 2-14 Employment in Crude Petroleum and Natural Gas Extraction (NAICS 211111) and Total Crude Oil and Natural Gas Production (boe), 1990-2009

Figure 2-14 compares employment in Crude Petroleum and Natural Gas Extraction (NAICS 211111) with total domestic oil and natural gas production from 1990 to 2009 in barrels of oil equivalent terms. While until 2003, employment in this sector and total production declined gradually, employment levels declined more rapidly. However, from 2004 to 2009 employment in Extraction recovered, rising to levels similar to the early 1990s.

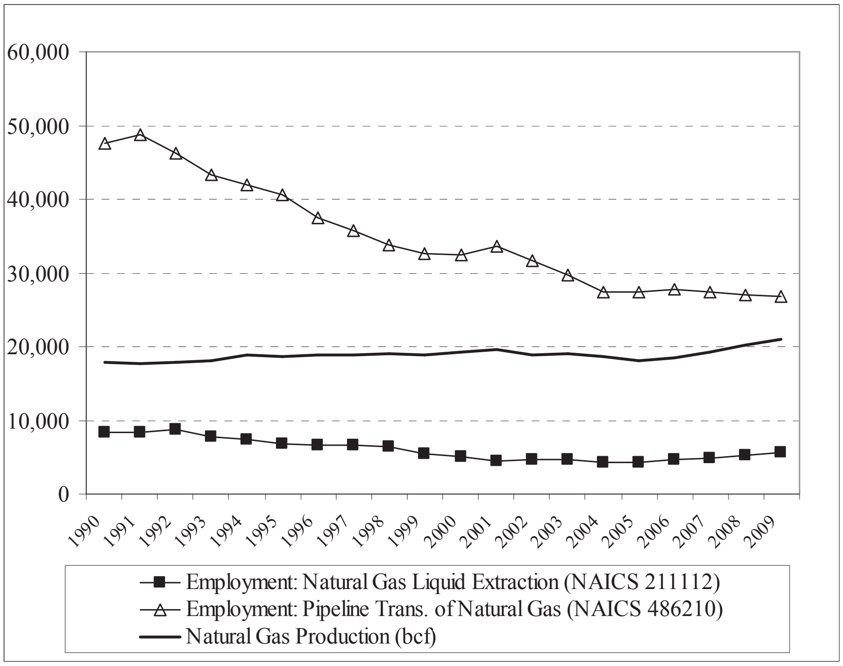

Figure 2-15 Employment in Natural Gas Liquid Extraction (NAICS 211112), Employment in Pipeline Transportation of Natural Gas (NAICS 486210), and Total Natural Gas Production, 1990-2009

Figure 2-15 depicts employment in Natural Gas Liquid Extraction (NAICS 211112), Employment in Pipeline Transportation of Natural Gas (NAICS 486210), and Total Natural Gas Production, 1990-2009. While total natural gas production has risen slightly over this time period, employment in natural gas pipeline transportation has steadily declined to almost half of its 1991 peak. Employment in natural gas liquid extraction declined from 1992 to a low in 2005, then rebounded slightly from 2006 to 2009. Overall, however, these trends depict these sectors becoming decreasingly labor intensive, unlike the trends depicted in Figure 2-13 and Figure 2-14.

From 1990 to 2009, average wages for the oil and natural gas industry have increased. Table 2-18 and Figure 2-16 show real wages (in 2008 dollars) from 1990 to 2009 for the NAICS codes associated with the oil and natural gas industry.

Table 2-18 Oil and Natural Gas Industry Average Wages by NAICS, 1990-2009 (2008 dollars)

Year	Crude Petroleum and Natural Gas Extraction (211111)	Natural Gas Liquid Extraction (211112)	Drilling of Oil and Natural Gas Wells (213111)	Support Activities for Oil and Gas Operations (213112)	Pipeline Transportation of Crude Oil (486110)	Pipeline Transportation of Natural Gas (486210)	Total
1990	71,143	66,751	42,215	45,862	68,044	61,568	59,460
1991	72,430	66,722	43,462	47,261	68,900	65,040	60,901
1992	76,406	68,846	43,510	48,912	74,233	67,120	64,226
1993	77,479	68,915	45,302	50,228	72,929	67,522	64,618
1994	79,176	70,875	44,577	50,158	76,136	68,516	64,941
1995	81,433	67,628	46,243	50,854	78,930	71,965	66,446
1996	84,211	68,896	48,872	52,824	76,841	76,378	68,391
1997	89,876	79,450	52,180	55,600	78,435	82,775	71,813
1998	93,227	89,948	53,051	57,578	79,089	84,176	73,722
1999	98,395	89,451	54,533	59,814	82,564	94,471	79,078
2000	109,744	112,091	60,862	60,594	81,097	130,630	86,818
2001	111,101	111,192	61,833	61,362	83,374	122,386	85,333
2002	109,957	103,653	62,196	59,927	87,500	91,550	82,233
2003	110,593	112,650	61,022	61,282	87,388	91,502	82,557
2004	121,117	118,311	63,021	62,471	93,585	93,684	86,526
2005	127,243	127,716	70,772	67,225	92,074	90,279	90,292
2006	138,150	133,433	74,023	70,266	91,708	98,691	94,925
2007	135,510	132,731	82,010	71,979	96,020	105,441	96,216
2008	144,542	125,126	81,961	74,021	101,772	99,215	99,106
2009	133,575	123,922	80,902	70,277	100,063	100,449	96,298

Source: U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, Quarterly Census of Employment and Wages, 2011 , <http://www.bls.gov/cew/>

Employees in the NAICS 211 codes enjoy the highest average wages in the industry, while employees in the NAICS 213111 code have relatively lower wages. Average wages in natural gas pipeline transportation show the highest variation, with a rapid climb from 1990 to 2000, more than doubling in real terms. However, since 2000 wages have declined in the pipeline transportation sector, while wages have risen in the other NAICS.

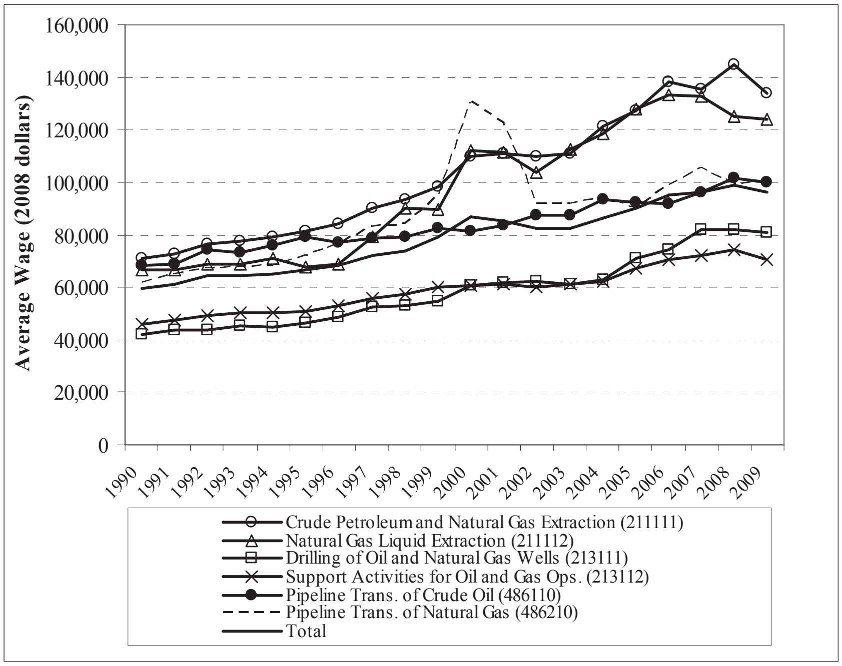

Figure 2-16 Oil and Natural Gas Industry Average Wages by NAICS, 1990-2009 ($2008)

2.6.4 Horizontal and Vertical Integration

Because of the existence of major companies, the industry possesses a wide dispersion of vertical and horizontal integration. The vertical aspects of a firm's size reflect the extent to which goods and services that can be bought from outside are produced in house, while the horizontal aspect of a firm's size refers to the scale of production in a single-product firm or its scope in a multiproduct one. Vertical integration is a potentially important dimension in analyzing firm-level impacts because the regulation could affect a vertically integrated firm on more than one level. The regulation may affect companies for whom oil and natural gas production is only one of several processes in which the firm is involved. For example, a company that owns oil and natural gas production facilities may ultimately produce final petroleum products, such as motor gasoline, jet fuel, or kerosene. This firm would be considered vertically integrated because it is involved in more than one level of requiring crude oil and natural gas and finished petroleum products. A regulation that increases the cost of oil and natural gas production will ultimately affect the cost of producing final petroleum products.

Horizontal integration is also a potentially important dimension in firm-level analyses for any of the following reasons. A horizontally integrated firm may own many facilities of which only some are directly affected by the regulation. Additionally, a horizontally integrated firm may own facilities in unaffected industries. This type of diversification would help mitigate the financial impacts of the regulation. A horizontally integrated firm could also be indirectly as well as directly affected by the regulation.

In addition to the vertical and horizontal integration that exists among the large firms in the industry, many major producers often diversify within the energy industry and produce a wide array of products unrelated to oil and gas production. As a result, some of the effects of regulation of oil and gas production can be mitigated if demand for other energy sources moves inversely compared to petroleum product demand.

In the natural gas sector of the industry, vertical integration is less predominant than in the oil sector. Transmission and local distribution of natural gas usually occur at individual firms, although processing is increasing performed by the integrated major companies. Several natural gas firms operate multiple facilities. However, natural gas wells are not exclusive to natural gas firms only. Typically wells produce both oil and gas and can be owned by a natural gas firm or an oil company.

Unlike the large integrated firms that have several profit centers such as refining, marketing, and transportation, most independents have to rely only on profits generated at the wellhead from the sale of oil and natural gas or the provision of oil and gas production-related engineering or financial services. Overall, independent producers typically sell their output to refineries or natural gas pipeline companies and are not vertically integrated. Independents may also own relatively few facilities, indicating limited horizontal integration.

2.6.5 Firm-level Information

The annual *Oil and Gas Journal* (OGJ) survey, the OGJ150, reports financial and operating results for top 150 public oil and natural gas companies with domestic reserves and headquarters in the U.S. In the past, the survey reported information on the top 300 companies, now the top 150. In 2010, only 137 companies are listed[3]. Table 2-19 lists selected statistics for

[3] Oil and Gas Journal. "OGJ150 Financial Results Down in '09; Production, Reserves Up." September 6, 2010.

the top 20 companies in 2010. The results presented in the table reflect relatively lower production and financial figures as a result of the economic recession of this period.

Total earnings for the top 137 companies fell from 2008 to 2009 from $71 billion to $27 billion, reflecting the weak economy. Revenues for these companies also fell 35 percent during this period. 69 percent of the firms posted net losses in 2009, compared to 46 percent one year earlier (*Oil and Gas Journal*, September 6, 2010).

The total worldwide liquids production for the 137 firms declined 0.5 percent to 2.8 billion bbl, while total worldwide gas production increased about 3 percent to a total of 16.5 tcf (*Oil and Gas Journal*, September 6, 2010). Meanwhile, the 137 firms on the OGJ list increased both oil and natural gas production and reserves from 2008 to 2009. Domestic production of liquids increased about 7 percent to 1.1 billion bbl, and natural gas production increased to 10.1 tcf. For context, the OGJ150 domestic crude production represents about 57 percent of total domestic production (1.9 billion bbl, according to EIA). The OGJ150 natural gas production represents about 54 percent of total domestic production (18.8 tcf, according to EIA).

The OGJ also releases a period report entitled "Worldwide Gas Processing Survey", which provides a wide range of information on existing processing facilities. We used a recent list of U.S. gas processing facilities (*Oil and Gas Journal*, June 7, 2010) and other resources, such as the American Business Directory and company websites, to best identify the parent company of the facilities. As of 2009, there are 579 gas processing facilities in the U.S., with a processing capacity of 73,767 million cubic feet per day and throughout of 45,472 million cubic feet per day (Table 2-20). The overall trend in U.S. gas processing capacity is showing fewer, but larger facilities. For example, in 1995, there were 727 facilities with a capacity of 60,533 million cubic feet per day (U.S. DOE, 2006).

Trends in gas processing facility ownership are also showing a degree of concentration, as large firms own multiple facilities, which also tend to be relatively large facilities (Table 2-20). While we estimate 142 companies own the 579 facilities, the top 20 companies (in terms of total throughput) own 264 or 46 percent of the facilities. That larger companies tend to own larger facilities is indicated by these top 20 firms owning 86 percent of the total capacity and 88 percent of actual throughput.

Table 2-19 Top 20 Oil and Natural Gas Companies (Based on Total Assets), 2010

Rank by Total Assets	Company	Employees	Total Assets ($ millions)	Total Rev. ($ millions)	Net Inc. ($ millions)	Worldwide Production Liquids (Million bbl)	Worldwide Production Natural Gas (Bcf)	U.S. Production Liquids (Million bbl)	U.S. Production Natural Gas (Bcf)	Net Wells Drilled
1	ExxonMobil Corp.	102,700	233,323	310,586	19,280	725	2,383	112	566	466
2	Chevron Corp.	64,000	164,621	171,636	10,563	674	1,821	177	511	594
3	ConocoPhillips	30,000	152,588	152,840	4,858	341	1,906	153	850	692
4	Anadarko Petroleum Corp.	4,300	50,123	9,000	-103	88	817	63	817	630
5	Marathon Oil Corp.	28,855	47,052	54,139	1,463	90	351	23	146	115
6	Occidental Petroleum Corp.	10,100	44,229	15,531	2,915	179	338	99	232	260
7	XTO Energy Inc.	3,129	36,255	9,064	2,019	32	855	32	855	1,059
8	Chesapeake Energy Corp.	8,200	29,914	7,702	-5,805	12	835	12	835	1,003
9	Devon Energy Corp.	5,400	29,686	8,015	-2,479	72	966	43	743	521
10	Hess Corp.	13,300	29,465	29,569	740	107	270	26	39	48
11	Apache Corp.	3,452	28,186	8,615	-284	106	642	35	243	124
12	El Paso Corp.	4,991	22,505	4,631	-539	6	219	6	215	134
13	EOG Resources Inc.	2,100	18,119	14,787	547	29	617	26	422	652
14	Murphy Oil Corp.	8,369	12,756	18,918	838	48	68	6	20	3
15	Noble Energy Inc.	1,630	11,807	2,313	-131	29	285	17	145	540
16	Williams Cos. Inc.	4,801	9,682	2,219	400	0	3,435	0	3,435	488
17	Questar Corp.	2,468	8,898	3,054	393	4	169	4	169	194
18	Pioneer Nat. Resources Co.	1,888	8,867	1,712	-52	19	157	17	148	67
19	Plains Expl. & Prod. Co.	808	7,735	1,187	136	18	78	18	78	53
20	Petrohawk Energy Corp.	469	6,662	41,084	-1,025	2	174	2	174	162

Source: *Oil and Gas Journal*. "OGJ150 Financial Results Down in '09; Production, Reserves Up." September 6, 2010.

Notes: The source for employment figures is the American Business Directory.

Table 2-20 Top 20 Natural Gas Processing Firms (Based on Throughput), 2009

Rank	Company	Processing Plants (No.)	Natural Gas Capacity (MMcf/day)	Natural Gas Throughput (MMcf/day)
1	BP PLC	19	13,378	11,420
2	DCP Midstream Inc.	64	9,292	5,586
3	Enterprise Products Operating LP—	23	10,883	5,347
4	Targa Resources	16	4,501	2,565
5	Enbridge Energy Partners LP—	19	3,646	2,444
6	Williams Cos.	10	4,826	2,347
7	Martin Midstream Partners	16	3,384	2,092
8	Chevron Corp.	23	1,492	1,041
9	Devon Gas Services LP	6	1,038	846
10	ExxonMobil Corp.	6	1,238	766
11	Occidental Petroleum Corp	7	776	750
12	Kinder Morgan Energy Partners	9	1,318	743
13	Enogex Products Corp.	8	863	666
14	Hess Corp.	3	1,060	613
15	Norcen Explorer	1	600	500
16	Copano Energy	1	700	495
17	Anadarko	18	816	489
18	Oneok Field Services	10	1,751	472
19	Shell	4	801	446
20	DTE Energy	1	800	400
	TOTAL FOR TOP 20	264	63,163	40,028
	TOTAL FOR ALL COMPANIES	579	73,767	45,472

Source: *Oil and Gas Journal*. "Special Report: Worldwide Gas Processing: New Plants, Data Push Global Gas Processing Capacity Ahead in 2009." June 7, 2010, with additional analysis to determine ultimate ownership of plants.

The OGJ also issues a periodic report on the economics of the U.S. pipeline industry. This report examines the economic status of all major and non-major natural gas pipeline companies, which amounts to 136 companies in 2010 (*Oil and Gas Journal*, November 1, 2010). Table 2-21 presents the pipeline mileage, volumes of natural gas transported, operating revenue, and net income for the top 20 U.S. natural gas pipeline companies in 2009. Ownership of gas pipelines is mostly independent from ownership of oil and gas production companies, as is seen from the lack of overlap between the OGJ list of pipeline companies and the OGJ150. This observation shows that the pipeline industry is still largely based upon firms serving regional market.

The top 20 companies maintain about 63 percent of the total pipeline mileage and transport about 54 percent of the volume of the industry (Table 2-21). Operating revenues of the top 20 companies equaled $11.5 billion, representing 60 percent of the total operating revenues for major and non-major companies. The top 20 companies also account for 64 percent of the net income of the industry.

Table 2-21 Performance of Top 20 Gas Pipeline Companies (Based on Net Income), 2009

Rank	Company	Transmission (miles)	Vol. trans for others (MMcf)	Op. Rev. (thousand $)	Net Income
1	Natural Gas Pipeline Co of America	9,312	1,966,774	1,131,548	348,177
2	Dominion Transmission Inc.	3,452	609,193	831,773	212,365
3	Columbia Gas Transmission LLC	9,794	1,249,188	796,437	200,447
4	Panhandle Eastern Pipe Line Co. LP	5,894	675,616	377,563	196,825
5	Transcontinental Gas Pipe Line Co. LLC	9,362	2,453,295	1,158,665	192,830
6	Texas Eastern Transmission LP	9,314	1,667,593	870,812	179,781
7	Northern Natural Gas Co.	15,028	922,745	690,863	171,427
8	Florida Gas Transmission Co. LLC	4,852	821,297	520,641	164,792
9	Tennessee Gas Pipeline Co.	14,113	1,704,976	820,273	147,378
10	Southern Natural Gas Co.	7,563	867,901	510,500	137,460
11	El Paso Natural Gas Co.	10,235	1,493,213	592,503	126,000
12	Gas Transmission Northwest Corp.	1,356	809,206	216,526	122,850
13	Rockies Express Pipeline LLC	1,682	721,840	555,288	117,243
14	CenterPoint Energy Gas Transmission Co.	6,162	1,292,931	513,315	116,979
15	Colorado Interstate Gas Co.	4,200	839,184	384,517	108,483
16	Kern River Gas Transmission Co.	1,680	789,858	371,951	103,430
17	Trunkline LNG Co. LLC	—	—	134,150	101,920
18	Northwest Pipeline GP	3,895	817,832	434,379	99,340
19	Texas Gas Transmission LLC	5,881	1,006,906	361,406	91,575
20	Algonquin Gas Transmission LLC	1,128	388,366	237,291	82,472
	TOTAL FOR TOP 20	124,903	21,097,914	11,510,401	3,021,774
	TOTAL FOR ALL COMPANIES	198,381	38,793,532	18,934,674	4,724,456

Source: *Oil and Gas Journal*. "Natural Gas Pipelines Continue Growth Despite Lower Earnings; Oil Profits Grow." November 1, 2010.

2.6.6 Financial Performance and Condition

From a broad industry perspective, the EIA Financial Reporting System (FRS) collects financial and operating information from a subset of the U.S. major energy producing companies. This information is used in annual report to Congress, as well as is released to the public in aggregate form. While the companies that report information to FRS each year changes, EIA makes an effort to retain sufficient consistency such that trends can be evaluated.

For 2008, there are 27 companies in the FRS[4] that accounted for 41 percent of total U.S. crude oil and NGL production, 43 percent of natural gas production, 77 percent of U.S. refining capacity, and 0.2 percent of U.S. electricity net generation (U.S. EIA, 2010). Table 2-22 shows a series of financial trends in 2008 dollars selected and aggregated from FRS firms' financial statements. The table shows operating revenues and expenses rising significantly from 1990 to 2008, with operating income (the difference between operating revenues and expenses) rising as well. Interest expenses remained relatively flat during this period. Meanwhile, recent years have shown that other income and income taxes have played a more significant role for the industry. Net income has risen as well, although 2008 saw a decline from previous periods, as oil and natural gas prices declined significantly during the latter half of 2008.

Table 2-22 Selected Financial Items from Income Statements (Billion 2008 Dollars)

Year	Operating Revenues	Operating Expenses	Operating Income	Interest Expense	Other Income*	Income Taxes	Net Income
1990	766.9	706.4	60.5	16.8	13.6	24.8	32.5
1991	673.4	635.7	37.7	14.4	13.4	15.4	21.3
1992	670.2	637.2	33.0	12.7	-5.6	12.2	2.5
1993	621.4	586.6	34.8	11.0	10.3	12.7	21.5
1994	606.5	565.6	40.9	10.8	6.8	14.4	22.5
1995	640.8	597.5	43.3	11.1	12.9	17.0	28.1
1996	706.8	643.3	63.6	9.1	13.4	26.1	41.8
1997	673.6	613.8	59.9	8.2	13.4	23.9	41.2
1998	614.2	594.1	20.1	9.2	11.0	6.0	15.9
1999	722.9	682.6	40.3	10.9	12.7	13.6	28.6
2000	1,114.3	1,011.8	102.5	12.9	18.4	42.9	65.1
2001	961.8	880.3	81.5	10.8	7.6	33.1	45.2
2002	823.0	776.9	46.2	12.7	7.9	17.2	24.3
2003	966.9	872.9	94.0	10.1	19.5	37.2	66.2
2004	1,188.5	1,051.1	137.4	12.4	20.1	54.2	90.9
2005	1,447.3	1,263.8	183.5	11.6	34.6	77.1	129.3
2006	1,459.0	1,255.0	204.0	12.4	41.2	94.8	138.0
2007	1,475.0	1,297.7	177.3	11.1	47.5	86.3	127.4
2008	1,818.1	1,654.0	164.1	11.4	32.6	98.5	86.9

Source: Energy Information Administration, Form EIA-28 (Financial Reporting System). * Other Income includes other revenue and expense (excluding interest expense), discontinued operations, extraordinary items, and accounting changes. Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

[4] Alenco, Anadarko Petroleum Corporation, Apache Corporation, BP America, Inc., Chesapeake Energy Corporation, Chevron Corporation, CITGO Petroleum Corporation, ConocoPhillips, Devon Energy Corporation, El Paso Corporation, EOG Resources, Inc., Equitable Resources, Inc., Exxon Mobil Corporation, Hess Corporation, Hovensa, Lyondell Chemical Corporation, Marathon Oil Corporation, Motiva Enterprises, L.L.C., Occidental Petroleum Corporation, Shell Oil Company, Sunoco, Inc., Tesoro Petroleum Corporation, The Williams Companies, Inc., Total Holdings USA, Inc., Valero Energy Corp., WRB Refining LLC, and XTO Energy, Inc.

Table 2-23 shows in percentage terms the estimated return on investments for a variety of business lines, in 1998, 2003, and 2008, for FRS companies. For U.S. petroleum-related business activities, oil and natural gas production has remained the most profitable line of business relative to refining/marketing and pipelines, sustaining a return on investment greater than 10 percent for the three years evaluated. Returns to foreign oil and natural gas production rose above domestic production in 2008. Electric power generation and sales emerged in 2008 as a highly profitable line of business for the FRS companies.

Table 2-23 Return on Investment for Lines of Business (all FRS), for 1998, 2003, and 2008 (percent)

Line of Business	1998	2003	2008
Petroleum	10.8	13.4	12.0
U.S. Petroleum	10	13.7	8.2
Oil and Natural Gas Production	12.5	16.5	10.7
Refining/Marketing	6.6	9.3	2.6
Pipelines	6.7	11.5	2.4
Foreign Petroleum	11.9	13.0	17.8
Oil and Natural Gas Production	12.5	14.2	16.3
Refining/Marketing	10.6	8.0	26.3
Downstream Natural Gas*	-	8.8	5.1
Electric Power*	-	5.2	181.4
Other Energy	7.1	2.8	-2.1
Non-energy	10.9	2.4	-5.3

Source: Energy Information Administration, Form EIA-28 (Financial Reporting System). Note: Return on investment measured as contribution to net income/net investment in place. * The downstream natural gas and electric power lines of business were added to the EIA-28 survey form beginning with the 2003 reporting year.

The oil and natural gas industry also produces significant tax revenues for local, state, and federal authorities. Table 2-24 shows income and production tax trends from 1990 to 2008 for FRS companies. The column with U.S. federal, state, and local taxes paid or accrued includes deductions for the U.S. Federal Investment Tax Credit ($198 million in 2008) and the effect of the Alternative Minimum Tax ($34 million in 2008). Income taxes paid to state and local authorizes were $3,060 million in 2008, about 13 percent of the total paid to U.S. authorities.

Table 2-24 Income and Production Taxes, 1990-2008 (Million 2008 Dollars)

Year	U.S. Federal, State, and Local Taxes Paid or Accrued	Total Current	Total Deferred	Total Income Tax Expense	Other Non-Income Production Taxes Paid
1990	9,568	25,056	-230	24,826	4,341
1991	6,672	18,437	-3,027	15,410	3,467
1992	4,994	16,345	-4,116	12,229	3,097
1993	3,901	13,983	-1,302	12,681	2,910
1994	3,348	13,556	887	14,443	2,513
1995	6,817	17,474	-510	16,965	2,476
1996	8,376	22,493	3,626	26,119	2,922
1997	7,643	20,764	3,141	23,904	2,743
1998	1,199	7,375	-1,401	5,974	1,552
1999	2,626	13,410	140	13,550	2,147
2000	14,308	36,187	6,674	42,861	3,254
2001	10,773	28,745	4,351	33,097	3,042
2002	814	17,108	46	17,154	2,617
2003	9,274	30,349	6,879	37,228	3,636
2004	19,661	50,185	4,024	54,209	3,990
2005	29,993	72,595	4,529	77,125	5,331
2006	29,469	85,607	9,226	94,834	5,932
2007	28,332	84,119	2,188	86,306	7,501
2008	23,199	95,590	2,866	98,456	12,507

Source: Energy Information Administration, Form EIA-28 (Financial Reporting System).

The difference between total current taxes and U.S. federal, state, and local taxes in includes taxes and royalties paid to foreign countries. As can be seen in Table 2-24, foreign taxes paid far exceeds domestic taxes paid. Other non-income production taxes paid, which have risen almost three-fold between 1990 and 2008, include windfall profit and severance taxes, as well as other production-related taxes.

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3 EMISSIONS AND ENGINEERING COSTS

3.1 Introduction

This section includes three sets of discussions for both the proposed NSPS and NESHAP amendments:

- Emission Sources and Points
- Emissions Control Options
- Engineering Cost Analysis

3.2 Emissions Points, Controls, and Engineering Costs Analysis

This section discusses the emissions points and pollution control options for the proposed NSPS and NESHAP amendments. This discussion of emissions points and control options is meant to assist the reader of the RIA in better understanding the economic impact analysis. However, we provide reference to the detailed technical memoranda prepared by the Office of Air Quality Planning and Standards (OAQPS) for the reader interested in a greater level of detail. This section also presents the engineering cost analysis, which provides a cost basis for the energy system, welfare, employment, and small business analyses.

Before going into detail on emissions points and pollution controls, it is useful to provide estimates of overall emissions from the crude oil and natural industry to provide context for estimated reductions as a result of the regulatory options evaluated. To estimate VOC emissions from the oil and gas sector, we modified the emissions estimate for the crude oil and natural gas sector in the 2008 National Emissions Inventory (NEI). During this review, EPA identified VOC emissions from natural gas sources which are likely relatively under-represented in the NEI, natural gas well completions primarily. Crude oil and natural gas sector VOC emissions estimated in the 2008 NEI total approximately 1.76 million tons. Of these emissions, the NEI identifies about 21 thousand tons emitted from natural gas well completion processes. We substituted the estimates of VOC emissions from natural gas well completions estimated as part of the engineering analysis (510,000 tons, which is discussed in more detail in the next section), bringing the total estimated VOC emissions from the crude oil and natural gas sector to about 2.24 million tons VOC.

The Inventory of U.S. Greenhouse Gas Emissions and Sinks: 1990-2009 (published April 2011) estimates 2009 methane emissions from Petroleum and Natural Gas Systems (not including petroleum refineries and petroleum transportation) to be 251.55 (MMtCO$_2$-e). It is important to note that the 2009 emissions estimates from well completions and recompletions exclude a significant number of wells completed in tight sand plays and the Marcellus Shale, due to availability of data when the 2009 Inventory was developed. The estimate in this proposal includes an adjustment for tight sand plays and the Marcellus Shale, and such an adjustment is also being considered as a planned improvement in next year's Inventory. This adjustment would increase the 2009 Inventory estimate by about 80 MMtCO$_2$-e to approximately 330 MMtCO$_2$-e.

3.2.1 Emission Points and Pollution Controls assessed in the RIA

3.2.1.1 NSPS Emission Points and Pollution Controls

A series of emissions controls were evaluated as part of the NSPS review. This section provides a basic description of possible emissions sources and the controls evaluated for each source to facilitate the reader's understanding of the economic impact and benefit analyses. The reader who is interested in more technical detail on the engineering and cost basis of the analysis is referred to the relevant chapters within the Technical Support Document (TSD) which is published in the Docket. The chapters are also referenced below. EPA is soliciting public comment and data relevant to several emissions-related issues related to the proposed NSPS. The comments we receive during the public comment period will help inform the rule development process as we work toward promulgating a final action.

Centrifugal and reciprocating compressors (TSD Chapter 6)**:** There are many locations throughout the oil and gas sector where compression of natural gas is required to move the gas along the pipeline. This is accomplished by compressors powered by combustion turbines, reciprocating internal combustion engines, or electric motors. Turbine-powered compressors use a small portion of the natural gas that they compress to fuel the turbine. The turbine operates a centrifugal compressor, which compresses and pumps the natural gas through the pipeline. Sometimes an electric motor is used to turn a centrifugal compressor. This type of compression does not require the use of any of the natural gas from the pipeline, but it does require a source of electricity. Reciprocating spark ignition engines are also used to power many compressors, referred to as reciprocating compressors, since they compress gas using pistons that are driven by the engine. Like combustion turbines, these engines are fueled by natural gas from the pipeline.

Both centrifugal and reciprocating compressors are sources of VOC emissions, and EPA evaluated compressors for coverage under the NSPS. Centrifugal compressors require seals around the rotating shaft to prevent gases from escaping where the shaft exits the compressor casing. The seals in some compressors use oil, which is circulated under high pressure between three rings around the compressor shaft, forming a barrier against the compressed gas leakage. Very little gas escapes through the oil barrier, but considerable gas is absorbed by the oil. Seal oil is purged of the absorbed gas (using heaters, flash tanks, and degassing techniques) and recirculated, and the gas is commonly vented to the atmosphere. These are commonly called "wet" seals. An alternative to a wet seal system is the mechanical dry seal system. This seal system does not use any circulating seal oil. Dry seals operate mechanically under the opposing force created by hydrodynamic grooves and static pressure. Fugitive VOC is emitted from dry seals around the compressor shaft. The use of dry gas seals substantially reduces emissions. In addition, they significantly reduce operating costs and enhance compressor efficiency.

Reciprocating compressors in the natural gas industry leak natural gas during normal operation. The highest volume of gas loss is associated with piston rod packing systems. Packing systems are used to maintain a tight seal around the piston rod, preventing the gas compressed to high pressure in the compressor cylinder from leaking, while allowing the rod to move freely. Monitoring and replacing compressor rod packing systems on a regular basis can greatly reduce VOC emissions.

Equipment leaks (TSD Chapter 8)**:** Equipment leaks are fugitive emissions emanating from valves, pump seals, flanges, compressor seals, pressure relief valves, open-ended lines, and other process and operation components. There are several potential reasons for equipment leak emissions. Components such as pumps, valves, pressure relief valves, flanges, agitators, and compressors are potential sources that can leak due to seal failure. Other sources, such as open-ended lines, and sampling connections may leak for reasons other than faulty seals. In addition, corrosion of welded connections, flanges, and valves may also be a cause of equipment leak emissions. Because of the large number of valves, pumps, and other components within an oil and gas production, processing, and transmission facility, equipment leaks of volatile emissions from these components can be significant. Natural gas processing plants, especially those using refrigerated absorption, and transmission stations tend to have a large number of components. These types of equipment also exist at production sites and gas transmission/compressor stations. While the number of components at individual transmission/compressor stations is relatively smaller than at processing plants, collectively there are many components that can result in significant emissions. Therefore, EPA evaluated NSPS for equipment leaks for facilities in the production segment of the industry, which includes everything from the wellhead to the point that the gas enters the processing plant or refinery.

Pneumatic controllers (TSD Chapter 5): Pneumatic controllers are automated instruments used for maintaining a process condition such as liquid level, pressure, delta-pressure, and temperature. Pneumatic controllers are widely used in the oil and natural gas sector. In many situations, the pneumatic controllers used in the oil and gas sector make use of the available high-pressure natural gas to regulate temperature, pressure, liquid level, and flow rate across all areas of the industry. In these "gas-driven" pneumatic controllers, natural gas may be released with every valve movement or continuously from the valve control pilot. Not all pneumatic controllers are gas driven. These "non-gas driven" pneumatic controllers use sources of power other than pressurized natural gas. Examples include solar, electric, and instrument air. At oil and gas locations with electrical service, non gas-driven controllers are typically used. Gas-driven pneumatic controllers are typically characterized as "high-bleed" or "low-bleed", where a high-bleed device releases at least 6 cubic feet of gas per hour. EPA evaluated the impact of requiring low-bleed controllers.

Storage vessels (TSD Chapter 7): Crude oil, condensate, and produced water are typically stored in fixed-roof storage vessels. Some vessels used for storing produced water may be open-top tanks. These vessels, which are operated at or near atmospheric pressure conditions, are typically located at tank batteries. A tank battery refers to the collection of process equipment used to separate, treat, and store crude oil, condensate, natural gas, and produced water. The extracted products from productions wells enter the tank battery through the production header, which may collect product from many wells. Emissions from storage vessels are a result of working, breathing, and flash losses. Working losses occur due to the emptying and filling of storage tanks. Breathing losses are the release of gas associated with daily temperature fluctuations and other equilibrium effects. Flash losses occur when a liquid with entrained gases is transferred from a vessel with higher pressure to a vessel with lower pressure, thus allowing entrained gases or a portion of the liquid to vaporize or flash. In the oil and natural gas production segment, flashing losses occur when live crude oils or condensates flow into a storage tank from a processing vessel operated at a higher pressure. Typically, the larger the pressure drop, the more flashing emission will occur in the storage stage. The two ways of controlling tanks with significant emissions would be to install a vapor recovery unit (VRU) and recover all the vapors from the tanks or to route the emissions from the tanks to a control device.

Well completions (TSD Chapter 4): In the oil and natural gas sector, well completions contain multi-phase processes with various sources of emissions. One specific emission source during completion activities is the venting of natural gas to the atmosphere during flowback. Flowback emissions are short-term in nature and occur as a specific event during completion of a new well or during activities that involve re-drilling or re-fracturing an existing well. Well completions include multiple steps after the well bore hole has reached the target depth. These steps include inserting and cementing-in well casing, perforating the casing at one or more producing horizons, and often hydraulically fracturing one or more zones in the reservoir to stimulate production.

Hydraulic fracturing is one completion step for improving gas production where the reservoir rock is fractured with very high pressure fluid, typically water emulsion with proppant (generally sand) that "props open" the fractures after fluid pressure is reduced. Emissions are a result of the backflow of the fracture fluids and reservoir gas at high velocity necessary to lift excess proppant to the surface. This multi-phase mixture is often directed to a surface impoundment where natural gas and VOC vapors escape to the atmosphere during the collection of water, sand, and hydrocarbon liquids. As the fracture fluids are depleted, the backflow eventually contains more volume of natural gas from the formation. Thus, we estimate completions involving hydraulic fracturing vent substantially more natural gas, approximately 230 times more, than completions not involving hydraulic fracturing. Specifically, we estimate that uncontrolled well completion emissions for a hydraulically fractured well are about 23 tons of VOC, where emissions for a conventional gas well completion are around 0.1 ton VOC. Our data indicate that hydraulically fractured wells have higher emissions but we believe some wells that are not hydraulically fractured may have higher emissions than our data show, or in some cases, hydraulically fractured wells could have lower emissions that our data show.

Reduced emission completions, which are sometimes referred to as "green completions" or "flareless completions," use equipment at the well site to capture and treat gas so it can be directed into the sales line and avoid emissions from venting. Equipment required to conduct a reduced emissions completion may include tankage, special gas-liquid-sand separator traps, and gas dehydration. Equipment costs associated with reduced emission completions will vary from well to well. Based on information provided to the EPA Natural Gas STAR program, 90 percent of gas potentially vented during a completion can be recovered during a reduced emission completion.

3.2.1.2 NESHAP Emission Points and Pollution Controls

A series of emissions controls will be required under the proposed NESHAP Amendments. This section provides a basic description of potential sources of emissions and the controls intended for each to facilitate the reader's understanding of the economic impacts and subsequent benefits analysis section. The reader who is interested in more technical detail on the engineering and cost basis of the analysis is referred to the relevant technical memos which are published in the Docket. The memos are also referenced below.

Glycol dehydrators[5]: Once natural gas has been separated from any liquid materials or products (e.g., crude oil, condensate, or produced water), residual entrained water is removed from the natural gas by dehydration. Dehydration is necessary because water vapor may form hydrates, which are ice-like structures, and can cause corrosion in or plug equipment lines. The most widely used natural gas dehydration processes are glycol dehydration and solid desiccant

[5] Memorandum. Brown, Heather, EC/R Incorporated, to Bruce Moore and Greg Nizich, EPA/OAQPS/SPPD/FIG. Oil and Natural Gas Production MACT and Natural Gas Transmission and Storage MACT - Glycol Dehydrators: Impacts of MACT Review Options. July 17,2011.

dehydration. Solid desiccant dehydration, which is typically only used for lower throughputs, uses adsorption to remove water and is not a source of HAP emissions. Glycol dehydration is an absorption process in which a liquid absorbent, glycol, directly contacts the natural gas stream and absorbs any entrained water vapor in a contact tower or absorption column. The rich glycol, which has absorbed water vapor from the natural gas stream, leaves the bottom of the absorption column and is directed either to (1) a gas condensate glycol separator (GCG separator or flash tank) and then a reboiler or (2) directly to a reboiler where the water is boiled off of the rich glycol. The regenerated glycol (lean glycol) is circulated, by pump, into the absorption tower. The vapor generated in the reboiler is directed to the reboiler vent. The reboiler vent is a source of HAP emissions. In the glycol contact tower, glycol not only absorbs water but also absorbs selected hydrocarbons, including BTEX and n-hexane. The hydrocarbons are boiled off along with the water in the reboiler and vented to the atmosphere or to a control device.

The most commonly used control device is a condenser. Condensers not only reduce emissions, but also recover condensable hydrocarbon vapors that can be recovered and sold. In addition, the dry non-condensable off-gas from the condenser may be used as fuel or recycled into the production process or directed to a flare, incinerator, or other combustion device.

If present, the GCG separator (flash tank) is also a potential source of HAP emissions. Some glycol dehydration units use flash tanks prior to the reboiler to separate entrained gases, primarily methane and ethane from the glycol. The flash tank off-gases are typically recovered as fuel or recycled to the natural gas production header. However, the flash tank may also be vented directly to the atmosphere. Flash tanks typically enhance the reboiler condenser's emission reduction efficiency by reducing the concentration of non-condensable gases present in the stream prior to being introduced into the condenser.

Storage vessels: Please see the discussion of storage vessels in the NSPS section above.

3.2.2 Engineering Cost Analysis

In this section, we provide an overview of the engineering cost analysis used to estimate the additional private expenditures industry may make in order to comply with the proposed

NSPS and NESHAP amendments. A detailed discussion of the methodology used to estimate cost impacts is presented in series of memos published in the Docket as part of the TSD.

3.2.2.1 NSPS Sources

Table 3-1 shows the emissions sources, points, and controls analyzed in three NSPS regulatory options, which we term Option 1, Option 2, and Option 3. Option 2 was selected for proposal. The proposed Option 2 contains reduced emission completion (REC) and completion combustion requirements for a subset of newly drilled natural gas wells that are hydraulically fractured. Option 2 also requires a subset of wells that are worked over, or recompleted, using hydraulic fracturing to implement RECs. The proposed Option 2 requires emissions reductions from reciprocating compressors at gathering and boosting stations, processing plants, transmission compressor stations, and underground storage facilities. The proposed Option 2 also requires emissions reductions from centrifugal compressors, processing plants, and transmission compressor stations. Finally, the proposed Option 2 requires emissions reductions from pneumatic controllers at oil and gas production facilities and natural gas transmission and storage and reductions from high throughput storage vessels.

Table 3-1 Emissions Sources, Points, and Controls Included in NSPS Options

Emissions Sources and Points	Emissions Control	Option 1	Option 2 (proposed)	Option 3
Well Completions of Post-NSPS Wells				
Hydraulically Fractured Gas Wells that Meet Criteria for Reduced Emissions Completion (REC)	REC	**X**	**X**	**X**
Hydraulically Fractured Gas Wells that Do Not Meet Criteria for REC	Combustion	**X**	**X**	**X**
Conventional Gas Wells	Combustion			
Oil Wells	Combustion			
Well Recompletions				
Hydraulically Fractured Gas Wells (post-NSPS wells)	REC	**X**	**X**	**X**
Hydraulically Fractured Gas Wells (pre-NSPS wells)	REC		**X**	**X**
Conventional Gas Wells	Combustion			
Oil Wells	Combustion			
Equipment Leaks				
Well Pads	NSPS Subpart VV			**X**
Gathering and Boosting Stations	NSPS Subpart VV			**X**
Processing Plants	NSPS Subpart VVa		**X**	**X**
Transmission Compressor Stations	NSPS Subpart VV			**X**
Reciprocating Compressors				
Well Pads	Annual Monitoring/ Maintenance (AMM)			
Gathering/Boosting Stations	AMM	**X**	**X**	**X**
Processing Plants	AMM	**X**	**X**	**X**
Transmission Compressor Stations	AMM	**X**	**X**	**X**
Underground Storage Facilities	AMM	**X**	**X**	**X**
Centrifugal Compressors				
Processing Plants	Dry Seals/Route to Process or Control	**X**	**X**	**X**
Transmission Compressor Stations	Dry Seals/Route to Process or Control	**X**	**X**	**X**
Pneumatic Controllers -				
Oil and Gas Production	Low Bleed/Route to Process	**X**	**X**	**X**
Natural Gas Transmission and Storage	Low Bleed/Route to Process	**X**	**X**	**X**
Storage Vessels				
High Throughput	95% control	**X**	**X**	**X**
Low Throughput	95% control			

The distinction between Option 1 and the proposed Option 2 is the inclusion of completion combustion and REC requirements for recompletions at existing wells and an equipment leak standard for natural gas processing plants in Option 2. Option 2 requires the implementation of completion combustion and REC for existing wells as well as wells completed after the implementation date of the proposed NSPS. Option 1 applies the requirement only to new wells, not existing wells. The main distinction between proposed Option 2 and Option 3 is the inclusion of a suite of equipment leak standards. These equipment leak standards would apply at well pads, gathering and boosting stations, and transmission compressor stations. Option 1 differs from Option 3 in that it does not include the combustion and REC requirements at existing wells or the full suite of equipment leak standards.

Table 3-2 summarizes the unit level capital and annualized costs for the evaluated NSPS emissions sources and points. The detailed description of costs estimates is provided in the series of technical memos included in the TSD in the document, as referenced in Section 3.2.1 of this RIA. The table also includes the projected number of affected units. Four issues are important to note on Table 3-2: the approach to annualizing costs, the projection of affected units in the baseline; that capital and annualized costs are equated for RECs; and additional natural gas and hydrocarbon condensates that would otherwise be emitted to the environment are recovered from several control options evaluated in the NSPS review.

First, engineering capital costs were annualized using a 7 percent interest rate. However, different emissions control options were annualized using expected lifetimes that were determined to be most appropriate for individual options. For control options evaluated for the NSPS, the following lifetimes were used:

- Reduced emissions completions and combustion devices: 1 year (more discussion of the selection of a one-year lifetime follows in this section momentarily)
- Reciprocating compressors: 3 years
- Centrifugal compressors and pneumatic controllers: 10 years
- Storage vessels: 15 years
- Equipment leaks: 5 to 10 years, depending on specific control

To estimate total annualized engineering compliance costs, we added the annualized costs of each item without accounting for different expected lifetimes. An alternative approach would be to establish an overall, representative project time horizon and annualize costs after consideration of control options that would need to be replaced periodically within the given time horizon. For example, a 15 year project would require replacing reciprocating compressor-related controls five times, but only require a single installation of controls on storage vessels. This approach, however, is equivalent to the approach selected; that is to sum the annualized costs across options, without establishing a representative project time horizon.

Second, the projected number of affected units is the number of units that our analysis shows would be affected in 2015, the analysis year. The projected number of affected units accounts for estimates of the adoption of controls in absence of Federal regulation. While the procedures used to estimate adoption in absence of Federal regulation are presented in detail within the TSD, because REC requirements provide a significant component of the estimated emissions reductions and engineering compliance costs, it is worthwhile to go into some detail on the projected number of RECs within the RIA. We use EIA projections consistent with the Annual Energy Outlook 2011 to estimate the number of natural gas well completions with hydraulic fracturing in 2015, assuming that successful wells drilled in coal bed methane, shale, and tight sands used hydraulic fracturing. Based on this assumption, we estimate that 11,403 wells were successfully completed and used hydraulic fracturing. To approximate the number of wells that would not be required to perform RECs because of the absence of sufficient infrastructure, we draw upon the distinction in EIA analysis between exploratory and developmental wells. We assume exploratory wells do not have sufficient access to infrastructure to perform a REC and are exempt from the REC requirement. These 446 wells are removed from the REC estimate and are assumed to combust emissions using pit flares.

The number of hydraulically fractured recompletions of existing wells was approximated using assumptions found in Subpart W's TSD[6] and applied to well count data found in the proprietary HPDI® database. The underlying assumption is that wells found in coal bed

[6] U.S. Environmental Protection Agency (U.S. EPA). 2010. Greenhouse Gas Emissions Reporting From the Petroleum and Natural Gas Industry: Background Technical Support Document. Climate Change Division. Washington, DC.

methane, shale, and tight sand formations require re-fracture, on average, every 10 years. In other words, 10 percent of the total wells classified as being performed with hydraulic fracturing would perform a recompletion in any given year. Natural gas well recompletions performed without hydraulic fracturing were based only on 2008 well data from HPDI®.

The number of completions and recompletions already controlling emissions in absence of a Federal regulation was estimated based on existing State regulations that require applicable control measures for completions and workovers in specific geographic locations. Based on this criterion, 15 percent of natural gas completions with hydraulic fracturing and 15 percent of existing natural gas workovers with hydraulic fracturing are estimated to be controlled by either flare or REC in absence of Federal regulations. Completions and recompletions without hydraulic fracturing were assumed as having no controls in absence of a Federal regulation. Following these procedures leads to an estimate of 9,313 completions of new wells and 12,050 recompletions of existing wells that will require either a REC under the proposed NSPS in 2015.

It should be noted that natural gas prices are stochastic and, historically, there have been periods where prices have increased or decreased rapidly. These price changes would be expected to affect adoption of emission reduction technologies in absence of regulation, particularly control measures such as RECs that capture emission significantly over short periods of time.

Third, for well completion requirements, annualized costs are set equal to capital costs. We chose to equate the capital and annualized cost because the completion requirements (combustion and RECs) are essentially one-shot events; the emissions controls are applied over the course of a well completion, which will typically range over a few days to a couple of weeks. After this relatively short period of time, there is no continuing control requirement, unless the well is again completed at a later date, sometimes years later. We reasoned that the absence of a continuing requirement makes it appropriate to equate capital and annualized costs.

Fourth, for annualized cost, we present two figures, the annualized costs with revenues from additional natural gas and condensate recovery and annualized costs without additional revenues this product recovery. Several emission controls for the NSPS capture VOC emissions that otherwise would be vented to the atmosphere. Since methane is co-emitted with VOCs, a large proportion of the averted methane emissions can be directed into natural gas production streams and sold. When including the additional natural gas recovery in the cost analysis, we assume that producers are paid $4 per thousand cubic feet (Mcf) for the recovered gas at the wellhead. RECs also capture saleable condensates that would otherwise be lost to the environment. The engineering analysis assumes a REC will capture 34 barrels of condensate per REC and that the value of this condensate is $70/barrel.

The assumed price for natural gas is within the range of variation of wellhead prices for the 2010-11 period. The $4/Mcf is below the 2015 EIA-forecasted wellhead price, $4.22/Mcf in 2008 dollars. The $4/Mcf payment rate does not reflect any taxes or tax credits that might apply to producers implementing the control technologies. As natural gas prices can increase or decrease rapidly, the estimated engineering compliance costs can vary when revenue from additional natural gas recovery is included. There is also geographic variability in wellhead prices, which can also influence estimated engineering costs. A $1/Mcf change in the wellhead price causes a change in estimated engineering compliance costs of about $180 million in 2008 dollars.

As will be seen in subsequent analysis, the estimate of revenues from additional product recovery is critical to the economic impact analysis. However, before discussing this assumption in more depth, it is important to further develop the engineering estimates to contextualize the discussion and to provide insight into why, if it is profitable to capture natural gas emissions that are otherwise vented, producers may not already be doing so.

Table 3-3 presents the estimated nationwide compliance costs, emissions reductions, and VOC reduction cost-effectiveness broken down by emissions sources and points for those sources and points evaluated in the NSPS analysis. The reporting and recordkeeping costs for the proposed NSPS Option 2 are estimated at $18,805,398 and are included in Table 3-3. Because of time constraints, we were unable to estimate reporting and recordkeeping costs customized for Options 1 and 3; for these options, we use the same $18,805,398 for reporting and recordkeeping costs for these options.

As can be seen from Table 3-3 controls associated with well completions and recompletions of hydraulically fractured wells provide the largest potential for emissions reductions from evaluated emissions sources and points, as well as present the most significant compliance costs if revenue from additional natural gas recovery is not included. Emissions reductions from conventional natural gas wells and crude oil wells are clearly not as significant as the potential from hydraulically fractured wells, as was discussed in Section 3.2.1.1.

Several evaluated emissions sources and points are estimated to have net financial savings when including the revenue from additional natural gas recovery. These sources form the core of the three NSPS options evaluated in this RIA. Table 3-4 presents the estimated engineering costs, emissions reductions, and VOC reduction cost-effectiveness for the three NSPS options evaluated in the RIA. The resulting total national annualized cost impact of the proposed NSPS rule (Option 2) is estimated at $740 million per year without considering revenues from additional natural gas recovery. Annual costs for the proposed NSPS are estimated at -$45 million when revenue from additional natural gas recovery is included. All figures are in 2008 dollars.

Table 3-2 Summary of Capital and Annualized Costs per Unit for NSPS Emissions Points

Sources/Emissions Point	Projected No. of Affected Units	Capital Costs (2008$)	Per Unit Annualized Cost (2008$) Without Revenues from Additional Product Recovery	Per Unit Annualized Cost (2008$) With Revenues from Additional Product Recovery
Well Completions				
Hydraulically Fractured Gas Wells that Meet Criteria for REC	9,313	$33,237	$33,237	-$2,173
Hydraulically Fractured Gas Wells that Do Not Meet Criteria for REC (Completion Combustion)	446	$3,523	$3,523	$3,523
Conventional Gas Wells	7,694	$3,523	$3,523	$3,523
Oil Wells	12,193	$3,523	$3,523	$3,523
Well Recompletions				
Hydraulically Fractured Gas Wells (existing wells)	12,050	$33,237	$33,237	-$2,173
Conventional Gas Wells	42,342	$3,523	$3,523	$3,523
Oil Wells	39,375	$3,523	$3,523	$3,523
Equipment Leaks				
Well Pads	4,774	$68,970	$23,413	$21,871
Gathering and Boosting Stations	275	$239,494	$57,063	$51,174
Processing Plants	29	$7,522	$45,160	$33,884
Transmission Compressor Stations	107	$96,542	$25,350	$25,350
Reciprocating Compressors				
Well Pads	6,000	$6,480	$3,701	$3,664
Gathering/Boosting Stations	210	$5,346	$2,456	$870
Processing Plants	209	$4,050	$2,090	-$2,227
Transmission Compressor Stations	20	$5,346	$2,456	$2,456
Underground Storage Facilities	4	$7,290	$3,349	$3,349
Centrifugal Compressors				
Processing Plants	16	$75,000	$10,678	-$123,730
Transmission Compressor Stations	14	$75,000	$10,678	-$77,622
Pneumatic Controllers -				
Oil and Gas Production	13,632	$165	$23	-$1,519
Natural Gas Trans. and Storage	67	$165	$23	$23
Storage Vessels				
High Throughput	304	$65,243	$14,528	$13,946
Low Throughput	17,086	$65,243	$14,528	$13,946

Table 3-3 Estimated Nationwide Compliance Costs, Emissions Reductions, and VOC Reduction Cost-Effectiveness by Emissions Sources and Points, NSPS, 2015

		Nationwide Annualized Costs (2008$)		Nationwide Emissions Reductions (tons/year)			VOC Emissions Reduction Cost-Effectiveness (2008$/ton)	
Source/Emissions Point	Emissions Control	Without Addl. Revenues	With Addl. Revenues	VOC	Methane	HAP	Without Addl. Revenues	With Addl. Revenues
Well Completions (New Wells)								
Hydraulically Fractured Gas Wells	REC	$309,553,517	-$20,235,748	204,134	1,399,139	14,831	$1,516	-$99
Hydraulically Fractured Gas Wells	Combustion	$1,571,188	$1,571,188	9,801	67,178	712	$160	$160
Conventional Gas Wells	Combustion	$27,104,761	$27,104,761	857	5,875	62	$31,619	$31,619
Oil Wells	Combustion	$42,954,036	$42,954,036	83	88	0	$520,580	$520,580
Well Recompletions (Existing Wells)								
Hydraulically Fractured Gas Wells (existing wells)	REC	$400,508,928	-$26,181,572	264,115	1,810,245	19,189	$1,516	-$99
Conventional Gas Wells	Combustion	$149,164,257	$149,164,257	316	2,165	23	$472,227	$472,227
Oil Wells	Combustion	$138,711,979	$138,711,979	44	47	0	$3,134,431	$3,134,431
Equipment Leaks								
Well Pads	NSPS Subpart VV	$111,773,662	$104,412,154	10,646	38,287	401	$10,499	$9,808
Gathering and Boosting Stations	NSPS Subpart VV	$15,692,325	$14,072,850	2,340	8,415	88	$6,705	$6,013
Processing Plants	NSPS Subpart VVa	$1,309,650	$982,648	392	1,411	15	$3,343	$2,508
Transmission Compressor Stations	NSPS Subpart VV	$2,712,450	$2,712,450	261	9,427	8	$10,389	$10,389
Reciprocating Compressors								
Well Pads	Annual Monitoring/ Maintenance (AMM)	$22,204,209	$21,984,763	263	947	10	$84,379	$83,545
Gathering/Boosting Stations	AMM	$515,764	$182,597	400	1,437	15	$1,291	$457
Processing Plants	AMM	$436,806	-$465,354	1,082	3,892	41	$404	-$430
Transmission Compressor Stations	AMM	$47,892	$47,892	12	423	0	$4,093	$4,093
Underground Storage Facilities	AMM	$13,396	$13,396	2	87	0	$5,542	$5,542

Table 3-3 (continued) Estimated Nationwide Compliance Costs, Emissions Reductions, and VOC Reduction Cost-Effectiveness by Emissions Sources and Points, NSPS, 2015

		Nationwide Annualized Costs (2008$)		Nationwide Emissions Reductions (tons/year)			VOC Emissions Reduction Cost-Effectiveness (2008$/ton)	
Source/Emissions Point	Emissions Control	Without Addl. Revenues	With Addl. Revenues	VOC	Methane	HAP	Without Addl. Revenues	With Addl. Revenues
Centrifugal Compressors								
Processing Plants	Dry Seals/Route to Process or Control	$170,853	-$1,979,687	288	3,183	10	$593	-$6,874
Transmission Compressor Stations	Dry Seals/Route to Process or Control	$149,496	-$1,086,704	43	1,546	1	$3,495	-$25,405
Pneumatic Controllers -								
Oil and Gas Production	Low Bleed/Route to Process	$320,071	-$20,699,918	25,210	90,685	952	$13	-$821
Natural Gas Trans. and Storage	Low Bleed/Route to Process	$1,539	$1,539	6	212	0	$262	$262
Storage Vessels								
High Throughput	95% control	$4,411,587	$4,234,856	29,654	6,490	876	$149	$143
Low Throughput	95% control	$248,225,012	$238,280,976	6,838	1,497	202	$36,298	$34,844

Table 3-4 Estimated Engineering Compliance Costs, NSPS (2008$)

	Option 1	Option 2 (Proposed)	Option 3
Capital Costs	$337,803,930	$738,530,998	$1,143,984,622
Annualized Costs			
Without Revenues from Additional Natural Gas Product Recovery	$336,163,858	$737,982,436	$868,160,873
With Revenues from Additional Natural Gas Product Recovery	-$19,496,449	-$44,695,374	$76,502,080
VOC Reductions (tons per year)	270,695	535,201	548,449
Methane Reduction (tons per year)	1,574,498	3,386,154	3,442,283
HAP Reductions (tons per year)	17,442	36,645	37,142
VOC Reduction Cost-Effectiveness ($/ton without additional product revenues)	$1,241.86	$1,378.89	$1,582.94
VOC Reduction Cost-Effectiveness ($/ton with additional product revenues)	-$72.02	-$83.51	$139.49

Note: the VOC reduction cost-effectiveness estimate assumes there is no benefit to reducing methane and HAP, which is not the case. We however present the per ton costs of reducing the single pollutant for illustrative purposes. As product prices can increase or decrease rapidly, the estimated engineering compliance costs can vary when revenue from additional product recovery is included. There is also geographic variability in wellhead prices, which can also influence estimated engineering costs. A $1/Mcf change in the wellhead price causes a change in estimated engineering compliance costs of about $180 million in 2008 dollars. The cost estimates for each regulatory option also include reporting and recordkeeping costs of $18,805,398.

As mentioned earlier, the single difference between Option 1 and the proposed Option 2 is the inclusion of RECs for recompletions of existing wells in Option 2. The implication of this inclusion in Option 2 is clear in Table 3-4, as the estimated engineering compliance costs without additional product revenue more than double and VOC emissions reductions also more than double. Meanwhile, the addition of equipment leaks standards in Option 3 increases engineering costs more than $400 million dollars in 2008 dollars, but only marginally increase estimates of emissions reductions of VOCs, methane, and HAPS.

As the price assumption is very influential on estimated impacts, we performed a simple sensitivity analysis of the influence of the assumed wellhead price paid to natural gas producers on the overall engineering costs estimate of the proposed NSPS. Figure 3-1 plots the annualized costs after revenues from natural gas product recovery have been incorporated (in millions of 2008 dollars) as a function of the assumed price of natural gas paid to producers at the wellhead for the recovered natural gas (represented by the sloped, dotted line). The vertical solid lines in the figure represent the natural gas price assumed in the RIA ($4.00/Mcf) for 2015 and the 2015 forecast by EIA in the 2011 Annual Energy Outlook ($4.22/Mcf) in 2008 dollars.

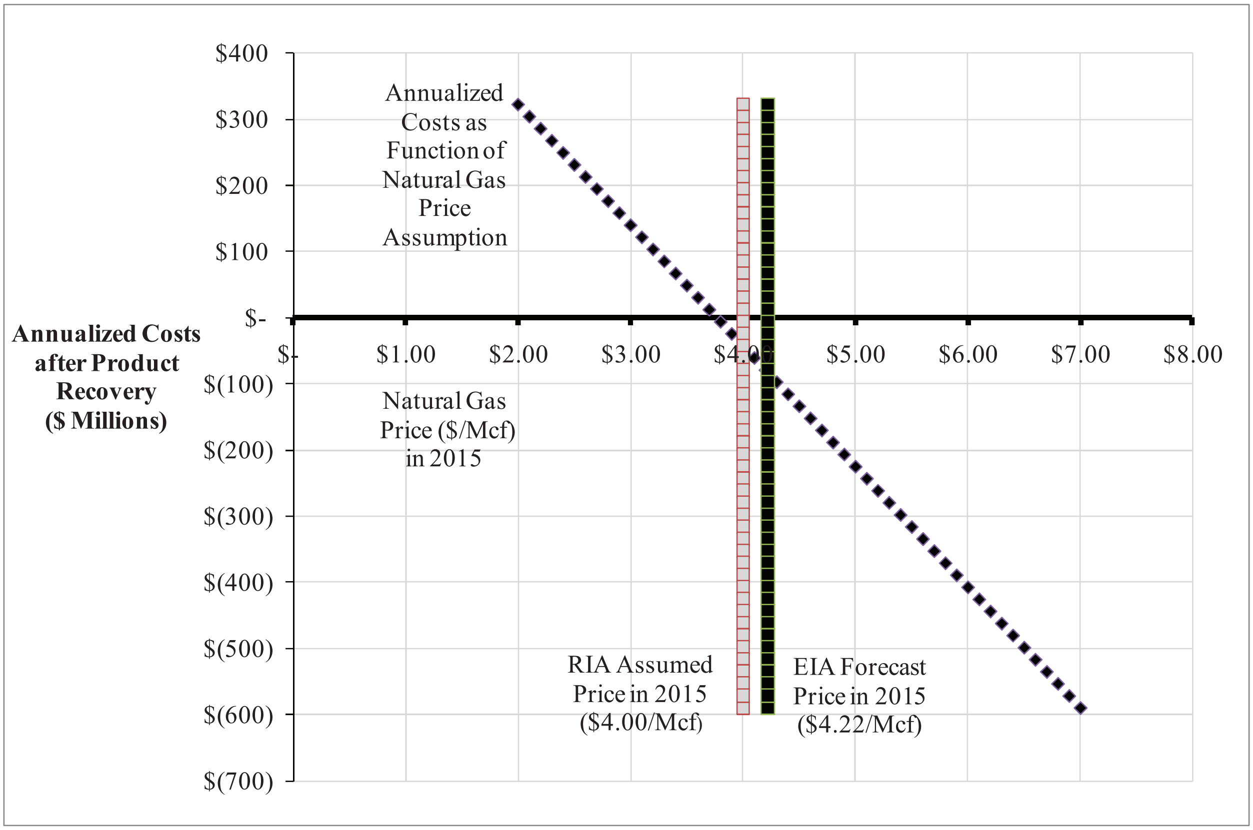

Figure 3-1 Sensitivity Analysis of Proposed NSPS Annualized Costs after Revenues from Additional Product Recovery are Included

As shown in Table 3-4, at the assumed $4/Mcf, the annualized costs are estimated at -$45 million. At $4.22/Mcf, the price forecast reported in the 2011 Annual Energy Outlook, the annualized costs are estimated at about -$90 million, which would approximately double the estimate of net cost savings of the proposed NSPS. As indicated by this difference, EPA has chosen a relatively conservative assumption (leading to an estimate of few savings and higher net costs) for the engineering costs analysis. The natural gas price at which the proposed NSPS breaks-even is around $3.77/Mcf. As mentioned earlier, a $1/Mcf change in the wellhead natural gas price leads to about a $180 million change in the annualized engineering costs of the proposed NSPS. Consequently, annualized engineering costs estimates would increase to about $140 million under a $3/Mcf price or decrease to about -$230 million under a $5/Mcf price.

It is additionally helpful to put the quantity of natural gas and condensate potentially recovered in the context of domestic production levels. To do so, it is necessary to make two adjustments. First, not all emissions reductions can be directed into production streams to be ultimately consumed by final consumers. Several controls require combustion of the natural gas rather than capture and direction into product streams. After adjusting estimates of national emissions reductions in Table 3-3 for these combustion-type controls, Options 1, 2, and 3 are estimated to capture about 83, 183, and 185 bcf of natural gas and 317,000, 726,000, and 726,000 barrels of condensate, respectively. For control options that are expected to recover natural gas products. Estimates of unit-level and nation-level product recovery are presented in Section 3 of the RIA. Note that completion-related requirements for new and existing wells generate all the condensate recovery for all NSPS regulatory options. For natural gas recovery, RECs contribute 77 bcf (92 percent) for Option 1, 176 bcf (97 percent) for Option 2, and 176 bcf (95 percent) for Option 3.

Table 3-5 Estimates of Control Unit-level and National Level Natural Gas and Condensate Recovery, NSPS Options, 2015

				Unit-level Product Recovery		Total Product Recovery	
Source/ Emissions Points	**Emissions Control**	**NSPS Option**	**Projected No. of Affected Units**	**Natural Gas Savings (Mcf/unit)**	**Condensate (bbl/unit)**	**Natural Gas Savings (Mcf)**	**Condensate (bbl)**
Well Completions							
Hydraulically Fractured Gas Wells	REC	1, 2, 3	9,313	8,258	34	76,905,813	316,657
Hydraulically Fractured Gas Wells	Combustion	1, 2, 3	446	0	0	0	0
Hydraulically Fractured Gas Wells (existing wells)	REC	2, 3	12,050	8,258	34	99,502,875	409,700
Equipment Leaks							
Well Pads	NSPS Subpart VV	3	4,774	386	0	1,840,377	0
Gathering and Boosting Stations	NSPS Subpart VV	3	275	1,472	0	404,869	0
Processing Plants	NSPS Subpart VVa	2, 3	29	2,819	0	81,750	0
Reciprocating Compressors							
Gathering/Boosting Stations	AMM	1, 2, 3	210	397	0	83,370	0
Processing Plants	AMM	1, 2, 3	375	1,079	0	404,677	0
Trans. Compressor Stations	AMM	1, 2, 3	199	1,122	0	223,374	0
Underground Storage Facilities	AMM	1, 2, 3	9	1,130	0	9,609	0
Centrifugal Compressors							
Processing Plants	Dry Seals/Route to Process or Ctrl	1, 2, 3	16	11,527	0	184,435	0
Trans. Compressor Stations	Dry Seals/Route to Process or Ctrl	1, 2, 3	14	5,716	0	80,018	0
Pneumatic Controllers -							
Oil and Gas Production	Low Bleed/Route to Process	1, 2, 3	13,632	386	0	5,254,997	0
Natural Gas Trans. and Storage	Low Bleed/Route to Process	1, 2, 3	67	0	0	0	0
Processing Plants	Instrument Air	1, 2, 3	15	871.0	0	13,064	0
Storage Vessels							
High Throughput	95% control	1, 2, 3	304	146	0	44,189	0
Option 1 Total (Mcf)						**83,203,546**	**316,657**
Option 2 Total (Mcf)						**182,788,172**	**726,357**
Option 3 Total (Mcf)						**185,033,417**	**726,357**

A second adjustment to the natural gas quantities is necessary to account for nonhydrocarbon gases removed and gas that reinjected to repressurize wells, vented or flared, or consumed in production processes. Generally, wellhead production is metered at or near the wellhead and payments to producers are based on these metered values. In most cases, the natural gas is minimally processed at the meter and still contains impurities or co-products that must be processed out of the natural gas at processing plants. This means that the engineering cost estimates of revenues from additional natural gas recovery arising from controls implemented at the wellhead include payment for the impurities, such as the VOC and HAP content of the unprocessed natural gas. According to EIA, in 2009 the gross withdrawal of natural gas totaled 26,013 bcf, but 20,580 bcf was ultimately considered dry production (these figures exclude EIA estimates of flared and vented natural gas). Using these numbers, we apply a factor of 0.79 (20,580 bcf divided by 26,013 bcf) to the adjusted sums in the previous paragraph to estimate the volume of gas that is captured by controls that may ultimately by consumed by final consumers.

After making these adjustments, we estimate that Option 1 will potentially recover approximately 66 bcf, proposed Option 2 will potentially recover about 145 bcf, and Option 3 will potentially recover 146 bcf of natural gas that will ultimately be consumed by natural gas consumers.[7] EIA forecasts that the domestic dry natural gas production in 2015 will be 20,080 bcf. Consequently, Option 1, proposed Option 2, and Option 3 may recover production representing about 0.29 percent, 0.64 percent and 0.65 percent of domestic dry natural gas production predicted in 2015, respectively. These estimates, however, do not account for adjustments producers might make, once compliance costs and potential revenues from additional natural gas recovery factor into economic decisionmaking. Also, as discussed in the previous paragraph, these estimates do not include the nonhydrocarbon gases removed, natural gas reinjected to repressurize wells, and natural gas consumed in production processes, and therefore will be lower than the estimates of the gross natural gas captured by implementing controls.

[7] To convert U.S. short tons of methane to a cubic foot measure, we use the conversion factor of 48.04 Mcf per U.S. short ton.

Clearly, this discussion raises the question as to why, if emissions can be reduced profitably using environmental controls, more producers are not adopting the controls in their own economic self-interest. This question is made clear when examining simple estimates of the rate of return to installing emissions controls that, using the engineering compliance costs estimates, the estimates of natural gas product recovery, and assumed product prices (Table 3-6). The rates of return presented in are for evaluated controls where estimated revenues from additional product recovery exceed the costs. The rate of return is calculated using the simple formula: product recovery, and assumed product prices (Table 3-6). The rates of return presented in are for evaluated controls where estimated revenues from additional product recovery exceed the costs. The rate of return is calculated using the simple formula:

$$\text{rate of return} = \left(\frac{\text{estimated revenues}}{\text{estimated costs}} - 1 \right) \times 100 .$$

Table 3-6 Simple Rate of Return Estimate for NSPS Control Options

Emission Point	Control Option	Rate of Return
New Completions of Hydraulically Fractured Wells	Reduced Emissions Completions	6.5%
Re-completions of Existing Hydraulically Fractured Wells	Reduced Emissions Completions	6.5%
Reciprocating Compressors (Processing Plants)	Replace Packing Every 3 Years of Operation	208.3%
Centrifugal Compressors (Processing Plants)	Convert to Dry Seals	1158.7%
Centrifugal Compressors (Transmission Compressor Stations)	Convert to Dry Seals	726.9%
Pneumatic Controllers (Oil and Gas Production)	Low Bleed	6467.3%
Overall Proposed NSPS	**Low Bleed**	**6.1%**

Note: The table presents only control options where estimated revenues from natural gas product recovery exceeds estimated annualized engineering costs

Recall from Table 2-23 in the Industry Profile, that EIA estimates an industry-level rate of return on investments for various segments of the oil and natural gas industry. While the numbers varies greatly over time because of industry and economic factors, EIA estimates a 10.7 percent rate of return on investments for oil and natural gas production in 2008. While this amount is higher than the 6.5 percent rate estimated for RECs, it is significantly lower than the rate of returns estimated for other controls anticipated to have net savings.

Assuming financially rational producers, standard economic theory suggests that all oil and natural gas firms would incorporate all cost-effective improvements, which they are aware of, without government intervention. The cost analysis of this draft RIA nevertheless is based on the observation that emission reductions that appear to be profitable in our analysis have not been generally adopted. One possible explanation may be the difference between the average profit margin garnered by productive capital and the environmental capital where the primary motivation for installing environmental capital would be to mitigate the emission of pollutants and confer social benefits as discussed in Chapter 4.

Another explanation for why there appear to be negative cost control technologies that are not generally adopted is imperfect information. If emissions from the oil and natural gas sector are not well understood, firms may underestimate the potential financial returns to capturing emissions. Quantifying emissions is difficult and has been done in relatively few studies. Recently, however, advances in infrared imagery have made it possible to affordably visualize, if not quantify, methane emissions from any source using a handheld camera. This infrared camera has increased awareness within industry and among environmental groups and the public at large about the large number of emissions sources and possible scale of emissions from oil and natural gas production activities. Since, as discussed in the TSD chapter referenced above, 15 percent of new natural gas well completions with hydraulic fracturing and 15 percent of existing natural gas well recompletions with hydraulic fracturing are estimated to be controlled by either flare or REC in the baseline, it is unlikely that a lack of information will be a significant reason for these emission points to not be addressed in the absence of Federal regulation in 2015. However, for other emission points, a lack of information, or the cost associated with doing a feasibility study of potential emission capture technologies, may continue to prevent firms from adopting these improvements in the absence of regulation.

Another explanation is the cost associated with irreversibility associated with implementing these environmental controls are not reflected in the engineering cost estimates above. Due to the high volatility of natural gas prices, it is important to recognize the value of flexibility taken away from firms when requiring them to install and use a particular emissions capture technology. If a firm has not adopted the technology on its own, then a regulation mandating its use means the firm loses the option to postpone investment in the technology in order to pursue alternative investments today, and the option to suspend use of the technology if it becomes unprofitable in the future. Therefore, the full cost of the regulation to the firm is the engineering cost and the lost option value minus the revenues from the sale of the additional recovered product. In the absence of quantitative estimates of this option value for each emission point affected by the NSPS and NESHAP improvements, the costs presented in this RIA may underestimate the full costs faced by the affected firms. With these caveats in mind, EPA believes it is analytically appropriate to analyze costs and economic impacts costs presented in Table 3-2 and Table 3-3 using the additional product recovery and associated revenues.

3.2.2.2 NESHAP Sources

As discussed in Section 3.2.1.2, EPA examined three emissions points as part of its analysis for the proposed NESHAP amendments. Unlike the controls for the proposed NSPS, the controls evaluated under the proposed NESHAP amendments do not direct significant quantities of natural gas that would otherwise be flared or vented into the production stream. Table 3-7 shows the projected number of controls required, estimated unit-level capital and annualized costs, and estimated total annualized costs. The table also shows estimated emissions reductions for HAPs, VOCs, and methane, as well as a cost-effectiveness estimate for HAP reduction, based upon engineering (not social) costs.

Table 3-7 Summary of Estimated Capital and Annual Costs, Emissions Reductions, and HAP Reduction Cost-Effectiveness for Proposed NESHAP Amendments

Source/Emissions Point	Projected No. of Controls Required	Capital Costs/ Unit (2008$)	Annualized Cost/Unit (2008$)	Total Annualized Cost (2008$)	Emission Reductions (tons per year) HAP	VOC	Methane	HAP Reduction Cost-Effectiveness (2008$/ton)
Production - Small Glycol Dehydrators	115	65,793	30,409	3,497,001	548	893	324	6,377
Transmission - Small Glycol Dehydrators	19	19,537	19,000	361,000	243	475	172	1,483
Storage Vessels	674	65,243	14,528	9,791,872	589	7,812	4,364	16,618
Reporting and Recordkeeping	---	196	2,933	2,369,755	---	---	---	---
Total	**808**			**16,019,871**	**1,381**	**9,243**	**4,859**	**10,576**

Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

Under the Proposed NESHAP Amendments, about 800 controls will be required, costing a total of $16.0 million (Table 3-7). We include reporting and recordkeeping costs as a unique line item showing these costs for the entire set of proposed amendments. These controls will reduce HAP emissions by about 1,400 tons, VOC emissions by about 9,200 tons, and methane by about 4,859 tons. The cost-per-ton to reduce HAP emissions is estimated at about $11,000 per ton. All figures are in 2008 dollars.

3.3 References

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4 BENEFITS OF EMISSIONS REDUCTIONS

4.1 Introduction

The proposed Oil and Natural Gas NSPS and NESHAP amendments are expected to result in significant reductions in existing emissions and prevent new emissions from expansions of the industry. While we expect that these avoided emissions will result in improvements in air quality and reduce health effects associated with exposure to HAPs, ozone, and fine particulate matter ($PM_{2.5}$), we have determined that quantification of those health benefits cannot be accomplished for this rule in a defensible way. This is not to imply that there are no health benefits of the rules; rather, it is a reflection of the difficulties in modeling the direct and indirect impacts of the reductions in emissions for this industrial sector with the data currently available. For the proposed NSPS, the HAP and climate benefits can be considered "co-benefits", and for the proposed NESHAP amendments, the ozone and $PM_{2.5}$ health benefits and climate benefits can be considered "co-benefits". These co-benefits occur because the control technologies used to reduce VOC emissions also reduce emissions of HAPs and methane.

The proposed NSPS is anticipated to prevent 37,000 tons of HAPs, 540,000 tons of VOCs, and 3.4 million tons of methane from new sources, while the proposed NESHAP amendments is anticipated reduce 1,400 tons of HAPs, 9,200 tons of VOCs, and 4,900 tons of methane from existing sources. The specific control technologies for the proposed NSPS is also anticipated to have minor secondary disbenefits, including an increase of 990,000 tons of CO_2, 510 tons of NOx, 2,800 tons of CO, 7.6 tons of PM, and 1,000 tons of THC, and proposed NESHAP is anticipated to have minor secondary disbenefits, including an increase of 5,500 tons of CO_2, 2.9 tons of NOx, 16 tons of CO, and 6.0 tons of THC. Both rules would have additional emission changes associated with the energy system impacts. The net CO_2-equivalent emission reductions are 62 million metric tons for the proposed NSPS and 93 thousand metric tons for the proposed NESHAP. As described in the subsequent sections, these pollutants are associated with substantial health effects, welfare effects, and climate effects. With the data available, we are not able to provide a credible benefits estimates for any of these pollutants for these rules, due to the differences in the locations of oil and natural gas emission points relative to existing information, and the highly localized nature of air quality responses associated with HAP and VOC reductions. In addition, we do not yet have interagency agreed upon valuation estimates for greenhouse gases other than CO_2 that could be used to value the climate co-benefits associated with avoiding methane emissions. Instead, we provide a qualitative assessment of the benefits and co-benefits as well as a break-even analysis in Chapter 6 of this RIA. A break-even analysis answers the question, "What would the benefits need to be for the benefits to exceed the costs." While a break-even approach is not equivalent to a benefits analysis, we feel the results are illustrative, particularly in the context of previous benefit per ton estimates.

4.2 Direct Emission Reductions from the Oil and Natural Gas Rules

As described in Section 2 of this RIA, oil and natural gas operations in the U.S. include a variety of emission points for VOCs and HAPs including wells, processing plants, compressor stations, storage equipment, and transmission and distribution lines. These emission points are located throughout much of the country with significant concentrations in particular regions. For example, wells and processing plants are largely concentrated in the South Central, Midwest, and Southern California regions of the U.S., whereas gas compression stations are located all over the country. Distribution lines to customers are frequently located within areas of high population density.

In implementing these rules, emission controls may lead to reductions in ambient $PM_{2.5}$ and ozone below the National Ambient Air Quality Standards (NAAQS) in some areas and assist other areas with attaining the NAAQS. Due to the high degree of variability in the responsiveness of ozone and $PM_{2.5}$ formation to VOC emission reductions, we are unable to determine how these rules might affect attainment status without air quality modeling data.[8] Because the NAAQS RIAs also calculate ozone and PM benefits, there are important differences worth noting in the design and analytical objectives of each RIA. The NAAQS RIAs illustrate the potential costs and benefits of attaining a new air quality standard nationwide based on an array of emission control strategies for different sources. In short, NAAQS RIAs hypothesize, but do not predict, the control strategies that States may choose to enact when implementing a NAAQS. The setting of a NAAQS does not directly result in costs or benefits, and as such, the NAAQS RIAs are merely illustrative and are not intended to be added to the costs and benefits of other regulations that result in specific costs of control and emission reductions. However,

[8] The responsiveness of ozone and $PM_{2.5}$ formation is discussed in greater detail in sections 4.4.1 and 4.5.1 of this RIA.

some costs and benefits estimated in this RIA account for the same air quality improvements as estimated in an illustrative NAAQS RIA.

By contrast, the emission reductions for this rule are from a specific class of well-characterized sources. In general, EPA is more confident in the magnitude and location of the emission reductions for these rules. It is important to note that emission reductions anticipated from these rules do not result in emission increases elsewhere (other than potential energy disbenefits). Emission reductions achieved under these and other promulgated rules will ultimately be reflected in the baseline of future NAAQS analyses, which would reduce the incremental costs and benefits associated with attaining the NAAQS. EPA remains forward looking towards the next iteration of the 5-year review cycle for the NAAQS, and as a result does not issue updated RIAs for existing NAAQS that retroactively update the baseline for NAAQS implementation. For more information on the relationship between the NAAQS and rules such as analyzed here, please see Section 1.2.4 of the SO_2 NAAQS RIA (U.S. EPA, 2010d). Table 4-1 shows the direct emission reductions anticipated for these rules by option. It is important to note that these benefits accrue at different spatial scales. HAP emission reductions reduce exposure to carcinogens and other toxic pollutants primarily near the emission source. Reducing VOC emissions would reduce precursors to secondary formation of $PM_{2.5}$ and ozone, which reduces exposure to these pollutants on a regional scale. Climate effects associated with long-lived greenhouse gases like methane are primarily at a global scale, but methane is also a precursor to ozone, a short-lived climate forcer that exhibits spatial and temporal variability.

Table 4-1 Direct Emission Reductions Associated with Options for the Oil and Natural Gas NSPS and NESHAP amendments in 2015 (short tons per year)

Pollutant	NESHAP Amendments	NSPS Option 1	NSPS Option 2 (Proposed)	NSPS Option 3
HAPs	1,381	17,442	36,645	37,142
VOCs	9,243	270,695	535,201	548,449
Methane	4,859	1,574,498	3,386,154	3,442,283

4.3 Secondary Impacts Analysis for Oil and Gas Rules

The control techniques to avert leaks and vents of VOCs and HAPs are associated with several types of secondary impacts, which may partially offset the direct benefits of this rule. In this RIA, we refer to the secondary impacts associated with the specific control techniques as "producer-side" impacts.[9] For example, by combusting VOCs and HAPs, combustion increases emissions of carbon monoxide, NOx, particulate matter and other pollutants. In addition to "producer-side" impacts, these control techniques would also allow additional natural gas recovery, which would contribute to additional combustion of the recovered natural gas and ultimately a shift in the national fuel mix. We refer to the secondary impacts associated with the combustion of the recovered natural gas as "consumer-side" secondary impacts. We provide a conceptual diagram of both categories of secondary impacts in Figure 4-1.

[9] In previous RIAs, we have also referred to these impacts as energy disbenefits.

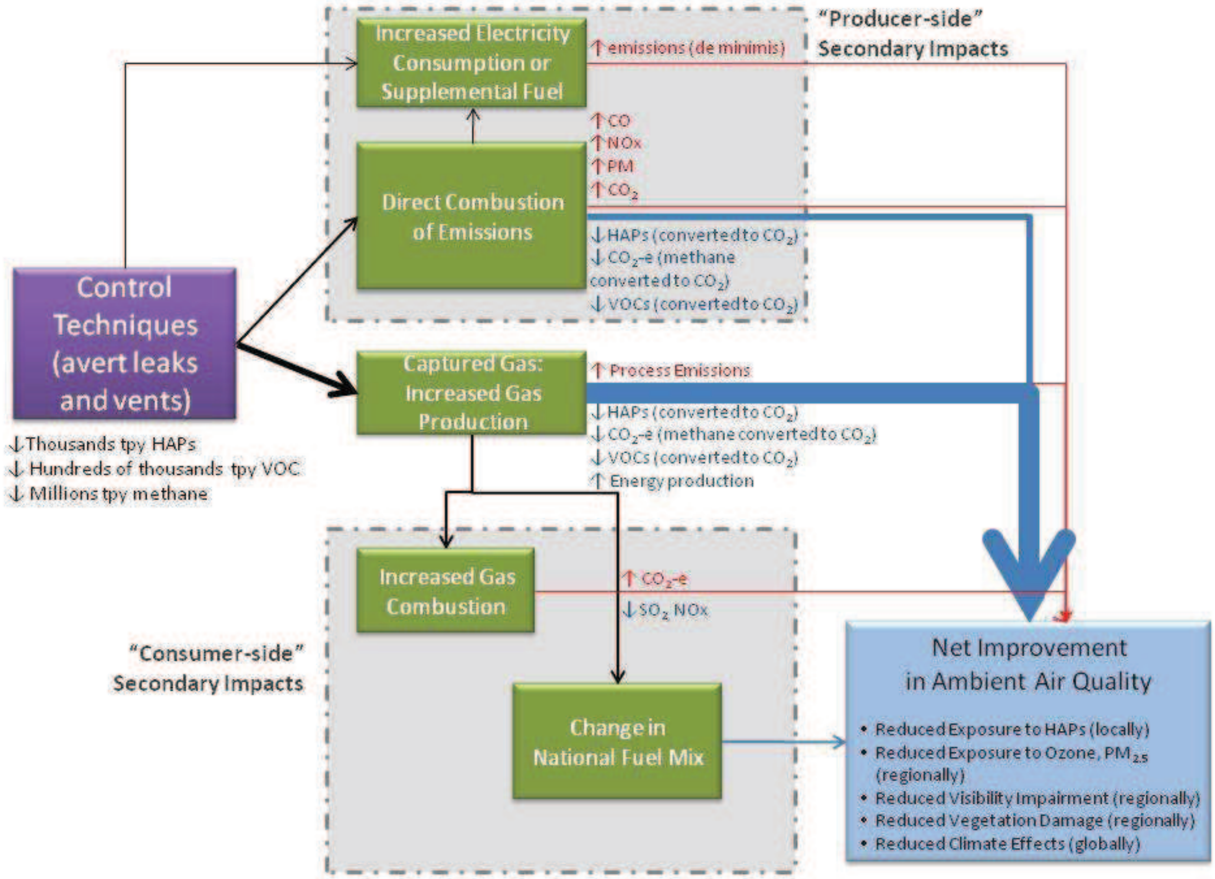

Figure 4-1 Conceptual Diagram of Secondary Impacts from Oil and Gas NSPS and NESHAP Amendments

Table 4-2 shows the estimated secondary impacts for the selected option for the "producer-side" impacts. Relative to the direct emission reductions anticipated from these rules, the magnitude of these secondary air pollutant impacts is small. Because the geographic distribution of these emissions from the oil and gas sector is not consistent with emissions modeled in Fann, Fulcher, and Hubbell (2009), we are unable to monetize the $PM_{2.5}$ disbenefits associated with the producer-side secondary impacts. In addition, it is not appropriate to monetize the disbenefits associated with the increased CO_2 emissions without monetizing the averted methane emissions because the overall global warming potential (GWP) is actually lower. Through the combustion process, methane emissions are converted to CO_2 emissions, which have 21 times less global warming potential compared to methane (IPCC, 2007).[10]

Table 4-2 Secondary Air Pollutant Impacts Associated with Control Techniques by Emissions Category ("Producer-Side") (tons per year)

Emissions Category	CO_2	NOx	PM	CO	THC
Completions of New Wells (NSPS)	587,991	302	5	1,644	622
Recompletions of Existing Wells (NSPS)	398,341	205	-	1,114	422
Pneumatic Controllers (NSPS)	22	1.0	2.6	-	-
Storage Vessels (NSPS)	856	0.5	0.0	2.4	0.9
Total NSPS	**987,210**	**508**	**7.6**	**2,760**	**1,045**
Total NESHAP (Storage Vessels)	**5,543**	**2.9**	**0.1**	**16**	**6**

For the "consumer-side" impacts associated with the NSPS, we modeled the impact of the regulatory options on the national fuel mix and associated CO_2-equivalent emissions (Table 4-3).[11] We provide the modeled results of the "consumer-side" CO_2-equivalent emissions in Table 7-12Error! Reference source not found.

The modeled results indicate that through a slight shift in the national fuel mix, the CO_2-equivalent emissions across the energy sector would increase by 1.6 million metric tons for the proposed NSPS option in 2015. This is in addition to the other secondary impacts and directly avoided emissions, for a total 62 million metric tons of CO_2-equivalent emissions averted as shown in Table 4-4. Due to time limitations under the court-ordered schedule, we did not estimate the other emissions (e.g., NOx, PM, SOx) associated with the additional national gas consumption or the change in the national fuel mix.

[10] This issue is discussed in more detail in Section 4.7 of this RIA.
[11] A full discussion of the energy modeling is available in Section 7 of this RIA.

Table 4-3 Modeled Changes in Energy-related CO_2-equivalent Emissions by Fuel Type for the Proposed Oil and Gas NSPS in 2015 (million metric tons) ("Consumer-Side")[1]

Fuel Type	NSPS Option 1 (million metric tons change in CO_2-e)	NSPS Option 2 (million metric tons change in CO_2-e) (Proposed)	NSPS Option 3 (million metric tons change in CO_2-e)
Petroleum	-0.51	-0.14	-0.18
Natural Gas	2.63	1.35	1.03
Coal	-3.04	0.36	0.42
Other	0.00	0.00	0.00
Total modeled Change in CO_2-e Emissions	**-0.92**	**1.57**	**1.27**

[1] These estimates reflect the modeled change in CO_2-e emissions using NEMS shown in Table 7-12. Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

Table 4-4 Total Change in CO_2-equivalent Emissions including Secondary Impacts for the Proposed Oil and Gas NSPS in 2015 (million metric tons)

Emissions Source	**NSPS Option 1**	**NSPS Option 2 (Proposed)**	**NSPS Option 3**	**NESHAP Amendments**
Averted CO_2-e Emissions from New Sources[1]	-30.00	-64.51	-65.58	-0.09
Additional CO_2-e Emissions from Combustion and Supplemental Energy (Producer-side)[2]	0.90	0.90	0.90	0.01
Total Modeled Change in Energy-related CO_2-e Emissions (Consumer-side)[3]	-0.92	1.57	1.27	--
Total Change in CO_2-e Emissions after Adjustment for Secondary Impacts	**-30.02**	**-62.04**	**-63.41**	**-0.09**

[1] This estimate reflects the GWP of the avoided methane emissions from new sources shown in Table 4-1 and has been converted from short tons to metric tons.

[2] This estimate represents the secondary producer-side impacts associated with additional CO_2 emissions from combustion and from additional electricity requirements shown in Table 4-2 and has been converted from short tons to metric tons. We use the producer-side secondary impacts associated with the proposed NSPS option as a surrogate for the impacts of the other options.

[3] This estimate reflects the modeled change in the energy–related consumer-side impacts shown in Table 4-3.

Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

Based on these analyses, the net impact of both the direct and secondary impacts of these rules would be an improvement in ambient air quality, which would reduce exposure to various harmful pollutants, improve visibility impairment, reduce vegetation damage, and reduce potency of greenhouse gas emissions. Table 4-5 provides a summary of the direct and secondary emissions changes for each option.

Table 4-5 Summary of Emissions Changes for the Proposed Oil and Gas NSPS and NESHAP in 2015 (short tons per year)

	Pollutant	NSPS Option 1	NSPS Option 2 (Proposed)	NSPS Option 3	NESHAP
Change in Direct Emissions	VOC	-270,000	-540,000	-550,000	-9,200
	Methane	-1,600,000	-3,400,000	-3,400,000	-4,900
	HAP	-17,000	-37,000	-37,000	-1,400
Change in Secondary Emissions (Producer-Side) [1]	CO_2	990,000	990,000	990,000	5,500
	NOx	510	510	510	2.9
	PM	7.6	7.6	7.6	0.1
	CO	2,800	2,800	2,800	16
	THC	1,000	1,000	1,000	6.0
Change in Secondary Emissions (Consumer-Side)	CO_2-e	-1,000,000	1,700,000	1,400,000	N/A
Net Change in CO_2-equivalent Emissions	CO_2-e	-33,000,000	-68,000,000	-70,000,000	-96,000

[1] We use the producer-side secondary impacts associated with the proposed option as a surrogate for the impacts of the other options. Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

4.4 Hazardous Air Pollutant (HAP) Benefits

Even though emissions of air toxics from all sources in the U.S. declined by approximately 42 percent since 1990, the 2005 National-Scale Air Toxics Assessment (NATA) predicts that most Americans are exposed to ambient concentrations of air toxics at levels that have the potential to cause adverse health effects (U.S. EPA, 2011d).[12] The levels of air toxics to which people are exposed vary depending on where people live and work and the kinds of activities in which they engage. In order to identify and prioritize air toxics, emission source types and locations that are of greatest potential concern, U.S. EPA conducts the NATA.[13] The most recent NATA was conducted for calendar year 2005 and was released in March 2011. NATA includes four steps:

[12] The 2005 NATA is available on the Internet at http://www.epa.gov/ttn/atw/nata2005/.

[13] The NATA modeling framework has a number of limitations that prevent its use as the sole basis for setting regulatory standards. These limitations and uncertainties are discussed on the 2005 NATA website. Even so, this modeling framework is very useful in identifying air toxic pollutants and sources of greatest concern, setting regulatory priorities, and informing the decision making process. U.S. EPA. (2011) 2005 National-Scale Air Toxics Assessment. http://www.epa.gov/ttn/atw/nata2005/

1) Compiling a national emissions inventory of air toxics emissions from outdoor sources

2) Estimating ambient and exposure concentrations of air toxics across the United States

3) Estimating population exposures across the United States

4) Characterizing potential public health risk due to inhalation of air toxics including both cancer and noncancer effects

Based on the 2005 NATA, EPA estimates that about 5 percent of census tracts nationwide have increased cancer risks greater than 100 in a million. The average national cancer risk is about 50 in a million. Nationwide, the key pollutants that contribute most to the overall cancer risks are formaldehyde and benzene.[14,15] Secondary formation (e.g., formaldehyde forming from other emitted pollutants) was the largest contributor to cancer risks, while stationary, mobile and background sources contribute almost equal portions of the remaining cancer risk.

Noncancer health effects can result from chronic,[16] subchronic,[17] or acute[18] inhalation exposures to air toxics, and include neurological, cardiovascular, liver, kidney, and respiratory effects as well as effects on the immune and reproductive systems. According to the 2005 NATA, about three-fourths of the U.S. population was exposed to an average chronic concentration of air toxics that has the potential for adverse noncancer respiratory health effects. Results from the 2005 NATA indicate that acrolein is the primary driver for noncancer respiratory risk.

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[14] Details on EPA's approach to characterization of cancer risks and uncertainties associated with the 2005 NATA risk estimates can be found at http://www.epa.gov/ttn/atw/nata1999/riskbg.html#Z2.

[15] Details about the overall confidence of certainty ranking of the individual pieces of NATA assessments including both quantitative (e.g., model-to-monitor ratios) and qualitative (e.g., quality of data, review of emission inventories) judgments can be found at http://www.epa.gov/ttn/atw/nata/roy/page16.html.

[16] Chronic exposure is defined in the glossary of the Integrated Risk Information (IRIS) database (http://www.epa.gov/iris) as repeated exposure by the oral, dermal, or inhalation route for more than approximately 10% of the life span in humans (more than approximately 90 days to 2 years in typically used laboratory animal species).

[17] Defined in the IRIS database as repeated exposure by the oral, dermal, or inhalation route for more than 30 days, up to approximately 10% of the life span in humans (more than 30 days up to approximately 90 days in typically used laboratory animal species).

[18] Defined in the IRIS database as exposure by the oral, dermal, or inhalation route for 24 hours or less.

Figure 4-2 and Figure 4-3 depict the estimated census tract-level carcinogenic risk and noncancer respiratory hazard from the assessment. It is important to note that large reductions in HAP emissions may not necessarily translate into significant reductions in health risk because toxicity varies by pollutant, and exposures may or may not exceed levels of concern. For example, acetaldehyde mass emissions are more than double acrolein emissions on a national basis, according to EPA's 2005 National Emissions Inventory (NEI). However, the Integrated Risk Information System (IRIS) reference concentration (RfC) for acrolein is considerably lower than that for acetaldehyde, suggesting that acrolein could be potentially more toxic than acetaldehyde.[19] Thus, it is important to account for the toxicity and exposure, as well as the mass of the targeted emissions.

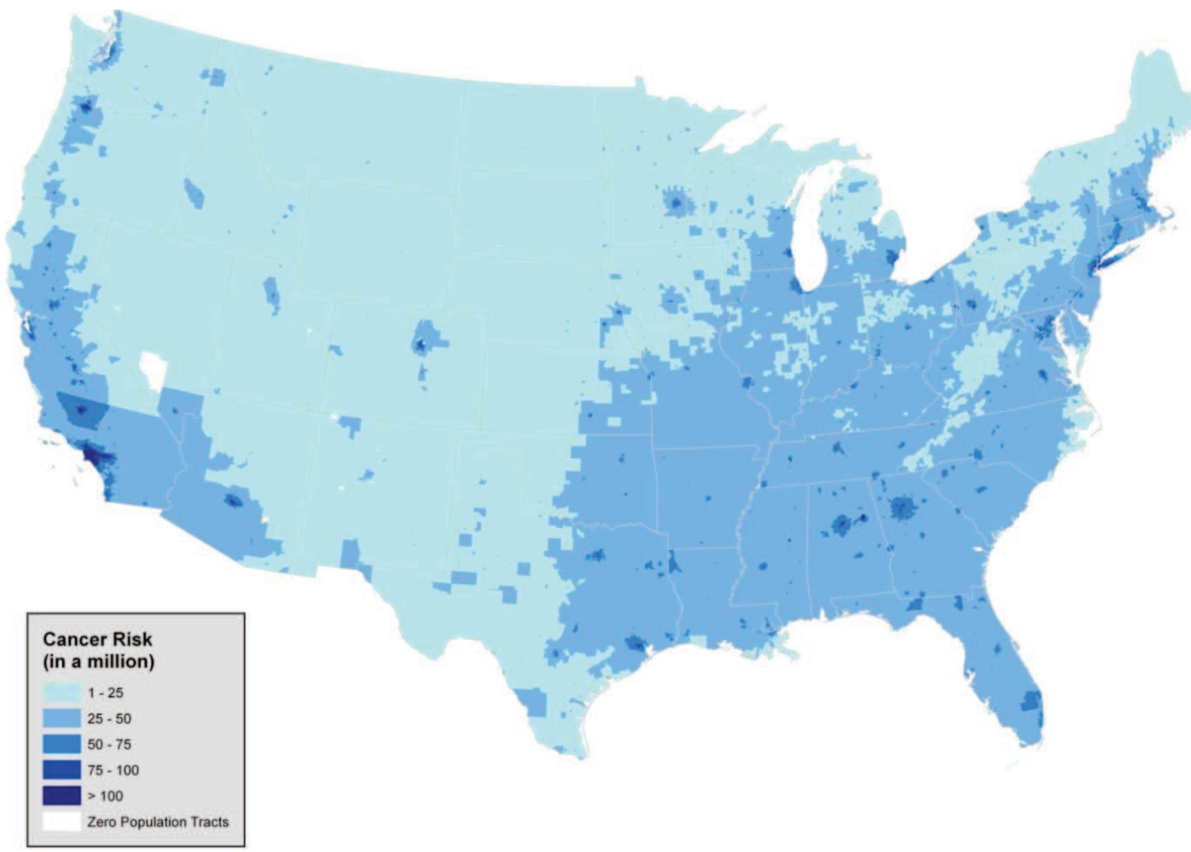

Figure 4-2 Estimated Chronic Census Tract Carcinogenic Risk from HAP exposure from outdoor sources (2005 NATA)

[19] Details on the derivation of IRIS values and available supporting documentation for individual chemicals (as well as chemical values comparisons) can be found at http://cfpub.epa.gov/ncea/iris/compare.cfm.

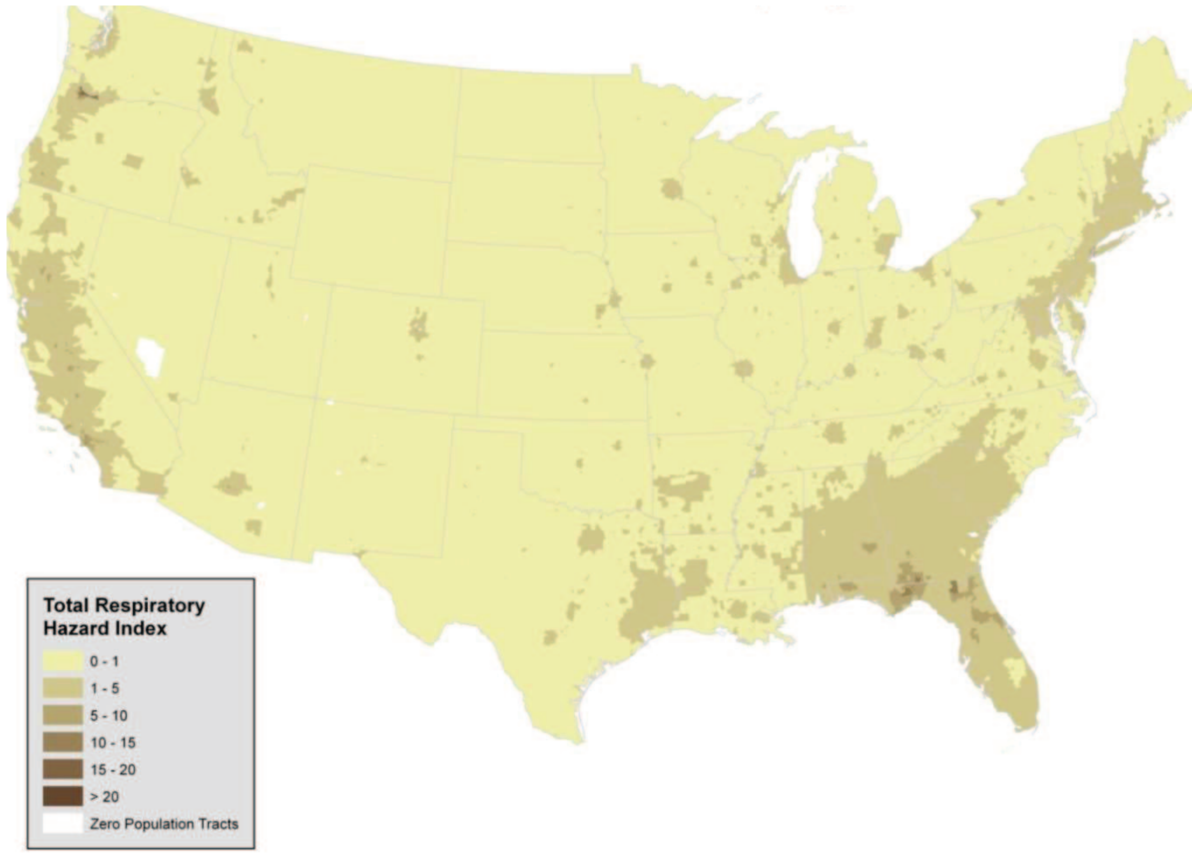

Figure 4-3 Estimated Chronic Census Tract Noncancer (Respiratory) Risk from HAP exposure from outdoor sources (2005 NATA)

Due to methodology and data limitations, we were unable to estimate the benefits associated with the hazardous air pollutants that would be reduced as a result of these rules.. In a few previous analyses of the benefits of reductions in HAPs, EPA has quantified the benefits of potential reductions in the incidences of cancer and non-cancer risk (e.g., U.S. EPA, 1995). In those analyses, EPA relied on unit risk factors (URF) developed through risk assessment procedures.[20] These URFs are designed to be conservative, and as such, are more likely to represent the high end of the distribution of risk rather than a best or most likely estimate of risk. As the purpose of a benefit analysis is to describe the benefits most likely to occur from a reduction in pollution, use of high-end, conservative risk estimates would overestimate the

[20]The unit risk factor is a quantitative estimate of the carcinogenic potency of a pollutant, often expressed as the probability of contracting cancer from a 70-year lifetime continuous exposure to a concentration of one $\mu g/m^3$ of a pollutant.

benefits of the regulation. While we used high-end risk estimates in past analyses, advice from the EPA's Science Advisory Board (SAB) recommended that we avoid using high-end estimates in benefit analyses (U.S. EPA-SAB, 2002). Since this time, EPA has continued to develop better methods for analyzing the benefits of reductions in HAPs.

As part of the second prospective analysis of the benefits and costs of the Clean Air Act (U.S. EPA, 2011a), EPA conducted a case study analysis of the health effects associated with reducing exposure to benzene in Houston from implementation of the Clean Air Act (IEc, 2009). While reviewing the draft report, EPA's Advisory Council on Clean Air Compliance Analysis concluded that "the challenges for assessing progress in health improvement as a result of reductions in emissions of hazardous air pollutants (HAPs) are daunting...due to a lack of exposure-response functions, uncertainties in emissions inventories and background levels, the difficulty of extrapolating risk estimates to low doses and the challenges of tracking health progress for diseases, such as cancer, that have long latency periods" (U.S. EPA-SAB, 2008).

In 2009, EPA convened a workshop to address the inherent complexities, limitations, and uncertainties in current methods to quantify the benefits of reducing HAPs. Recommendations from this workshop included identifying research priorities, focusing on susceptible and vulnerable populations, and improving dose-response relationships (Gwinn et al., 2011).

In summary, monetization of the benefits of reductions in cancer incidences requires several important inputs, including central estimates of cancer risks, estimates of exposure to carcinogenic HAPs, and estimates of the value of an avoided case of cancer (fatal and non-fatal). Due to methodology and data limitations, we did not attempt to monetize the health benefits of reductions in HAPs in this analysis. Instead, we provide a qualitative analysis of the health effects associated with the HAPs anticipated to be reduced by these rules and we summarize the results of the residual risk assessment for the Risk and Technology Review (RTR). EPA remains committed to improving methods for estimating HAP benefits by continuing to explore additional concepts of benefits, including changes in the distribution of risk.

Available emissions data show that several different HAPs are emitted from oil and natural gas operations, either from equipment leaks, processing, compressing, transmission and distribution, or storage tanks. Emissions of eight HAPs make up a large percentage the total

HAP emissions by mass from the oil and gas sector: toluene, hexane, benzene, xylenes (mixed), ethylene glycol, methanol, ethyl benzene, and 2,2,4-trimethylpentane (U.S. EPA, 2011a). In the subsequent sections, we describe the health effects associated with the main HAPs of concern from the oil and natural gas sector: benzene, toluene, carbonyl sulfide, ethyl benzene, mixed xylenes, and n-hexane. These rules combined are anticipated to avoid or reduce 58,000 tons of HAPs per year. With the data available, it was not possible to estimate the tons of each individual HAP that would be reduced.

EPA conducted a residual risk assessment for the NESHAP rule (U.S. EPA, 2011c). The results for oil and gas production indicate that maximum lifetime individual cancer risks could be 30 in-a-million for existing sources before and after controls with a cancer incidence of 0.02 before and after controls. For existing natural gas transmission and storage, the maximum individual cancer risk decreases from 90-in-a-million before controls to 20-in-a-million after controls with a cancer incidence that decreases from 0.001 before controls to 0.0002 after controls. Benzene is the primary cancer risk driver. The results also indicate that significant noncancer impacts from existing sources are unlikely, especially after controls. EPA did not conduct a risk assessment for new sources affected by the NSPS. However, it is important to note that the magnitude of the HAP emissions avoided by new sources with the NSPS are more than an order of magnitude higher than the HAP emissions reduced from existing sources with the NESHAP.

4.4.1 Benzene

The EPA's IRIS database lists benzene as a known human carcinogen (causing leukemia) by all routes of exposure, and concludes that exposure is associated with additional health effects, including genetic changes in both humans and animals and increased proliferation of bone marrow cells in mice.[21,22,23] EPA states in its IRIS database that data indicate a causal

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[21] U.S. Environmental Protection Agency (U.S. EPA). 2000. Integrated Risk Information System File for Benzene. Research and Development, National Center for Environmental Assessment, Washington, DC. This material is available electronically at: http://www.epa.gov/iris/subst/0276.htm.

[22] International Agency for Research on Cancer, IARC monographs on the evaluation of carcinogenic risk of chemicals to humans, Volume 29, Some industrial chemicals and dyestuffs, International Agency for Research on Cancer, World Health Organization, Lyon, France, p. 345-389, 1982.

[23] Irons, R.D.; Stillman, W.S.; Colagiovanni, D.B.; Henry, V.A. (1992) Synergistic action of the benzene metabolite hydroquinone on myelopoietic stimulating activity of granulocyte/macrophage colony-stimulating factor in vitro, Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. 89:3691-3695.

relationship between benzene exposure and acute lymphocytic leukemia and suggest a relationship between benzene exposure and chronic non-lymphocytic leukemia and chronic lymphocytic leukemia. The International Agency for Research on Carcinogens (IARC) has determined that benzene is a human carcinogen and the U.S. Department of Health and Human Services (DHHS) has characterized benzene as a known human carcinogen.[24,25] A number of adverse noncancer health effects including blood disorders, such as preleukemia and aplastic anemia, have also been associated with long-term exposure to benzene.[26,27] The most sensitive noncancer effect observed in humans, based on current data, is the depression of the absolute lymphocyte count in blood.[28,29] In addition, recent work, including studies sponsored by the Health Effects Institute (HEI), provides evidence that biochemical responses are occurring at lower levels of benzene exposure than previously known.[30,31,32,33] EPA's IRIS program has not yet evaluated these new data.

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[24] International Agency for Research on Cancer (IARC). 1987. Monographs on the evaluation of carcinogenic risk of chemicals to humans, Volume 29, Supplement 7, Some industrial chemicals and dyestuffs, World Health Organization, Lyon, France.

[25] U.S. Department of Health and Human Services National Toxicology Program 11th Report on Carcinogens available at: http://ntp.niehs.nih.gov/go/16183.

[26] Aksoy, M. (1989). Hematotoxicity and carcinogenicity of benzene. Environ. Health Perspect. 82: 193-197.

[27] Goldstein, B.D. (1988). Benzene toxicity. Occupational medicine. State of the Art Reviews. 3: 541-554.

[28] Rothman, N., G.L. Li, M. Dosemeci, W.E. Bechtold, G.E. Marti, Y.Z. Wang, M. Linet, L.Q. Xi, W. Lu, M.T. Smith, N. Titenko-Holland, L.P. Zhang, W. Blot, S.N. Yin, and R.B. Hayes (1996) Hematotoxicity among Chinese workers heavily exposed to benzene. Am. J. Ind. Med. 29: 236-246.

[29] U.S. Environmental Protection Agency (U.S. EPA). 2000. Integrated Risk Information System File for Benzene (Noncancer Effects). Research and Development, National Center for Environmental Assessment, Washington, DC. This material is available electronically at: http://www.epa.gov/iris/subst/0276.htm.

[30] Qu, O.; Shore, R.; Li, G.; Jin, X.; Chen, C.L.; Cohen, B.; Melikian, A.; Eastmond, D.; Rappaport, S.; Li, H.; Rupa, D.; Suramaya, R.; Songnian, W.; Huifant, Y.; Meng, M.; Winnik, M.; Kwok, E.; Li, Y.; Mu, R.; Xu, B.; Zhang, X.; Li, K. (2003). HEI Report 115, Validation & Evaluation of Biomarkers in Workers Exposed to Benzene in China.

[31] Qu, Q., R. Shore, G. Li, X. Jin, L.C. Chen, B. Cohen, et al. (2002). Hematological changes among Chinese workers with a broad range of benzene exposures. Am. J. Industr. Med. 42: 275-285.

[32] Lan, Qing, Zhang, L., Li, G., Vermeulen, R., et al. (2004). Hematotoxically in Workers Exposed to Low Levels of Benzene. Science 306: 1774-1776.

[33] Turtletaub, K.W. and Mani, C. (2003). Benzene metabolism in rodents at doses relevant to human exposure from Urban Air. Research Reports Health Effect Inst. Report No.113.

4.4.2 Toluene[34]

Under the 2005 Guidelines for Carcinogen Risk Assessment, there is inadequate information to assess the carcinogenic potential of toluene because studies of humans chronically exposed to toluene are inconclusive, toluene was not carcinogenic in adequate inhalation cancer bioassays of rats and mice exposed for life, and increased incidences of mammary cancer and leukemia were reported in a lifetime rat oral bioassay.

The central nervous system (CNS) is the primary target for toluene toxicity in both humans and animals for acute and chronic exposures. CNS dysfunction (which is often reversible) and narcosis have been frequently observed in humans acutely exposed to low or moderate levels of toluene by inhalation: symptoms include fatigue, sleepiness, headaches, and nausea. Central nervous system depression has been reported to occur in chronic abusers exposed to high levels of toluene. Symptoms include ataxia, tremors, cerebral atrophy, nystagmus (involuntary eye movements), and impaired speech, hearing, and vision. Chronic inhalation exposure of humans to toluene also causes irritation of the upper respiratory tract, eye irritation, dizziness, headaches, and difficulty with sleep.

Human studies have also reported developmental effects, such as CNS dysfunction, attention deficits, and minor craniofacial and limb anomalies, in the children of women who abused toluene during pregnancy. A substantial database examining the effects of toluene in subchronic and chronic occupationally exposed humans exists. The weight of evidence from these studies indicates neurological effects (i.e., impaired color vision, impaired hearing, decreased performance in neurobehavioral analysis, changes in motor and sensory nerve conduction velocity, headache, and dizziness) as the most sensitive endpoint.

4.4.3 Carbonyl sulfide

Limited information is available on the health effects of carbonyl sulfide. Acute (short-term) inhalation of high concentrations of carbonyl sulfide may cause narcotic effects and irritate

[34] All health effects language for this section came from: U.S. EPA. 2005. "Full IRIS Summary for Toluene (CASRN 108-88-3)" Environmental Protection Agency, Integrated Risk Information System (IRIS), Office of Health and Environmental Assessment, Environmental Criteria and Assessment Office, Cincinnati, OH. Available on the Internet at <http://www.epa.gov/iris/subst/0118.htm>.

the eyes and skin in humans.[35] No information is available on the chronic (long-term), reproductive, developmental, or carcinogenic effects of carbonyl sulfide in humans. Carbonyl sulfide has not undergone a complete evaluation and determination under U.S. EPA's IRIS program for evidence of human carcinogenic potential.[36]

4.4.4 Ethylbenzene

Ethylbenzene is a major industrial chemical produced by alkylation of benzene. The pure chemical is used almost exclusively for styrene production. It is also a constituent of crude petroleum and is found in gasoline and diesel fuels. Acute (short-term) exposure to ethylbenzene in humans results in respiratory effects such as throat irritation and chest constriction, and irritation of the eyes, and neurological effects such as dizziness. Chronic (long-term) exposure of humans to ethylbenzene may cause eye and lung irritation, with possible adverse effects on the blood. Animal studies have reported effects on the blood, liver, and kidneys and endocrine system from chronic inhalation exposure to ethylbenzene. No information is available on the developmental or reproductive effects of ethylbenzene in humans, but animal studies have reported developmental effects, including birth defects in animals exposed via inhalation. Studies in rodents reported increases in the percentage of animals with tumors of the nasal and oral cavities in male and female rats exposed to ethylbenzene via the oral route.[37,38] The reports of these studies lacked detailed information on the incidence of specific tumors, statistical analysis, survival data, and information on historical controls, thus the results of these studies were considered inconclusive by the International Agency for Research on Cancer (IARC, 2000) and the National Toxicology Program (NTP).[39,40] The NTP (1999) carried out a chronic inhalation

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[35] Hazardous Substances Data Bank (HSDB), online database). US National Library of Medicine, Toxicology Data Network, available online at http://toxnet.nlm.nih.gov/. Carbonyl health effects summary available at http://toxnet.nlm.nih.gov/cgi-bin/sis/search/r?dbs+hsdb:@term+@rn+@rel+463-58-1.

[36] U.S. Environmental Protection Agency (U.S. EPA). 2000. Integrated Risk Information System File for Carbonyl Sulfide. Research and Development, National Center for Environmental Assessment, Washington, DC. This material is available electronically at http://www.epa.gov/iris/subst/0617.htm.

[37] Maltoni C, Conti B, Giuliano C and Belpoggi F, 1985. Experimental studies on benzene carcinogenicity at the Bologna Institute of Oncology: Current results and ongoing research. Am J Ind Med 7:415-446.

[38] Maltoni C, Ciliberti A, Pinto C, Soffritti M, Belpoggi F and Menarini L, 1997. Results of long-term experimental carcinogenicity studies of the effects of gasoline, correlated fuels, and major gasoline aromatics on rats. Annals NY Acad Sci 837:15-52.

[39] International Agency for Research on Cancer (IARC), 2000. Monographs on the Evaluation of Carcinogenic Risks to Humans. Some Industrial Chemicals. Vol. 77, p. 227-266. IARC, Lyon, France.

bioassay in mice and rats and found clear evidence of carcinogenic activity in male rats and some evidence in female rats, based on increased incidences of renal tubule adenoma or carcinoma in male rats and renal tubule adenoma in females. NTP (1999) also noted increases in the incidence of testicular adenoma in male rats. Increased incidences of lung alveolar/bronchiolar adenoma or carcinoma were observed in male mice and liver hepatocellular adenoma or carcinoma in female mice, which provided some evidence of carcinogenic activity in male and female mice (NTP, 1999). IARC (2000) classified ethylbenzene as Group 2B, possibly carcinogenic to humans, based on the NTP studies.

4.4.5 Mixed xylenes

Short-term inhalation of mixed xylenes (a mixture of three closely-related compounds) in humans may cause irritation of the nose and throat, nausea, vomiting, gastric irritation, mild transient eye irritation, and neurological effects.[41] Other reported effects include labored breathing, heart palpitation, impaired function of the lungs, and possible effects in the liver and kidneys.[42] Long-term inhalation exposure to xylenes in humans has been associated with a number of effects in the nervous system including headaches, dizziness, fatigue, tremors, and impaired motor coordination.[43] EPA has classified mixed xylenes in Category D, not classifiable with respect to human carcinogenicity.

4.4.6 n-Hexane

The studies available in both humans and animals indicate that the nervous system is the primary target of toxicity upon exposure of n-hexane via inhalation. There are no data in humans and very limited information in animals about the potential effects of n-hexane via the oral route. Acute (short-term) inhalation exposure of humans to high levels of hexane causes mild central

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[40] National Toxicology Program (NTP), 1999. Toxicology and Carcinogenesis Studies of Ethylbenzene (CAS No. 100-41-4) in F344/N Rats and in B6C3F1 Mice (Inhalation Studies). Technical Report Series No. 466. NIH Publication No. 99-3956. U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, Public Health Service, National Institutes of Health. NTP, Research Triangle Park, NC.

[41] U.S. Environmental Protection Agency (U.S. EPA). 2003. Integrated Risk Information System File for Mixed Xylenes. Research and Development, National Center for Environmental Assessment, Washington, DC. This material is available electronically at http://www.epa.gov/iris/subst/0270.htm.

[42] Agency for Toxic Substances and Disease Registry (ATSDR), 2007. The Toxicological Profile for xylene is available electronically at http://www.atsdr.cdc.gov/ToxProfiles/TP.asp?id=296&tid=53.

[43] Agency for Toxic Substances and Disease Registry (ATSDR), 2007. The Toxicological Profile for xylene is available electronically at http://www.atsdr.cdc.gov/ToxProfiles/TP.asp?id=296&tid=53.

nervous system effects, including dizziness, giddiness, slight nausea, and headache. Chronic (long-term) exposure to hexane in air causes numbness in the extremities, muscular weakness, blurred vision, headache, and fatigue. Inhalation studies in rodents have reported behavioral effects, neurophysiological changes and neuropathological effects upon inhalation exposure to n-hexane. Under the Guidelines for Carcinogen Risk Assessment (U.S. EPA, 2005), the database for n-hexane is considered inadequate to assess human carcinogenic potential, therefore the EPA has classified hexane in Group D, not classifiable as to human carcinogenicity.[44]

4.4.7 Other Air Toxics

In addition to the compounds described above, other toxic compounds might be affected by these rules, including hydrogen sulfide (H_2S). Information regarding the health effects of those compounds can be found in EPA's IRIS database.[45]

4.5 VOCs

4.5.1 VOCs as a PM2.5 precursor

This rulemaking would reduce emissions of VOCs, which are a precursor to $PM_{2.5.}$ Most VOCs emitted are oxidized to carbon dioxide (CO_2) rather than to PM, but a portion of VOC emission contributes to ambient $PM_{2.5}$ levels as organic carbon aerosols (U.S. EPA, 2009a). Therefore, reducing these emissions would reduce $PM_{2.5}$ formation, human exposure to $PM_{2.5}$, and the incidence of $PM_{2.5}$-related health effects. However, we have not quantified the $PM_{2.5}$-related benefits in this analysis. Analysis of organic carbon measurements suggest only a fraction of secondarily formed organic carbon aerosols are of anthropogenic origin. The current state of the science of secondary organic carbon aerosol formation indicates that anthropogenic VOC contribution to secondary organic carbon aerosol is often lower than the biogenic (natural) contribution. Given that a fraction of secondarily formed organic carbon aerosols is from anthropogenic VOC emissions and the extremely small amount of VOC emissions from this sector relative to the entire VOC inventory it is unlikely this sector has a large contribution to

[44] U.S. EPA. 2005. Guidelines for Carcinogen Risk Assessment. EPA/630/P-03/001B. Risk Assessment Forum, Washington, DC. March. Available on the Internet at <http://www.epa.gov/ttn/atw/cancer_guidelines_final_3-25-05.pdf>.

[45] U.S. EPA Integrated Risk Information System (IRIS) database is available at: www.epa.gov/iris

ambient secondary organic carbon aerosols. Photochemical models typically estimate secondary organic carbon from anthropogenic VOC emissions to be less than 0.1 $\mu g/m^3$.

Due to time limitations under the court-ordered schedule, we were unable to perform air quality modeling for this rule. Due to the high degree of variability in the responsiveness of $PM_{2.5}$ formation to VOC emission reductions, we are unable to estimate the effect that reducing VOCs will have on ambient $PM_{2.5}$ levels without air quality modeling.

4.5.2 $PM_{2.5}$ health effects and valuation

Reducing VOC emissions would reduce $PM_{2.5}$ formation, human exposure, and the incidence of $PM_{2.5}$-related health effects. Reducing exposure to $PM_{2.5}$ is associated with significant human health benefits, including avoiding mortality and respiratory morbidity. Researchers have associated $PM_{2.5}$- exposure with adverse health effects in numerous toxicological, clinical and epidemiological studies (U.S. EPA, 2009a). When adequate data and resources are available, EPA generally quantifies several health effects associated with exposure to $PM_{2.5}$ (e.g., U.S. EPA (2010c)). These health effects include premature mortality for adults and infants, cardiovascular morbidity such as heart attacks, hospital admissions, and respiratory morbidity such as asthma attacks, acute and chronic bronchitis, hospital and ER visits, work loss days, restricted activity days, and respiratory symptoms. Although EPA has not quantified these effects in previous benefits analyses, the scientific literature suggests that exposure to $PM_{2.5}$ is also associated with adverse effects on birth weight, pre-term births, pulmonary function, other cardiovascular effects, and other respiratory effects (U.S. EPA, 2009a).

EPA assumes that all fine particles, regardless of their chemical composition, are equally potent in causing premature mortality because the scientific evidence is not yet sufficient to allow differentiation of effect estimates by particle type (U.S. EPA, 2009a). Based on our review of the current body of scientific literature, EPA estimates PM-related mortality without applying an assumed concentration threshold. This decision is supported by the data, which are quite consistent in showing effects down to the lowest measured levels of $PM_{2.5}$ in the underlying epidemiology studies.

Previous studies have estimated the monetized benefits-per-ton of reducing VOC emissions associated with effect that those emissions have on ambient $PM_{2.5}$ levels and the health effects associated with $PM_{2.5}$ exposure (Fann, Fulcher, and Hubbell, 2009). Using the estimates in Fann, Fulcher, and Hubbell (2009), the monetized benefit-per-ton of reducing VOC emissions in nine urban areas of the U.S. ranges from $560 in Seattle, WA to $5,700 in San Joaquin, CA, with a national average of $2,400. These estimates assume a 50 percent reduction in VOCs, the Laden et al. (2006) mortality function (based on the Harvard Six City Study, a large cohort epidemiology study in the Eastern U.S.), an analysis year of 2015, and a 3 percent discount rate.

Based on the methodology from Fann, Fulcher, and Hubbell (2009), we converted their estimates to 2008$ and applied EPA's current VSL estimate.[46] After these adjustments, the range of values increases to $680 to $7,000 per ton of VOC reduced for Laden et al. (2006). Using alternate assumptions regarding the relationship between $PM_{2.5}$ exposure and premature mortality from empirical studies and supplied by experts (Pope et al., 2002; Laden et al., 2006; Roman et al., 2008), additional benefit-per-ton estimates are available from this dataset, as shown in Table 4-6. EPA generally presents a range of benefits estimates derived from Pope et al. (2002) to Laden et al. (2006) because they are both well-designed and peer reviewed studies, and EPA provides the benefit estimates derived from expert opinions in Roman et al. (2008) as a characterization of uncertainty. In addition to the range of benefits based on epidemiology studies, this study also provided a range of benefits associated with reducing emissions in eight specific urban areas. The range of VOC benefits that reflects the adjustments as well as the range of epidemiology studies and the range of the urban areas is $280 to $7,000 per ton of VOC reduced.

While these ranges of benefit-per-ton estimates provide useful context for the break-even analysis, the geographic distribution of VOC emissions from the oil and gas sector are not consistent with emissions modeled in Fann, Fulcher, and Hubbell (2009). In addition, the benefit-per-ton estimates for VOC emission reductions in that study are derived from total VOC emissions across all sectors. Coupled with the larger uncertainties about the relationship

[46] For more information regarding EPA's current VSL estimate, please see Section 5.4.4.1 of the RIA for the proposed Federal Transport Rule (U.S. EPA, 2010a). EPA continues to work to update its guidance on valuing mortality risk reductions.

between VOC emissions and $PM_{2.5}$, these factors lead us to conclude that the available VOC benefit per ton estimates are not appropriate to calculate monetized benefits of these rules, even as a bounding exercise.

Table 4-6 Monetized Benefits-per-Ton Estimates for VOCs (2008$)

Area	Pope et al.	Laden et al.	Expert A	Expert B	Expert C	Expert D	Expert E	Expert F	Expert G	Expert H	Expert I	Expert J	Expert K	Expert L
Atlanta	$620	$1,500	$1,600	$1,200	$1,200	$860	$2,000	$1,100	$730	$920	$1,200	$980	$250	$940
Chicago	$1,500	$3,800	$4,000	$3,100	$3,000	$2,200	$4,900	$2,800	$1,800	$2,300	$3,000	$2,500	$600	$2,400
Dallas	$300	$740	$780	$610	$590	$420	$960	$540	$360	$450	$590	$480	$120	$460
Denver	$720	$1,800	$1,800	$1,400	$1,400	$1,000	$2,300	$1,300	$850	$1,100	$1,400	$1,100	$280	$850
NYC/ Philadelphia	$2,100	$5,200	$5,500	$4,300	$4,200	$3,000	$6,900	$3,900	$2,500	$3,200	$4,200	$3,400	$830	$3,100
Phoenix	$1,000	$2,500	$2,600	$2,000	$2,000	$1,400	$3,300	$1,800	$1,200	$1,500	$2,000	$1,600	$400	$1,500
Salt Lake	$1,300	$3,100	$3,300	$2,600	$2,500	$1,800	$4,100	$2,300	$1,500	$1,900	$2,500	$2,100	$530	$2,000
San Joaquin	$2,900	$7,000	$7,400	$5,800	$5,600	$4,000	$9,100	$5,200	$3,400	$4,300	$5,600	$4,600	$1,300	$4,400
Seattle	$280	$680	$720	$530	$550	$390	$890	$500	$330	$420	$550	$450	$110	$330
National average	**$1,200**	**$3,000**	**$3,200**	**$2,400**	**$2,400**	**$1,700**	**$3,900**	**$2,200**	**$1,400**	**$1,800**	**$2,400**	**$1,900**	**$490**	**$1,800**

* These estimates assume a 50 percent reduction in VOC emissions, an analysis year of 2015, and a 3 percent discount rate. All estimates are rounded to two significant digits. These estimates have been updated from Fann, Fulcher, and Hubbell (2009) to reflect a more recent currency year and EPA's current VSL estimate. Using a discount rate of 7 percent, the benefit-per-ton estimates would be approximately 9 percent lower. Assuming a 75 percent reduction in VOC emissions would increase the benefit-per-ton estimates by approximately 4 percent to 52 percent. Assuming a 25 percent reduction in VOC emissions would decrease the benefit-per-ton estimates by 5 percent to 52 percent. EPA generally presents a range of benefits estimates derived from Pope et al. (2002) to Laden et al. (2006) and provides the benefits estimates derived from the expert functions from Roman et al. (2008) as a characterization of uncertainty.

4.5.3 Organic PM welfare effects

According to the residual risk assessment for this sector (U.S. EPA, 2011a), persistent and bioaccumulative HAP reported as emissions from oil and gas operations include polycyclic organic matter (POM). POM defines a broad class of compounds that includes the polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbon compounds (PAHs). Several significant ecological effects are associated with deposition of organic particles, including persistent organic pollutants, and PAHs (U.S. EPA, 2009a).

PAHs can accumulate in sediments and bioaccumulate in freshwater, flora, and fauna. The uptake of organics depends on the plant species, site of deposition, physical and chemical properties of the organic compound and prevailing environmental conditions (U.S. EPA, 2009a). PAHs can accumulate to high enough concentrations in some coastal environments to pose an environmental health threat that includes cancer in fish populations, toxicity to organisms living in the sediment and risks to those (e.g., migratory birds) that consume these organisms. Atmospheric deposition of particles is thought to be the major source of PAHs to the sediments of coastal areas of the U.S. Deposition of PM to surfaces in urban settings increases the metal and organic component of storm water runoff. This atmospherically-associated pollutant burden can then be toxic to aquatic biota. The contribution of atmospherically deposited PAHs to aquatic food webs was demonstrated in high elevation mountain lakes with no other anthropogenic contaminant sources.

The recently completed Western Airborne Contaminants Assessment Project (WACAP) is the most comprehensive database on contaminant transport and PM depositional effects on sensitive ecosystems in the Western U.S. (Landers et al., 2008). In this project, the transport, fate, and ecological impacts of anthropogenic contaminants from atmospheric sources were assessed from 2002 to 2007 in seven ecosystem components (air, snow, water, sediment, lichen, conifer needles, and fish) in eight core national parks. The study concluded that bioaccumulation of semi-volatile organic compounds occurred throughout park ecosystems, an elevational gradient in PM deposition exists with greater accumulation in higher altitude areas, and contaminants accumulate in proximity to individual agriculture and industry sources, which is counter to the original working hypothesis that most of the contaminants would originate from Eastern Europe and Asia.

4.5.4 Visibility Effects

Reducing secondary formation of $PM_{2.5}$ would improve visibility throughout the U.S. Fine particles with significant light-extinction efficiencies include sulfates, nitrates, organic carbon, elemental carbon, and soil (Sisler, 1996). Suspended particles and gases degrade visibility by scattering and absorbing light. Higher visibility impairment levels in the East are due to generally higher concentrations of fine particles, particularly sulfates, and higher average relative humidity levels. Visibility has direct significance to people's enjoyment of daily activities and their overall sense of wellbeing. Good visibility increases the quality of life where individuals live and work, and where they engage in recreational activities. Previous analyses (U.S. EPA, 2006b; U.S. EPA, 2010c; U.S. EPA, 2011a) show that visibility benefits are a significant welfare benefit category. Without air quality modeling, we are unable to estimate visibility related benefits, nor are we able to determine whether VOC emission reductions would be likely to have a significant impact on visibility in urban areas or Class I areas.

4.6 VOCs as an Ozone Precursor

This rulemaking would reduce emissions of VOCs, which are also precursors to secondary formation of ozone. Ozone is not emitted directly into the air, but is created when its two primary components, volatile organic compounds (VOC) and oxides of nitrogen (NOx), combine in the presence of sunlight. In urban areas, compounds representing all classes of VOCs and CO are important compounds for ozone formation, but biogenic VOCs emitted from vegetation tend to be more important compounds in non-urban vegetated areas (U.S. EPA, 2006a). Therefore, reducing these emissions would reduce ozone formation, human exposure to ozone, and the incidence of ozone-related health effects. However, we have not quantified the ozone-related benefits in this analysis for several reasons. First, previous rules have shown that the monetized benefits associated with reducing ozone exposure are generally smaller than PM-related benefits, even when ozone is the pollutant targeted for control (U.S. EPA, 2010a). Second, the complex non-linear chemistry of ozone formation introduces uncertainty to the development and application of a benefit-per-ton estimate. Third, the impact of reducing VOC emissions is spatially heterogeneous depending on local air chemistry. Urban areas with a high population concentration are often VOC-limited, which means that ozone is most effectively reduced by lowering VOCs. Rural areas and downwind suburban areas are often NOx-limited, which means that ozone concentrations are most effectively reduced by lowering NOx emissions, rather than lowering emissions of VOCs. Between these areas, ozone is relatively insensitive to marginal changes in both NOx and VOC.

Due to time limitations under the court-ordered schedule, we were unable to perform air quality modeling for this rule. Due to the high degree of variability in the responsiveness of ozone formation to VOC emission reductions, we are unable to estimate the effect that reducing VOCs will have on ambient ozone concentrations without air quality modeling.

4.6.1 Ozone health effects and valuation

Reducing ambient ozone concentrations is associated with significant human health benefits, including mortality and respiratory morbidity (U.S. EPA, 2010a). Epidemiological researchers have associated ozone exposure with adverse health effects in numerous toxicological, clinical and epidemiological studies (U.S. EPA, 2006c). When adequate data and resources are available, EPA generally quantifies several health effects associated with exposure to ozone (e.g., U.S. EPA, 2010a; U.S. EPA, 2011a). These health effects include respiratory morbidity such as asthma attacks, hospital and emergency department visits, school loss days, as well as premature mortality. Although EPA has not quantified these effects in benefits analyses previously, the scientific literature is suggestive that exposure to ozone is also associated with chronic respiratory damage and premature aging of the lungs.

In a recent EPA analysis, EPA estimated that reducing 15,000 tons of VOCs from industrial boilers resulted in \$3.6 to \$15 million of monetized benefits from reduced ozone exposure (U.S. EPA, 2011b).[47] This implies a benefit-per-ton for ozone reductions of \$240 to \$1,000 per ton of VOCs reduced. While these ranges of benefit-per-ton estimates provide useful context, the geographic distribution of VOC emissions from the oil and gas sector are not consistent with emissions modeled in the boiler analysis. Therefore, we do not believe that those

[47] While EPA has estimated the ozone benefits for many scenarios, most of these scenarios also reduce NOx emissions, which make it difficult to isolate the benefits attributable to VOC reductions.

estimates to provide useful estimates of the monetized benefits of these rules, even as a bounding exercise.

4.6.2 Ozone vegetation effects

Exposure to ozone has been associated with a wide array of vegetation and ecosystem effects in the published literature (U.S. EPA, 2006a). Sensitivity to ozone is highly variable across species, with over 65 plan species identified as “ozone-sensitive”, many of which occur in state and national parks and forests. These effects include those that damage or impair the intended use of the plant or ecosystem. Such effects are considered adverse to the public welfare and can include reduced growth and/or biomass production in sensitive plant species, including forest trees, reduced crop yields, visible foliar injury, reduced plant vigor (e.g., increased susceptibility to harsh weather, disease, insect pest infestation, and competition), species composition shift, and changes in ecosystems and associated ecosystem services.

4.6.3 Ozone climate effects

Ozone is a well-known short-lived climate forcing (SLCF) greenhouse gas (GHG) (U.S. EPA, 2006a). Stratospheric ozone (the upper ozone layer) is beneficial because it protects life on Earth from the sun’s harmful ultraviolet (UV) radiation. In contrast, tropospheric ozone (ozone in the lower atmosphere) is a harmful air pollutant that adversely affects human health and the environment and contributes significantly to regional and global climate change. Due to its short atmospheric lifetime, tropospheric ozone concentrations exhibit large spatial and temporal variability (U.S. EPA, 2009b). A recent United Nations Environment Programme (UNEP) study reports that the threefold increase in ground level ozone during the past 100 years makes it the third most important contributor to human contributed climate change behind CO_2 and methane. This discernable influence of ground level ozone on climate leads to increases in global surface temperature and changes in hydrological cycles. This study provides the most comprehensive analysis to date of the benefits of measures to reduce SLCF gases including methane, ozone, and black carbon assessing the health, climate, and agricultural benefits of a suite of mitigation technologies. The report concludes that the climate is changing now, and these changes have the potential to “trigger abrupt transitions such as the release of carbon from thawing permafrost and biodiversity loss” (UNEP 2011). While reducing long-lived GHGs such as CO_2 is necessary to protect against long-term climate change, reducing SLCF gases including ozone is beneficial and will slow the rate of climate change within the first half of this century (UNEP 2011).

4.7 Methane (CH_4)

4.7.1 Methane as an ozone precursor

This rulemaking would reduce emissions of methane, a long-lived GHG and also a precursor to ozone. In remote areas, methane is a dominant precursor to tropospheric ozone formation (U.S. EPA, 2006a). Unlike NOx and VOCs, which affect ozone concentrations regionally and at hourly time scales, methane emission reductions require several decades for the ozone response to be fully realized, given methane's relatively long atmospheric lifetime (HTAP, 2010). Studies have shown that reducing methane can reduce global background ozone concentrations over several decades, which would benefit both urban and rural areas (West et al., 2006). Therefore, reducing these emissions would reduce ozone formation, human exposure to ozone, and the incidence of ozone-related health effects. The health, welfare, and climate effects associated with ozone are described in the preceding sections. Without air quality modeling, we are unable to estimate the effect that reducing methane will have on ozone concentrations at particular locations.

4.7.2 Methane climate effects and valuation

Methane is the principal component of natural gas. Methane is also a potent greenhouse gas (GHG) that once emitted into the atmosphere absorbs terrestrial infrared radiation which contributes to increased global warming and continuing climate change. Methane reacts in the atmosphere to form ozone and ozone also impacts global temperatures. According to the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC) Fourth Assessment Report (2007), in 2004 the cumulative changes in methane concentrations since preindustrial times contributed about 14 percent to global warming due to anthropogenic GHG sources, making methane the second leading long-lived climate forcer after CO_2 globally. Methane, in addition to other GHG emissions, contributes to warming of the atmosphere which over time leads to increased air and ocean temperatures, changes in precipitation patterns, melting and thawing of global glaciers and ice, increasingly severe weather events, such as hurricanes of greater intensity, and sea level rise, among other impacts.

Processes in the oil and gas category emit significant amounts of methane. The Inventory of U.S. Greenhouse Gas Emissions and Sinks: 1990-2009 (published April 2011) estimates 2009 methane emissions from Petroleum and Natural Gas Systems (not including petroleum refineries and petroleum transportation) to be 251.55 ($MMtCO_2$-e). In 2009, total methane emissions from the oil and gas industry represented nearly 40 percent of the total methane emissions from all sources and account for about 5 percent of all CO_2-equivalent (CO_2-e) emissions in the U.S., with natural gas systems being the single largest contributor to U.S. anthropogenic methane emissions (U.S. EPA, 2011b, Table ES-2). It is important to note that the 2009 emissions estimates from well completions and recompletions exclude a significant number of wells completed in tight sand plays and the Marcellus Shale, due to availability of data when the 2009 Inventory was developed. The estimate in this proposal includes an adjustment for tight sand plays and the Marcellus Shale, and such an adjustment is also being considered as a planned improvement in next year's Inventory. This adjustment would increase the 2009 Inventory estimate by about 80 $MMtCO_2$-e. The total methane emissions from Petroleum and Natural Gas Systems based on the 2009 Inventory, adjusted for tight sand plays and the Marcellus Shale, is approximately 330 $MMtCO_2$-e.

This rulemaking proposes emission control technologies and regulatory alternatives that will significantly decrease methane emissions from the oil and natural gas sector in the United States. The regulatory alternative proposed for this rule is expected to reduce methane emissions annually by about 3.4 million short tons or approximately 65 million metric tons CO_2-e. These reductions represent about 26 percent of the GHG emissions for this sector reported in the 1990-2009 U.S. GHG Inventory (251.55 $MMTCO_2$-e). This annual CO_2-e reduction becomes about 62 million metric tons when the secondary impacts associated with increased combustion and supplemental energy use on the producer side and CO_2-e emissions from changes in consumption patterns previously discussed are considered. However, it is important to note the emissions reductions are based upon predicted activities in 2015; EPA did not forecast sector-level emissions to 2015 for this rulemaking. The climate co-benefit from these reductions are equivalent of taking approximately 11 million typical passenger cars off the road or eliminating electricity use from about 7 million typical homes each year.[48]

EPA estimates the social benefits of regulatory actions that have a small or "marginal" impact on cumulative global CO_2 emissions using the "social cost of carbon" (SCC). The SCC is an estimate of the net present value of the flow of monetized damages from a one metric ton increase in CO_2 emissions in a given year (or from the alternative perspective, the benefit to society of reducing CO_2 emissions by one ton). The SCC includes (but is not limited to) climate damages due to changes in net agricultural productivity, human health, property damages from flood risk, and ecosystem services due to climate change. The SCC estimates currently used by the Agency were developed through an interagency process that included EPA and other executive branch entities, and concluded in February 2010. The Technical Support Document: Social Cost of Carbon for Regulatory Impact Analysis Under Executive Order 12866 for the final joint EPA/Department of Transportation Rulemaking to establish Light-Duty Vehicle Greenhouse Gas Emission Standards and Corporate Average Fuel Economy Standards provides a complete discussion of the methods used to develop the SCC estimates (Interagency Working Group on Social Cost of Carbon, 2010).

To estimate global social benefits of reduced CO_2 emissions, the interagency group selected four SCC values for use in regulatory analyses: $6, $25, $40, and $76 per metric ton of CO_2 emissions in 2015, in 2008 dollars. The first three values are based on the average SCC estimated using three integrated assessment models (IAMs), at discount rates of 5.0, 3.0, and 2.5 percent, respectively. When valuing the impacts of climate change, IAMs couple economic and climate systems into a single model to capture important interactions between the components. SCCs estimated using different discount rates are included because the literature shows that the SCC is quite sensitive to assumptions about the discount rate, and because no consensus exists on the appropriate rate to use in an intergenerational context. The fourth value is the 95th percentile of the distribution of SCC estimates from all three models at a 3.0 percent discount rate. It is included to represent higher-than-expected damages from temperature change further out in the tails of the SCC distribution.

[48] US Environmental Protection Agency. Greenhouse Gas Equivalency Calculator available at: http://www.epa.gov/cleanenergy/energy-resources/calculator.html accessed 07/19/11.

Although there are relatively few region- or country-specific estimates of SCC in the literature, the results from one model suggest the ratio of domestic to global benefits of emission reductions varies with key parameter assumptions. For example, with a 2.5 or 3 percent discount rate, the U.S. benefit is about 7-10 percent of the global benefit, on average, across the scenarios analyzed. Alternatively, if the fraction of GDP lost due to climate change is assumed to be similar across countries, the domestic benefit would be proportional to the U.S. share of global GDP, which is currently about 23 percent. On the basis of this evidence, values from 7 to 23 percent should be used to adjust the global SCC to calculate domestic effects. It is recognized that these values are approximate, provisional, and highly speculative. There is no a priori reason why domestic benefits should be a constant fraction of net global damages over time. (Interagency Working Group on Social Cost of Carbon, 2010).

The interagency group noted a number of limitations to the SCC analysis, including the incomplete way in which the integrated assessment models capture catastrophic and non-catastrophic impacts, their incomplete treatment of adaptation and technological change, uncertainty in the extrapolation of damages to high temperatures, and assumptions regarding risk aversion. The limited amount of research linking climate impacts to economic damages makes estimating damages from climate change even more difficult. The interagency group hopes that over time researchers and modelers will work to fill these gaps and that the SCC estimates used for regulatory analysis by the Federal government will continue to evolve with improvements in modeling. Additional details on these limitations are discussed in the SCC TSD.

A significant limitation of the aforementioned interagency process particularly relevant to this rulemaking is that the social costs of non-CO_2 GHG emissions were not estimated. Specifically, the interagency group did not directly estimate the social cost of non-CO_2 GHGs using the three models. Moreover, the group determined that it would not transform the CO_2 estimates into estimates for non-CO_2 GHGs using global warming potentials (GWPs), which measure the ability of different gases to trap heat in the atmosphere (i.e., radiative forcing per unit of mass) over a particular timeframe relative to CO_2. One potential method for approximating the value of marginal non-CO_2 GHG emission reductions is to convert the reductions to CO_2-equivalents which may then be valued using the SCC. Conversion to CO_2-e is typically done using the GWPs for the non-CO_2 gas. The GWP is an aggregate measure that approximates the additional energy trapped in the atmosphere over a given timeframe from a perturbation of a non-CO_2 gas relative to CO_2. The time horizon most commonly used is 100 years. One potential problem with utilizing temporally aggregated statistics, such as the GWPs, is that the additional radiative forcing from the GHG perturbation is not constant over time and any differences in temporal dynamics between gases will be lost. This is a potentially confounding issue given that the social cost of GHGs is based on a discounted stream of damages that are non-linear in temperature. For example, methane has an expected adjusted atmospheric lifetime of about 12 years and associated GWP of 21 (IPCC Second Assessment Report (SAR) 100-year GWP estimate). Gases with a shorter lifetime, such as methane, have impacts that occur primarily in the near term and thus are not discounted as heavily as those caused by the longer-lived gases, while the GWP treats additional forcing the same independent of when it occurs in time. Furthermore, the baseline temperature change is lower in the near term and therefore the additional warming from relatively short lived gases will have a lower marginal impact relative to longer lived gases that have an impact further out in the future when baseline warming is higher. The GWP also relies on an arbitrary time horizon and constant concentration scenario. Both of which are inconsistent with the assumptions used by the SCC interagency workgroup. Finally, impacts other than temperature change also vary across gases in ways that are not captured by GWP. For instance, CO_2 emissions, unlike methane will result in CO_2 passive fertilization to plants.

In light of these limitations, and the significant contributions of non-CO_2 emissions to climate change, further analysis is required to link non-CO_2 emissions to economic impacts and to develop social cost estimates for methane specifically. Such work would feed into efforts to develop a monetized value of reductions in methane greenhouse gas emissions in assessing the co-benefits of this rulemaking. As part of ongoing work to further improve the SCC estimates, the interagency group hopes to develop methods to value greenhouse gases other than CO_2, such as methane, by the time SCC estimates for CO_2 emissions are revised.

The EPA recognizes that the methane reductions proposed in this rule will provide significant economic climate co-benefits to society. However, EPA finds itself in the position of having no interagency accepted monetary values to place on these co-benefits. The 'GWP approach' of converting methane to CO_2-e using the GWP of methane, as previously described, is one approximation method for estimating the monetized value of the methane reductions anticipated from this rule. This calculation uses the GWP of the non-CO_2 gas to estimate CO_2 equivalents and then multiplies these CO_2 equivalent emission reductions by the SCC to generate monetized estimates of the co-benefits. If one makes these calculations for the proposed Option 2 (including expected methane emission reductions from the NESHAP amendments and NSPS and considers secondary impacts) of the oil and gas rule, the 2015 co-benefits vary by discount rate and range from about $373 million to over $4.7 billion; the SCC at the 3 percent discount rate ($25 per metric ton) results in an estimate of $1.6 billion in 2015. These co-benefits equate to a range of approximately $110 to $1,400 per short ton of methane reduced depending upon the discount rate assumed with a per ton estimate of $480 at the 3 percent discount rate

As previously stated, these co-benefit estimates are not the same as would be derived using a directly computed social cost of methane (using the integrated assessment models employed to develop the SCC estimates) for a variety of reasons including the shorter atmospheric lifetime of methane relative to CO_2 (about 12 years compared to CO_2 whose concentrations in the atmosphere decay on timescales of decades to millennia). The climate impacts also differ between the pollutants for reasons other than the radiative forcing profiles and atmospheric lifetimes of these gases. Methane is a precursor to ozone and ozone is a short-lived climate forcer as previously discussed. This use of the SAR GWP to approximate benefits may underestimate the direct radiative forcing benefits of reduced ozone levels, and does not capture any secondary climate co-benefits involved with ozone-ecosystem interactions. In addition, a recent NCEE working paper suggests that this quick 'GWP approach' to benefits estimation will likely understate the climate benefits of methane reductions in most cases (Marten and Newbold, 2011). This conclusion is reached using the 100 year GWP for methane of 25 as put forth in the IPCC Fourth Assessment Report as opposed to the lower value of 21 used in this analysis. Using the higher GWP estimate of 25 would increase these reported methane climate co-benefit estimates by about 19 percent. Although the IPCC Fourth Assessment Report suggested a GWP of 25, EPA has used GWP of 21 consistent with the IPCC SAR to estimate the methane climate co-benefits for this oil and gas proposal. The use of the SAR GWP values allows comparability of data collected in this proposed rule to the national GHG inventory that EPA compiles annually to meet U.S. commitments to the United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change (UNFCCC). To comply with international reporting standards under the UNFCCC, official emission estimates are to be reported by the U.S. and other countries using SAR GWP values. The UNFCCC reporting guidelines for national inventories were updated in 2002 but continue to require the use of GWPs from the SAR. The parties to the UNFCCC have also agreed to use GWPs based upon a 100-year time horizon although other time horizon values are available. The SAR GWP value for methane is also currently used to establish GHG reporting requirements as mandated by the GHG Reporting Rule (2010e) and is used by the EPA to determine Title V and Prevention of Significant Deterioration GHG permitting requirements as modified by the GHG Tailoring Rule (2010f).

EPA also undertook a literature search for estimates of the marginal social cost of methane. A range of marginal social cost of methane benefit estimates are available in published literature (Fankhauser (1994), Kandlikar (1995), Hammitt et al. (1996), Tol et al. (2003), Tol, et al. (2006), Hope (2005) and Hope and Newberry (2006). Most of these estimates are based upon modeling assumptions that are dated and inconsistent with the current SCC estimates. Some of these studies focused on marginal methane reductions in the 1990s and early 2000s and report estimates for only the single year of interest specific to the study. The assumptions underlying the social cost of methane estimates available in the literature differ from those agreed upon by the SCC interagency group and in many cases use older versions of the IAMs. Without additional analysis, the methane climate benefit estimates available in the current literature are not acceptable to use to value the methane reductions proposed in this rulemaking.

Due to the uncertainties involved with ‘GWP approach’ estimates presented and estimates available in the literature, EPA chooses not to compare these co-benefit estimates to the costs of the rule for this proposal. Rather, the EPA presents the ‘GWP approach’ climate co-benefit estimates as an interim method to produce lower-bound estimates until the interagency group develops values for non-CO_2 GHGs. EPA requests comments from interested parties and the public about this interim approach specifically and more broadly about appropriate methods to monetize the climate co-benefits of methane reductions. In particular, EPA seeks public comments to this proposed rulemaking regarding social cost of methane estimates that may be used to value the co-benefits of methane emission reductions anticipated for the oil and gas industry from this rule. Comments specific to whether GWP is an acceptable method for generating a placeholder value for the social cost of methane until interagency modeled estimates become available are welcome. Public comments may be provided in the official docket for this proposed rulemaking in accordance with the process outlined in the preamble for the rule. These comments will be considered in developing the final rule for this rulemaking.

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5 STATUTORY AND EXECUTIVE ORDER REVIEWS

5.1 Executive Order 12866, Regulatory Planning and Review and Executive Order 13563, Improving Regulation and Regulatory Review

Under Executive Order 12866 (58 FR 51735, October 4, 1993), this action is an "economically significant regulatory action" because it is likely to have an annual effect on the economy of $100 million or more. Accordingly, the EPA submitted this action to OMB for review under Executive Orders 12866 and 13563 (76 FR 3821, January 21, 2011) and any changes made in response to OMB recommendations have been documented in the docket for this action.

In addition, the EPA prepared a RIA of the potential costs and benefits associated with this action. The RIA available in the docket describes in detail the empirical basis for the EPA's assumptions and characterizes the various sources of uncertainties affecting the estimates below. Table 5-1 shows the results of the cost and benefits analysis for these proposed rules.

Table 5-1 Summary of the Monetized Benefits, Costs, and Net Benefits for the Proposed Oil and Natural Gas NSPS and NESHAP Amendments in 2015 (millions of 2008$)[1]

	Proposed NSPS	Proposed NESHAP Amendments	Proposed NSPS and NESHAP Amendments Combined
Total Monetized Benefits[2]	N/A	N/A	N/A
Total Costs[3]	-$45 million	$16 million	-$29 million
Net Benefits	N/A	N/A	N/A
Non-monetized Benefits	37,000 tons of HAPs	1,400 tons of HAPs	38,000 tons of HAPs
	540,000 tons of VOCs	9,200 tons of VOCs	540,000 tons of VOCs
	3.4 million tons of methane	4,900 tons of methane	3.4 million tons of methane
	Health effects of HAP exposure[5]	Health effects of HAP exposure[5]	Health effects of HAP exposure[5]
	Health effects of $PM_{2.5}$ and ozone exposure	Health effects of $PM_{2.5}$ and ozone exposure	Health effects of $PM_{2.5}$ and ozone exposure
	Visibility impairment	Visibility impairment	Visibility impairment
	Vegetation effects	Vegetation effects	Vegetation effects
	Climate effects[5]	Climate effects[5]	Climate effects[5]

[1] All estimates are for the implementation year (2015) and include estimated revenue from additional natural gas recovery as a result of the NSPS.

[2] While we expect that these avoided emissions will result in improvements in air quality and reductions in health effects associated with HAPs, ozone, and particulate matter (PM) as well as climate effects associated with methane, we have determined that quantification of those benefits and co-benefits cannot be accomplished for this rule in a defensible way. This is not to imply that there are no benefits or co-benefits of the rules; rather, it is a reflection of the difficulties in modeling the direct and indirect impacts of the reductions in emissions for this industrial sector with the data currently available. The specific control technologies for the proposed NSPS are anticipated to have minor secondary disbenefits, including an increase of 990,000 tons of CO_2, 510 tons of NOx, 7.6 tons of PM, 2,800 tons of CO, and 1,000 tons of total hydrocarbons (THC) as well as emission reductions associated with the energy system impacts. The net CO_2-equivalent emission reductions are 62 million metric tons.

[3] The engineering compliance costs are annualized using a 7 percent discount rate.

[4] The negative cost for the NSPS Options 1 and 2 reflects the inclusion of revenues from additional natural gas and hydrocarbon condensate recovery that are estimated as a result of the proposed NSPS. Possible explanations for why there appear to be negative cost control technologies are discussed in the engineering costs analysis section in the RIA.

[5] Reduced exposure to HAPs and climate effects are co-benefits.

5.2 Paperwork Reduction Act

The information collection requirements in this proposed action have been submitted for approval to OMB under the PRA, 44 U.S.C. 3501, et seq. The ICR document prepared by the EPA has been assigned EPA ICR Numbers 1716.07 (40 CFR part 60, subpart OOOO), 1788.10 (40 CFR part 63, subpart HH), 1789.07 (40 CFR part 63, subpart HHH), and 1086.10 (40 CFR part 60, subparts KKK and subpart LLL).

The information to be collected for the proposed NSPS and the proposed NESHAP amendments are based on notification, recordkeeping, and reporting requirements in the NESHAP General Provisions (40 CFR part 63, subpart A), which are mandatory for all operators subject to national emission standards. These recordkeeping and reporting requirements are specifically authorized by section 114 of the CAA (42 U.S.C. 7414). All information submitted to the EPA pursuant to the recordkeeping and reporting requirements for which a claim of confidentiality is made is safeguarded according to Agency policies set forth in 40 CFR part 2, subpart B.

These proposed rules would require maintenance inspections of the control devices, but would not require any notifications or reports beyond those required by the General Provisions. The recordkeeping requirements require only the specific information needed to determine compliance.

For sources subject to the proposed NSPS, the burden represents labor hours and costs associated from annual reporting and recordkeeping for each affected facility. The estimated burden is based on the annual expected number of affected operators for the first three years following the effective date of the standards. The burden is estimated to be 560,000 labor hours at a cost of around$18 million per year. This includes the labor and cost estimates previously estimated for sources subject to 40 CFR part 60, subpart KKK and subpart LLL (which is being incorporated into 40 CFR part 60, subpart OOOO). The average hours and cost per regulated entity, which is assumed to be on a per operator basis except for natural gas processing plants (which are estimated on a per facility basis) subject to the NSPS for oil and natural gas production and natural gas transmissions and distribution facilities would be 110 hours per response and $3,693 per response based on an average of 1,459 operators responding per year and 16 responses per year. The majority of responses are expected to be notifications of construction. One annual report is required that may include all affected facilities owned per each operator. Burden by for the proposed NSPS was based on EPA ICR Number 1716.07.

The estimated recordkeeping and reporting burden after the effective date of the proposed amendments is estimated for all affected major and area sources subject to the oil and natural gas production NESHAP (40 CFR 63, subpart HH) to be approximately 63,000 labor hours per year at a cost of $2.1 million per year. For the natural gas transmission and storage NESHAP, the recordkeeping and reporting burden is estimated to be 2,500 labor hours per year at a cost of $86,800 per year. This estimate includes the cost of reporting, including reading instructions, and information gathering. Recordkeeping cost estimates include reading instructions, planning activities, and conducting compliance monitoring. The average hours and cost per regulated entity subject to the oil and natural gas production NESHAP would be 72 hours per year and $2,500 per year based on an average of 846 facilities per year and three responses per facility. For the natural gas transmission and storage NESHAP, the average hours and cost per regulated entity would be 50 hours per year and $1,600 per year based on an average of 53 facilities per year and three responses per facility. Burden is defined at 5 CFR 1320.3(b). Burden for the oil and natural gas production NESHAP is estimated under EPA ICR Number 1788.10. Burden for the natural gas transmission and storage NESHAP is estimated under EPA ICR Number 1789.07.

5.3 Regulatory Flexibility Act

The Regulatory Flexibility Act as amended by the Small Business Regulatory Enforcement Fairness Act (SBREFA) generally requires an agency to prepare a regulatory flexibility analysis of any rule subject to notice and comment rulemaking requirements under the Administrative Procedure Act or any other statute, unless the agency certifies that the rule will not have a significant economic impact on a substantial number of small entities. Small entities include small businesses, small governmental jurisdictions, and small not-for-profit enterprises. For purposes of assessing the impact of this rule on small entities, a small entity is defined as: (1) a small business whose parent company has no more than 500 employees (or revenues of less than $7 million for firms that transport natural gas via pipeline); (2) a small governmental jurisdiction that is a government of a city, county, town, school district, or special district with a population of less than 50,000; and (3) a small organization that is any not-for-profit enterprise which is independently owned and operated and is not dominant in its field.

5.3.1 Proposed NSPS

After considering the economic impact of the Proposed NSPS on small entities, I certify that this action will not have a significant economic impact on a substantial number of small entities (SISNOSE). EPA performed a screening analysis for impacts on a sample of expected affected small entities by comparing compliance costs to entity revenues. Based upon the analysis in Section 7.4 in this RIA, EPA recognizes that a subset of small firms is likely to be significantly impacted by the proposed NSPS. However, the number of significantly impacted small businesses is unlikely to be sufficiently large to declare a SISNOSE. Our judgment in this determination is informed by the fact that the firm-level compliance cost estimates used in the small business impacts analysis are likely over-estimates of the compliance costs faced by firms under the Proposed NSPS; these estimates do not include the revenues that producers are expected receive from the additional natural gas recovery engendered by the implementation of the controls evaluated in this RIA. As much of the additional natural gas recovery is estimated to arise from well completion-related activities, we expect the impact on well-related compliance costs to be significantly mitigated, if not fully offset. Although this final rule will not have a significant economic impact on a substantial number of small entities, EPA nonetheless has tried to reduce the impact of this rule on small entities by the selection of highly cost-effective controls and specifying monitoring requirements that are the minimum to insure compliance.

5.3.2 Proposed NESHAP Amendments

After considering the economic impact of the Proposed NESHAP Amendments on small entities, I certify that this action will not have a significant economic impact on a substantial number of small entities. Based upon the analysis in Section 7.4 in this RIA, we estimate that 62 of the 118 firms (53 percent) that own potentially affected facilities are small entities. EPA performed a screening analysis for impacts on all expected affected small entities by comparing compliance costs to entity revenues. Among the small firms, 52 of the 62 (84 percent) are likely to have impacts of less than 1 percent in terms of the ratio of annualized compliance costs to revenues. Meanwhile 10 firms (16 percent) are likely to have impacts greater than 1 percent. Four of these 10 firms are likely to have impacts greater than 3 percent. While these 10 firms might receive significant impacts from the proposed NESHAP amendments, they represent a very small slice of the oil and gas industry in its entirety, less than 0.2 percent of the estimated 6,427 small firms in NAICS 211. Although this final rule will not impact a substantial number of small entities, EPA nonetheless has tried to reduce the impact of this rule on small entities by setting the final emissions limits at the MACT floor, the least stringent level allowed by law.

5.4 Unfunded Mandates Reform Act

This proposed rule does not contain a federal mandate that may result in expenditures of $100 million or more for state, local, and tribal governments, in the aggregate, or to the private sector in any one year. Thus, this proposed rule is not subject to the requirements of sections 202 or 205 of UMRA.

This proposed rule is also not subject to the requirements of section 203 of UMRA because it contains no regulatory requirements that might significantly or uniquely affect small governments because it contains no requirements that apply to such governments nor does it impose obligations upon them.

5.5 Executive Order 13132: Federalism

This proposed rule does not have federalism implications. It will not have substantial direct effects on the states, on the relationship between the national government and the states, or on the distribution of power and responsibilities among the various levels of government, as specified in Executive Order 13132. Thus, Executive Order 13132 does not apply to this proposed rule.

5.6 Executive Order 13175: Consultation and Coordination with Indian Tribal Governments

Subject to the Executive Order 13175 (65 FR 67249, November 9, 2000) the EPA may not issue a regulation that has tribal implications, that imposes substantial direct compliance costs, and that is not required by statute, unless the federal government provides the funds necessary to pay the direct compliance costs incurred by tribal governments, or the EPA consults with tribal officials early in the process of developing the proposed regulation and develops a tribal summary impact statement. The EPA has concluded that this proposed rule will not have tribal implications, as specified in Executive Order 13175. It will not have substantial direct effect on tribal governments, on the relationship between the federal government and Indian tribes, or on the distribution of power and responsibilities between the federal government and Indian tribes, as specified in Executive Order 13175. Thus, Executive Order 13175 does not apply to this action.

5.7 Executive Order 13045: Protection of Children from Environmental Health Risks and Safety Risks

This proposed rule is subject to Executive Order 13045 (62 FR 19885, April 23, 1997) because it is economically significant as defined in Executive Order 12866. However, EPA does not believe the environmental health or safety risks addressed by this action present a disproportionate risk to children. This action would not relax the control measures on existing regulated sources. EPA's risk assessments (included in the docket for this proposed rule) demonstrate that the existing regulations are associated with an acceptable level of risk and provide an ample margin of safety to protect public health.

5.8 Executive Order 13211: Actions Concerning Regulations That Significantly Affect Energy Supply, Distribution, or Use

Executive Order 13211, (66 FR 28,355, May 22, 2001), provides that agencies shall prepare and submit to the Administrator of the Office of Information and Regulatory Affairs, OMB, a Statement of Energy Effects for certain actions identified as significant energy actions. Section 4(b) of Executive Order 13211 defines "significant energy actions" as "any action by an agency (normally published in the Federal Register) that promulgates or is expected to lead to the promulgation of a final rule or regulation, including notices of inquiry, advance notices of proposed rulemaking, and notices of proposed rulemaking: 1)(i) that is a significant regulatory action under Executive Order 12866 or any successor order, and (ii) is likely to have a significant adverse effect on the supply, distribution, or use of energy; or 2) that is designated by the Administrator of the Office of Information and Regulatory Affairs as a significant energy action."

The proposed rules will result in the addition of control equipment and monitoring systems for existing and new sources within the oil and natural gas industry. The proposed NESHAP amendments are unlikely to have a significant adverse effect on the supply, distribution, or use of energy. As such, the proposed NESHAP amendments are not "significant energy actions" as defined in Executive Order 13211, (66 FR 28355, May 22, 2001).

The proposed NSPS is also unlikely to have a significant adverse effect on the supply, distribution, or use of energy. As such, the proposed NSPS is not a "significant energy action" as defined in Executive Order 13211 (66 FR 28355, May 22, 2001). The basis for the determination is as follows.

We use the NEMS to estimate the impacts of the proposed NSPS on the United States energy system. The NEMS is a publically available model of the United States energy economy developed and maintained by the Energy Information Administration of the U.S. DOE and is used to produce the Annual Energy Outlook, a reference publication that provides detailed forecasts of the United States energy economy.

Proposed emission controls for the NSPS capture VOC emissions that otherwise would be vented to the atmosphere. Since methane is co-emitted with VOC, a large proportion of the averted methane emissions can be directed into natural gas production streams and sold. One pollution control requirement of the proposed NSPS also captures saleable condensates. The revenues from additional natural gas and condensate recovery are expected to offset the costs of implementing the proposed NSPS.

The analysis of energy impacts for the proposed NSPS that includes the additional product recovery shows that domestic natural gas production is estimated to increase (20 billion cubic feet or 0.1 percent) and natural gas prices to decrease ($0.04/Mcf or 0.9 percent at the wellhead for producers in the lower 48 states) in 2015, the year of analysis. Domestic crude oil production is not estimated to change, while crude oil prices are estimated to decrease slightly ($0.02/barrel or less than 0.1 percent at the wellhead for producers in the lower 48 states) in 2015, the year of analysis. All prices are in 2008 dollars.

Additionally, the NSPS establishes several performance standards that give regulated entities flexibility in determining how to best comply with the regulation. In an industry that is geographically and economically heterogeneous, this flexibility is an important factor in reducing regulatory burden.

5.9 National Technology Transfer and Advancement Act

Section 12(d) of the National Technology Transfer and Advancement Act of 1995 ("NTTAA"), Public Law No. 104-113 (15 U.S.C. 272 note) directs the EPA to use VCS in its regulatory activities unless to do so would be inconsistent with applicable law or otherwise impractical. Voluntary consensus standards are technical standards (e.g., materials specifications, test methods, sampling procedures, and business practices) that are developed or adopted by VCS. The NTTAA directs the EPA to provide Congress, through OMB, explanations when the Agency decides not to use available and applicable VCS.

The proposed rule involves technical standards. Therefore, the requirements of the NTTAA apply to this action. We are proposing to revise 40 CFR part 63, subparts HH and HHH to allow ANSI/ASME PTC 19.10–1981, Flue and Exhaust Gas Analyses (Part 10, Instruments and Apparatus) to be used in lieu of EPA Methods 3B, 6 and 16A. This standard is available from the American Society of Mechanical Engineers (ASME), Three Park Avenue, New York, NY 10016-5990. Also, we are proposing to revise 40 CFR part 63, subpart HHH, to allow ASTM D6420-99(2004), "Test Method for Determination of Gaseous Organic Compounds by Direct Interface Gas Chromatography/Mass Spectrometry" to be used in lieu of EPA Method 18. For a detailed discussion of this VCS, and its appropriateness as a substitute for Method 18, see the final oil and natural gas production NESHAP (Area Sources) (72 FR 36, January 3, 2007).

As a result, the EPA is proposing ASTM D6420-99 for use in 40 CFR part 63, subpart HHH. The EPA also proposes to allow Method 18 as an option in addition to ASTM D6420-99(2004). This would allow the continued use of GC configurations other than GC/MS.

The EPA welcomes comments on this aspect of the proposed rulemaking and, specifically, invites the public to identify potentially-applicable VCS and to explain why such standards should be used in this regulation.

5.10 Executive Order 12898: Federal Actions to Address Environmental Justice in Minority Populations and Low-Income Populations

Executive Order 12898 (59 FR 7629, February 16, 1994) establishes federal executive policy on Environmental Justice (EJ). Its main provision directs federal agencies, to the greatest extent practicable and permitted by law, to make EJ part of their mission by identifying and addressing, as appropriate, disproportionately high and adverse human health or environmental effects of their programs, policies, and activities on minority populations and low-income populations in the United States.

To examine the potential for any EJ issues that might be associated with each source category, we evaluated the distributions of HAP-related cancer and noncancer risks across different social, demographic, and economic groups within the populations living near the facilities where these source categories are located. The methods used to conduct demographic analyses for this rule are described in section VII.D of the preamble for this rule. The development of demographic analyses to inform the consideration of EJ issues in EPA rulemakings is an evolving science. The EPA offers the demographic analyses in this proposed rulemaking as examples of how such analyses might be developed to inform such consideration, and invites public comment on the approaches used and the interpretations made from the results, with the hope that this will support the refinement and improve utility of such analyses for future rulemakings.

For the demographic analyses, we focused on the populations within 50 km of any facility estimated to have exposures to HAP which result in cancer risks of 1-in-1 million or greater, or noncancer HI of 1 or greater (based on the emissions of the source category or the facility, respectively). We examined the distributions of those risks across various demographic groups, comparing the percentages of particular demographic groups to the total number of people in those demographic groups nationwide. The results, including other risk metrics, such as average risks for the exposed populations, are documented in source category-specific technical reports in the docket for both source categories covered in this proposal.

As described in the preamble, our risk assessments demonstrate that the regulations for the oil and natural gas production and natural gas transmission and storage source categories, are associated with an acceptable level of risk and that the proposed additional requirements will provide an ample margin of safety to protect public health.

Our analyses also show that, for these source categories, there is no potential for an adverse environmental effect or human health multi-pathway effects, and that acute and chronic noncancer health impacts are unlikely. The EPA has determined that although there may be an existing disparity in HAP risks from these sources between some demographic groups, no demographic group is exposed to an unacceptable level of risk.

6 COMPARISON OF BENEFITS AND COSTS

Because we are unable to estimate the monetary value of the emissions reductions from the proposed rule, we have chosen to rely upon a break-even analysis to estimate what the monetary value benefits would need to attain in order to equal the costs estimated to be imposed by the rule. A break-even analysis answers the question, "What would the benefits need to be for the benefits to exceed the costs." While a break-even approach is not equivalent to a benefits analysis or even a net benefits analysis, we feel the results are illustrative, particularly in the context of previously modeled benefits.

The total cost of the proposed NSPS in the analysis year of 2015 when the additional natural gas and condensate recovery is included in the analysis is estimated at -$45 million for domestic producers and consumers. EPA anticipates that this rule would prevent 540,000 tons of VOC, 3.4 million tons of methane, and 37,000 tons of HAPs in 2015 from new sources. In 2015, EPA estimates the costs for the NESHAP amendments floor option to be $16 million.[49] EPA anticipates that this rule would reduce 9,200 tons of VOC, 4,900 tons of methane, and 1,400 tons of HAPs in 2015 from existing sources. For the NESHAP amendments, a break-even analysis suggests that HAP emissions would need to be valued at $12,000 per ton for the benefits to exceed the costs if the health benefits, and ecosystem and climate co-benefits from the reductions in VOC and methane emissions are assumed to be zero. If we assume the health benefits from HAP emission reductions are zero, the VOC emissions would need to be valued at $1,700 per ton or the methane emissions would need to be valued at $3,300 per ton for the benefits to exceed the costs. All estimates are in 2008 dollars.

For the proposed NSPS, the revenue from additional natural gas recovery already exceeds the costs, which renders a break-even analysis unnecessary. However, as discussed in Section 3.2.2., estimates of the annualized engineering costs that include revenues from natural gas product recovery depend heavily upon assumptions about the price of natural gas and hydrocarbon condensates in analysis year 2015. Therefore, we have also conducted a break-even analysis for the price of natural gas. For the NSPS, a break-even analysis suggests that the price

[49] See Section 3 of this RIA for more information regarding the cost estimates for the NESHAP.

of natural gas would need to be at least $3.77 per Mcf in 2015 for the revenue from product recovery to exceed the annualized costs. EIA forecasts that the price of natural gas would be $4.26 per Mcf in 2015. In addition to the revenue from product recovery, the NSPS would avert emissions of VOCs, HAPs, and methane, which all have value that could be incorporated into the break-even analysis. Figure 6-1 illustrates one method of analyzing the break-even point with alternate natural gas prices and VOC benefits. If, as an illustrative example, the price of natural gas was only $3.00 per Mcf, VOCs would need to be valued at $260 per ton for the benefits to exceed the costs. All estimates are in 2008 dollars.

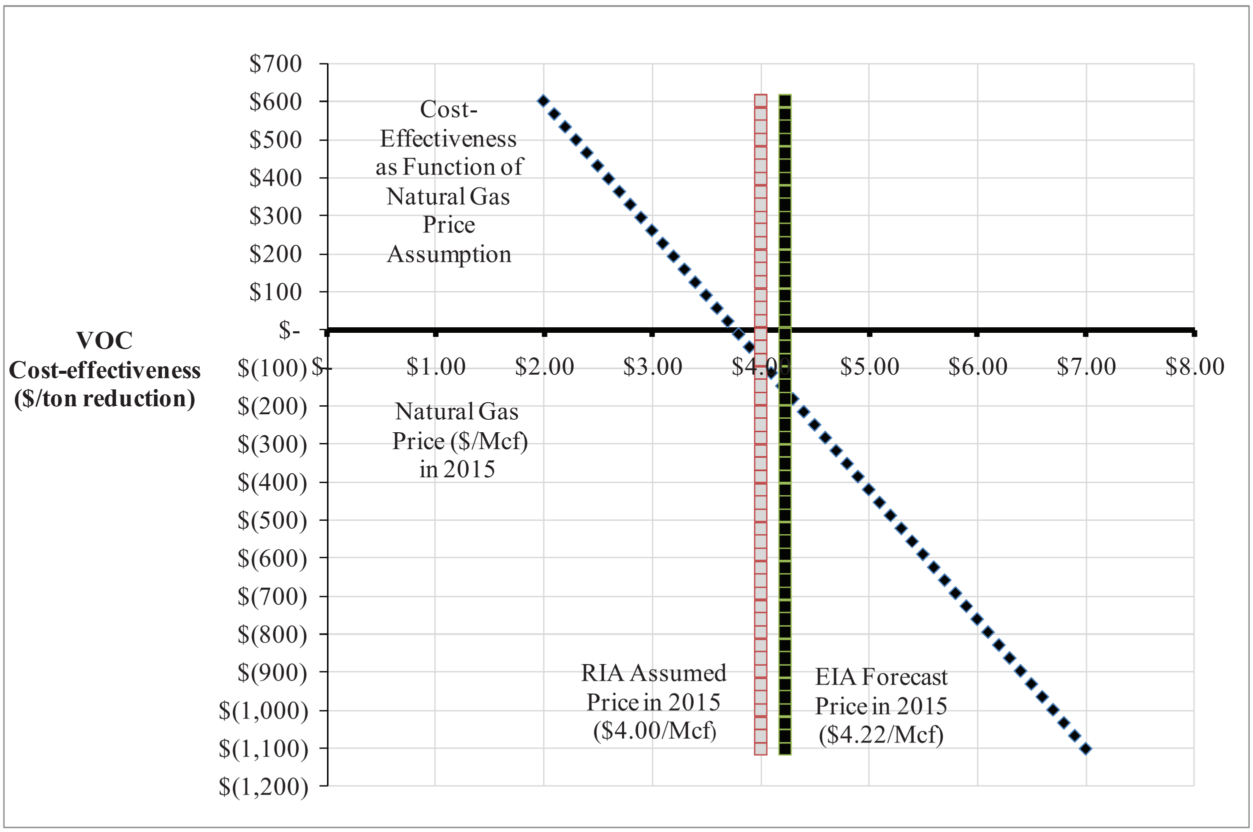

Figure 6-1 Illustrative Break-Even Diagram for Alternate Natural Gas Prices for the NSPS

With the data available, we are not able to provide a credible benefit-per-ton estimate for any of the pollutant reductions for these rules to compare to the break-even estimates. Based on the methodology from Fann, Fulcher, and Hubbell (2009), average $PM_{2.5}$ health-related benefits of VOC emissions are valued at \$280 to \$7,000 per ton across a range of eight urban areas.[50] In addition, ozone benefits have been previously valued at \$240 to \$1,000 per ton of VOC reduced. Using the GWP approach, the climate co-benefits range from approximately \$110 to \$1,400 per short ton of methane reduced depending upon the discount rate assumed with a per ton estimate of \$760 at the 3 percent discount rate.

These break-even benefit-per-ton estimates assume that all other pollutants have zero value. Of course, it is inappropriate to assume that the value of reducing any of these pollutants is zero. Thus, the real break-even estimate is actually lower than the estimates provided above because the other pollutants each have non-zero benefits that should be considered. Furthermore, a single pollutant can have multiple effects (e.g., VOCs contribute to both ozone and $PM_{2.5}$ formation that each have health and welfare effects) that would need to be summed in order to develop a comprehensive estimate of the monetized benefits associated with reducing that pollutant.

As previously described, the revenue from additional natural gas recovery already exceeds the costs of the NSPS, but even if the price of natural gas was only \$3.00 per Mcf, it is likely that the VOC benefits would exceed the costs, As a result, even if VOC emissions from oil and natural gas operations result in monetized benefits that are substantially below the average modeled benefits, there is a reasonable chance that the benefits of these rules would exceed the costs, especially if we were able to monetize all of the benefits associated with ozone formation, visibility, HAPs, and methane.

Table 6-1 and Table 6-2 present the summary of the benefits, costs, and net benefits for the NSPS and NESHAP amendment options, respectively. Table 6-3 provides a summary of the direct and secondary emissions changes for each option.

[50] See Section 4.5 of this RIA for more information regarding $PM_{2.5}$ benefits and Section 4.6 for more information regarding ozone benefits.

Table 6-1 Summary of the Monetized Benefits, Costs, and Net Benefits for the Proposed Oil and Natural Gas NSPS in 2015 (millions of 2008$)[1]

	Option 1: Alternative	Option 2: Proposed[4]	Option 3: Alternative
Total Monetized Benefits[2]	N/A	N/A	N/A
Total Costs[3]	-$19 million	-$45 million	$77 million
Net Benefits	N/A	N/A	N/A
Non-monetized Benefits	17,000 tons of HAPs[5]	37,000 tons of HAPs[5]	37,000 tons of HAPs[5]
	270,000 tons of VOCs	540,000 tons of VOCs	550,000 tons of VOCs
	1.6 million tons of methane	3.4 million tons of methane	3.4 million tons of methane
	Health effects of HAP exposure[5]	Health effects of HAP exposure[5]	Health effects of HAP exposure[5]
	Health effects of $PM_{2.5}$ and ozone exposure	Health effects of $PM_{2.5}$ and ozone exposure	Health effects of $PM_{2.5}$ and ozone exposure
	Visibility impairment	Visibility impairment	Visibility impairment
	Vegetation effects	Vegetation effects	Vegetation effects
	Climate effects[5]	Climate effects[5]	Climate effects[5]

[1] All estimates are for the implementation year (2015) and include estimated revenue from additional natural gas recovery as a result of the NSPS.

[2] While we expect that these avoided emissions will result in improvements in air quality and reductions in health effects associated with HAPs, ozone, and particulate matter (PM) as well as climate effects associated with methane, we have determined that quantification of those benefits and co-benefits cannot be accomplished for this rule in a defensible way. This is not to imply that there are no benefits or co-benefits of the rules; rather, it is a reflection of the difficulties in modeling the direct and indirect impacts of the reductions in emissions for this industrial sector with the data currently available. The specific control technologies for the proposed NSPS are anticipated to have minor secondary disbenefits, including an increase of 990,000 tons of CO_2, 510 tons of NOx, 7.6 tons of PM, 2,800 tons of CO, and 1,000 tons of total hydrocarbons (THC) as well as emission reductions associated with the energy system impacts. The net CO_2-equivalent emission reductions are 62 million metric tons.

[3] The engineering compliance costs are annualized using a 7 percent discount rate.

[4] The negative cost for the NSPS Options 1 and 2 reflects the inclusion of revenues from additional natural gas and hydrocarbon condensate recovery that are estimated as a result of the proposed NSPS. Possible explanations for why there appear to be negative cost control technologies are discussed in the engineering costs analysis section in the RIA.

[5] Reduced exposure to HAPs and climate effects are co-benefits.

Table 6-2 Summary of the Monetized Benefits, Costs, and Net Benefits for the Proposed Oil and Natural Gas NESHAP amendments in 2015 (millions of 2008$)[1]

	Option 1: Proposed (Floor)
Total Monetized Benefits[2]	N/A
Total Costs[3]	$16 million
Net Benefits	N/A
Non-monetized Benefits	1,400 tons of HAPs 9,200 tons of VOCs[4] 4,900 tons of methane[4] Health effects of HAP exposure Health effects of $PM_{2.5}$ and ozone exposure[4] Visibility impairment[4] Vegetation effects[4] Climate effects[4]

[1] All estimates are for the implementation year (2015).

[2] While we expect that these avoided emissions will result in improvements in air quality and reductions in health effects associated with HAPs, ozone, and PM as well as climate effects associated with methane, we have determined that quantification of those benefits and co-benefits cannot be accomplished for this rule in a defensible way. This is not to imply that there are no benefits or co-benefits of the rules; rather, it is a reflection of the difficulties in modeling the direct and indirect impacts of the reductions in emissions for this industrial sector with the data currently available. The specific control technologies for the proposed NESHAP are anticipated to have minor secondary disbenefits, including an increase of 5,500 tons of CO_2, 2.9 tons of NOx, 16 tons of CO, and 6.0 tons of THC as well as emission reductions associated with the energy system impacts. The net CO_2-equivalent emission reductions are 93 thousand metric tons.

[3] The cost estimates are assumed to be equivalent to the engineering cost estimates. The engineering compliance costs are annualized using a 7 percent discount rate.

[4] Reduced exposure to VOC emissions, $PM_{2.5}$ and ozone exposure, visibility and vegetation effects, and climate effects are co-benefits.

Table 6-3 Summary of Emissions Changes for the Proposed Oil and Gas NSPS and NESHAP in 2015 (short tons per year)

	Pollutant	NSPS Option 1	NSPS Option 2 (Proposed)	NSPS Option 3	NESHAP
Change in Direct Emissions	VOC	-270,000	-540,000	-550,000	-9,200
	Methane	-1,600,000	-3,400,000	-3,400,000	-4,900
	HAP	-17,000	-37,000	-37,000	-1,400
Change in Secondary Emissions (Producer-Side) [1]	CO_2	990,000	990,000	990,000	5,500
	NOx	510	510	510	2.9
	PM	7.6	7.6	7.6	0.1
	CO	2,800	2,800	2,800	16
	THC	1,000	1,000	1,000	6.0
Change in Secondary Emissions (Consumer-Side)	CO_2-e	-1,000,000	1,700,000	1,400,000	N/A
Net Change in CO_2-equivalent Emissions	CO_2-e	-33,000,000	-68,000,000	-70,000,000	-96,000

[1] We use the producer-side secondary impacts associated with the proposed NSPS option as a surrogate for the impacts of the other options.

7 ECONOMIC IMPACT ANALYSIS AND DISTRIBUTIONAL ASSESSMENTS

7.1 Introduction

This section includes three sets of analyses for both the NSPS and NESHAP amendments:

- Energy System Impacts
- Employment Impacts
- Small Business Impacts Analysis

7.2 Energy System Impacts Analysis of Proposed NSPS

We use the National Energy Modeling System (NEMS) to estimate the impacts of the proposed NSPS on the U.S. energy system. The impacts we estimate include changes in drilling activity, price and quantity changes in the production and consumption of crude oil and natural gas, and changes in international trade of crude oil and natural gas. We evaluate whether and to what extent the increased production costs imposed by the NSPS might alter the mix of fuels consumed at a national level. With this information we estimate how the changed fuel mix affects national level CO_2-equivalent greenhouse gas emissions from energy sources. We additionally combine these estimates of changes in CO_2-equivalent greenhouse gas emissions from energy sources and emissions co-reductions of methane from the engineering analysis with NEMS analysis to estimate the net change in CO_2-equivalent greenhouse gas emissions from energy-related sources, but this analysis is reserved for the secondary environmental impacts analysis within Section 4.

A brief conceptual discussion about our energy system impacts modeling approach is necessary before going into detail on NEMS, how we implemented the regulatory impacts, and results. Economically, it is possible to view the recovered natural gas as an explicit output or as contributing to an efficiency gain at the producer level. For example, the analysis for the proposed NSPS shows that about 97 percent of the natural gas captured by emissions controls suggested by the rule is captured by performing RECs on new and existing wells that are completed after being hydraulically fractured. The assumed $4/Mcf price for natural gas is the price paid to producers at the wellhead. In the natural gas industry, production is metered at or very near to the wellhead, and producers are paid based upon this metered production. Depending on the situation, the gas captured by RECs is sent through a temporary or permanent meter. Payments for the gas are typically made within 30 days.

To preview the energy systems modeling using NEMS, results show that after economic adjustments to the new regulations are made by producers, the captured natural gas represents both increased output (a slight increment in aggregate production) and increased efficiency (producing slightly more for less). However, because of differing objectives for the regulatory analysis we treat the associated savings differently in the engineering cost analysis (as an explicit output) and in NEMS (as an efficiency gain).

In the engineering cost analysis, it is necessary to estimate the expected costs and revenues from implementing emissions controls at the unit level. Because of this, we estimate the net costs as expected costs minus expected revenues for representative units. On the other hand, NEMS models the profit maximizing behavior of representative project developers at a drilling project level. The net costs of the regulation alter the expected discounted cash flow of drilling and implementing oil and gas projects, and the behavior of the representative drillers adjusts accordingly. While in the regulatory case natural gas drilling has become more efficient because of the gas recovery, project developers still interact with markets for which supply and demand are simultaneously adjusting. Consequently, project development adjusts to a new equilibrium. While we believe the cost savings as measured by revenues from selling recovered gas (engineering costs) and measured by cost savings from averted production through efficiency gains (energy economic modeling) are approximately the same, it is important to note that the engineering cost analysis and the national-level cost estimates do not incorporate economic feedbacks such as supply and demand adjustments.

7.2.1 Description of the Department of Energy National Energy Modeling System

NEMS is a model of U.S. energy economy developed and maintained by the Energy Information Administration of the U.S. Department of Energy. NEMS is used to produce the Annual Energy Outlook, a reference publication that provides detailed forecasts of the energy economy from the current year to 2035. DOE first developed NEMS in the 1980s, and the model has been undergone frequent updates and expansion since. DOE uses the modeling system extensively to produce issue reports, legislative analyses, and respond to Congressional inquiries.

EIA is legally required to make the NEMS system source code available and fully documented for the public. The source code and accompanying documentation is released annually when a new Annual Energy Outlook is produced. Because of the availability of the NEMS model, numerous agencies, national laboratories, research institutes, and academic and private-sector researchers have used NEMS to analyze a variety of issues.

NEMS models the dynamics of energy markets and their interactions with the broader U.S. economy. The system projects the production of energy resources such as oil, natural gas, coal, and renewable fuels, the conversion of resources through processes such as refining and electricity generation, and the quantity and prices for final consumption across sectors and regions. The dynamics of the energy system are governed by assumptions about energy and environmental policies, technological developments, resource supplies, demography, and macroeconomic conditions. An overview of the model and complete documentation of NEMS can be found at <http://www.eia.doe.gov/oiaf/aeo/overview/index.html>.

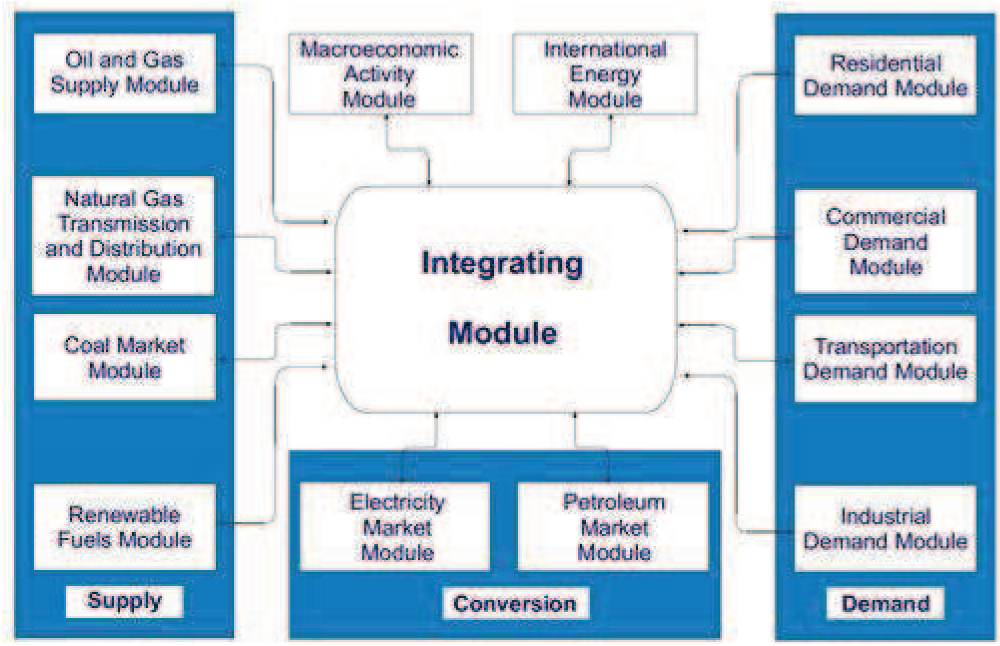

Figure 7-1 Organization of NEMS Modules (source: U.S. Energy Information Administration)

NEMS is a large-scale, deterministic mathematical programming model. NEMS iteratively solves multiple models, linear and non-linear, using nonlinear Gauss-Seidel methods (Gabriel et al. 2001). What this means is that NEMS solves a single module, holding all else constant at provisional solutions, then moves to the next model after establishing an updated provisional solution.

NEMS provides what EIA refers to as "mid-term" projections to the year 2035. However, as this RIA is concerned with estimating regulatory impacts in the first year of full implementation, our analysis focuses upon estimated impacts in the year 2015, with regulatory costs first imposed in 2011. For this RIA, we draw upon the same assumptions and model used in the Annual Energy Outlook 2011.[51] The RIA baseline is consistent with that of the Annual Energy Outlook 2011 which is used extensively in Section 2 in the Industry Profile.

[51] Assumptions for the 2011 Annual Energy Outlook can be found at <http://www.eia.gov/forecasts/aeo/assumptions/index.cfm>.

7.2.2 Inputs to National Energy Modeling System

To model potential impacts associated with the NSPS, we modified oil and gas production costs within the Oil and Gas Supply Module (OGSM) of NEMS and domestic and Canadian natural gas production within the Natural Gas Transmission and Distribution Module (NGTDM). The OGSM projects domestic oil and gas production from onshore, offshore, Alaskan wells, as well as having a smaller-scale treatment of Canadian oil and gas production (U.S. EIA, 2010). The treatment of oil and gas resources is detailed in that oil, shale oil, conventional gas, shale gas, tight sands gas, and coalbed methane (CBM) are explicitly modeled. New exploration and development is pursued in the OGSM if the expected net present value of extracted resources exceeds expected costs, including costs associated with capital, exploration, development, production, and taxes. Detailed technology and reservoir-level production economics govern finding and success rates and costs.

The structure of the OGSM is amenable to analyzing potential impacts of the Oil and Natural Gas NSPS. We are able to target additional expenditures for environmental controls expected to be required by the NSPS on new exploratory and developmental oil and gas production activities, as well as add additional costs to existing projects. We model the impacts of additional environmental costs, as well as the impacts of additional product recovery. We explicitly model the additional natural gas recovered when implementing the NSPS regulatory options. However, we are unable to explicitly model the additional production of condensates expected to be recovered by reduced emissions completions, although we incorporate expected revenues from the condensate recovery in the economic evaluation of new drilling projects.

While the oil production simulated by the OGSM is sent to the refining module (the Petroleum Market Module), simulated natural gas production is sent to a transmission and distribution network captured in the NGTDM. The NGTDM balances gas supplies and prices and "negotiates" supply and consumption to determine a regional equilibrium between supply, demand and prices, including imports and exports via pipeline or LNG. Natural gas transmitted through a simplified arc-node representation of pipeline infrastructure based upon pipeline economics.

7.2.2.1 Compliance Costs for Oil and Gas Exploration and Production

As the NSPS affects new emissions sources, we chose to estimate impacts on new exploration and development projects by adding costs of environmental regulation to the algorithm that evaluates the profitability of new projects. Additional NSPS costs associated with reduced emission completions and future recompletions for new wells are added to drilling, completion, and stimulation costs, as these are, in effect, associated with activities that occur within a single time period, although they may be repeated periodically, as in the case of recompletions. Costs required for reduced emissions recompletions on existing wells are added to stimulation expenses for existing wells exclusively. Other costs are operations and maintenance-type costs and are added to fixed operation and maintenance (O&M) expenses associated with new projects. The one-shot and continuing O&M expenses are estimated and entered on a per well basis, depending on whether the costs would apply to oil wells, natural gas wells, both oil and natural gas wells, or a subset of either. We base the per well cost estimates on the engineering costs including revenues from additional product recovery. This approach is appropriate given the structure of the NEMS algorithm that estimates the net present value of drilling projects.

One concern in basing the regulatory costs inputs into NEMS on the net cost of the compliance activity (estimated annualized cost of compliance minus estimated revenue from product recovery) is that potential barriers to obtaining capital may not be adequately incorporated in the model. However, in general, potential barriers to obtaining additional capital should be reflected in the annualized cost via these barriers increasing the cost of capital. With this in mind, assuming the estimates of capital costs and product recovery are valid, the NEMS results will reflect barriers to obtaining the retired capital. A caveat to this is that the estimated unit-level capital costs of controls which are newly required at a national-level as a result of the proposed regulation—RECs, for example—may not incorporate potential additional transitional costs as the supply of control equipment adjusts to new demand.

Table 7-1 shows the incremental O&M expenses that accrue to new drilling projects as a result of producers having to comply with the relevant NSPS option. We estimate those costs as a function of new wells expected to be drilled in a representative year. To arrive at estimates of the per well costs, we first identify which emissions reductions will apply primarily to crude oil wells, to natural gas wells, or to both crude oil and natural gas wells. Based on the baseline projections of successful completions in 2015, we used 19,097 new natural gas wells and 12,193 new oil wells as the basis of these calculations. We then divide the estimated compliance costs for the given emissions point (from Table 3-3) by the appropriate number of expected new wells in the year of analysis. The result yields an approximation of a per well compliance costs. We assume this approximation is representative of the incremental cost faced by a producer when evaluating a prospective drilling project.

Like the engineering analysis, we assume that hydraulically fractured well completions and recompletions will be required of wells drilled into tight sand, shale gas, and coalbed methane formations. While costs for well recompletions reflect the cost of a single recompletion, the engineering cost analysis assumed that one in ten new wells drilled after the implementation of the promulgation and implementation of the NSPS are completed using hydraulic fracturing will receive a recompletion in any given year using hydraulic fracturing. Meanwhile, within NEMS, wells are assumed to be stimulated every five years. We assume these more frequent stimulations are less intensive than stimulation using hydraulic fracturing but add costs such that the recompletions costs reflect the same assumptions as the engineering analysis. In entering compliance costs into NEMS, we also account for reduced emissions completions, completion combustion, and recompletions performed in absence of the regulation, using the same assumptions as the engineering costs analysis (Table 7-2).

Table 7-1 Summary of Additional Annualized O&M Costs (on a Per New Well Basis) for Environmental Controls Entered into NEMS

Emissions Sources/Points	Emissions Control	Per Well Costs (2008$) Option 1	Option 2 (Proposed)	Option 3	Wells Applied To in NEMS
Equipment Leaks					
Well Pads	Subpart VV	Not in Option	Not in Option	$3,552	Oil and Gas
Gathering and Boosting Stations	Subpart VV	Not in Option	Not in Option	$806	Gas
Processing Plants	Subpart VVa	Not in Option	$56	$56	None
Transmission Compressor Stations	Subpart VV	Not in Option	Not in Option	$320	Gas
Reciprocating Compressors					
Well Pads	Annual Monitoring/ Maintenance	Not in Option	Not in Option	Not in Option	None
Gathering/Boosting Stations	AMM	$17	$17	$17	Gas
Processing Plants	AMM	$12	$12	$12	Gas
Transmission Compressor Stations	AMM	$19	$19	$19	Gas
Underground Storage Facilities	AMM	$1	$1	$1	Gas
Centrifugal Compressors					
Processing Plants	Dry Seals/Route to Process or Control	-$113	-$113	-$113	Gas
Transmission Compressor Stations	Dry Seals/Route to Process or Control	-$62	-$62	-$62	Gas
Pneumatic Controllers -					
Oil and Gas Production	Low Bleed/Route to Process	-$698	-$698	-$698	Oil and Gas
Natural Gas Transmission and Storage	Low Bleed/Route to Process	$0.10	$0.10	$0.10	Gas
Storage Vessels					
High Throughput	95% control	$143	$143	$143	Oil and Gas
Low Throughput	95% control	Not in Option	Not in Option	Not in Option	None

Table 7-2 Summary of Additional Per Completion/Recompletion Costs (2008$) for Environmental Controls Entered into NEMS

Emissions Sources/Points	Emissions Control	Per Completion/Recompletion Costs (2008$) Option 1	Option 2 (proposed)	Option 3	Wells Applied To in NEMS
Well Completions					
Hydraulically Fractured Gas Wells	REC	-$1,275	-$1,275	-$1,275	New Tight Sand/ Shale Gas/CBM
Conventional Gas Wells	Combustion	Not in Option	Not in Option	Not in Option	None
Oil Wells	Combustion	Not in Option	Not in Option	Not in Option	None
Well Recompletions					
Hydraulically Fractured Gas Wells (post-NSPS wells)	REC	-$1,535	-$1,535	-$1,535	Existing Tight Sand/ Shale Gas /Coalbed Methane
Hydraulically Fractured Gas Wells (existing wells)	REC	Not in Option	-$1,535	-$1,535	Existing Tight Sand/ Shale Gas /Coalbed Methane
Conventional Gas Wells	Combustion	Not in Option	Not in Option	Not in Option	None
Oil Wells	Combustion	Not in Option	Not in Option	Not in Option	None

7.2.2.2 Adding Averted Methane Emissions into Natural Gas Production

A significant benefit of controlling VOC emissions from oil and natural gas production is that methane that would otherwise be lost to the atmosphere can be directed into the natural gas production stream. We chose to model methane capture in NEMS as an increase in natural gas industry productivity, ensuring that, within the model, natural gas reservoirs are not decremented by production gains from methane capture. We add estimates of the quantities of methane captured (or otherwise not vented or combusted) to the base quantities that the OGSM model supplies to the NGTDM model. We subdivide the estimates of commercially valuable averted emissions by region and well type in order to more accurately portray the economics of implementing the environmental technology. Adding the averted methane emissions in this manner has the effect of moving the natural gas supply curve to the right an increment consistent with the technically achievable emissions transferred into the production stream as a result of the proposed NSPS.

For all control options, with the exception of recompletions on existing wells, we enter the increased natural gas recovery into NEMS on a per-well basis for new wells, following an estimation procedure similar to that of entering compliance costs into NEMS on a per well basis for new wells. Because each NSPS Option is composed of a different suite of emissions controls, the per-well natural gas recovery value for new wells is different across wells. For Option 1, we estimate that natural gas recovery is 5,739 Mcf per well. For Option 2 and Option 3, we estimate that natural gas recovery is 5,743 Mcf per well. We make a simplifying assumption that natural gas recovery accruing to new wells accrues to new wells in shale gas, tight sands, and CBM fields. We make these assumptions because new wells in these fields are more likely to satisfy criteria such that RECs are required, which contributed that large majority of potential natural gas recovery. Note that these per well natural gas recovery is lower than the per well estimate when RECs are implemented. The estimate is lower because we account for emissions that are combusted, RECs that are implemented absent Federal regulation, as well as the likelihood that natural gas is used during processing and transmission or reinjected.

We treat the potential natural gas recovery associated with recompletions of existing wells (in proposed Option 2 and Option 3) differently in that we estimated the natural gas recovery by natural gas resource type and NSPS Option based on a combination of the engineering analysis and production patterns from the 2011 Annual Energy Outlook. We estimate that additional natural gas product recovered by recompleting existing wells in proposed Option 2 and Option 3 to be 78.7 bcf, with 38.4 bcf accruing to shale gas, 31.4 bcf accruing to tight sands, and 8.9 bcf accruing to CBM, respectively. This quantity is distributed within the NGTDM to reflect regional production by resource type.

7.2.2.3 Fixing Canadian Drilling Costs to Baseline Path

Domestic drilling costs serve as a proxy for Canadian drilling costs in the Canadian oil and natural gas sub-model within the NGTDM. This implies that, without additional modification, additional costs imposed by a U.S. regulation will also impact drilling decisions in Canada. Changes in international oil and gas trade are important in the analysis, as a large majority of natural gas imported into the U.S. originates in Canada. To avoid this problem, we fixed Canadian drilling costs using U.S. drilling costs from the baseline scenario. This solution enables a more accurate analysis of U.S.-Canada energy trade, as increased drilling costs in the U.S. as a result of environmental regulation serve to increase Canada’s comparative advantage.

7.2.3 Energy System Impacts

As mentioned earlier, we estimate impacts to drilling activity, reserves, price and quantity changes in the production and consumption of crude oil and natural gas, and changes in international trade of crude oil and natural gas, as well as whether and to what extent the NSPS might alter the mix of fuels consumed at a national level. In each of these estimates, we present estimates for the baseline year of 2015 and results for the three NSPS options. For context, we provide estimates of production activities in 2011.

7.2.3.1 Impacts on Drilling Activities

Because the potential costs of the NSPS options are concentrated in production activities, we first report estimates of impacts on crude oil and natural gas drilling activities and production and price changes at the wellhead. Table 7-3 presents estimates of successful wells drilled in the U.S. in 2015, the analysis year, for the three NSPS options and in the baseline.

Table 7-3 Successful Oil and Gas Wells Drilled, NSPS Options

		Future NSPS Scenario, 2015			
	2011	Baseline	Option 1	Option 2 (Proposed)	Option 3
Successful Wells Drilled					
Natural Gas	16,373	19,097	19,191	18,935	18,872
Crude Oil	10,352	11,025	11,025	11,025	11,028
Total	**26,725**	**30,122**	**30,216**	**29,960**	**29,900**
% Change in Successful Wells Drilled from Baseline					
Natural Gas			0.49%	-0.85%	-1.18%
Crude Oil			0.00%	0.00%	0.03%
Total			**0.31%**	**-0.54%**	**-0.74%**

We estimate that the number of successful natural gas wells drilled increases slightly for Option 1, while the number of successful crude oil wells drilled does not change. In Options 2, where costs of the natural gas processing plants equipment leaks standard and REC requirements for existing wells apply, natural gas wells drilling is forecast to decrease less than 1 percent, while crude oil drilling does not change. For Option 3, where the addition of an additional equipment leak standards add to the incremental costs, natural gas well drilling is estimated to decrease about 1.2%. The number of successful crude oil wells drilled under Option 3 increases very slightly. While it may seem counter-intuitive that the number of successful crude wells increased as costs increase, it is important to note that crude oil and natural gas drilling compete with each other for factors of production, such as labor and material. The environmental compliance costs of the NSPS options predominantly affect natural gas drilling. As natural gas drilling declines, for example, as a result of increased compliance costs, crude oil drilling may increase because of the increased availability of labor and material, as well as the likelihood that crude oil can substitute for natural gas to some extent.

Table 7-4 presents the forecast of successful wells by well type, for onshore drilling in the lower 48 states. The results show that conventional well drilling is unaffected by the regulatory options, as reduced emission completion and completion combustion requirements are directed not toward wells in conventional reserves but toward wells that are hydraulically fractured, the wells in so-called unconventional reserves. The impacts on drilling tight sands, shale gas, and coalbed methane vary by option.

Table 7-4 Successful Wells Drilled by Well Type (Onshore, Lower 48 States), NSPS Options

		Future NSPS Scenario, 2015			
	2011	**Baseline**	**Option 1**	**Option 2 (Proposed)**	**Option 3**
Successful Wells Drilled					
Conventional Gas Wells	7,267	7,607	7,607	7,607	7,607
Tight Sands	2,441	2,772	2,791	2,816	2,780
Shale Gas	5,007	7,022	7,074	6,763	6,771
Coalbed Methane	1,593	1,609	1,632	1,662	1,627
Total	**16,308**	**19,010**	**19,104**	**18,849**	**18,785**
% Change in Successful Wells Drilled from Baseline					
Conventional Gas Wells			0.00%	0.00%	0.00%
Tight Sands			0.70%	1.60%	0.29%
Shale Gas			0.74%	-3.68%	-3.57%
Coalbed Methane			1.44%	3.28%	1.09%
Total			**0.50%**	**-0.85%**	**-1.18%**

Well drilling in tight sands is estimated to increase slightly from the baseline under all three options, 0.70 percent, 1.60 percent, and 0.29% for Options 1, 2, and 3, respectively. Wells in CBM reserves are also estimated to increase from the baseline under all three options, or 1.44 percent, 3.28 percent, and 1.09 percent for Options 1, 2, and 3, respectively. However, drilling in shale gas is forecast to decline from the baseline under Options 2 and 3, by 3.68 percent and 3.57 percent, respectively.

7.2.3.2 Impacts on Production, Prices, and Consumption

Table 7-5 shows estimates of the changes in the domestic production of natural gas and crude oil under the NSPS options, as of 2015. Domestic crude oil production is not forecast to change under any of the three regulatory options, again because impacts on crude oil drilling of the NSPS are expected to be negligible.

Table 7-5 Annual Domestic Natural Gas and Crude Oil Production, NSPS Options

		Future NSPS Scenario, 2015			
	2011	**Baseline**	**Option 1**	**Option 2 (Proposed)**	**Option 3**
Domestic Production					
Natural Gas (trillion cubic feet)	21.05	22.43	22.47	22.45	22.44
Crude Oil (million barrels/day)	5.46	5.81	5.81	5.81	5.81
% Change in Domestic Production from Baseline					
Natural Gas			0.18%	0.09%	0.04%
Crude Oil			0.00%	0.00%	0.00%

Natural gas production, on the other hand, increases under all three regulatory options for the NSPS from the baseline. A main driver for these increases is the additional natural gas recovery engendered by the control requirements. Another driver for the increases under Option 1 is the increase in natural gas well drilling. While we showed earlier that natural gas drilling is estimated to decline under Options 2 and 3, the increased natural gas recovery is sufficient to offset the production loss from relatively fewer producing wells.

For the proposed option, the NEMS analysis shown in Table 7-5 estimates a 20 bcf increase in domestic natural gas production. This amount is less than the amount estimated in the engineering analysis to be captured by emissions controls implemented as a result of the proposed NSPS (approximately 180 bcf). This difference is because NEMS models the adjustment of energy markets to the now relatively more efficient natural gas production sector. At the new natural gas supply and demand equilibrium in 2015, the modeling estimates 20 bcf more gas is produced at a relatively lower wellhead price (which will be presented momentarily). However, at the new equilibrium, producers implementing emissions controls still capture and sell approximately 180 bcf of natural gas. For example, as shown in Table 7-4, about 11,200 new unconventional natural gas wells are completed under the proposed NSPS; using assumptions from the engineering cost analysis about RECs required under State regulations and exploratory wells exempted from REC requirements, about 9,000 NSPS-required RECs would be performed on new natural gas well completions, according to the NEMS analysis. This recovered natural gas substitutes for natural gas that would be produced from the ground absent the rule. In effect, then, about 160 bcf of natural gas that would have been extracted and emitted into the atmosphere is left in the formation for future extraction.

As we showed for natural gas drilling, Table 7-6 shows natural gas production from onshore wells in the lower 48 states by type of well, predicted for 2015, the analysis year. Production from conventional natural gas wells and CBM wells are estimated to increase under all NSPS regulatory options. Production from shale gas reserves is estimated to decrease under Options 2 and 3, however, from the baseline projection. Production from tight sands is forecast to decline slightly under Option 1.

Table 7-6 Natural Gas Production by Well Type (Onshore, Lower 48 States), NSPS Options

	2011	Future NSPS Scenario, 2015 Baseline	Option 1	Option 2 (Proposed)	Option 3
Natural Gas Production by Well Type (trillion cubic feet)					
Conventional Gas Wells	4.06	3.74	3.75	3.76	3.76
Tight Sands	5.96	5.89	5.87	6.00	6.00
Shale Gas	5.21	7.20	7.26	7.06	7.06
Coalbed Methane	1.72	1.67	1.69	1.72	1.71
Total	**16.95**	**18.51**	**18.57**	**18.54**	**18.53**
% Change in Natural Gas Production by Well Type from Baseline					
Conventional Gas Wells			0.32%	0.42%	0.48%
Tight Sands			-0.43%	1.82%	1.72%
Shale Gas			0.73%	-1.97%	-1.93%
Coalbed Methane			1.07%	2.86%	2.60%
Total			0.31%	0.16%	0.13%

Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

Overall, of the regulatory options, the proposed Option 2 is estimated to have the highest natural gas production from onshore wells in the lower 48 states, showing a 1.2% increase over the baseline projection.

Table 7-7 presents estimates of national average wellhead natural gas and crude oil prices for onshore production in the lower 48 states, estimated for 2015, the year of analysis. All NSPS options show a decrease in wellhead natural gas and crude oil prices. The decrease in wellhead natural gas price form the baseline is attributable largely to the increased productivity of natural gas wells as a result of capturing a portion of completion emissions (in Options 1, 2, and 3) and in capturing recompletion emissions (in Options 2 and 3).

Table 7-7 Lower 48 Average Natural Gas and Crude Oil Wellhead Price, NSPS Options

	2011	Future NSPS Scenario, 2015 Baseline	Option 1	Option 2 (Proposed)	Option 3
Lower 48 Average Wellhead Price					
Natural Gas (2008$ per Mcf)	4.07	4.22	4.18	4.18	4.19
Crude Oil (2008$ per barrel)	83.65	94.60	94.59	94.58	94.58
% Change in Lower 48 Average Wellhead Price from Baseline					
Natural Gas			-0.94%	-0.94%	-0.71%
Crude Oil			-0.01%	-0.02%	-0.02%

Table 7-8 presents estimates of the price of natural gas to final consumers in 2008 dollars per million BTU. The production price decreases estimated across NSPS are largely passed on to consumers but distributed unequally across consuming sectors. Electric power sector consumers of natural gas are estimated to receive the largest price decrease while the transportation and residential sectors are forecast to receive the smallest price decreases.

Table 7-8 Delivered Natural Gas Prices by Sector (2008$ per million BTU), 2015, NSPS Options

	2011	Future NSPS Scenario, 2015 Baseline	Option 1	Option 2 (Proposed)	Option 3
Delivered Prices (2008$ per million BTU)					
Residential	10.52	10.35	10.32	10.32	10.33
Commercial	9.26	8.56	8.52	8.53	8.54
Industrial	4.97	5.08	5.05	5.05	5.06
Electric Power	4.81	4.77	4.73	4.74	4.75
Transportation	12.30	12.24	12.20	12.22	12.22
Average	**6.76**	**6.59**	**6.55**	**6.57**	**6.57**
% Change in Delivered Prices from Baseline					
Residential			**-0.29%**	**-0.29%**	**-0.19%**
Commercial			**-0.47%**	**-0.35%**	**-0.23%**
Industrial			**-0.59%**	**-0.59%**	**-0.39%**
Electric Power			**-0.84%**	**-0.63%**	**-0.42%**
Transportation			**-0.33%**	**-0.16%**	**-0.16%**
Average			**-0.60%**	**-0.41%**	**-0.30%**

Final consumption of natural gas is also estimated to increase in 2015 from the baseline under all NSPS options, as is shown on Table 7-9. Like delivered price, the consumption shifts are distributed differently across sectors.

Table 7-9 Natural Gas Consumption by Sector, NSPS Options

		Future NSPS Scenario, 2015			
	2011	**Baseline**	**Option 1**	**Option 2 (Proposed)**	**Option 3**
Consumption (trillion cubic feet)					
Residential	4.76	4.81	4.81	4.81	4.81
Commercial	3.22	3.38	3.38	3.38	3.38
Industrial	6.95	8.05	8.06	8.06	8.06
Electric Power	7.00	6.98	7.00	6.98	6.97
Transportation	0.03	0.04	0.04	0.04	0.04
Pipeline Fuel	0.64	0.65	0.65	0.66	0.66
Lease and Plant Fuel	1.27	1.20	1.21	1.21	1.21
Total	**23.86**	**25.11**	**25.15**	**25.14**	**25.13**
% Change in Consumption from Baseline					
Residential			0.00%	0.00%	0.00%
Commercial			0.00%	0.00%	0.00%
Industrial			0.12%	0.12%	0.12%
Electric Power			0.29%	0.00%	-0.14%
Transportation			0.00%	0.00%	0.00%
Pipeline Fuel			0.00%	1.54%	1.54%
Lease and Plant Fuel			0.83%	0.83%	0.83%
Total			**0.16%**	**0.12%**	**0.08%**

Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

7.2.3.3 Impacts on Imports and National Fuel Mix

The NEMS modeling shows that impacts from all NSPS options are not sufficiently large to affect the trade balance of natural gas. As shown in Table 7-10, estimates of crude oil and natural gas imports do not vary from the baseline in 2015 for each regulatory option.

Table 7-10 Net Imports of Natural Gas and Crude Oil, NSPS Options

	2011	Future NSPS Scenario, 2015			
		Baseline	Option 1	Option 2 (Proposed)	Option 3
Net Imports					
Natural Gas (trillion cubic feet)	2.75	2.69	2.69	2.69	2.69
Crude Oil (million barrels/day)	9.13	8.70	8.70	8.70	8.70
% Change in Net Imports					
Natural Gas			0.00%	0.00%	0.00%
Crude Oil			0.00%	0.00%	0.00%

Table 7-11 evaluates estimates of energy consumption by energy type at the national level for 2015, the year of analysis. All three NSPS options are estimated to have small effects at the national level. For Option 1, we estimate an increase in 0.02 quadrillion BTU in 2015, a 0.02 percent increase. The percent contribution of natural gas and biomass is projected to increase, while the percent contribution of liquid fuels and coal is expected to decrease under Option 1. Meanwhile, under the proposed Options 2, total energy consumption is also forecast to rise 0.02 quadrillion BTU, with increase coming from natural gas primarily, with an additional small increase in coal consumption. Under Option 3, total energy consumption is forecast to rise 0.01 quadrillion BTU, or 0.01%, with a slight decrease in liquid fuel consumption from the baseline, but increases in natural gas and coal consumption.

Table 7-11 Total Energy Consumption by Energy Type (Quadrillion BTU), NSPS Options

	2011	Future NSPS Scenario, 2015 Baseline	Option 1	Option 2 (Proposed)	Option 3
Consumption (quadrillion BTU)					
Liquid Fuels	37.41	39.10	39.09	39.10	39.09
Natural gas	24.49	25.77	25.82	25.79	25.79
Coal	20.42	19.73	19.71	19.74	19.74
Nuclear Power	8.40	8.77	8.77	8.77	8.77
Hydropower	2.58	2.92	2.92	2.92	2.92
Biomass	2.98	3.27	3.28	3.27	3.27
Other Renewable Energy	1.72	2.14	2.14	2.14	2.14
Other	0.30	0.31	0.31	0.31	0.31
Total	**98.29**	**102.02**	**102.04**	**102.04**	**102.03**
% Change in Consumption from Baseline					
Liquid Fuels			-0.03%	0.00%	-0.03%
Natural Gas			0.19%	0.08%	0.08%
Coal			-0.10%	0.05%	0.05%
Nuclear Power			0.00%	0.00%	0.00%
Hydropower			0.00%	0.00%	0.00%
Biomass			0.31%	0.00%	0.00%
Other Renewable Energy			0.00%	0.00%	0.00%
Other			0.00%	0.00%	0.00%
Total			**0.02%**	**0.02%**	**0.01%**

Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

With the national profile of energy consumption estimated to change slightly under the regulatory options in 2015, the year of analysis, it is important to examine whether aggregate energy-related CO_2-equivalent greenhouse gas (GHG) emissions also shift. A more detailed discussion of changes in CO_2-equivalent GHG emissions from a baseline is presented within the benefits analysis in Section 4. Here, we present a single NEMS-based table showing estimated changes in energy-related "consumer-side" GHG emissions. We use the terms "consumer-side" emissions to distinguish emissions from the consumption of fuel from emissions specifically associated with the extraction, processing, and transportation of fuels in the oil and natural gas sector under examination in this RIA. We term the emissions associated with extraction, processing, and transportation of fuels "producer-side" emissions.

Table 7-12 Modeled Change in Energy-related "Consumer-Side" CO_2-equivalent GHG Emissions

	2011	Future NSPS Scenario, 2015 Baseline	Option 1	Option 2 (Proposed)	Option 3
Energy-related CO_2-equivalent GHG Emissions (million metric tons CO_2-equivalent)					
Petroleum	2,359.59	2,433.60	2,433.12	2,433.49	2,433.45
Natural Gas	1,283.78	1,352.20	1,354.47	1,353.19	1,352.87
Coal	1,946.02	1,882.08	1,879.84	1,883.24	1,883.30
Other	11.99	11.99	11.99	11.99	11.99
Total	**5,601.39**	**5,679.87**	**5,679.42**	**5,681.91**	**5,681.61**
% Change in Energy-related CO_2-equivalent GHG Emissions from Baseline					
Petroleum			-0.02%	0.00%	-0.01%
Natural Gas			0.17%	0.07%	0.05%
Coal			-0.12%	0.06%	0.06%
Other			0.00%	0.00%	0.00%
Total			**-0.01%**	**0.04%**	**0.03%**

Note: Excludes “producer-side” emissions and emissions reductions estimated to result from NSPS alternatives. Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

As is shown in Table 7-12, NSPS Option 1 is predicted to slightly decrease aggregate consumer-side energy-related CO_2-equivalent GHG emissions, by about 0.01 percent, while the mix of emissions shifts slightly away from coal and petroleum toward natural gas. Proposed Options 2 and 3 are estimated to increase consumer-side aggregate energy-related CO_2-equivalent GHG emissions by about 0.04 and 0.03 percent, respectively, mainly because consumer-side emissions from natural gas and coal combustion increase slightly.

7.3 Employment Impact Analysis

While a standalone analysis of employment impacts is not included in a standard cost-benefit analysis, such an analysis is of particular concern in the current economic climate of sustained high unemployment. Executive Order 13563, states, “Our regulatory system must protect public health, welfare, safety, and our environment while promoting economic growth, innovation, competitiveness, and job creation” (emphasis added). Therefore, we seek to inform the discussion of labor demand and job impacts by providing an estimate of the employment impacts of the proposed regulations using labor requirements for the installation, operation, and maintenance of control requirements, as well as reporting and recordkeeping requirements. Unlike several recent RIAs, however, we do not provide employment impacts estimates based on the study by Morgenstern et al. (2002); we discuss this decision after presenting estimates of the labor requirements associated with reporting and recordkeeping and the installation, operation, and maintenance of control requirements.

7.3.1 Employment Impacts from Pollution Control Requirements

Regulations set in motion new orders for pollution control equipment and services. New categories of employment have been created in the process of implementing regulations to make our air safer to breathe. When a new regulation is promulgated, a response of industry is to order pollution control equipment and services in order to comply with the regulation when it becomes effective. Revenue and employment in the environmental technology industry have grown steadily between 2000 and 2008, reaching an industry total of approximately $300 billion in revenues and 1.7 million employees in 2008.[52] While these revenues and employment figures represent gains for the environmental technologies industry, they are costs to the regulated industries required to install the equipment. Moreover, it is not clear the 1.7 million employees in 2008 represent new employment as opposed to workers being shifted from the production of goods and services to environmental compliance activities.

Once the equipment is installed, regulated firms hire workers to operate and maintain the pollution control equipment – much like they hire workers to produce more output. Morgenstern et al. (2002) examined how regulated industries respond to regulation. The authors found that, on average for the industries they studied, employment increases in regulated firms. Of course, these firms may also reassign existing employees to perform these activities.

[52] In 2008, the industry totaled approximately $315 billion in revenues and 1.9 million employees including indirect employment effects, pollution abatement equipment production employed approximately 4.2 million workers in 2008. These indirect employment effects are based on a multiplier for indirect employment = 2.24 (1982 value from Nestor and Pasurka - approximate middle of range of multipliers 1977-1991). Environmental Business International (EBI), Inc., San Diego, CA. Environmental Business Journal, monthly (copyright). http://www.ebiusa.com/ EBI data taken from the Department of Commerce International Trade Administration Environmental Industries Fact Sheet from April 2010: http://web.ita.doc.gov/ete/eteinfo.nsf/068f3801d047f26e85256883006ffa54/4878b7e2fc08ac6d85256883006c452c?OpenDocument

Environmental regulations support employment in many basic industries. In addition to the increase in employment in the environmental protection industry (via increased orders for pollution control equipment), environmental regulations also support employment in industries that provide intermediate goods to the environmental protection industry. The equipment manufacturers, in turn, order steel, tanks, vessels, blowers, pumps, and chemicals to manufacture and install the equipment. Bezdek et al. (2008) found that investments in environmental protection industries create jobs and displace jobs, but the net effect on employment is positive.

The focus of this part of the analysis is on labor requirements related to the compliance actions of the affected entities within the affected sector. We do not estimate any potential changes in labor outside of the oil and natural gas sector. This analysis estimates the employment impacts due to the installation, operation, and maintenance of control equipment, as well as employment associated with new reporting and recordkeeping requirements.

It is important to highlight that unlike the typical case where to reduce a bad output (i.e., emissions) a firm often has to reduce production of the good output, many of the emission controls required by the proposed NSPS will simultaneously increase production of the good output and reduce production of bad outputs. That is, these controls jointly produce environmental improvements and increase output in the regulated sector. New labor associated with implementing these controls to comply with the new regulations can also be viewed as additional labor increasing output while reducing undesirable emissions.

No estimates of the labor used to manufacture or assemble pollution control equipment or to supply the materials for manufacture or assembly are included because U.S. EPA does not currently have this information. The employment analysis uses a bottom-up engineering-based methodology to estimate employment impacts. The engineering cost analysis summarized in this RIA includes estimates of the labor requirements associated with implementing the proposed regulations. Each of these labor changes may either be required as part of an initial effort to comply with the new regulation or required as a continuous or annual effort to maintain compliance. We estimate up-front and continual, annual labor requirements by estimating hours of labor required and converting this number to full-time equivalents (FTEs) by dividing by 2,080 (40 hours per week multiplied by 52 weeks). We note that this type of FTE estimate cannot be used to make assumptions about the specific number of people involved or whether new jobs are created for new employees.

In other employment analyses U.S. EPA distinguished between employment changes within the regulated industry and those changes outside the regulated industry (e.g. a contractor from outside the regulated facility is employed to install a control device). For this regulation however, the structure of the industry makes this difficult. The mix of in-house versus contracting services used by firms is very case-specific in the oil and natural gas industry. For example, sometimes the owner of the well, processing plant, or transmission pipelines uses in–house employees extensively in daily operations, while in other cases the owner relies on outside contractors for many of these services. For this reason, we make no distinction in the quantitative estimates between labor changes within and outside of the regulated sector.

The results of this employment estimate are presented in Table 7-13 for the proposed NSPS and in Table 7-14 for the proposed NESHAP amendments. The tables breaks down the installation, operation, and maintenance estimates by type of pollution control evaluated in the RIA and present both the estimated hours required and the conversion of this estimate to FTE. For both the proposed NSPS and NESHAP amendments, reporting and recordkeeping requirements were estimated for the entire rules rather than by anticipated control requirements; the reporting and recordkeeping estimates are consistent with estimates EPA submitted as part of its Information Collection Request (ICR).

The up-front labor requirement is estimated at 230 FTEs for the proposed NSPS and about 120 FTEs for the proposed NESHAP amendments. These up-front FTE labor requirements can be viewed as short-term labor requirements required for affected entities to comply with the new regulation. Ongoing requirements are estimated at about 2,400 FTEs for the proposed NSPS and about 102 FTEs for the proposed NESHAP amendments. These ongoing FTE labor requirements can be viewed as sustained labor requirements required for affected entities to continuously comply with the new regulation

Two main categories contain the majority of the labor requirements for the proposed rules: implementing reduced emissions completions (RECs) and reporting and recordkeeping requirements for the proposed NSPS. Also, note that pneumatic controllers have no up-front or continuing labor requirements. While the controls do require labor for installation, operation, and maintenance, the required labor is less than that of the controllers that would be used absent the regulation. In this instance, we assume the incremental labor requirements are zero.

Implementing RECs are estimated to require about 2,230 FTE, over 90 percent of the total continuing labor requirements for the proposed NSPS.[53] We denote REC-related requirements as continuing, or annual, as the REC requirements will in fact recur annually, albeit at different wells each year. The REC requirements are associated with certain new well completions or existing well recompletions, which while individual completions occur over a short period of time (days to a few weeks), new wells and other existing wells are completed or recompleted annually. Because of these reasons, we assume the REC-related labor requirements are annual.

7.3.2 Employment Impacts Primarily on the Regulated Industry

In previous RIAs, we transferred parameters from a study by Morgenstern et al. (2002) to estimate employment effects of new regulations. (See, for example, the Regulatory Impact Analysis for the recently finalized Industrial Boilers and CISWI rulemakings, promulgated on February 21, 2011). The fundamental insight of Morgenstern, et al. is that environmental regulations can be understood as requiring regulated firms to add a new output (environmental quality) to their product mixes. Although legally compelled to satisfy this new demand, regulated firms have to finance this additional production with the proceeds of sales of their other (market) products. Satisfying this new demand requires additional inputs, including labor, and may alter the relative proportions of labor and capital used by regulated firms in their production processes.

Morgenstern et al. concluded that increased abatement expenditures in these industries generally do not cause a significant change in employment. Using plant-level Census

[53] As shown on earlier in this section, we project that the number of successful natural gas wells drilled in 2015 will decline slightly from the baseline projection. Therefore, there may be small employment losses in drilling-related employment that partly offset gains in employment from compliance-related activities.

information between the years 1979 and 1991, Morgenstern et al. estimate the size of each effect for four polluting and regulated industries (petroleum refining, plastic material, pulp and paper, and steel). On average across the four industries, each additional $1 million (1987$) spending on pollution abatement results in a (statistically insignificant) net increase of 1.55 (+/- 2.24) jobs. As a result, the authors conclude that increases in pollution abatement expenditures do not necessarily cause economically significant employment changes.

For this version of RIA for the proposed NSPS and NESHAP amendments, however, we chose not to quantitatively estimate employment impacts using Morgenstern et al. because of reasons specific to the oil and natural gas industry and proposed rules. We believe the transfer of parameter estimates from the Morgenstern et al. study to the proposed NSPS and NESHAP amendments is beyond the range of the study for two reasons.

Table 7-13 Labor-based Employment Estimates for Reporting and Recordkeeping and Installing, Operating, and Maintaining Control Equipment Requirements, Proposed NSPS Option in 2015

Source/Emissions Point	Emissions Control	Projected No. of Affected Units	Per Unit Up- Front Labor Estimate (hours)	Per Unit Annual Labor Estimate (hours)	Total Up- Front Labor Estimate (hours)	Total Annual Labor Estimate (hours)	Up-Front Full-Time Equivalent	Annual Full-Time Equivalent
Well Completions								
Hydraulically Fractured Gas Wells	Reduced Emissions Completion (REC)	9,313	0	218	0	2,025,869	0.0	974.0
Hydraulically Fractured Gas Wells	Combustion	446	0	22	0	9,626	0.0	4.6
Well Recompletions								
Hydraulically Fractured Gas Wells (pre-NSPS wells)	REC	12,050	0	218	0	2,621,126	0.0	1,260.2
Equipment Leaks								
Processing Plants	NSPS Subpart VVA	29	587	887	17,023	25,723	8.2	12.4
Reciprocating Compressors								
Gathering/Boosting Stations	AMM	210	1	1	210	210	0.1	0.1
Processing Plants	AMM	375	1	1	375	375	0.2	0.2
Transmission Compressor Stations	AMM	199	1	1	199	199	0.1	0.1
Underground Storage Facilities	AMM	9	1	1	9	9	0.0	0.0
Centrifugal Compressors								
Processing Plants	Dry Seals/Route to Process or Control	16	355	0	5,680	0	2.7	0.0
Transmission Compressor Stations	Dry Seals/Route to Process or Control	14	355	0	4,970	0	2.4	0.0
Pneumatic Controllers								
Oil and Gas Production	Low Bleed/Route to Process	13,632	0	0	0	0	0.0	0.0
Natural Gas Trans. and Storage	Low Bleed/Route to Process	67	0	0	0	0	0.0	0.0
Storage Vessels								
High Throughput	95% control	304	271	190	82,279	57,582	39.6	27.7
Reporting and Recordkeeping for Complete NSPS		---	---	---	360,443	201,342	173.3	96.8
TOTAL		**---**	**---**	**---**	**471,187**	**4,942,060**	**226.5**	**2,376.0**

Note: Full-time equivalents (FTE) are estimated by first multiplying the projected number of affected units by the per unit labor requirements and then multiplying by 2,080 (40 hours multiplied by 52 weeks). Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

Table 7-14 Labor-based Employment Estimates for Reporting and Recordkeeping and Installing, Operating, and Maintaining Control Equipment Requirements, Proposed NESHAP Amendments in 2015

Source/Emissions Point	Emissions Control	Projected No. of Affected Units	Per Unit One-time Labor Estimate (hours)	Per Unit Annual Labor Estimate (hours)	Total One-Time Labor Estimate (hours)	Total Annual Labor Estimate (hours)	One-time Full-Time Equivalent	Annual Full-Time Equivalent
Small Glycol Dehydrators								
Production	Combustion devices, recovery devices, process modifications	115	27	285	3,108	32,821	1.5	15.8
Transmission	Combustion devices, recovery devices, process modifications	19	27	285	513	5,423	0.2	2.6
Storage Vessels								
Production	Combustion devices, recovery devices	674	311	198	209,753	133,231	100.8	64.1
Reporting and Recordkeeping for Complete NESHAP Amendments		---	---	---	36,462	39,923	17.5	19.2
TOTAL		**---**	**--**	**---**	**249,836**	**211,398**	**120.1**	**101.6**

Note: Full-time equivalents (FTE) are estimated by first multiplying the projected number of affected units by the per unit labor requirements and then multiplying by 2,080 (40 hours multiplied by 52 weeks). Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

First, the possibility that the revenues producers are estimated to receive from additional natural gas recovery as a result of the proposed NSPS might offset the costs of complying with the rule presents challenges to estimating employment effects (see Section 3.2.2.1 of the RIA for a detailed discussion of the natural gas recovery). The Morgenstern et al. paper, for example, is intended to analyze the impact of environmental compliance expenditures on industry employment levels, and it may not be appropriate to draw on their demand and net effects when compliance costs are expected to be negative.

Second, the proposed regulations primarily affect the natural gas production, processing, and transmission segments of the industry. While the natural gas processing segment of the oil and natural gas industry is similar to petroleum refining, which is examined in Morgenstern et al., the production side of the oil and natural gas (drilling and extraction, primarily) and natural gas pipeline transmission are not similar to petroleum refining. Because of the likelihood of negative compliance costs for the proposed NSPS and the segments of the oil and natural gas industry affected by the proposals are not examined by Morgenstern et al., we decided not to use the parameters estimated by Morgenstern et al. to estimate within-industry employment effects for the proposed oil and natural gas NESHAP amendments and NSPS.

That said, the likelihood of additional natural gas recovery is an important component of the market response to the rule, as it is expected that this additional natural gas recovery will reduce the price of natural gas. Because of the estimated fall in prices in the natural gas sector due to the proposed NSPS, prices in other sectors that consume natural gas are likely drop slightly due to the decrease in energy prices. This small production increase and price decrease may have a slight stimulative effect on employment in industries that consume natural gas.

7.4 Small Business Impacts Analysis

The Regulatory Flexibility Act as amended by the Small Business Regulatory Enforcement Fairness Act (SBREFA) generally requires an agency to prepare a regulatory flexibility analysis of any rule subject to notice and comment rulemaking requirements under the Administrative Procedure Act or any other statute, unless the agency certifies that the rule will not have a significant economic impact on a substantial number of small entities. Small entities include small businesses, small governmental jurisdictions, and small not-for-profit enterprises.

After considering the economic impact of the proposed rules on small entities for both the NESHAP and NSPS, the screening analysis indicates that these proposed rules will not have a significant economic impact on a substantial number of small entities (or "SISNOSE"). The supporting analyses for these determinations are presented in this section of the RIA.

As discussed in previous sections of the economic impact analysis, under the proposed NSPS, some affected producers are likely to be able to recover natural gas that would otherwise be vented to the atmosphere, as well as recover saleable condensates that would otherwise be emitted. EPA estimates that the revenues from this additional natural gas product recovery will offset the costs of implementing control options implemented as a result of the Proposed NSPS. Because the total costs of the rule are likely to be more than offset by the revenues producers gain from increased natural gas recovery, we expect there will be no SISNOSE arising from the proposed NSPS. However, not all components of the proposed NSPS are estimated to have cost savings. Therefore, we analyze potential impacts to better understand the potential distribution of impacts across industry segments and firms. We feel taking this approach strengthens the determination that there will be no SISNOSE. Unlike the controls for the proposed NSPS, the controls evaluated under the proposed NESHAP amendments do not recover significant quantities of natural gas products.

7.4.1 Small Business National Overview

The industry sectors covered by the final rule were identified during the development of the engineering cost analysis. The U.S. Census Bureau's Statistics of U.S. Businesses (SUSB) provides national information on the distribution of economic variables by industry and enterprise size. The Census Bureau and the Office of Advocacy of the Small Business Administration (SBA) supported and developed these files for use in a broad range of economic analyses.[54] Statistics include the total number of establishments, and receipts for all entities in an industry; however, many of these entities may not necessarily be covered by the final rule. SUSB also provides statistics by enterprise employment and receipt size (Table 7-15 and Table 7-16).

[54] See http://www.census.gov/csd/susb/ and http://www.sba.gov/advocacy/ for additional details.

The Census Bureau's definitions used in the SUSB are as follows:

- *Establishment*: A single physical location where business is conducted or where services or industrial operations are performed.
- *Firm:* A firm is a business organization consisting of one or more domestic establishments in the same state and industry that were specified under common ownership or control. The firm and the establishment are the same for single-establishment firms. For each multi-establishment firm, establishments in the same industry within a state will be counted as one firm- the firm employment and annual payroll are summed from the associated establishments.
- *Receipts*: Receipts (net of taxes) are defined as the revenue for goods produced, distributed, or services provided, including revenue earned from premiums, commissions and fees, rents, interest, dividends, and royalties. Receipts exclude all revenue collected for local, state, and federal taxes.
- *Enterprise*: An enterprise is a business organization consisting of one or more domestic establishments that were specified under common ownership or control. The enterprise and the establishment are the same for single-establishment firms. Each multi-establishment company forms one enterprise—the enterprise employment and annual payroll are summed from the associated establishments. Enterprise size designations are determined by the sum of employment of all associated establishments.

Because the SBA's business size definitions (SBA, 2008) apply to an establishment's "ultimate parent company," we assumed in this analysis that the "firm" definition above is consistent with the concept of ultimate parent company that is typically used for SBREFA screening analyses, and the terms are used interchangeably.

Table 7-15 Number of Firms, Total Employment, and Estimated Receipts by Firm Size and NAICS, 2007

			Owned by Firms with:					
NAICS	NAICS Description	SBA Size Standard (effective Nov. 5, 2010)	< 20 Employees	20-99 Employees	100-499 Employees	Total < 500 Employees	> 500 Employees	Total Firms
Number of Firms by Firm Size								
211111	Crude Petroleum and Natural Gas Extraction	500	5,759	455	115	6,329	95	6,424
211112	Natural Gas Liquid Extraction	500	77	9	12	98	41	139
213111	Drilling Oil and Gas Wells	500	1,580	333	97	2,010	49	2,059
486210	Pipeline Transportation of Natural Gas	$7.0 million	63	12	9	84	42	126
Total Employment by Firm Size								
211111	Crude Petroleum and Natural Gas Extraction	500	21,170	16,583	17,869	55,622	77,664	133,286
211112	Natural Gas Liquid Extraction	500	372	305	1,198	1,875	6,648	8,523
213111	Drilling Oil and Gas Wells	500	5,972	13,787	16,893	36,652	69,774	106,426
486210	Pipeline Transportation of Natural Gas	$7.0 million	241	382	1,479	2,102	22,581	24,683
Estimated Receipts by Firm Size ($1000)								
211111	Crude Petroleum and Natural Gas Extraction	500	12,488,688	15,025,443	17,451,805	44,965,936	149,141,316	194,107,252
211112	Natural Gas Liquid Extraction	500	209,640	217,982	1,736,706	2,164,328	37,813,413	39,977,741
213111	Drilling Oil and Gas Wells	500	1,101,481	2,460,301	3,735,652	7,297,434	16,550,804	23,848,238
486210	Pipeline Transportation of Natural Gas	$7.0 million	332,177	518,341	1,448,020	2,298,538	18,498,143	20,796,681

Source: U.S. Census Bureau. 2010. "Number of Firms, Number of Establishments, Employment, Annual Payroll, and Estimated Receipts by Enterprise Receipt Size for the United States, All Industries: 2007." <http://www.census.gov/econ/susb/>

Table 7-16 Distribution of Small and Large Firms by Number of Firms, Total Employment, and Estimated Receipts by Firm Size and NAICS, 2007

			Percent of Firms		
NAICS	NAICS Description	Total Firms	Small Businesses	Large Businesses	Total Firms
Number of Firms by Firm Size					
211111	Crude Petroleum and Natural Gas Extraction	6,424	98.5%	1.5%	100.0%
211112	Natural Gas Liquid Extraction	139	70.5%	29.5%	100.0%
213111	Drilling Oil and Gas Wells	2,059	97.6%	2.4%	100.0%
486210	Pipeline Transportation of Natural Gas	126	48.4%	51.6%	100.0%
Total Employment by Firm Size					
211111	Crude Petroleum and Natural Gas Extraction	133,286	41.7%	58.3%	100.0%
211112	Natural Gas Liquid Extraction	8,523	22.0%	78.0%	100.0%
213111	Drilling Oil and Gas Wells	106,426	34.4%	65.6%	100.0%
486210	Pipeline Transportation of Natural Gas	24,683	N/A*	N/A*	N/A*
Estimated Receipts by Firm Size ($1000)					
211111	Crude Petroleum and Natural Gas Extraction	194,107,252	23.2%	76.8%	100.0%
211112	Natural Gas Liquid Extraction	39,977,741	5.4%	94.6%	100.0%
213111	Drilling Oil and Gas Wells	23,848,238	30.6%	69.4%	100.0%
486210	Pipeline Transportation of Natural Gas	20,796,681	N/A*	N/A*	N/A*

Note: Employment and receipts could not be broken down between small and large businesses because of non-disclosure requirements.
Source: SBA

While the SBA and Census Bureau statistics provide informative broad contextual information on the distribution of enterprises by receipts and number of employees, it is also useful to additionally contrast small and large enterprises (where large enterprises are defined as those that are not small, according to SBA criteria) in the oil and natural gas industry. The summary statistics presented in previous tables indicate that there are a large number of relatively small firms and a small number of large firms. Given the majority of expected impacts of the proposed rules arises from well completion-related requirements, which impacts production activities, exclusively, some explanation of this particular market structure is warranted as it pertains to production and small entities. An important question to answer is whether there are particular roles that small entities serve in the production segment of the oil and natural gas industry that may be disproportionately affected by the proposed rules.

The first important broad distinction among firms is whether they are independent or integrated. Independent firms concentrate on exploration and production (E&P) activities, while integrated firms are vertically integrated and often have operations in E&P, processing, refining, transportation, and retail. To our awareness, there are no small integrated firms. Independent firms may own and operate wells or provide E&P-related services to the oil and gas industry. Since we are focused on evaluating potential impacts to small firms owning and operating new and existing hydraulically fractured wells, we should narrow down on this sector.

In our understanding, there is no single industry niche for small entities in the production segment of the industry since small operators have different business strategies and that small entities can own different types of wells. The organization of firms in oil and natural gas industry also varies greatly from firm to firm. Additionally, oil and natural gas resources vary widely geographically and can vary significantly within a single field.

Among many important roles, independent small operators historically pioneered exploration in new areas, as well as developed new technologies. By taking on these relatively large risks, these small entrepreneurs (wildcatters) have been critical sources of industrial innovation and opened up critical new energy supplies for the U.S. (HIS Global Insight). In recent decades, as the oil and gas industry has concentrated via mergers, many of these smaller firms have been absorbed into large firms.

Another critical role, which provides an interesting contrast to small firms pioneering new territory, is that smaller independents maintain and operate a large proportion of the Nation’s low producing wells, which are also known as marginal or stripper wells (Duda et al. 2005). While marginal wells represent about 80 percent of the population of producing wells, they produce about 15 percent of domestic production, according to EIA (Table 7-17).

Table 7-17 Distribution of Crude Oil and Natural Gas Wells by Productivity Level, 2009

Type of Wells	Wells (no.)	Wells (%)	Production (MMbbl for oil and Bcf gas)	Production (%)
Crude Oil				
Stripper Wells (<15 boe per year)	310,552	85%	311	19%
Other Wells (>=15 boe per year)	52,907	15%	1,331	81%
Total Crude Oil Wells	**363,459**	**100%**	**1,642**	**100%**
Natural Gas				
Natural Gas Stripper Wells (<15 boe per year)	338,056	73%	2,912	12%
Other Natural Gas Wells (>=15 boe per year)	123,332	27%	21,048	88%
Total Natural Gas Wells	**461,388**	**100%**	**23,959**	**100%**

Source: U.S. Energy Information Administration, **Distribution of Wells by Production Rate Bracket.** <http://www.eia.gov/pub/oil_gas/petrosystem/us_table.html> Accessed 7/10/11.

Note: Natural gas production converted to barrels oil equivalent (boe) uses the conversion of 0.178 barrels of crude oil to 1000 cubic feet natural gas.

Many of these wells were likely drilled and initially operated by major firms (although the data are not available to quantify the percentage of wells initially drilled by small versus large producers). Well productivity levels typically follow a steep decline curve; high production in earlier years but sustained low production for decades. Because of relatively low overhead of maintaining and operating few relatively co-located wells, some small operators with a particular business strategy purchase low producing wells from the majors, who concentrate on new opportunities. As small operators have provided important technical innovation in exploration, small operators have also been sources of innovation in extending the productivity and lifespan of existing wells (Duda et al. 2005).

7.4.2 Small Entity Economic Impact Measures

The proposed Oil and Natural Gas NSPS and NESHAP amendments will affect the owners of the facilities that will incur compliance costs to control their regulated emissions. The owners, either firms or individuals, are the entities that will bear the financial impacts associated with these additional operating costs. The proposed rule has the potential to impact all firms owning affected facilities, both large and small.

The analysis provides EPA with an estimate of the magnitude of impacts the proposed NSPS and NESHAP amendments may have on the ultimate domestic parent companies that own facilities EPA expects might be impacted by the rules. The analysis focuses on small firms because they may have more difficulty complying with a new regulation or affording the costs associated with meeting the new standard. This section presents the data sources used in the screening analysis, the methodology we applied to develop estimates of impacts, the results of the analysis, and conclusions drawn from the results.

The small business impacts analysis for the NSPS and NESHAP amendments relies upon a series of firm-level sales tests (represented as cost-to-revenue ratios) for firms that are likely to be associated with NAICS codes listed in Table 7-15. For both the NSPS and NESHAP amendments, we obtained firm-level employment, revenues, and production levels using various sources, including the American Business Directory, the *Oil and Gas Journal*, corporate websites, and publically-available financial reports. Using these data, we estimated firm-level compliance cost impacts and calculated cost-to-revenue ratios to identify small firms that might be significantly impacts by the rules. The approaches taken for the NSPS and NESHAP amendments differed; more detail on approaches for each set of proposed rules is presented in the following sections.

For the sales test, we divided the estimates of annualized establishment compliance costs by estimates of firm revenue. This is known as the cost-to-revenue ratio, or the "sales test." The "sales test" is the impact methodology EPA employs in analyzing small entity impacts as opposed to a "profits test," in which annualized compliance costs are calculated as a share of profits. The sales test is often used because revenues or sales data are commonly available for entities impacted by EPA regulations, and profits data normally made available are often not the true profit earned by firms because of accounting and tax considerations. Revenues as typically published are correct figures and are more reliably reported when compared to profit data. The use of a "sales test" for estimating small business impacts for a rulemaking such as this one is consistent with guidance offered by EPA on compliance with SBREFA[55] and is consistent with guidance published by the U.S. SBA's Office of Advocacy that suggests that cost as a percentage

[55] The SBREFA compliance guidance to EPA rulewriters regarding the types of small business analysis that should be considered can be found at <http://www.epa.gov/sbrefa/documents/rfaguidance11-00-06.pdf>

of total revenues is a metric for evaluating cost increases on small entities in relation to increases on large entities (U.S. SBA, 2010).[568]

7.4.3 Small Entity Economic Impact Analysis, Proposed NSPS

7.4.3.1 Overview of Sample Data and Methods

The proposed NSPS covers emissions points within various stages of the oil and natural gas production process. We expect that firms within multiple NAICS codes will be affected, namely the NAICS categories presented in Table 7-15. Because of the diversity of the firms potentially affected, we decided to analyze three distinct groups of firms within the oil and natural gas industry, while accounting for overlap across the groups. We analyze firms that are involved in oil and natural gas extraction that are likely to drill and operate wells, while a subset are integrated firms involved in multiple segments of production, as well as retailing products. We also analyze firms that primarily operate natural gas processing plants. A third set of firms we analyzed contains firms that primarily operate natural gas compression and pipeline transmission.

To identify firms involved in the drilling and primary production of oil and natural gas, we relied upon the annual *Oil and Gas Journal* 150 Survey (OGJ 150) as described in the Industry Profile in Section 2. While the OGJ 150 lists public firms, we believe the list is reasonably representative of the larger population of public and private firms operating in this segment of the industry. While the proportion of small firm in the OGJ 150 is smaller than the proportion evaluated by the Census SUSB, the OGJ 150 provides detailed information on the production activities and financial returns of the firms within the list, which are critical ingredients to the small business impacts analysis. We drew upon the OGJ 150 lists published for the years 2008 and 2009 (*Oil and Gas Journal*, September 21, 2009 and *Oil and Gas Journal*, September 6, 2010). The year 2009 saw relatively low levels of drilling activities because of the economic recession, while 2008 saw a relatively high level of drilling activity because of high fuel prices. Combined, we believe these two years of data are representative.

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[56]U.S. SBA, Office of Advocacy. A Guide for Government Agencies, How to Comply with the Regulatory Flexibility Act, Implementing the President's Small Business Agenda and Executive Order 13272, June 2010.

To identify firms that process natural gas, the OGJ also releases a period report entitled "Worldwide Gas Processing Survey", which provides a wide range of information on existing processing facilities. We used the most recent list of U.S. gas processing facilities[57] and other resources, such as the American Business Directory and company websites, to best identify the parent company of the facilities. To identify firms that compress and transport natural gas via pipelines, we examined the periodic OGJ survey on the economics of the U.S. pipeline industry. This report examines the economic status of all major and non-major natural gas pipeline companies.[58] For these firms, we also used the American Business Directory and corporate websites to best identify the ultimate owner of the facilities or companies.

After combining the information for exploration and production firms, natural gas processing firms, and natural gas pipeline transmission firms in order to identify overlaps across the list, the approach yielded a sample of 274 firms that would potentially be affected by the proposed NSPS in 2015 assuming their 2015 production activities were similar to those in 2008 and 2009. We estimate that 129 (47 percent) of these firms are small according to SBA criteria. We estimate 121 firms (44 percent) are not small firms according to SBA criteria. We are unable to classify the remaining 24 firms (9 percent) because of a lack of required information on employee counts or revenue estimates.

Table 7-18 shows the estimated revenues for 250 firms for which we have sufficient data that would be potentially affected by the proposed NSPS based upon their activities in 2008 and 2009. We segmented the sample into four groups, production and integrated firms, processing firms, pipeline firms, and pipelines/processing firms. For the firms in the pipelines/processing group, we were unable to determine the firms' primary line of business, so we opted to group together as a fourth group.

[57] Oil and Gas Journal. "Special Report: Worldwide Gas Processing: New Plants, Data Push Global Gas Processing Capacity Ahead in 2009." June 7, 2010.
[58] Oil and Gas Journal. "Natural Gas Pipelines Continue Growth Despite Lower Earnings; Oil Profits Grow." November 1, 2010.

Table 7-18 Estimated Revenues for Firms in Sample, by Firm Type and Size

		Estimated Revenues (millions, 2008 dollars)				
Firm Type/Size	Number of Firms	Total	Average	Median	Minimum	Maximum
Production and Integrated						
Small	79	18,554.5	234.9	76.3	0.1	1,116.9
Large	49	1,347,463.0	27,499.2	1,788.3	12.9	310,586.0
Subtotal	128	1,366,017.4	10,672.0	344.6	0.1	310,586.0
Pipeline						
Small	11	694.5	63.1	4.6	0.5	367.0
Large	36	166,290.2	4,619.2	212.9	7.1	112,493.0
Subtotal	47	166,984.6	3,552.9	108.0	0.5	112,493.0
Processing						
Small	39	4,972.1	127.5	26.9	1.9	1,459.1
Large	23	177,632.1	8,881.6	2,349.4	10.4	90,000.0
Subtotal	62	182,604.2	3,095.0	41.3	1.9	90,000.0
Pipelines/Processing						
Small	0	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
Large	13	175,128.5	13,471.4	6,649.4	858.6	71,852.0
Subtotal	13	175,128.5	13,471.4	6,649.4	858.6	71,852.0
Total						
Small	**129**	**24,221.1**	**187.8**	**34.9**	**0.1**	**1,459.1**
Large	**121**	**1,866,513.7**	**15,817.9**	**1,672.1**	**7.1**	**310,586.0**
Total	**250**	**1,890,734.8**	**7,654.8**	**163.9**	**0.1**	**310,586.0**

Sources: *Oil and Gas Journal*. "OGJ150." September 21, 2009; *Oil and Gas Journal*. "OGJ150 Financial Results Down in '09; Production, Reserves Up." September 6, 2010. *Oil and Gas Journal*. "Special Report: Worldwide Gas Processing: New Plants, Data Push Global Gas Processing Capacity Ahead in 2009." June 7, 2010, with additional analysis to determine ultimate ownership of plants. *Oil and Gas Journal*. "Natural Gas Pipelines Continue Growth Despite Lower Earnings; Oil Profits Grow." November 1, 2010. American Business Directory was used to determine number of employees.

As shown in Table 7-18, there is a wide variety of revenue levels across firm size, as well as across industry segments. The estimated revenues within the sample are concentrated on integrated firms and firms engaged in production activities (the E&P firms mentioned earlier).

The oil and natural gas industry is capital-intensive. To provide more context on the potential impacts of new regulatory requirements, Table 7-19 presents descriptive statistics for small and large integrated and production firms from the sample of firms (121 of the 128 integrated and production firms listed in the *Oil and Gas Journal*; capital and exploration expenditures for 7 firms were not reported in the *Oil and Gas Journal*).

Table 7-19 Descriptive Statistics of Capital and Exploration Expenditures, Small and Large Firms in Sample, 2008 and 2009 (million 2008 dollars)

		Capital and Exploration Expenditures (millions, 2008 dollars)				
Firm Size	Number	Total	Average	Median	Minimum	Maximum
Small	76	13,478.8	177.4	67.1	0.1	2,401.9
Large	45	126,749.3	2,816.7	918.1	10.3	22,518.7
Total	**121**	**140,228.2**	**1,158.9**	**192.8**	**0.1**	**22,518.7**

Sources: *Oil and Gas Journal*. "OGJ150." September 21, 2009; *Oil and Gas Journal*. "OGJ150 Financial Results Down in '09; Production, Reserves Up." September 6, 2010. American Business Directory was used to determine number of employees.

The average 2008 and 2009 total capital and exploration expenditures for the sample of 121 firms were $140 billion in 2008 dollars). About 10 percent of this total was spent by small firms. Average capital and explorations expenditures for small firms are about 6 percent of large firms; median expenditures of small firms are about 7 percent of large firms' expenditures. For small firms, capital and exploration expenditures are high relative to revenue, which appears to hold true more generally for independent E&P firms compared to integrated major firms. This would seem to indicate the capital-intensive nature of E&P activities. As expected, this would drive up ratios comparing estimated engineering costs to revenues and capital and exploration expenditures.

Table 7-20 breaks down the estimated number of natural gas and crude oil wells drilled by the 121 firms in the sample for which the *Oil and Gas Journal* information reported well-drilling estimates. Note the fractions on the minimum and maximum statistics; the fractions reported are due to our assumptions to estimate oil and natural gas wells drilled from the total wells drilled reported by the *Oil and Gas Journal*. The OGJ150 lists new wells drilled by firm in 2008 and 2009, but the drilling counts are not specific to crude oil or natural gas wells. We apportion the wells drilled to natural gas and crude oil wells using the distribution of well drilling in 2009 (63 percent natural gas and 37 percent oil).

Table 7-20 Descriptive Statistics of Estimated Wells Drilled, Small and Large Firms in Sample, 2008 and 2009 (million 2008 dollars)

			Estimated Average Wells Natural Gas and Crude Oil Wells Drilled (2008 and 2009)				
Well Type	Firm Size	Number of Firms	Total	Average	Median	Minimum	Maximum
Natural Gas							
	Small	76	2,288.3	30.1	6.0	0.2	259.3
	Large	45	9,445.1	209.9	149.1	0.6	868.3
	Subtotal	121	11,733.4	97.0	28.3	0.2	868.3
Crude Oil							
	Small	76	1,317.1	17.3	3.5	0.1	149.2
	Large	45	5,436.3	120.8	85.8	0.4	499.7
	Subtotal	121	6,753.4	55.8	16.3	0.1	499.7
Total							
	Small	**76**	**3,605.4**	**47.4**	**9.5**	**0.0**	**408.5**
	Large	**45**	**14,881.4**	**330.7**	**234.9**	**0.0**	**1,368.0**
	Total	**121**	**18,486.8**	**152.8**	**44.6**	**0.0**	**1,368.0**

Sources: *Oil and Gas Journal*. "OGJ150." September 21, 2009; *Oil and Gas Journal*. "OGJ150 Financial Results Down in '09; Production, Reserves Up." September 6, 2010. American Business Directory was used to determine number of employees.

This table highlights the fact that many firms drill relatively few wells; the median for small firms is 6 natural gas wells compared to 149 for large firms. Later in this section, we examine whether this distribution has implications for the engineering costs estimates, as well as the estimates of expected natural product recovery from controls such as RECs.

Unlike the analysis that follows for the analysis of impacts on small business from the NESHAP amendments, we have no specific data on potentially affected facilities under the NSPS. The NSPS will apply to new and modified sources, for which data are not fully available in advance, particularly in the case of new and modified sources such as well completions and recompletions which are spatially diffuse and potentially large in number.

The engineering cost analysis estimated compliance costs in a top-down fashion, projecting the number of new sources at an annual level and multiplying these estimates by model unit-level costs to estimate national impacts. To estimate per-firm compliance costs in this analysis, we followed a procedure similar to that of entering estimate compliance costs in NEMS on a per well basis. We first use the OGJ150-based list to estimate engineering compliance costs for integrated and production companies that may operate facilities in more than one segment of the oil and natural gas industry. We then estimate the compliance costs per crude oil and natural gas well by totaling all compliance costs estimates in the engineering cost estimates for the proposed NSPS and dividing that cost by the total number of crude oil and natural gas wells forecast as of 2015, the year of analysis. These compliance costs include the expected revenue from natural gas and condensate recovery that result from implementation of some proposed controls.

This estimation procedure yielded an estimate of crude well compliance costs of $162 per drilled well and natural gas well compliance costs of $38,719 without considering estimated revenues from product recovery and -$2,455 per drilled well with estimated revenues from product recovery included. Note that the divergence of estimated per well costs between crude oil and natural gas wells is because the proposed NSPS requirements are primary directed toward natural gas wells. Also note that the per well cost savings estimate for natural gas wells is different than the estimated cost of implementing a REC; this difference is because this estimate is picking up savings from other control options. We then estimate a single-year, firm-level compliance cost for this subset of firms by multiplying the per well cost estimates with the well count estimates.

The OGJ reports plant processing capacity in terms of MMcf/day. In the energy system impacts analysis, the NEMS model estimates a 6.5 percent increase (from 21.05 tcf in 2011 to 22.43 tcf in 2015) in domestic natural gas production from 2011 to 2015, the analysis year. On this, basis, we estimate that natural gas processing capacity for all plants in the OGJ list will increase 1.3 percent per year. This annual increment is equivalent to an increase in national gas processing capacity of 350 bcf per year. We assume that the engineering compliance costs estimates associated with processing are distributed according to the proportion of the increased national processing capacity contributed by each processing plant. These costs are estimated at $6.9 million without estimated revenues from product recovery and $2.3 million with estimated revenues from product recovery, respectively, in 2008 dollars, or about $20/MMcf without revenues and $7/MMcf with revenues.

The OGJ report on pipeline companies has the advantage that it reports expenditures on plant additions. We assume that the firm-level proposed compression and transmission-related NSPS compliance costs are proportional to the expenditures on plant additions and that these additions reflect a representative year or this analysis. We estimate the annual compression and transmission-related NSPS compliance costs at $5.5 million without estimated revenues from product recovery and $3.7 million with estimated revenues from product recovery, respectively, in 2008 dollars.

7.4.3.2 Small Entity Impact Analysis, Proposed NSPS, Results

Summing estimated annualized engineering compliance costs across industry segment and individual firms in our sample, we estimate firms in the OGJ-based sample will face about $480 million in 2008 dollars, about 65 percent of the estimated annualized costs of the Proposed NSPS without including revenues from additional product recovery ($740 million). When including revenues from additional product recovery, the estimated compliance costs for the firms in the sample is about -$23 million, compared to engineering cost estimate of -$45 million.

Table 7-21 presents the distribution of estimated proposed NSPS compliance costs across firm size for the firms within our sample. Evident from this table, about 98 percent of the estimated engineering compliance costs accrue to the integrated and production segment of the industry, again explain by the fact that completion-related requirements contribute the bulk of the estimated engineering compliance costs (as well as estimated emissions reductions). About 17 percent of the total estimated engineering compliance costs (and about 18 percent of the costs accruing the integrated and production segment) are focused on small firms.

Table 7-21 Distribution of Estimated Proposed NSPS Compliance Costs Without Revenues from Additional Natural Gas Product Recovery across Firm Size in Sample of Firms

		Estimated Engineering Compliance Costs Without Estimated Revenues from Natural Gas Product Recovery (2008 dollars)				
Firm Type/Size	Number of Firms	Total	Mean	Median	Minimum	Maximum
Production and Integrated						
Small	79	82,293,903	1,041,695	221,467	3,210	10,054,401
Large	49	387,489,928	7,907,958	5,730,634	15,238	33,677,388
Subtotal	128	469,783,831	3,670,186	969,519	3,210	33,677,388
Pipeline						
Small	11	3,386	308	111	18	1,144
Large	36	1,486,929	41,304	3,821	37	900,696
Subtotal	47	1,490,314	31,709	2,263	18	900,696
Processing						
Small	39	476,165	12,209	1,882	188	276,343
Large	23	859,507	37,370	8,132	38	423,645
Subtotal	62	1,335,672	21,543	2,730	38	423,645
Pipelines/Processing						
Small	0	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
Large	13	5,431,510	417,808	147,925	2,003	2,630,236
Subtotal	13	5,431,510	417,808	147,925	2,003	2,630,236
Total						
Small	**129**	**82,773,454**	**641,655**	**49,386**	**18**	**10,054,401**
Large	**121**	**395,267,874**	**3,266,677**	**57,220**	**37**	**33,677,388**
Total	**250**	**478,041,328**	**1,912,165**	**55,888**	**18**	**33,677,388**

These distributions are similar when the revenues from expected natural gas recovery are included (Table 7-22). About 21 percent of the total savings from the proposed NSPS is expected to accrue to small firms (about 19 percent of the savings to the integrated and production segment accrue to small firms). Note also in Table 7-22 that the pipeline and processing segments (and the pipeline/processing firms) are not expected to experience net cost savings (negative costs) from the proposed NSPS.

Table 7-22 Distribution of Estimated Proposed NSPS Compliance Costs With Revenues from Additional Natural Gas Product Recovery across Firm Size in Sample of Firms

		Estimated Engineering Compliance Costs With Estimated Revenues from Natural Gas Product Recovery (millions, 2008 dollars)				
Firm Type/Size	Number of Firms	Total	Mean	Median	Minimum	Maximum
Production and Integrated						
Small	79	-5,065,551	-64,121	-13,729	-620,880	8,699
Large	49	-22,197,126	-453,003	-318,551	-2,072,384	423,760
Subtotal	128	-27,262,676	-212,990	-43,479	-2,072,384	423,760
Pipeline						
Small	11	2,303	209	76	12	779
Large	36	1,011,572	28,099	2,599	25	612,753
Subtotal	47	1,013,876	21,572	1,539	12	612,753
Processing						
Small	39	160,248	4,109	634	63	93,000
Large	23	289,258	12,576	2,737	13	142,573
Subtotal	62	449,506	7,250	919	13	142,573
Pipelines/Processing						
Small	0	---	---	---	---	---
Large	13	3,060,373	235,413	86,301	716	1,746,730
Subtotal	13	3,060,373	235,413	86,301	716	1,746,730
Total						
Small	**129**	**-4,902,999**	**-38,008**	**-2,520**	**-620,880**	**93,000**
Large	**121**	**-17,835,922**	**-147,404**	**634**	**-2,072,384**	**1,746,730**
Total	**250**	**-22,738,922**	**-90,956**	**22**	**-2,072,384**	**1,746,730**

Table 7-23 Summary of Sales Test Ratios, Without Revenues from Additional Natural Gas Product Recovery for Firms Affected by Proposed NSPS

		Descriptive Statistics for Sales Test Ratio Without Estimated Revenues from Natural Gas Product Recovery (%)			
Firm Type/Size	Number of Firms	Mean	Median	Minimum	Maximum
Production and Integrated					
Small	79	2.18%	0.49%	0.01%	50.83%
Large	49	0.41%	0.28%	<0.01%	2.83%
Subtotal	128	1.50%	0.39%	<0.01%	50.83%
Pipeline					
Small	11	<0.01%	<0.01%	<0.01%	0.01%
Large	36	0.01%	<0.01%	<0.01%	0.06%
Subtotal	47	0.01%	<0.01%	<0.01%	0.06%
Processing					
Small	39	0.05%	0.01%	<0.01%	0.33%
Large	23	0.02%	0.01%	<0.01%	0.15%
Subtotal	62	0.04%	0.01%	<0.01%	0.33%
Pipelines/Processing					
Small	0	---	---	---	---
Large	13	<0.01%	<0.01%	<0.01%	0.01%
Subtotal	13	<0.01%	<0.01%	<0.01%	0.01%
Total					
Small	**129**	**1.34%**	**0.15%**	**<0.01%**	**50.83%**
Large	**121**	**0.17%**	**0.01%**	**<0.01%**	**2.83%**
Total	**250**	**0.78%**	**0.03%**	**<0.01%**	**50.83%**

The mean cost-sales ratio for all businesses when estimated product recovery is excluded from the analysis of the sample data is 0.78 percent, with a median ratio of 0.03 percent, a minimum of less than 0.01 percent, and a maximum of over 50 percent (Table 7-23). For small firms in the sample, the mean and median cost-sales ratios are 1.34 percent and 0.15 percent, respectively, with a minimum of less than 0.01 percent and a maximum of over 50 percent (Table 7-23). Each of these statistics indicates that, when considered in the aggregate, impacts are relatively higher on small firms than large firms when the estimated revenue from additional natural gas product recovery is excluded. However, as the next table shows, the reverse is true when these revenues are included.

Table 7-24 Summary of Sales Test Ratios, With Revenues from Additional Natural Gas Product Recovery for Firms Affected by Proposed NSPS

		Descriptive Statistics for Sales Test Ratio With Estimated Revenues from Natural Gas Product Recovery (%)			
Firm Type/Size	Number of Firms	Mean	Median	Minimum	Maximum
Production and Integrated					
Small	79	-0.13%	-0.03%	-2.96%	<0.00%
Large	49	-0.02%	-0.02%	-0.17%	0.06%
Subtotal	128	-0.09%	-0.02%	-2.96%	0.06%
Pipeline					
Small	11	<0.00%	<0.01%	<0.01%	0.01%
Large	36	0.01%	<0.01%	<0.01%	0.04%
Subtotal	47	0.01%	<0.01%	<0.01%	0.04%
Processing					
Small	39	0.01%	<0.01%	<0.01%	0.05%
Large	23	<0.00%	<0.01%	<0.01%	0.05%
Subtotal	62	0.01%	<0.01%	<0.01%	0.05%
Pipelines/Processing					
Small	0	---	---	---	---
Large	13	<0.01%	<0.01%	<0.01%	0.01%
Subtotal	13	<0.01%	<0.01%	<0.01%	0.01%
Total					
Small	**129**	**-0.08%**	**-0.01%**	**-2.96%**	**0.05%**
Large	**121**	**-0.01%**	**<0.01%**	**-0.17%**	**0.06%**
Total	**250**	**-0.04%**	**<0.01%**	**-2.96%**	**0.06%**

The mean cost-sales ratio for all businesses when estimated product recovery is included is in the sample is -0.04 percent, with a median ratio of less than 0.01 percent, a minimum of -2.96 percent, and a maximum of 0.06 percent (Table 7-24). For small firms in the sample, the mean and median cost-sales ratios are -0.08 percent and -0.01 percent, respectively, with a minimum of -2.96 percent and a maximum of 0.05 percent (Table 7-24). Each of these statistics indicates that, when considered in the aggregate, impacts are small on small business when the estimated revenue from additional natural gas product recovery are included, the reverse of the conclusion found when these revenues are excluded.

Meanwhile, Table 7-25 presents the distribution of estimated cost-sales ratios for the small firms in our sample with and without including estimates of the expected natural gas product recover from implementing controls. When revenues estimates are included, all 129 firms (100 percent) have estimated cost-sales ratios less than 1 percent. While less than 1 percent, the highest cost-sales ratios for small firms in the sample experiencing impacts are largely driven by costs accruing to processing and pipeline firms. That said, the incremental costs imposed on firms that process natural gas or transport natural gas via pipelines are not estimated to create significant impacts on a cost-sales ratio basis at the firm-level.

Table 7-25 Impact Levels of Proposed NSPS on Small Firms as a Percent of Small Firms in Sample, With and Without Revenues from Additional Natural Gas Product Recovery

	Without Estimated Revenues from Natural Gas Product Recovery		With Estimated Revenues from Natural Gas Product Recovery	
Impact Level	Number of Small Firms in Sample Estimated to be Affected	% of Small Firms in Sample Estimated to be Affected	Number of Small Firms in Sample Estimated to be Affected	% of Small Firms in Sample Estimated to be Affected
C/S Ratio less than 1%	109	84.5%	129	100.00%
C/S Ratio 1-3%	11	8.5%	0	0.00%
CS Ratio greater than 3%	9	7.0%	0	0.00%

When the estimated revenues from product recovery are not included in the analysis, 11 firms (about 9 percent) are estimated to have sales test ratios between 1 and 3 percent. Nine firms (about 7 percent) are estimated to have sales test ratios greater than 3 percent. These results noted, the exclusion of product recovery is somewhat artificial. While the mean engineering compliance costs and revenues estimates are valid, drawing on the means ignores the distribution around the mean estimates, which risks masking effects. Because of this risk, the following section offers a qualitative discussion of small entities with regard to obtaining REC services, the validity of the cost and performance of RECs for small firms, as well as offers a discussion about whether older equipment, which may be disproportionately owned and operated be smaller producers, would be affected by the proposed NSPS.

7.4.3.3 Small Entity Impact Analysis, Proposed NSPS, Additional Qualitative Discussion

3.5.3.3.1 Small Entities and Reduced Emissions Completions

Because REC requirements of the proposed NSPS are expected to contribute the large majority of engineering compliance costs, it is important to examine these requirements more closely in the context small entities. Important issues to resolve are the scale of REC costs within a drilling project, how the payment system for recovered natural gas functions, whether small entities pursue particular "niche" strategies that may influence the costs or performance in a way that makes the estimates costs and revenues invalid.

According to the most recent natural gas well cost data from EIA, the average cost of drilling and completing a producing natural gas well in 2007 was about $4.8 million (adjusted to 2008 dollars). This average includes lower cost wells that may be relatively shallow or are not hydraulically fractured. Hydraulically fractured wells in deep formations may cost up to $10 million. RECs contracted from a service provider are estimated to cost $33,200 (in 2008 dollars) or roughly 0.3%-0.7% of the typical cost of a drilling and completing a natural gas well. As this range does not include revenues expected from natural gas and hydrocarbon condensate recovery expected to offset REC implementation costs, REC costs likely represent a small increment of the overall burden of a drilling project.

To implement an REC, a service provider, which may itself be a small entity, is typically contracted to bring a set of equipment to the well pad temporarily to capture the stream that would otherwise be vented to the atmosphere. Typically, service providers are engaged in a long term drilling program in a particular basin covering multiple wells on multiple well pads. For gas captured and sold to the gathering system, Lease Automatic Custody Transfer (LACT) meters are normally read daily automatically, and sales transactions are typically settled at the end of the month. Invoices from service providers are generally delivered in 30-day increments during the well development time period, as well as at the end of the working contract for that well pad. The conclusion from the information, based on the available information, in most cases, the owner/operator incurs the REC cost within the same 30 day period that the owner/operator receives revenue as a result of the REC.

We assume small firms are performing RECs in CO and WY, as in many instances RECs are required under state regulation. In addition to State regulations, some companies are implementing RECs voluntarily such as through participation in the EPA Natural Gas STAR Program and the focus of recent press reports.

As described in more detail below, many small independent E&P companies often do not conduct any of the actual field work. These firms will typically contract the drilling, completion, testing, well design, environmental assessment, and maintenance. Therefore, we believe it is likely that small independent E&P firms will contract for RECs from service providers if required to perform RECs. An important reminder is that performing a REC is a straightforward and inexpensive extension of drilling, completion, and testing activities.

To the extent that very small firms may specialize in operating relatively few low-producing stripper wells, it is important to ask whether low-producing wells are likely candidates for re-fracturing/re-completion and, if so, whether the expected costs and revenues would be valid. These marginal gas wells are likely to be older and in conventional formations, and as such are unlikely to be good candidates for re-fracturing/completion. To the extent the marginal wells may be good candidates for re-fracturing/completion, the REC costs are valid estimates. The average REC cost is valid for RECs performed on any well, regardless of the operator size. The reason for this is that the REC service is contracted out to specialty service providers who charge daily rates for the REC equipment and workers. The cost is not related to any well characteristic.

Large operators may receive a discount for offering larger contracts which help a service provider guarantee that REC equipment will be utilized. However, we should note that the existence of a potential discount for larger contracts is based on a strong assumption; we do not have evidence to support this assumption. Since contracting REC equipment is analogous to contracting for drilling equipment, completion equipment, etc., the premium would likely be in the same range as other equipment contracted by small operators. Since the REC cost is a small portion of the overall well drilling and completion cost, the effect of any bulk discount disparity between large and small operators will be small, if in fact it does exist.

Although small operators may own the majority of marginal and stripper wells, they will make decisions based on economics just as any sized company would. For developing a new well, any sized company will expect a return on their investment meaning the potential for sufficient gas, condensate, and/or oil production to pay back their investment and generate a return that exceeds alternative investment opportunities. Therefore, small or large operators that are performing hydraulic fracture completions will experience the same distribution of REC performance. For refracturing an existing well, the well must be a good candidate to respond to the re-fracture/completion with a production increase that merits the investment in the re-fracture/completion.

Plugging and abandoning wells is complex and costly, so sustaining the productivity of wells is important for maximizing the exploitation of proven domestic resources. However, many marginal gas wells are likely to be older and in conventional formations, and as such are unlikely to be good candidates for re-fracturing/completion, which means they are likely unaffected by the proposed NSPS.

3.5.3.3.2 Age of Equipment and Proposed Regulations

Given a large fraction of domestic oil and natural gas production is produced from older and generally low productivity wells, it is important to examine whether the proposed requirements might present impediments to owners and operators of older equipment. The NSPS is a standard that applies to new or modified sources. Because of this, NSPS requirements target new or modified affected facilities or equipment, such as processing plants and compressors. While the requirements may apply to modifications of existing facilities, it is important to discuss well completion-related requirements aside from other requirements in the NSPS distinctly.

Excluding well completion requirements from the cost estimates, the non-completion NSPS requirements (related to equipment leaks at processing plants, reciprocating and centrifugal compressors, pneumatic controllers, and storage vessels) are estimated to require $27 million in annualized engineering costs. EPA also estimates that the annualized costs of these requirements will be mostly if not fully offset by revenues expected from natural gas recovery. EPA does not expect these requirements to disproportionately affect producers with older equipment. Meanwhile, the REC and emissions combustion requirements in the proposed NSPS relate to well completion activities at new hydraulically fractured natural gas wells and existing wells which are recompleted after being fractured or re-fractured. These requirements constitute the bulk of the expected engineering compliance expenditures (about $710 million in annualized costs) and expected revenues from natural gas product recovery (about $760 million in revenues, annually).

While age of the well and equipment may be an important factor for small and large producers in determining whether it is economical to fracture or re-fracture an existing well, this equipment is unlikely to be subject to the NSPS. To comply with completion-related requirements, producers are likely to rely heavily on portable and temporary completion equipment brought to the wellpad over a short period of time (a few days to a few weeks) to capture and combust emissions that are otherwise vented. The equipment at the wellhead—newly installed in the case of new well completions or already in place and operating in the case of existing wells—is not likely to be subject to the NSPS requirement.

7.4.3.4 Small Entity Impact Analysis, Proposed NSPS, Screening Analysis Conclusion

The number of significantly impacted small businesses is unlikely to be sufficiently large to declare a SISNOSE. Our judgment in this determination is informed by the fact that many affected firms are expected to receive revenues from the additional natural gas and condensate recovery engendered by the implementation of the controls evaluated in this RIA. As much of the additional natural gas recovery is estimated to arise from completion-related activities, we expect the impact on well-related compliance costs to be significantly mitigated. This conclusion is enhanced because the returns to reduced emissions completion activities occur without a significant time lag between implementing the control and obtaining the recovered product unlike many control options where the emissions reductions accumulate over long periods of time; the reduced emission completions and recompletions occur over a short span of time, during which the additional product recovery is also accomplished.

7.4.4 Small Entity Economic Impact Analysis, Proposed NESHAP Amendments

The proposed NESHAP amendments will affect facilities operating three types of equipment: glycol dehydrators at production facilities, glycol dehydrators at transmission and compression facilities, and storage vessels. We identified likely affected facilities in the National Emissions Inventory (NEI) and estimated the number of newly required controls of each type that would be required by the NESHAP amendments for each facility. We then used available data sources to best identify the ultimate owner of the equipment that would likely require new controls and linked facility-level compliance cost estimates to firm-level employment and revenue data. These data were then used to calculate an estimated compliance costs to revenues ratio to identify small businesses that might be significantly impacted by the NESHAP.

While we were able to identify the owners all but 14 facilities likely to be affected, we could not obtain employment and revenue levels for all of these firms. Overall, we expect about 447 facilities to be affected, and these facilities are owned by an estimated 160 firms. We were unable to obtain financial information on 42 (26 percent) of these firms due to inadequate data. In some instances, firms are private, and financial data is not available. In other instance, firms may no longer exist, since NEI data are not updated continuously. From the ownership information and compliance cost estimates from the engineering analysis, we estimated total compliance cost per firm.

Of the 118 firms for which we have financial information, we identified 62 small firms and 56 large firms that would be affected by the NESHAP amendments. Annual compliance costs for small firms are estimated at $3.0 million (18 percent of the total compliance costs), and annual compliance costs for large firms are estimated at $10.7 million (67 percent of the total compliance costs). The facilities for which we were unable to identify the ultimate owners, employment, and revenue levels would have an estimated annual compliance cost of $2.3 million (15 percent of the total). All figures are in 2008 dollars.

The average estimated annualized compliance cost for the 62 small firms identified in the dataset is $48,000, while the mean annual revenue figure for the same firms is over $120 million, or less than 1 percent for a average sales-test ratio for all 62 firms (Table 7-26). The median sale-test ratio for these firms is smaller at 0.14 percent. Large firms are likely to see an average of $190,000 in annual compliance costs, whereas average revenue for these firms exceeds $30 billion since this set of firms includes many of the very large, integrated energy firms. For large firms, the average sales-test ratio is about 0.01 percent, and the median sales-test ratio is less than 0.01 percent (Table 7-26).

Table 7-26 Summary of Sales Test Ratios for Firms Affected by Proposed NESHAP Amendments

Firm Size	No. of Known Affected Firms	% of Total Known Affected Firms	Mean C/S Ratio	Median C/S Ratio	Min. C/S Ratio	Max. C/S Ratio
Small	62	53%	0.62%	0.14%	< 0.01%	6.2%
Large	56	47%	0.01%	< 0.01%	< 0.01%	0.4%
All	118	100%	0.34%	0.02%	< 0.01%	6.2%

Among the small firms, 52 of the 62 (84 percent) are likely to have impacts of less than 1 percent in terms of the ratio of annualized compliance costs to revenues. Meanwhile 10 firms (16 percent) are likely to have impacts greater than 1 percent (Table 7-27). Four of these 10 firms are likely to have impacts greater than 3 percent (Table 7-27) While these 10 firms might receive significant impacts from the proposed NESHAP amendments, they represent a very small slice of the oil and gas industry in its entirety, less than 0.2 percent of the estimated 6,427 small firms in NAICS 211 (Table 7-27).

Table 7-27 Affected Small Firms as a Percent of Small Firms Nationwide, Proposed NESHAP amendments

Firm Size	Number of Small Firms Affected Nationwide	% of Small Firms Affected Nationwide	Affected Firms as a % of National Firms (6,427)
C/S Ratio less than 1%	52	83.9%	0.81%
C/S Ratio 1-3%	6	9.7%	0.09%
CS Ratio greater than 3%	4	6.5%	0.06%

Screening Analysis Conclusion: While there are significant impacts on small business, the analysis shows that a substantial number of small firms are not impacted. Based upon the analysis in this section, we presume there is no SISNOSE arising from the proposed NESHAP amendments.

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ORIGINAL ARTICLE

Long-Term Ozone Exposure and Mortality

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ABSTRACT

BACKGROUND

Although many studies have linked elevations in tropospheric ozone to adverse health outcomes, the effect of long-term exposure to ozone on air pollution–related mortality remains uncertain. We examined the potential contribution of exposure to ozone to the risk of death from cardiopulmonary causes and specifically to death from respiratory causes.

METHODS

Data from the study cohort of the American Cancer Society Cancer Prevention Study II were correlated with air-pollution data from 96 metropolitan statistical areas in the United States. Data were analyzed from 448,850 subjects, with 118,777 deaths in an 18-year follow-up period. Data on daily maximum ozone concentrations were obtained from April 1 to September 30 for the years 1977 through 2000. Data on concentrations of fine particulate matter (particles that are ≤2.5 μm in aerodynamic diameter [$PM_{2.5}$]) were obtained for the years 1999 and 2000. Associations between ozone concentrations and the risk of death were evaluated with the use of standard and multilevel Cox regression models.

RESULTS

In single-pollutant models, increased concentrations of either $PM_{2.5}$ or ozone were significantly associated with an increased risk of death from cardiopulmonary causes. In two-pollutant models, $PM_{2.5}$ was associated with the risk of death from cardiovascular causes, whereas ozone was associated with the risk of death from respiratory causes. The estimated relative risk of death from respiratory causes that was associated with an increment in ozone concentration of 10 ppb was 1.040 (95% confidence interval, 1.010 to 1.067). The association of ozone with the risk of death from respiratory causes was insensitive to adjustment for confounders and to the type of statistical model used.

CONCLUSIONS

In this large study, we were not able to detect an effect of ozone on the risk of death from cardiovascular causes when the concentration of $PM_{2.5}$ was taken into account. We did, however, demonstrate a significant increase in the risk of death from respiratory causes in association with an increase in ozone concentration.

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Studies conducted over the past 15 years have provided substantial evidence that long-term exposure to air pollution is a risk factor for cardiopulmonary disease and death.[1-5] Recent reviews of this literature suggest that fine particulate matter (particles that are ≤2.5 μm in aerodynamic diameter [$PM_{2.5}$]) has a primary role in these adverse health effects.[6,7] The particulate-matter component of air pollution includes complex mixtures of metals, black carbon, sulfates, nitrates, and other direct and indirect byproducts of incomplete combustion and high-temperature industrial processes.

Ozone is a single, well-defined pollutant, yet the effect of exposure to ozone on air pollution–related mortality remains inconclusive. Several studies have evaluated this issue, but they have been short-term studies,[8-10] have failed to show a statistically significant effect,[1,3] or have been based on limited mortality data.[11] Recent reviews by the Environmental Protection Agency (EPA)[12] and the National Research Council[13] have questioned the overall consistency of the available data correlating exposure to ozone and mortality. Similar conclusions about the evidence base for the long-term effects of ozone on mortality were drawn by a panel of experts in the United Kingdom.[14]

Nonetheless, previous studies have suggested that a measurable effect of ozone may exist, particularly with respect to the risk of death from cardiopulmonary causes. In one of the larger studies, ozone was significantly associated with death from cardiopulmonary causes[15] but not with death from ischemic heart disease. However, the estimated effect of ozone on the risk of death from cardiopulmonary causes in this study was attenuated when $PM_{2.5}$ was added to the analysis in copollutant models. On the basis of suggested effects of ozone on the risk of death from cardiopulmonary causes (which includes death from respiratory causes) but an absence of evidence for effects of ozone on the risk of death from ischemic heart disease, we hypothesized that ozone might have a primary effect on the risk of death from respiratory causes.

METHODS

HEALTH, MORTALITY, AND CONFOUNDING DATA

Our study used data from the American Cancer Society Cancer Prevention Study II (CPS II) cohort.[16] The CPS II cohort consists of more than 1.2 million participants who were enrolled by American Cancer Society volunteers between September 1982 and February 1983 in all 50 states, the District of Columbia, and Puerto Rico. Enrollment was restricted to persons who were at least 30 years of age living in households with at least one person 45 years of age or older. After providing written informed consent, the participants completed a confidential questionnaire that included questions on demographic characteristics, smoking history, alcohol use, diet, and education.[17] Deaths were ascertained until August 1988 by personal inquiries of family members by the volunteers and thereafter by linkage with the National Death Index. Through 1995, death certificates were obtained and coded for cause of death. Beginning in 1996, codes for cause of death were provided by the National Death Index.[18]

The study population for our analysis included only those participants in CPS II who resided in U.S. metropolitan statistical areas within the 48 contiguous states or the District of Columbia (according to their address at the time of enrollment) and for whom data were available from at least one pollution monitor within their metropolitan area. The study was approved by the Ottawa Hospital Research Ethics Board, Canada.

Data on "ecologic" risk factors at the level of the metropolitan area representing social variables (educational level, percentage of homes with air conditioning, percentage of the population who were nonwhite), economic variables (household income, unemployment, income disparity), access to medical care (number of physicians and hospital beds per capita), and meteorologic variables were obtained from the 1980 U.S. Census and other secondary sources (see the Supplementary Appendix, available with the full text of this article at NEJM.org). These ecologic risk factors, as well as the individual risk factors collected in the CPS II questionnaire, were assessed as potential confounders of the effects of ozone.[3,5,19,20]

ESTIMATES OF EXPOSURE TO AIR POLLUTION

Ozone data were obtained from 1977 (5 years before the identification of the CPS II cohort) through 2000 for all air-pollution monitors in the study metropolitan areas from the EPA's Aerometric Information Retrieval System. Ozone data at each monitoring site were collected on an hourly basis, and the daily maximum value for the site was determined. All available daily maximum values for the monitoring site were averaged over each quarter year. The quarterly average values were reported for each monitor only when at least 75% of daily observations for that quarter were available.

The averages of the second (April through June) and third (July through September) quarters were calculated for each monitor if both quarterly averages were available. The period from April through September was selected because ozone concentrations tend to be elevated during the warmer seasons and because fewer data were available for the cooler seasons.

The average of the second and third quarterly averages for each year was then computed for all the monitors within each metropolitan area to form a single annual time series of air-pollution measurements for each metropolitan area for the period from 1977 to 2000. In addition, a summary measure of long-term exposure to ambient warm-season ozone was defined as the average of annual time-series measurements during the entire period from 1977 to 2000. Individual measures of exposure to ozone were then defined by assigning the average for the metropolitan area to each cohort member residing in that area.

Data on exposure to $PM_{2.5}$ were also obtained from the Aerometric Information Retrieval System database for the 2-year period from 1999 to 2000 (data on $PM_{2.5}$ were not available before 1999 for most metropolitan areas).[5] The average concentrations of $PM_{2.5}$ were included in our analyses to distinguish the effect of particulates from that of ozone on outcomes.

STATISTICAL ANALYSIS

Standard and multilevel random-effects Cox proportional-hazard models were used to assess the risk of death in relation to exposures to pollution. The subjects were matched according to age (in years), sex, and race. A total of 20 variables with 44 terms were used to control for individual characteristics that might confound or modify the association between air pollution and death. These variables, which were considered to be of potential importance on the basis of previous studies, included individual risk factors for which data had been collected in the CPS II questionnaire. Seven ecologic covariates obtained from the 1980 U.S. Census (median household income, the proportion of persons living in households with an income below 125% of the poverty line, the percentage of persons over the age of 16 years who were unemployed, the percentage of adults with less than a high-school [12th-grade] education, the percentage of homes with air conditioning, the Gini coefficient of income inequality [ranging from 0 to 1, with 0 indicating an equal distribution of income and 1 indicating that one person has all the income and everyone else has no income[20]], and the percentage of persons who were white) were also included. These variables were included at two levels: as the average for the metropolitan statistical area and as the difference between the average for the ZIP Code of residence and the average for the metropolitan statistical area. Additional sensitivity analyses were undertaken for ecologic variables that were available for only a subgroup of the 96 metropolitan statistical areas (see the Supplementary Appendix). Models were estimated for either ozone or $PM_{2.5}$. In addition, models with both $PM_{2.5}$ and ozone were estimated.

In additional analyses, our basic Cox models were modified by incorporating an adjustment for community-level random effects, which allowed us to take into account residual variation in mortality among communities.[21] The baseline hazard function was modulated by a community-specific random variable representing the residual risk of death for subjects in that community after individual and ecologic risk factors had been controlled for (see the Supplementary Appendix).

A formal analysis was conducted to assess whether a threshold existed for the association between exposure to ozone and the risk of death (see the Supplementary Appendix). A standard threshold model was postulated in which there was no association between exposure to ozone and the risk of death below a specified threshold concentration and a linear association (on the logarithmic scale of the proportional-hazards model) above the threshold.

The question of whether specific time windows were associated with the health effects was investigated by subdividing the follow-up interval into four periods (1982 to 1988, 1989 to 1992, 1993 to 1996, and 1997 to 2000). Exposures were matched for each of these periods and also tested for a 10-year average on the basis of the 5-year follow-up period and the 5 years before the follow-up period (see the Supplementary Appendix).

RESULTS

The analytic cohort included 448,850 subjects residing in 96 metropolitan statistical areas (Fig. 1).

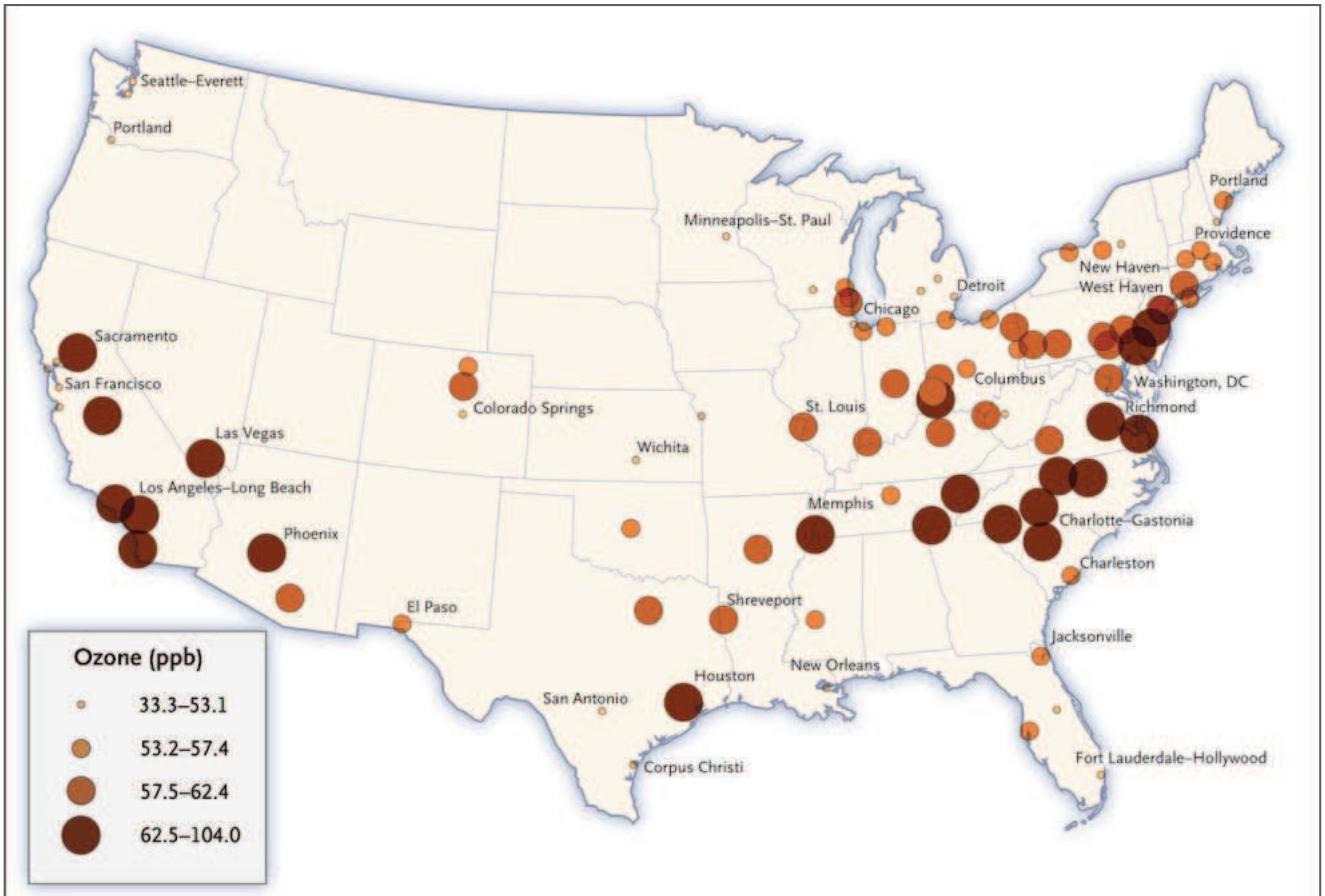

Figure 1. Ozone Concentrations in the 96 Metropolitan Statistical Areas in Which Members of the American Cancer Society Cohort Resided in 1982.

The average exposures were estimated from 1 to 57 monitoring sites within each metropolitan area from April 1 to September 30 for the years 1977 through 2000.

In 1980, the populations of these 96 areas ranged from 94,436 to 8,295,900. Data were available on the concentration of ambient ozone from all 96 areas and on the concentration of $PM_{2.5}$ from 86 areas. The average number of air-pollution monitors per metropolitan area was 11 (range, 1 to 57), and more than 80% of the areas had 6 or more monitors.

The average ozone concentration for each metropolitan area during the interval from 1977 to 2000 ranged from 33.3 ppb to 104.0 ppb (Fig. 1). The highest regional concentrations were in Southern California and the lowest in the Pacific Northwest and parts of the Great Plains. Moderately elevated concentrations were present in many areas of the East, Midwest, South, and Southwest.

The baseline characteristics of the study population, overall and as a function of exposure to ozone, are presented in Table 1. The mean age of the cohort was 56.6 years, 43.4% were men, 93.7% were white, 22.4% were current smokers, and 30.5% were former smokers. On the basis of estimates from 1980 Census data, 62.3% of homes had air conditioning at the time of initial data collection.

During the 18-year follow-up period (from initial CPS II data collection in 1982 through the end of follow-up in 2000), there were 118,777 deaths in the study cohort (Table 2). Of these, 58,775 were from cardiopulmonary causes, including 48,884 from cardiovascular causes (of which 27,642 were due to ischemic heart disease) and 9891 from respiratory causes.

In the single-pollutant models, exposure to ozone was not associated with the overall risk of death (relative risk, 1.001; 95% confidence interval [CI], 0.996 to 1.007) (Table 3). However, it was significantly correlated with an increase in the risk of death from cardiopulmonary causes. A

10-ppb increment in exposure to ozone elevated the relative risk of death from the following causes: cardiopulmonary causes (relative risk, 1.014; 95% CI, 1.007 to 1.022), cardiovascular causes (relative risk, 1.011; 95% CI, 1.003 to 1.023), ischemic heart disease (relative risk, 1.015; 95% CI, 1.003 to 1.026), and respiratory causes (relative risk, 1.029; 95% CI, 1.010 to 1.048).

Inclusion of the concentration of $PM_{2.5}$ measured in 1999 and 2000 as a copollutant (Table 3) attenuated the association with exposure to ozone for all the end points except death from respiratory causes, for which a significant correlation persisted (relative risk, 1.040; 95% CI, 1.013 to 1.067). The concentrations of ozone and $PM_{2.5}$ were positively correlated (r=0.64 at the subject level and r=0.56 at the metropolitan-area level), resulting in unstable risk estimates for both pollutants. The concentration of $PM_{2.5}$ remained significantly associated with death from cardio-

Table 1. Baseline Characteristics of the Study Population in the Entire Cohort and According to Exposure to Ozone.*

Variable	Entire Cohort (N=448,850)	Concentration of Ozone			
		33.3–53.1 ppb (N=126,206)	53.2–57.4 ppb (N=95,740)	57.5–62.4 ppb (N=106,545)	62.5–104.0 ppb (N=120,359)
No. of MSAs	96	24	24	24	24
No. of MSAs with data on $PM_{2.5}$	86	21	20	23	22
Concentration of $PM_{2.5}$ ($\mu g/m^3$)		11.9±2.5	13.1±2.9	14.7±2.1	15.4±3.2
Individual risk factors					
Age (yr)	56.6±10.5	56.7±10.4	56.4±10.7	56.3±10.4	56.9±10.5
Male sex (%)	43.4	43.5	43.1	43.5	43.2
White race (%)	93.7	94.3	95.1	93.9	91.8
Education (%)					
Less than high school	12.1	11.5	13.6	12.1	11.6
High school	30.6	30.2	33.6	32.1	27.4
Beyond high school	57.3	58.3	52.8	55.8	61.0
Smoking status					
Current smokers					
Percentage of subjects	22.4	22.0	23.5	22.2	21.9
No. of cigarettes/day	22.0±12.4	22.0±12.3	22.0±12.5	22.2±12.5	21.9±12.4
Duration of smoking (yr)	33.5±11.0	33.4±10.8	33.4±11.1	33.4±11.0	33.9±11.2
Started smoking <18 yr of age (%)	9.6	9.3	10.5	9.4	9.3
Started smoking ≥18 yr of age (%)	13.2	13.3	13.4	13.3	13.0
Former smokers					
Percentage of subjects	30.5	31.2	30.8	29.5	30.4
No. of cigarettes/day	21.6±14.7	21.6±14.6	22.2±15.1	21.6±14.6	21.3±14.6
Duration of smoking (yr)	22.2±12.6	22.1±12.5	22.6±12.6	22.0±12.5	22.4±12.7
Started smoking <18 yr of age (%)	11.9	11.8	12.7	11.5	11.8
Started smoking ≥18 yr of age (%)	18.5	19.3	17.9	17.9	18.5
Exposure to smoking (hr/day)	3.3±4.4	3.2±4.4	3.4±4.5	3.4±4.5	3.1±4.4
Pipe or cigar smoker only (%)	4.1	4.0	4.2	4.3	3.8
Marital status (%)					
Married	83.5	84.2	83.0	83.7	83.1
Single	3.6	3.4	4.0	3.8	3.2
Separated, divorced, or widowed	12.9	12.4	13.0	12.5	13.7

Table 1. (Continued.)

Variable	Entire Cohort (N=448,850)	Concentration of Ozone 33.3–53.1 ppb (N=126,206)	53.2–57.4 ppb (N=95,740)	57.5–62.4 ppb (N=106,545)	62.5–104.0 ppb (N=120,359)
Body-mass index†	25.1±4.1	25.1±4.1	25.3±4.2	25.1±4.1	24.8±4.0
Level of occupational exposure to particulate matter (%)‡					
0	50.7	50.9	50.0	50.8	51.0
1	13.3	13.4	13.1	13.3	13.3
2	11.4	11.5	10.8	11.4	11.9
3	4.6	4.7	4.8	4.6	4.5
4	6.1	6.2	6.2	6.1	6.0
5	4.2	4.2	4.3	4.1	4.1
6	1.1	1.0	9.5	1.4	8.4
Not able to ascertain	8.6	8.2	1.2	8.4	0.9
Self-reported exposure to dust or fumes (%)	19.5	19.5	19.8	19.7	19.1
Level of dietary-fat consumption (%)§					
0	14.5	13.7	14.9	14.1	15.3
1	15.9	15.8	16.5	15.6	15.9
2	17.4	17.6	17.7	17.2	17.1
3	21.2	21.8	21.1	21.3	20.8
4	30.9	31.1	29.8	31.9	30.9
Level of dietary-fiber consumption (%)¶					
0	16.6	16.0	17.5	16.7	16.6
1	19.9	19.4	20.5	20.1	19.7
2	18.8	18.6	19.2	19.1	18.5
3	22.8	23.0	22.4	22.8	22.7
4	21.9	23.0	20.4	21.3	22.5
Alcohol consumption (%)					
Beer					
Drinks beer	22.9	24.3	23.2	22.9	21.4
Does not drink beer	9.7	9.5	9.3	9.5	10.2
No data	67.4	66.2	67.5	67.6	68.4
Liquor					
Drinks liquor	28.0	30.4	27.9	25.4	27.9
Does not drink liquor	8.8	8.4	8.5	10.1	9.2
No data	63.2	61.2	63.6	65.5	62.9
Wine					
Drinks wine	23.5	25.4	22.5	21.1	24.3
Does not drink wine	8.9	8.7	8.8	9.3	9.1
No data	67.6	65.9	68.7	69.6	66.6

Table 1. (Continued.)

Variable	Entire Cohort (N=448,850)	Concentration of Ozone			
		33.3–53.1 ppb (N=126,206)	53.2–57.4 ppb (N=95,740)	57.5–62.4 ppb (N=106,545)	62.5–104.0 ppb (N=120,359)
Ecologic risk factors‖					
Nonwhite race (%)	11.6±16.8	10.5±16.4	9.3±15.5	10.2±16.0	15.9±18.3
Home with air conditioning (%)	62.3±27.0	55.4±31.2	59.4±24.0	65.3±24.8	69.1±24.3
High-school education or greater (%)	51.7±8.2	53.5±7.9	52.4±7.5	50.8±7.2	50.0±9.5
Unemployment rate (%)	11.7±3.1	12.1±3.4	11.3±2.6	11.3±2.9	11.8±3.4
Gini coefficient of income inequality**	0.37±0.04	0.37±0.05	0.37±0.04	0.37±0.04	0.38±0.04
Proportion of population with income <125% of poverty line	0.12±0.08	0.11±0.08	0.12±0.08	0.11±0.07	0.13±0.09
Annual household income (thousands of dollars)††	20.7±6.6	21.9±7.1	19.8±6.0	21.2±6.7	19.7±6.3

* MSA denotes metropolitan statistical area, and $PM_{2.5}$ fine particulate matter consisting of particles that are 2.5 μm or less in aerodynamic diameter. Plus–minus values are means ±SD. Because of rounding, percentages may not total 100. All baseline characteristics included in the survival model are listed (age, sex, and race were included as stratification factors). The model also includes squared terms for the number of cigarettes smoked per day and the number of years of smoking for both current and former smokers and a squared term for body-mass index.

† The body-mass index is the weight in kilograms divided by the square of the height in meters.

‡ Occupational exposure to particulate matter increases with increasing index number. The index was calculated by assigning a relative level of exposure to $PM_{2.5}$ associated with a cohort member's job and industry. These assignments were performed by industrial hygienists on the basis of their knowledge of typical exposure patterns for each occupation and specific job.[22]

§ Dietary-fat consumption increases with increasing index number. Dietary information from cohort members was used to define the level of fat consumption according to five ordered categories.[20]

¶ Dietary-fiber consumption increases with increasing index number. Dietary information from cohort members was used to define the level of fiber consumption according to five ordered categories.[23]

‖ For the ecologic variables, the model included terms for influences at the level of the average for the metropolitan statistical area and at the level of the difference between the value for the ZIP Code of residence and the average for the metropolitan statistical area to represent between- and within-metropolitan area confounding influence. Some values for ecologic variables and individual variables differ, although they appear to measure the same risk factor. For example, for the entire cohort, the percentage of whites as listed under individual variables is 93.7, whereas the percentage of nonwhites as listed under ecologic variables is 11.6±16.8. This apparent contradiction is explained by the fact that the former is an exact figure based on the individual reports of the study participants in the CPS II questionnaire, whereas the latter is a mean (±SD) for the population based on Census estimates for each metropolitan statistical area.

** The Gini coefficient is a statistical dispersion measure used to calculate income inequality. The coefficient ranges from 0 to 1, with 0 indicating an equal distribution of income and 1 indicating that one person has all the income and everyone else has no income.[20] A coefficient of 0.37 indicates that on average there is a measurable inequality in the distribution of income among the different income groups within the MSAs.

†† Average household incomes for the cohort and for each quartile of ozone concentration were calculated from the median household income for the metropolitan statistical area.

pulmonary causes, cardiovascular causes, and ischemic heart disease when ozone was included in the model. The association of ozone concentrations with death from respiratory causes remained significant after adjustment for $PM_{2.5}$.

Risk estimates for ozone-related death from respiratory causes were insensitive to the use of a random-effects survival model allowing for spatial clustering within the metropolitan area and state of residence (Table 1S in the Supplementary Appendix). The association between increased ozone concentrations and increased risk of death from respiratory causes was also insensitive to adjustment for several ecologic variables considered individually (Table 2S in the Supplementary Appendix).

Subgroup analyses showed that environmental temperature and region of the country, but not sex, age at enrollment, body-mass index, education, or concentration of $PM_{2.5}$, significantly modified the effects of ozone on the risk of death from respiratory causes (Table 4).

Figure 2 illustrates the shape of the relation between exposure to ozone and death from re-

Table 2. Number of Deaths in the Entire Cohort and According to Exposure to Ozone.

Cause of Death	Entire Cohort (N=448,850)	Concentration of Ozone			
		33.3–53.1 ppb (N=126,206)	53.2–57.4 ppb (N=95,740)	57.5–62.4 ppb (N=106,545)	62.5–104.0 ppb (N=120,359)
		number of deaths			
Any cause	118,777	32,957	25,642	27,782	32,396
Cardiopulmonary	58,775	16,328	12,621	13,544	16,282
Cardiovascular	48,884	13,605	10,657	11,280	13,342
Ischemic heart disease	27,642	7,714	6,384	6,276	7,268
Respiratory	9,891	2,723	1,964	2,264	2,940

Table 3. Relative Risk of Death Attributable to a 10-ppb Change in the Ambient Ozone Concentration.*

Cause of Death	Single-Pollutant Model†			Two-Pollutant Model‡	
	Ozone (96 MSAs)	Ozone (86 MSAs)	$PM_{2.5}$ (86 MSAs)	Ozone (86 MSAs)	$PM_{2.5}$ (86 MSAs)
	relative risk (95% CI)				
Any cause	1.001 (0.996–1.007)	1.001 (0.996–1.007)	1.048 (1.024–1.071)	0.989 (0.981–0.996)	1.080 (1.048–1.113)
Cardiopulmonary	1.014 (1.007–1.022)	1.016 (1.008–1.024)	1.129 (1.094–1.071)	0.992 (0.982–1.003)	1.153 (1.104–1.204)
Respiratory	1.029 (1.010–1.048)	1.027 (1.007–1.046)	1.031 (0.955–1.113)	1.040 (1.013–1.067)	0.927 (0.836–1.029)
Cardiovascular	1.011 (1.003–1.023)	1.014 (1.005–1.023)	1.150 (1.111–1.191)	0.983 (0.971–0.994)	1.206 (1.150–1.264)
Ischemic heart disease	1.015 (1.003–1.026)	1.017 (1.006–1.029)	1.211 (1.156–1.268)	0.973 (0.958–0.988)	1.306 (1.226–1.390)

* MSA denotes metropolitan statistical area, and $PM_{2.5}$ fine particulate matter consisting of particles that are 2.5 μm or less in aerodynamic diameter. Ozone concentrations were measured from April to September during the years from 1977 to 2000, with follow-up from 1982 to 2000; changes in the concentration of $PM_{2.5}$ of 10 μg per cubic meter were recorded for members of the cohort in 1999 and 2000. These models are adjusted for all the individual and ecologic risk factors listed in Table 1. For the ecologic variables, the model included terms for influences at the level of the average for the metropolitan statistical area and at the level of the difference between the value for the ZIP Code of residence and the average for the metropolitan statistical area to represent between- and within-metropolitan area confounding influence. The risk of death was stratified according to age (in years), sex, and race.

† The single-pollutant models were based on 96 metropolitan statistical areas for which information on ozone was available and 86 metropolitan statistical areas for which information on both ozone and fine particulate matter was available.

‡ The two-pollutant models were based on 86 metropolitan statistical areas for which information on both ozone and fine particulate matter was available.

spiratory causes. There was limited evidence that a threshold model specification improved model fit as compared with a nonthreshold linear model (P=0.06) (Table 3S in the Supplementary Appendix).

Because air-pollution data from 1977 to 2000 were averaged, exposure values for persons who died during this period are based partly on data that were obtained after death had occurred. Further investigation by dividing this interval into specific time windows of exposure revealed no significant difference between the effects of earlier and later time windows within the period of follow-up. Allowing for a 10-year period of exposure to ozone (5 years of follow-up and 5 years before the follow-up period) did not appreciably alter the risk estimates (Table 4S in the Supplementary Appendix). Thus, when exposure values were matched more closely to the follow-up period and when exposure values were based on data obtained before the deaths, there was little change in the results.

DISCUSSION

Our principal finding is that ozone and $PM_{2.5}$ contributed independently to increased annual mortality rates in this large, U.S. cohort study in analyses that controlled for many individual and ecologic risk factors. In two-pollutant models that included ozone and $PM_{2.5}$, ozone was significantly associated only with death from respiratory causes.

For every 10-ppb increase in exposure to ozone, we observed an increase in the risk of death from respiratory causes of about 2.9% in single-pollutant models and 4% in two-pollutant models. Although this increase may appear moderate, the risk of dying from a respiratory cause is more than three times as great in the metropolitan areas with the highest ozone concentrations as in those with the lowest ozone concentrations. The effects of ozone on the risk of death from respiratory causes were insensitive to adjustment for individual, neighborhood, and metropolitan-area confounders or to differences in multilevel-model specifications.

There is biologic plausibility for a respiratory effect of ozone. In laboratory studies, ozone can increase airway inflammation[24] and can worsen pulmonary function and gas exchange.[25] In addition, exposure to elevated concentrations of tropospheric ozone has been associated with numerous adverse health effects, including the induction[26] and exacerbation[27,28] of asthma, pulmonary dysfunction,[29,30] and hospitalization for respiratory causes.[31]

Despite these observations, previous studies linking long-term exposure to ozone with death have been inconclusive. One cohort study conducted in the Midwest and eastern United States reported an inverse but nonsignificant association between ozone concentrations and mortality.[1] Subsequent reanalyses of this study replicated these findings but also suggested a positive association with exposure to ozone during warm seasons.[3] A study of approximately 6000 nonsmoking Seventh-Day Adventists living in Southern California showed elevated risks among men after long-term exposure to ozone,[11] but this finding was based on limited mortality data.

Previous studies using the CPS II cohort have also produced mixed results for ozone. An earlier examination based on a large sample of more than 500,000 people from 117 metropolitan areas and 8 years of follow-up indicated nonsignificant results for the relation between ozone and death from any cause and a significant inverse association between ozone and death from lung cancer. A positive association between death from cardiopulmonary causes and summertime exposure to ozone was observed in single-pollutant

Table 4. Relative Risk of Death from Respiratory Causes Attributable to a 10-ppb Change in the Ambient Ozone Concentration, Stratified According to Selected Risk Factors.*

Stratification Variable	% of Subjects in Stratum	Relative Risk (95% CI)	P Value of Effect Modification
Sex			0.11
Male	43	1.01 (0.99–1.04)	
Female	57	1.04 (1.03–1.07)	
Age at enrollment (yr)			0.74
<50	26	1.00 (0.90–1.11)	
50–65	54	1.03 (1.01–1.06)	
>65	20	1.02 (1.00–1.05)	
Education			0.48
High school or less	43	1.02 (1.00–1.05)	
Beyond high school	57	1.03 (1.01–1.06)	
Body-mass index†			0.96
<25.0	53	1.03 (1.01–1.06)	
25.0–29.9	36	1.03 (0.99–1.06)	
≥30.0	11	1.03 (0.96–1.10)	
$PM_{2.5}$ ($\mu g/m^3$)‡			0.38
<14.3	44	1.05 (1.01–1.09)	
>14.3	56	1.03 (1.00–1.05)	
Region§			0.05
Northeast	24.8	0.99 (0.92–1.07)	
Industrial Midwest	29.7	1.00 (0.91–1.09)	
Southeast	21.0	1.12 (1.05–1.19)	
Upper Midwest	5.2	1.14 (0.68–1.90)	
Northwest	7.7	1.06 (1.00–1.13)	
Southwest	3.9	1.21 (1.04–1.40)	
Southern California	7.8	1.01 (0.96–1.07)	
External temperature (°C)‡¶			0.01
<23.3	24	0.96 (0.90–1.01)	
>23.3 to <25.4	29	0.97 (0.87–1.08)	
>25.4 to <28.7	22	1.04 (0.92–1.16)	
>28.7	25	1.05 (1.03–1.08)	

* $PM_{2.5}$ denotes fine particulate matter consisting of particles that are 2.5 μm or less in aerodynamic diameter. Ozone exposures for the cohort were measured from April to September during the years from 1977 to 2000, with follow-up from 1982 to 2000, with adjustment for individual risk factors, and with baseline hazard function stratified according to age (single-year groupings), sex, and race. These analyses are based on the single-pollutant model for ozone shown in Table 3. Because of rounding, percentages may not total 100.

† The body-mass index is the weight in kilograms divided by the square of the height in meters.

‡ Stratum cutoff is based on the median of the distribution at the metropolitan-area level, not at the subject level.

§ Definitions of regions are those used by the Environmental Protection Agency.[3]

¶ External temperature is calculated as the average daily maximum temperature recorded between April and September from 1977 to 2000.

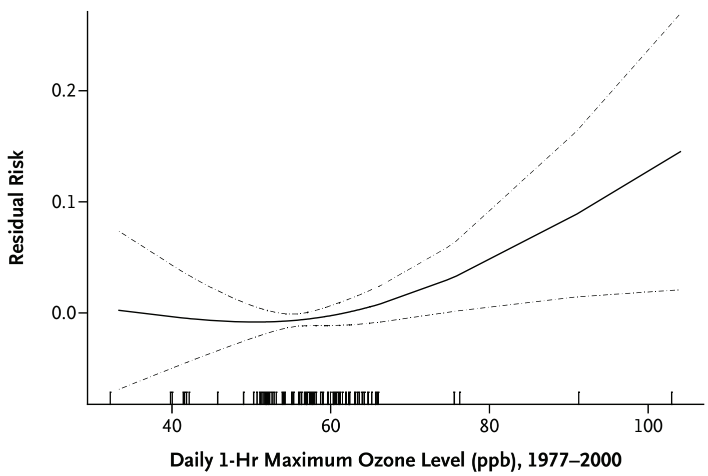

Figure 2. Exposure–Response Curve for the Relation between Exposure to Ozone and the Risk of Death from Respiratory Causes.

The curve is based on a natural spline with 2 df estimated from the residual relative risk of death within a metropolitan statistical area (MSA) according to a random-effects survival model. The dashed lines indicate the 95% confidence interval of fit, and the hash marks indicate the ozone levels of each of the 96 MSAs.

models, but the association with ozone was nonsignificant in two-pollutant models.[3] Further analyses based on 16 years of follow-up in 134 cities produced similarly elevated but nonsignificant associations that were suggestive of effects of summertime (July to September) exposure to ozone on death from cardiopulmonary causes.[5]

The increase in deaths from respiratory causes with increasing exposure to ozone may represent a combination of short-term effects of ozone on susceptible subjects who have influenza or pneumonia and long-term effects on the respiratory system caused by airway inflammation,[24] with subsequent loss of lung function in childhood,[32] young adulthood,[33,34] and possibly later life.[35] If exposure to ozone accelerates the natural loss of adult lung function with age, those exposed to higher concentrations of ozone would be at greater risk of dying from a respiratory-related syndrome.

In our two-pollutant models, the adjusted estimates of relative risk for the effect of ozone on the risk of death from cardiovascular causes were significantly less than 1.0, seemingly suggesting a protective effect. Such a beneficial influence of ozone, however, is unlikely from a biologic standpoint. The association of ozone with cardiovascular end points was sensitive to adjustment for exposure to $PM_{2.5}$, making it difficult to determine precisely the independent contributions of these copollutants to the risk of death. There was notable collinearity between the concentrations of ozone and $PM_{2.5}$.

Furthermore, measurement at central monitors probably represents population exposure to $PM_{2.5}$ more accurately than it represents exposure to ozone. Ozone concentration tends to vary spatially within cities more than does $PM_{2.5}$ concentration, because of scavenging of ozone by nitrogen oxide near roadways.[36] In the presence of a high density of local traffic, the measurement error is probably higher for exposure to ozone than for exposure to $PM_{2.5}$. The effects of ozone could therefore be confounded by the presence of $PM_{2.5}$ because of collinearity between the measurements of the two pollutants and the higher precision of measurements of $PM_{2.5}$.[37]

Measurements of $PM_{2.5}$ were available only for the end of the study follow-up period (1999 and 2000). Widespread collection of these data began only after the EPA adopted regulatory limits on such particulates in 1997. Since particulate air pollution has probably decreased in most metropolitan areas during the follow-up interval of our study, it is likely that we have underestimated the effect of $PM_{2.5}$ in our analysis.

A limitation of our study is that we were not able to account for the geographic mobility of the population during the follow-up period. We had information on home addresses for the CPS II cohort only at the time of initial enrollment in 1982 and 1983. Census data indicate that during the interval between 1982 and 2000, approximately 2 to 3% of the population moved from one state to another annually (with the highest rates in an age group younger than that of our study population).[38] However, any bias due to a failure to account for geographic mobility is likely to have attenuated, rather than exaggerated, the effects of ozone on mortality.

In summary, we investigated the effect of tropospheric ozone on the risk of death from any cause and cause-specific death in a large cohort, using data from 96 metropolitan statistical areas across the United States and controlling for the effect of particulate air pollutants. We were unable to detect a significant effect of exposure to ozone on the risk of death from cardiovascular causes when particulates were taken into account, but we did demonstrate a significant effect of exposure to ozone on the risk of death from respiratory causes.

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This article is dedicated to the memory of our coauthor and friend, Dr. Jeanne Calle, who died unexpectedly on February 17, 2009.

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EPA United States Environmental Protection Agency

Ground-level Ozone
Health Effects

Ozone in the air we breathe can harm our health—typically on hot, sunny days when ozone can reach unhealthy levels. Even relatively low levels of ozone can cause health effects. People with lung disease, children, older adults, and people who are active outdoors may be particularly sensitive to ozone.

Children are at greatest risk from exposure to ozone because their lungs are still developing and they are more likely to be active outdoors when ozone levels are high, which increases their exposure. Children are also more likely than adults to have asthma.

Breathing ozone can trigger a variety of health problems including chest pain, coughing, throat irritation, and congestion. It can worsen bronchitis, emphysema, and asthma. Ground level ozone also can reduce lung function and inflame the linings of the lungs. Repeated exposure may permanently scar lung tissue.

Ozone can:

- Make it more difficult to breathe deeply and vigorously.
- Cause shortness of breath and pain when taking a deep breath.
- Cause coughing and sore or scratchy throat.
- Inflame and damage the airways.
- Aggravate lung diseases such as asthma, emphysema, and chronic bronchitis.
- Increase the frequency of asthma attacks.
- Make the lungs more susceptible to infection.
- Continue to damage the lungs even when the symptoms have disappeared.

These effects may lead to increased school absences, medication use, visits to doctors and emergency rooms, and hospital admissions. Research also indicates that ozone exposure may increase the risk of premature death from heart or lung disease.

Ozone is particularly likely to reach unhealthy levels on hot sunny days in urban environments. It is a major part of urban smog. Ozone can also be transported long distances by wind. For this reason, even rural areas can experience high ozone levels. And, in some cases, ozone can occur throughout the year in some southern and mountain regions. Learn more about the formation and transport of ground level ozone.

The AIRNow Web site provides daily air quality reports for many areas. These reports use the Air Quality Index (or AQI) to tell you how clean or polluted the air is. EnviroFlash, a free service, can alert you via email when your local air quality is a concern. Sign up at www.enviroflash.info.

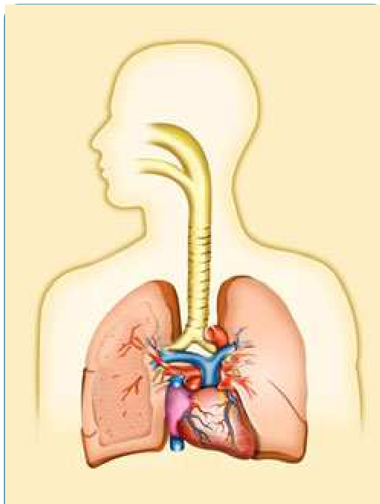
If you're a health care provider, visit AIRNow's Health Care Provider page for educational materials and trainings.

For more information on how EPA works to reduce ground level ozone, visit the Ozone Standards page.

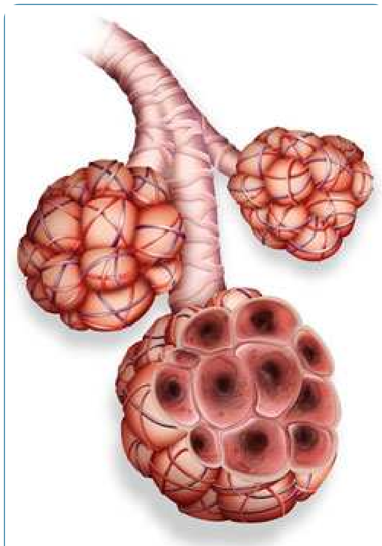
For more information on ground level ozone, health and the environment, visit:

- Ozone and Your Health (PDF) (2 pp, 2.5 MB) This short, colorful pamphlet tells who is at risk from exposure to ozone, what health effects are caused by ozone, and simple measures that can be taken to reduce health risk.
- Ozone: Good Up High, Bad Nearby (PDF) (2 pp, 1.3 MB) Ozone acts as a protective layer high above the earth, but it can be harmful to breathe. This publication provides basic information about ground level and high-altitude ozone.
- EPA's Air Quality Guide for Ozone Provides detailed information about what the Air Quality Index means. Helps determine ways to protect your family's health when ozone levels reach the unhealthy range, and ways you can help reduce ozone air pollution.
- Ozone and Your Patients' Health Training for Health Care Providers Designed for family practice doctors, pediatricians, nurse practitioners,

What are the effects of ozone?



Effects on the Airways. Ozone is a powerful oxidant that can irritate the air ways causing coughing, a burning sensation, wheezing and shortness of breath and it can aggravate asthma and other lung diseases.



Alveoli filled with trapped air. Ozone can cause the muscles in the airways to constrict, trapping air in the alveoli. This leads to wheezing and shortness of breath. In people with asthma it can result in asthma attacks.

asthma educators, and other medical professionals who counsel patients about asthma and respiratory symptoms.

- AIRNow Health Providers Information Provides information on how to help patients protect their health by reducing their exposure to air pollution.
- EPA's Asthma Web Site EPA's Communities in Action Asthma Initiative is a coordinated effort to reduce the burden of asthma and includes programs to address indoor and outdoor environments that cause, trigger or exacerbate asthma symptoms.
- Smog - Who Does it Hurt? (PDF) (10 pp, 819 KB) This 8-page booklet provides more detailed information than "Ozone and Your Health" about ozone health effects and how to avoid them.
- Summertime Safety: Keeping Kids Safe from Sun and Smog (PDF) (2 pp, 314 KB) This document discusses summer health hazards that pertain particularly to children and includes information about EPA's Air Quality Index and UV Index tools.

Airway Inflammation. With airway inflammation, there is an influx of white blood cells, increased mucous production, and fluid accumulation and retention. This causes the death and shedding of cells that line the airways and has been compared to the skin inflammation caused by sunburn.

Ozone and Your Patients' Health Training for Health Care Providers

Last updated on Thursday, November 01, 2012

Nitrogen Dioxide
Health

Current scientific evidence links short-term NO_2 exposures, ranging from 30 minutes to 24 hours, with adverse respiratory effects including airway inflammation in healthy people and increased respiratory symptoms in people with asthma.

Also, studies show a connection between breathing elevated short-term NO_2 concentrations, and increased visits to emergency departments and hospital admissions for respiratory issues, especially asthma.

NO_2 concentrations in vehicles and near roadways are appreciably higher than those measured at monitors in the current network. In fact, in-vehicle concentrations can be 2-3 times higher than measured at nearby area-wide monitors. Near-roadway (within about 50 meters) concentrations of NO_2 have been measured to be approximately 30 to 100% higher than concentrations away from roadways.

Individuals who spend time on or near major roadways can experience short-term NO_2 exposures considerably higher than measured by the current network. Approximately 16% of U.S housing units are located within 300 ft of a major highway, railroad, or airport (approximately 48 million people). This population likely includes a higher proportion of non-white and economically-disadvantaged people.

NO_2 exposure concentrations near roadways are of particular concern for susceptible individuals, including people with asthma asthmatics, children, and the elderly

The sum of nitric oxide (NO) and NO_2 is commonly called nitrogen oxides or NOx. Other oxides of nitrogen including nitrous acid and nitric acid are part of the nitrogen oxide family. While EPA's National Ambient Air Quality Standard (NAAQS) covers this entire family, NO_2 is the component of greatest interest and the indicator for the larger group of nitrogen oxides.

NOx react with ammonia, moisture, and other compounds to form small particles. These small particles penetrate deeply into sensitive parts of the lungs and can cause or worsen respiratory disease, such as emphysema and bronchitis, and can aggravate existing heart disease, leading to increased hospital admissions and premature death.

Ozone is formed when NOx and volatile organic compounds react in the presence of heat and sunlight. Children, the elderly, people with lung diseases such as asthma, and people who work or exercise outside are at risk for adverse effects from ozone. These include reduction in lung function and increased respiratory symptoms as well as respiratory-related emergency department visits, hospital admissions, and possibly premature deaths.

Emissions that lead to the formation of NO_2 generally also lead to the formation of other NOx. Emissions control measures leading to reductions in NO_2 can generally be expected to reduce population exposures to all gaseous NOx. This may have the important co-benefit of reducing the formation of ozone and fine particles both of which pose significant public health threats.

Last updated on Thursday, March 22, 2012

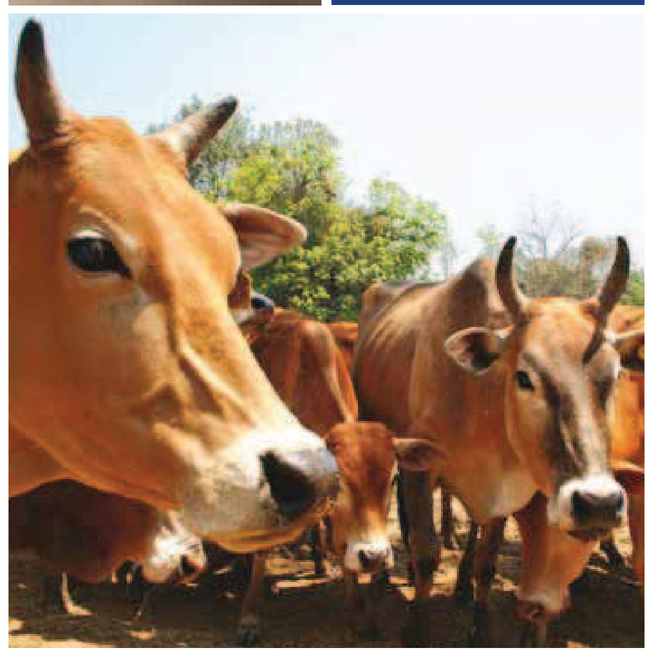
UNEP

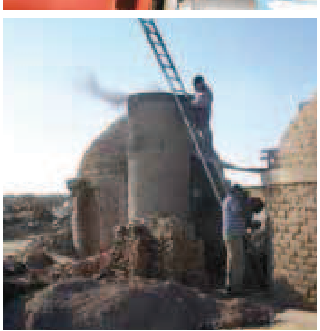
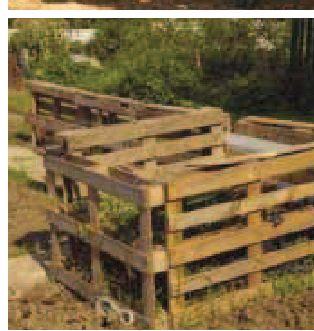
World Meteorological Organization

Integrated Assessment of Black Carbon and Tropospheric Ozone

Summary for Decision Makers




A complete elaboration of the topics covered in this summary can be found in the Integrated Assessment of Black Carbon and Tropospheric Ozone report and in the fully referenced underlying research, analyses and reports.

For details of UNEP's regional and sub-regional areas referred to throughout this document see http://geodata.grid.unep.ch/extras/geosubregions.php.

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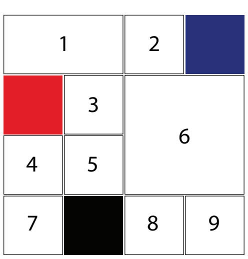

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Integrated Assessment of Black Carbon and Tropospheric Ozone

Summary for Decision Makers

Table of Contents

Main Messages

Scientific evidence and new analyses demonstrate that control of black carbon particles and tropospheric ozone through rapid implementation of proven emission reduction measures would have immediate and multiple benefits for human well-being.

Black carbon exists as particles in the atmosphere and is a major component of soot, it has significant human health and climate impacts. At ground level, ozone is an air pollutant harmful to human health and ecosystems, and throughout the troposphere, or lower atmosphere, is also a significant greenhouse gas. Ozone is not directly emitted, but is produced from emissions of precursors of which methane and carbon monoxide are of particular interest here.

THE CHALLENGE

1. **The climate is changing now, warming at the highest rate in polar and high-altitude regions.** Climate change, even in the near term, has the potential to trigger abrupt transitions such as the release of carbon from thawing permafrost and biodiversity loss. The world has warmed by about 0.8˚C from pre-industrial levels, as reported by the

Credit: Kevin Hicks

Traditional brick kilns in South Asia are a major source of black carbon. Improved kiln design in this region is significantly reducing emissions.

Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC). The Parties to the United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change (UNFCCC) have agreed that warming should not exceed 2˚C above pre-industrial levels.

2. **Black carbon and ozone in the lower atmosphere are harmful air pollutants that have substantial regional and global climate impacts.** They disturb tropical rainfall and regional circulation patterns such as the Asian monsoon, affecting the livelihoods of millions of people.

3. **Black carbon's darkening of snow and ice surfaces increases their absorption of sunlight, which, along with atmospheric heating, exacerbates melting of snow and ice around the world, including in the Arctic, the Himalayas and other glaciated and snow-covered regions.** This affects the water cycle and increases risks of flooding.

4. **Black carbon, a component of particulate matter, and ozone both lead to adverse impacts on human health leading to premature deaths worldwide. Ozone is also the most important air pollutant responsible for reducing crop yields, and thus affects food security.**

REDUCING EMISSIONS

5. **Reducing black carbon and tropospheric ozone now will slow the rate of climate change within the first half of this century. Climate benefits from reduced ozone are achieved by reducing emissions of some of its precursors, especially methane which is also a powerful greenhouse gas.** These short-lived climate forcers – methane, black carbon and ozone – are fundamentally different from longer-lived greenhouse gases, remaining in the atmosphere for only a relatively short time. Deep and immediate carbon dioxide reductions are required to protect long-term climate, as this cannot be achieved by addressing short-lived climate forcers.

6. **A small number of emission reduction measures targeting black carbon and ozone precursors could immediately begin to protect climate, public health, water and food security, and ecosystems.** Measures include the recovery of methane from coal, oil and gas extraction and transport, methane capture in waste management, use of clean-burning stoves for residential cooking, diesel particulate filters for vehicles and the banning of field burning of agricultural waste. Widespread implementation is achievable with existing technology but would require significant strategic investment and institutional arrangements.

7. **The identified measures complement but do not replace anticipated carbon dioxide reduction measures.** Major carbon dioxide reduction strategies mainly target the energy and large industrial sectors and therefore would not necessarily result in significant reductions in emissions of black carbon or the ozone precursors methane and carbon monoxide. Significant reduction of the short-lived climate forcers requires a specific strategy, as many are emitted from a large number of small sources.

BENEFITS OF EMISSION REDUCTIONS

8. **Full implementation of the identified measures would reduce future global warming by 0.5˚C (within a range of 0.2–0.7˚C, Figure 1).** If the measures were to be implemented by 2030, they could halve the potential increase in global temperature projected for 2050 compared to the Assessment's reference scenario based on current policies and energy and fuel projections. The rate of regional temperature increase would also be reduced.

9. **Both near-term and long-term strategies are essential to protect climate.** Reductions in near-term warming can be achieved by control of the short-lived climate forcers whereas carbon dioxide emission reductions, beginning now, are required to limit long-term climate change. Implementing both reduction strategies is needed to improve the chances of keeping the Earth's global mean temperature increase to within the UNFCCC 2˚C target.

10. **Full implementation of the identified measures would have substantial benefits in the Arctic, the Himalayas and other glaciated and snow-covered regions.** This could reduce warming in the Arctic in the next 30 years by about two-thirds compared to the projections of the Assessment's reference scenario. This substantially decreases the risk of changes in weather patterns and amplification of global warming resulting from changes in the Arctic. Regional benefits of the black carbon measures, such as their effects on snow- and ice-covered regions or regional rainfall patterns, are largely independent of their impact on global mean warming.

11. **Full implementation of the identified measures could avoid 2.4 million premature deaths (within a range of 0.7–4.6 million) and the loss of 52 million tonnes (within a range of 30–140 million tonnes), 1–4 per cent, of the global production of maize, rice, soybean and wheat each year (Figure 1).**The most substantial benefits will be felt immediately in or close to the regions where action is taken to reduce emissions, with the greatest health and crop benefits expected in Asia.

RESPONSES

12. The identified measures are all currently in use in different regions around the world to achieve a variety of environment and development objectives. **Much wider and more rapid implementation is required to achieve the full benefits identified in this Assessment.**

13. **Achieving widespread implementation of the identified measures would be most effective if it were country- and region-specific, and could be supported by the considerable existing body of knowledge and experience.** Accounting for near-term climate co-benefits could leverage additional action and funding on a wider international scale which would facilitate more rapid implementation of the measures. Many measures achieve cost savings over time. However, initial capital investment could be problematic in some countries, necessitating additional support and investment.

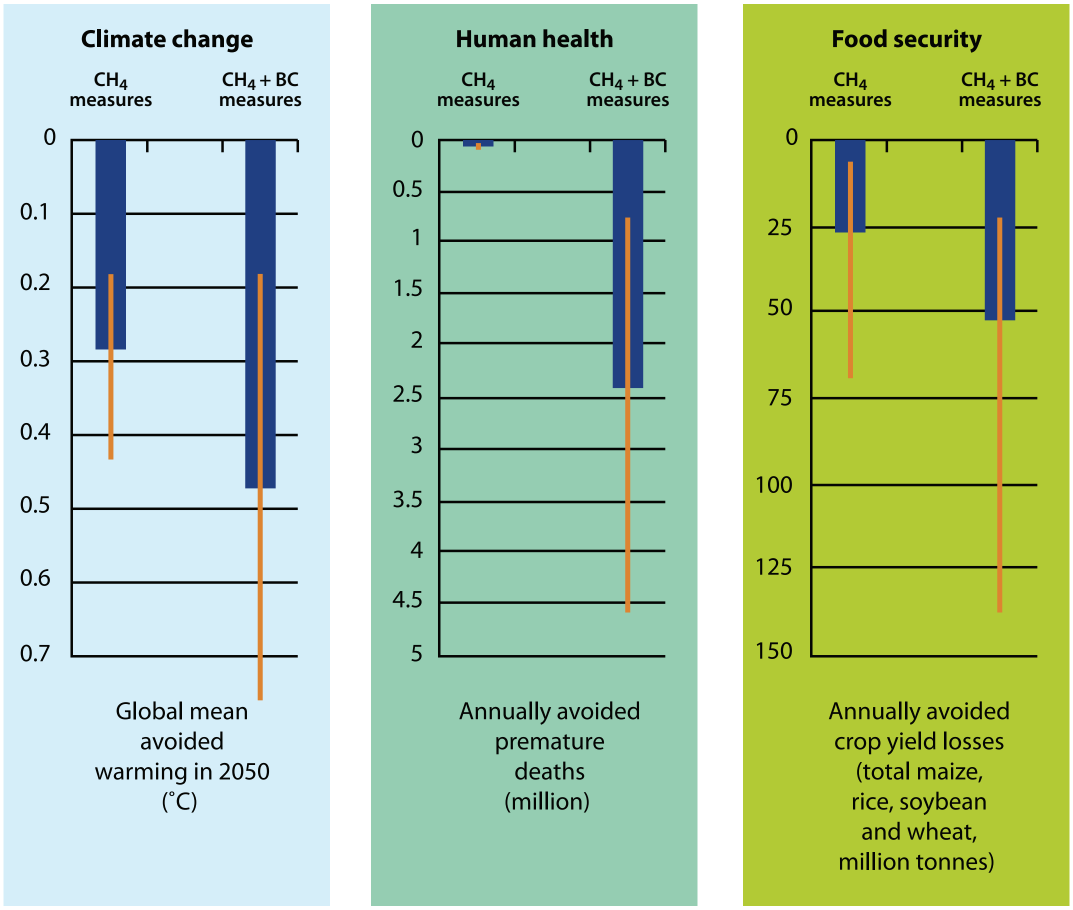


Figure 1. Global benefits from full implementation of the identified measures in 2030 compared to the reference scenario. The climate change benefit is estimated for a given year (2050) and human health and crop benefits are for 2030 and beyond.

14. **At national and sub-national scales many of the identified measures could be implemented under existing policies designed to address air quality and development concerns. Improved cooperation within and between regions would enhance widespread implementation and address transboundary climate and air quality issues.** International policy and financing instruments to address the co-benefits of reducing emissions of short-lived climate forcers need development and strengthening. Supporting and extending existing relevant regional arrangements may provide an opportunity for more effective cooperation, implementation and assessment as well as additional monitoring and research.

15. **The Assessment concludes that there is confidence that immediate and multiple benefits will be realized upon implementation of the identified measures.** The degree of confidence varies according to pollutant, impact and region. For example, there is higher confidence in the effect of methane measures on global temperatures than in the effect of black carbon measures, especially where these relate to the burning of biomass. There is also high confidence that benefits will be realized for human health from reducing particles, including black carbon, and to crop yields from reducing tropospheric ozone concentrations. Given the scientific complexity of the issues, further research is required to optimize near-term strategies in different regions and to evaluate the cost-benefit ratio for individual measures.

Introduction

Black carbon (BC, Box 1) and tropospheric ozone (O_3, Box 2) are harmful air pollutants that also contribute to climate change. In recent years, scientific understanding of how BC and O_3 affect climate and public health has significantly improved. This has catalysed a demand for information and action from governments, civil society and other stakeholders. The United Nations (UN) has been requested to urgently provide science-based advice on action to reduce the impacts of these pollutants[1].

The United Nations Environment Programme (UNEP), in consultation with partners, initiated an assessment designed to provide an interface between knowledge and action, science and policy, and to provide a scientifically credible basis for informed decision-making. The result is a comprehensive analysis of drivers of emissions, trends in concentrations, and impacts on climate, human health and ecosystems of BC, tropospheric O_3 and its precursors. BC, tropospheric O_3 and methane (CH_4) are often referred to as short-lived climate forcers (SLCFs) as they have a short lifetime in the atmosphere (days to about a decade) relative to carbon dioxide (CO_2).

The Assessment is an integrated analysis of multiple co-emitted pollutants reflecting the fact that these pollutants are not emitted in isolation (Boxes 1 and 2). The Assessment determined that under current policies, emissions of BC and O_3 precursors are expected globally either to increase or to remain roughly constant unless further mitigation action is taken.

The Integrated Assessment of Black Carbon and Tropospheric Ozone convened more than 50 authors to assess the state of science and existing policy options for addressing these pollutants. The Assessment team examined policy responses, developed an outlook to 2070 illustrating the benefits of political decisions made today and the risks to climate, human health and crop yields over the next decades if action is delayed. Placing a premium on robust science and analysis, the Assessment was driven by four main policy-relevant questions:

- Which measures are likely to provide significant combined climate and air-quality benefits?
- How much can implementation of the identified measures reduce the rate of global mean temperature increase by mid-century?
- What are the multiple climate, health and crop-yield benefits that would be achieved by implementing the measures?
- By what mechanisms could the measures be rapidly implemented?

In order to answer these questions, the Assessment team determined that new analyses were needed. The Assessment therefore relies on published literature as much as possible and on new simulations by two independent climate-chemistry-aerosol models: one developed and run by the NASA-Goddard Institute for Space Studies (GISS) and the other developed by the Max Planck Institute in Hamburg, Germany (ECHAM), and run at the Joint Research Centre of the European Commission in Ispra, Italy. The specific measures and emission estimates for use in developing this Assessment were selected using the International Institute for Applied Systems Analysis Greenhouse Gas and Air Pollution Interactions and Synergies (IIASA GAINS) model. For a more detailed description of the modelling see Chapter 1.

[1] The Anchorage Declaration of 24 April 2009, adopted by the Indigenous People's Global Summit on Climate Change; the Tromsø Declaration of 29 April 2009, adopted by the Sixth Ministerial Meeting of the Arctic Council and the 8th Session of the Permanent Forum on Indigenous Issues under the United Nations Economic and Social Council (May 2009) called on UNEP to conduct a fast track assessment of short-term drivers of climate change, specifically BC, with a view to initiating the negotiation of an international agreement to reduce emissions of BC. A need to take rapid action to address significant climate forcing agents other than CO_2, such as BC, was reflected in the 2009 declaration of the G8 leaders (Responsible Leadership for a Sustainable Future, L'Aquila, Italy, 2009).

Box 1: What is black carbon?

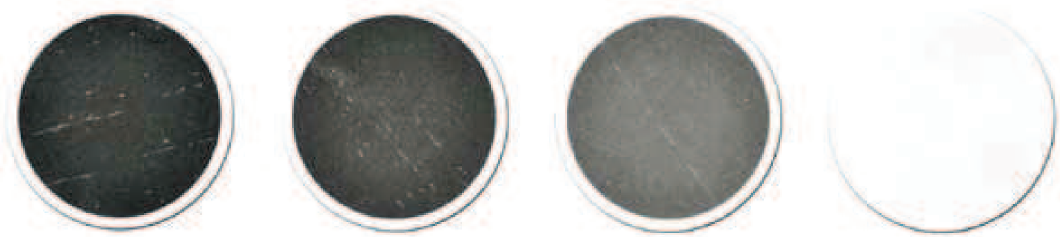
Black carbon (BC) exists as particles in the atmosphere and is a major component of soot. BC is not a greenhouse gas. Instead it warms the atmosphere by intercepting sunlight and absorbing it. BC and other particles are emitted from many common sources, such as cars and trucks, residential stoves, forest fires and some industrial facilities. BC particles have a strong warming effect in the atmosphere, darken snow when it is deposited, and influence cloud formation. Other particles may have a cooling effect in the atmosphere and all particles influence clouds. In addition to having an impact on climate, anthropogenic particles are also known to have a negative impact on human health.

Black carbon results from the incomplete combustion of fossil fuels, wood and other biomass. Complete combustion would turn all carbon in the fuel into carbon dioxide (CO_2). In practice, combustion is never complete and CO_2, carbon monoxide (CO), volatile organic compounds (VOCs), organic carbon (OC) particles and BC particles are all formed. There is a close relationship between emissions of BC (a warming agent) and OC (a cooling agent). They are always co-emitted, but in different proportions for different sources. Similarly, mitigation measures will have varying effects on the BC/OC mix.

The black in BC refers to the fact that these particles absorb visible light. This absorption leads to a disturbance of the planetary radiation balance and eventually to warming. The contribution to warming of 1 gramme of BC seen over a period of 100 years has been estimated to be anything from 100 to 2 000 times higher than that of 1 gramme of CO_2. An important aspect of BC particles is that their lifetime in the atmosphere is short, days to weeks, and so emission reductions have an immediate benefit for climate and health.

Haze with high particulate matter concentrations containing BC and OC, such as this over the Bay of Bengal, is widespread in many regions.

High emitting vehicles are a significant source of black carbon and other pollutants in many countries.



Credit: Luisa Molina

No retrofit system **Uncontrolled Diesel Exhaust** (Level 1)	Retrofitted with **Diesel Oxidation Catalyst (DOC)** (Level 1)	Retrofitted with **Partial Filter** (Level 2)	Retrofitted with **Diesel Particulate Filter (DPF)** (Level 3)
Old technlogy Little black carbon removal Little ultrafine PM removal Does not remove lube oil ash	Old technlogy Little black carbon removal Little ultrafine PM removal Does not remove lube oil ash	Little black carbon removal Little ultrafine PM removal Does not remove lube oil ash	New Technology Used on all new trucks since 2007 >85% black carbon removal >85% ultrafine removal >85% lube oil ash removal

Some of the largest emission reductions are obtained using diesel particle filters on high emitting vehicles. The exhibits above are actual particulate matter (PM) collection samples from an engine testing laboratory (International Council of Clean Transportation (ICCT)).

Box 2: What is tropospheric ozone?

Ozone (O_3) is a reactive gas that exists in two layers of the atmosphere: the stratosphere (the upper layer) and the troposphere (ground level to ~10–15 km). In the stratosphere, O_3 is considered to be beneficial as it protects life on Earth from the sun's harmful ultraviolet (UV) radiation. In contrast, at ground level, it is an air pollutant harmful to human health and ecosystems, and it is a major component of urban smog. In the troposphere, O_3 is also a significant greenhouse gas. The threefold increase of the O_3 concentration in the northern hemisphere during the past 100 years has made it the third most important contributor to the human enhancement of the global greenhouse effect, after CO_2 and CH_4.

In the troposphere, O_3 is formed by the action of sunlight on O_3 precursors that have natural and anthropogenic sources. These precursors are CH_4, nitrogen oxides (NO_X), VOCs and CO. It is important to understand that reductions in both CH_4 and CO emissions have the potential to substantially reduce O_3 concentrations and reduce global warming. In contrast, reducing VOCs would clearly be beneficial but has a small impact on the global scale, while reducing NO_X has multiple additional effects that result in its net impact on climate being minimal.

Credit: Luisa Molina

Credit: Warren Gretz/DOE/NREL

Tropospheric ozone is a major constituent of urban smog, left Tokyo, Japan; right Denver, Colorado, USA

Limiting Near-Term Climate Changes and Improving Air Quality

Identifying effective response measures

The Assessment identified those measures most likely to provide combined benefits, taking into account the fact that BC and O_3 precursors are co-emitted with different gases and particles, some of which cause warming and some of which, such as organic carbon (OC) and sulphur dioxide (SO_2) lead to cooling. The selection criterion was that the measure had to be likely to reduce global climate change and also provide air quality benefits, so-called win-win measures. Those measures that provided a benefit for air quality but increased warming were not included in the selected measures. For example, measures that primarily reduce emissions of SO_2 were not included.

The identified measures (Table 1) were chosen from a subset of about 2 000 separate measures that can be applied to sources in IIASA's GAINS model. The selection was based on the net influence on warming, estimated using the metric Global Warming Potential (GWP), of all of the gases and particles that are affected by the measure. The selection gives a useful indication of the potential for realizing a win for climate. All emission reduction measures were assumed to benefit air quality by reducing particulate matter and/or O_3 concentrations.

This selection process identified a relatively small set of measures which nevertheless provide about 90 per cent of the climate benefit compared to the implementation of all 2 000 measures in GAINS. The final analysis of the benefits for temperature, human health and crop yields considered the emissions of all substances resulting from the full implementation of the identified measures through the two global composition-climate models GISS and ECHAM (see Chapter 4). One hundred per cent implementation of the measures globally was used to illustrate the existing potential to reduce climate and air quality impacts, but this does not make any assumptions regarding the feasibility of full implementation everywhere. A discussion of the challenges involved in widespread implementation of the measures follows after the potential benefit has been demonstrated.

Achieving large emission reductions

The packages of policy measures in Table 1 were compared to a reference scenario (Table 2). Figure 2 shows the effect of the packages of policy measures and the reference scenario relative to 2005 emissions.

There is tremendous regional variability in how emissions are projected to change by the year 2030 under the reference scenario. Emissions of CH_4 – a major O_3 precursor and a potent greenhouse gas – are expected to increase in the future (Figure 2). This increase will occur despite current and planned regulations, in large part due to anticipated economic growth and the increase in fossil fuel production projected to accompany it. In contrast, global emissions of BC and accompanying co-emitted pollutants are expected to remain relatively constant through to 2030. Regionally, reductions in BC emissions are expected due to tighter standards on road transport and more efficient combustion replacing use of biofuels in the residential and commercial sectors,

Table 1. Measures that improve climate change mitigation and air quality and have a large emission reduction potential

Measure[1]	Sector
CH_4 measures	
Extended pre-mine degasification and recovery and oxidation of CH_4 from ventilation air from coal mines	Extraction and transport of fossil fuel
Extended recovery and utilization, rather than venting, of associated gas and improved control of unintended fugitive emissions from the production of oil and natural gas	
Reduced gas leakage from long-distance transmission pipelines	
Separation and treatment of biodegradable municipal waste through recycling, composting and anaerobic digestion as well as landfill gas collection with combustion/utilization	Waste management
Upgrading primary wastewater treatment to secondary/tertiary treatment with gas recovery and overflow control	
Control of CH_4 emissions from livestock, mainly through farm-scale anaerobic digestion of manure from cattle and pigs	Agriculture
Intermittent aeration of continuously flooded rice paddies	
BC measures (affecting BC and other co-emitted compounds)	
Diesel particle filters for road and off-road vehicles	Transport
Elimination of high-emitting vehicles in road and off-road transport	
Replacing coal by coal briquettes in cooking and heating stoves	Residential
Pellet stoves and boilers, using fuel made from recycled wood waste or sawdust, to replace current wood-burning technologies in the residential sector in industrialized countries	
Introduction of clean-burning biomass stoves for cooking and heating in developing countries[2, 3]	
Substitution of clean-burning cookstoves using modern fuels for traditional biomass cookstoves in developing countries[2, 3]	
Replacing traditional brick kilns with vertical shaft kilns and Hoffman kilns	Industry
Replacing traditional coke ovens with modern recovery ovens, including the improvement of end-of-pipe abatement measures in developing countries	
Ban of open field burning of agricultural waste[2]	Agriculture

[1] There are measures other than those identified in the table that could be implemented. For example, electric cars would have a similar impact to diesel particulate filters but these have not yet been widely introduced; forest fire controls could also be important but are not included due to the difficulty in establishing the proportion of fires that are anthropogenic.
[2] Motivated in part by its effect on health and regional climate, including areas of ice and snow.
[3] For cookstoves, given their importance for BC emissions, two alternative measures are included.

although these are offset to some extent by increased activity and economic growth. The regional BC emission trends, therefore, vary significantly, with emissions expected to decrease in North America and Europe, Latin America and the Caribbean, and in Northeast Asia, Southeast Asia and the Pacific, and to increase in Africa and South, West and Central Asia.

The full implementation of the selected measures by 2030 leads to significant reductions of SLCF emissions relative to current emissions or to the 2030 emissions in the reference scenario (Figure 2). It also reduces a high proportion of the emissions relative to the maximum reduction from the implementation of all 2 000 or so measures in the GAINS model. The measures designed to reduce BC also have a considerable impact on OC, total fine particulate matter ($PM_{2.5}$) and CO emissions, removing more than half the total anthropogenic emissions. The largest BC emission reductions are obtained through measures controlling incomplete combustion of biomass and diesel particle filters.

The major sources of CO_2 are different from those emitting most BC, OC, CH_4 and CO. Even in the few cases where there is overlap, such as diesel vehicles, the particle filters that reduce BC, OC and CO have minimal effect on CO_2. The measures to reduce CO_2 over the next 20 years (Table 2) therefore hardly affect the emissions of BC, OC or CO. The influence of the CH_4 and BC measures is thus the same regardless of whether the CO_2 measures are imposed or not.

Reducing near-term global warming

The Earth is projected to continue the rapid warming of the past several decades and, without additional mitigation efforts, under the reference scenario global mean temperatures are projected to rise about a further 1.3˚C (with a range of 0.8–2.0˚C) by the middle of this century, bringing the total warming from pre-industrial levels to about 2.2˚C (Figure 3). The Assessment shows that the measures targeted to reduce emissions of BC and CH_4 could greatly reduce global mean warming rates over the next few decades (Figure 3). Figure 1 shows that over half of the reduced global mean warming is achieved by the CH_4 measures and the remainder by BC measures. The greater confidence in the effect of CH_4 measures on warming is reflected in the narrower range of estimates.

When all measures are fully implemented, warming during the 2030s relative to the present day is only half as much as if no measures had been implemented. In contrast, even a fairly aggressive strategy to reduce CO_2 emissions under the CO_2 measures scenario does little to mitigate warming over the next 20–30 years. In fact, sulphate particles, reflecting particles that offset some of the committed warming for the short time they are in the atmosphere, are derived from SO_2 that is co-emitted with CO_2 in some of the highest-emitting activities, including coal burning in large-scale combustion such as in power plants. Hence, CO_2 measures alone may temporarily enhance near-term warming as sulphates are reduced (Figure 3;

Table 2. Policy packages used in the Assessment

Scenario	Description[1]
Reference	Based on energy and fuel projections of the International Energy Agency (IEA) *World Energy Outlook 2009* and incorporating all presently agreed policies affecting emissions
CH_4 measures	Reference scenario plus the CH_4 measures
BC measures	Reference scenario plus the BC measures (the BC measures affect many pollutants, especially BC, OC, and CO)
CH_4 + BC measures	Reference scenario plus the CH_4 and BC measures
CO_2 measures	Emissions modelled using the assumptions of the IEA *World Energy Outlook 2009* 450 Scenario[2] and the IIASA GAINS database. Includes CO_2 measures only. The CO_2 measures affect other emissions, especially SO_2[3]
CO_2 + CH_4 + BC measures	CO_2 measures plus CH_4 and BC measures

1 In all scenarios, trends in all pollutant emissions are included through 2030, after which only trends in CO_2 are included.

2 The 450 Scenario is designed to keep total forcing due to long-lived greenhouse gases (including CH_4 in this case) at a level equivalent to 450 ppm CO_2 by the end of the century.

3 Emissions of SO_2 are reduced by 35–40 per cent by implementing CO_2 measures. A further reduction in sulphur emissions would be beneficial to health but would increase global warming. This is because sulphate particles cool the Earth by reflecting sunlight back to space.

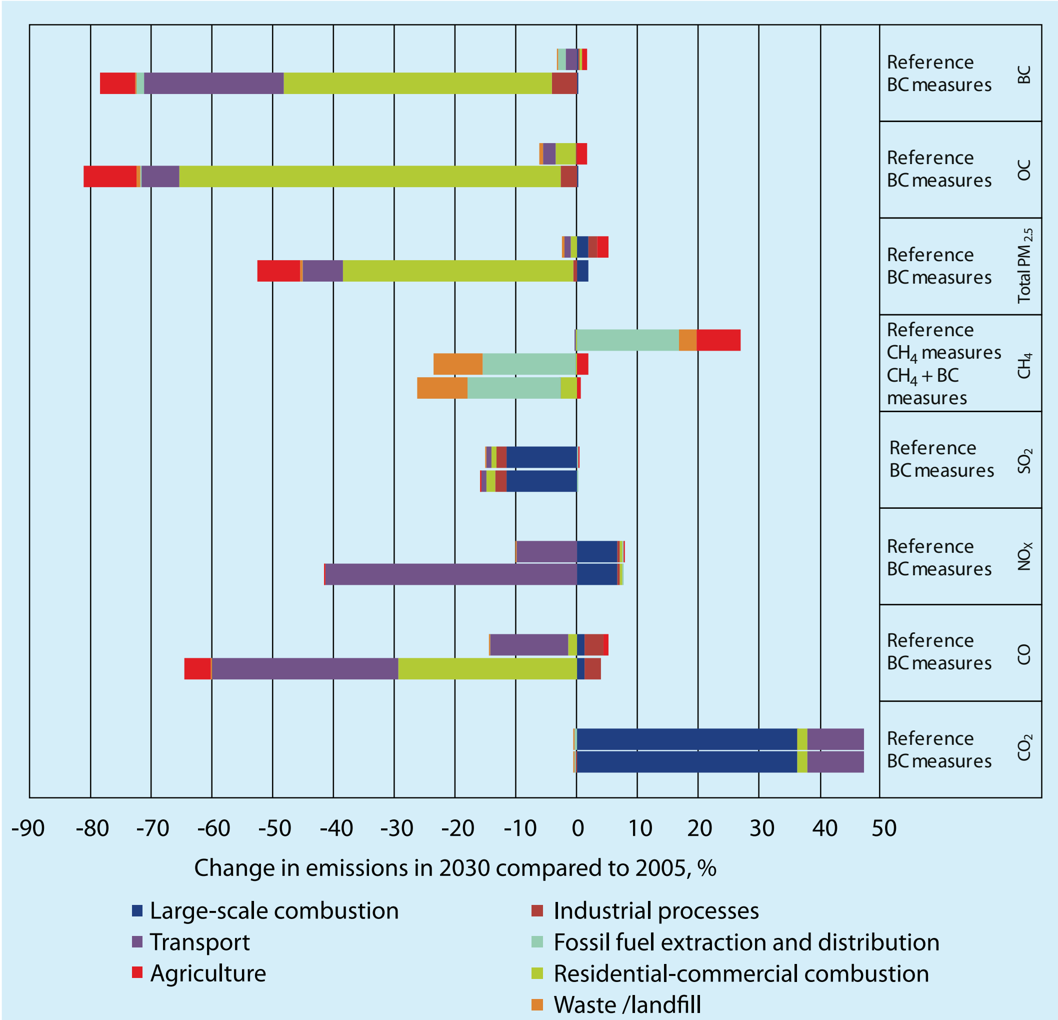


Figure 2. Percentage change in anthropogenic emissions of the indicated pollutants in 2030 relative to 2005 for the reference, CH_4, BC and CH_4 + BC measures scenarios. The CH_4 measures have minimal effect on emissions of anything other than CH_4. The identified BC measures reduce a large proportion of total BC, OC and CO emissions. SO_2 and CO_2 emissions are hardly affected by the identified CH_4 and BC measures, while NO_X and other $PM_{2.5}$ emissions are affected by the BC measures.

temperatures in the CO_2 measures scenario are slightly higher than those in the reference scenario during the period 2020–2040).

The CO_2 measures clearly lead to long-term benefits, with a dramatically lower warming rate in 2070 than under the scenario with only near-term CH_4 + BC measures. Owing to the long residence time of CO_2 in the atmosphere, these long-term benefits will only be achieved if CO_2 emission reductions are brought in quickly. In essence, the near-term CH_4 and BC measures examined in this Assessment are effectively decoupled from the CO_2 measures both in that they target different source sectors and in that their impacts on climate change take place over different timescales.

Near-term warming may occur in sensitive regions and could cause essentially irreversible changes, such as loss of Arctic land-ice, release of CH_4 or CO_2 from Arctic permafrost and species loss. Indeed, the projected warming in the reference scenario is greater in the Arctic than globally. Reducing the near-term rate of warming hence decreases the risk of irreversible transitions that could influence the global climate system for centuries.

Staying within critical temperature thresholds

Adoption of the near-term emission control measures described in this Assessment, together with measures to reduce CO_2 emissions, would greatly improve the chances of keeping Earth's temperature increase to less than 2˚C relative to pre-industrial levels (Figure 3). With the CO_2 measures alone, warming exceeds 2˚C before 2050. Even with both the CO_2 measures and CH_4 measures envisioned under the same IEA 450 Scenario, warming exceeds 2˚C in the 2060s (see Chapter 5). However, the combination of CO_2, CH_4, and BC measures holds the temperature increase below 2˚C until around 2070. While CO_2 emission reductions even larger than those in the CO_2 measures scenario would of course mitigate more warming, actual CO_2 emissions over the past decade have consistently exceeded the most pessimistic emission scenarios of the IPCC. Thus, it seems unlikely that reductions more stringent than those in the CO_2 measures scenario will take place during the next 20 years.

Examining the more stringent UNFCCC 1.5˚C threshold, the CO_2 measures scenario exceeds this by 2030, whereas the near-term measures proposed in the Assessment delay that exceedance until after 2040. Again, while substantially deeper early reductions in CO_2 emissions than those in the CO_2 measures scenario could also delay the crossing of the 1.5˚C temperature threshold, such reductions would undoubtedly be even more difficult to achieve. However, adoption of the Assessment's near-term measures (CH_4 + BC) along with the CO_2 reductions would provide

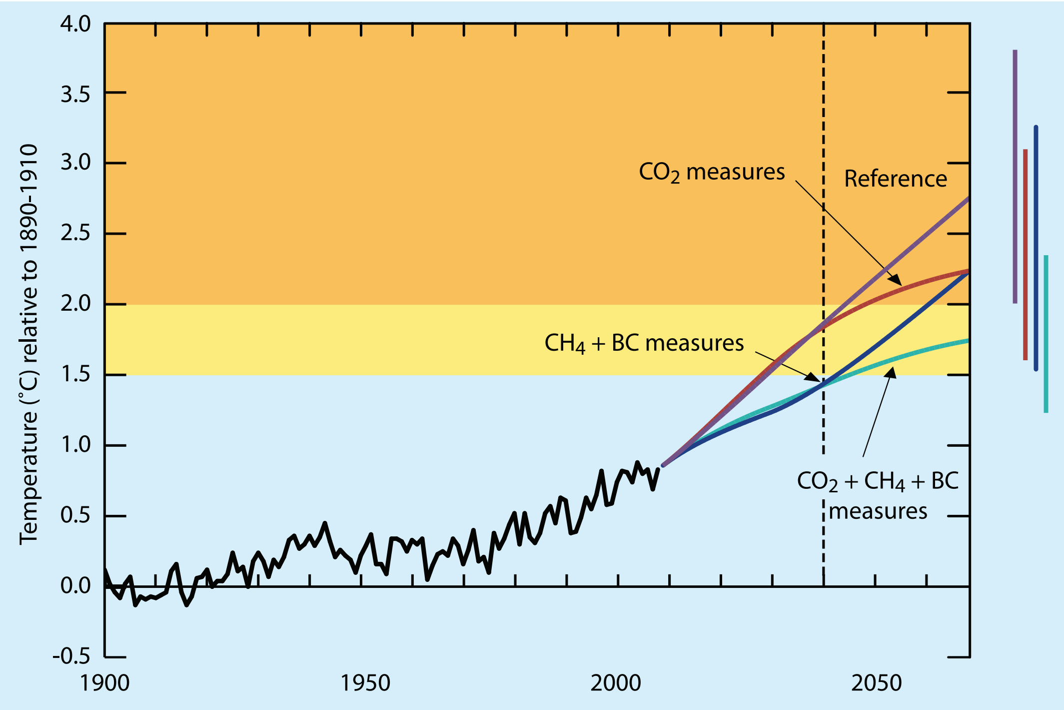


Figure 3. Observed deviation of temperature to 2009 and projections under various scenarios. Immediate implementation of the identified BC and CH_4 measures, together with measures to reduce CO_2 emissions, would greatly improve the chances of keeping Earth's temperature increase to less than 2˚C relative to pre-industrial levels. The bulk of the benefits of CH_4 and BC measure are realized by 2040 (dashed line).
Explanatory notes: Actual mean temperature observations through 2009, and projected under various scenarios thereafter, are shown relative to the 1890–1910 mean temperature. Estimated ranges for 2070 are shown in the bars on the right. A portion of the uncertainty is common to all scenarios, so that overlapping ranges do not mean there is no difference, for example, if climate sensitivity is large, it is large regardless of the scenario, so temperatures in all scenarios would be towards the high-end of their ranges.

a substantial chance of keeping the Earth's temperature increase below 1.5˚C for the next 30 years.

Benefits of early implementation

There would clearly be much less warming during 2020–2060 were the measures implemented earlier rather than later (Figure 4). Hence there is a substantial near-term climate benefit in accelerating implementation of the identified measures even if some of these might eventually be adopted owing to general air-quality and development concerns. Clearly the earlier implementation will also have significant additional human health and crop-yield benefits.

Accelerated adoption of the identified measures has only a modest effect on long-term climate change in comparison with waiting 20 years, however (Figure 4). This reinforces the conclusion that reducing emissions of O_3 precursors and BC can have substantial benefits in the near term, but that mitigating long-term climate change depends on reducing emissions of long-lived greenhouse gases such as CO_2.

Regional climate benefits

While global mean temperatures provide some indication of climate impacts, temperature changes can vary dramatically from place to place even in response to relatively uniform forcing from long-lived greenhouse gases. Figure 5 shows that warming is projected to increase for all regions with some variation under the reference scenario, while the Assessment's measures provide the benefit of reduced warming in all regions.

Climate change also encompasses more than just temperature changes. Precipitation, melting rates of snow and ice, wind patterns, and clouds are all affected, and these in turn have an impact on human well-being by influencing factors such as water availability, agriculture and land use.

Both O_3 and BC, as well as other particles, can influence many of the processes that lead to the formation of clouds and precipitation. They alter surface temperatures, affecting evaporation. By absorbing sunlight in the atmosphere, O_3 and especially BC can affect cloud formation, rainfall and weather patterns. They can change wind patterns by affecting the regional temperature contrasts that drive the winds, influencing where rain and snow fall. While some aspects of these effects are local, they can also affect temperature, cloudiness, and precipitation far away from the emission sources. The regional changes in all these aspects of climate will be significant, but are currently not well quantified.

Tropical rainfall patterns and the Asian monsoon

Several detailed studies of the Asian monsoon suggest that regional forcing by absorbing particles substantially alters precipitation patterns (as explained in the previous section). The fact that both O_3 and particle changes are predominantly in the northern hemisphere means that they cause temperature gradients between the two hemispheres that influence rainfall patterns throughout the tropics. Implementation of the measures analysed in this Assessment would substantially decrease the regional atmospheric heating by particles (Figure 6), and are hence very likely to reduce regional shifts in precipitation. As the reductions of atmospheric forcing are greatest over the Indian sub-continent and other parts of Asia, the emission reductions may have a substantial effect on the Asian monsoon, mitigating disruption of traditional rainfall patterns. However, results from global climate models are not yet robust for the magnitude or timing of monsoon shifts resulting from either greenhouse gas increases or changes in absorbing particles. Nonetheless, results from climate models provide examples of the type of change that might be expected. Shifts in the timing and strength of precipitation can have significant impacts on human well-being because of changes in water

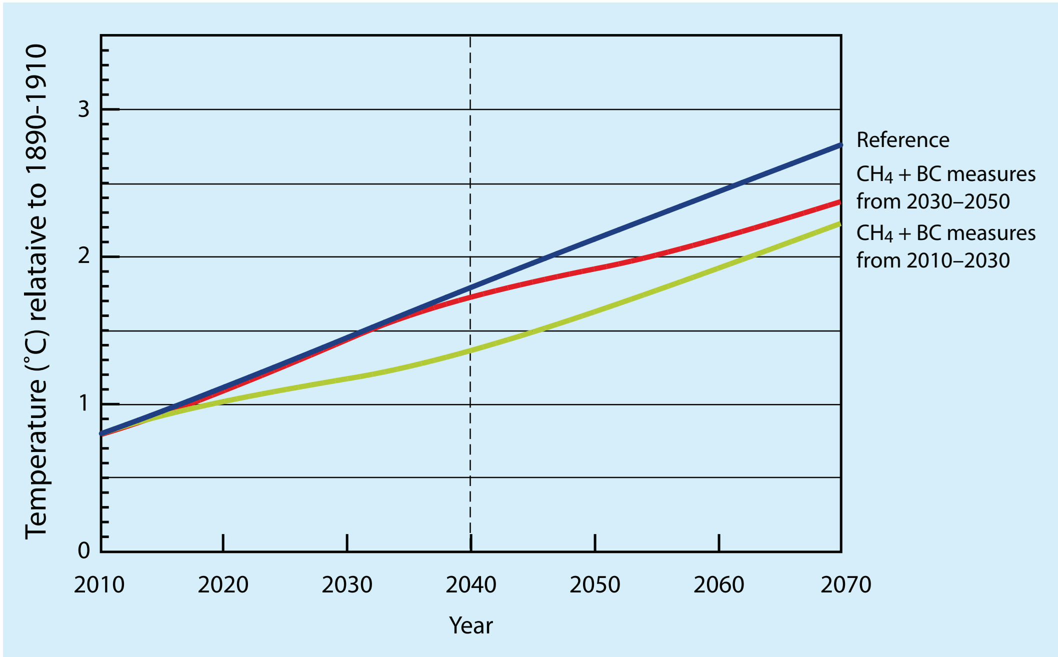


Figure 4. Projected global mean temperature changes for the reference scenario and for the CH_4 and BC measures scenario with emission reductions starting immediately or delayed by 20 years.

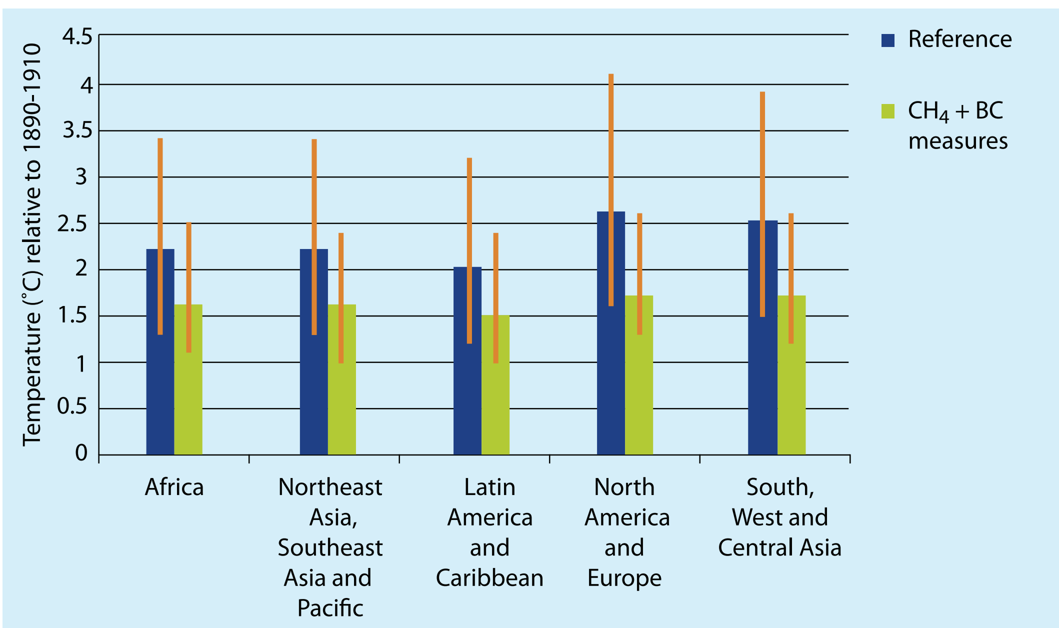


Figure 5. Comparison of regional mean warming over land (˚C) showing the change in 2070 compared with 2005 for the reference scenario (Table 2) and the CH_4 + BC measures scenario. The lines on each bar show the range of estimates.

supply and agricultural productivity, drought and flooding. The results shown in Figure 6 suggest that implementation of the BC measures could also lead to a considerable reduction in the disruption of traditional rainfall patterns in Africa.

Decreased warming in polar and other glaciated regions

Implementation of the measures would substantially slow, but not halt, the current rapid pace of temperature rise and other changes already occurring at the poles and high-altitude glaciated regions, and the reduced warming in these regions would likely be greater than that seen globally. The large benefits occur in part because the snow/ice darkening effect of BC is substantially greater than the cooling effect of reflective particles co-emitted with BC, leading to greater warming impacts in these areas than in areas without snow and ice cover.

Studies in the Arctic indicate that it is highly sensitive both to local pollutant emissions and those transported from sources close to the Arctic, as well as to the climate impact of pollutants in the mid-latitudes of the northern hemisphere. Much of the need for implementation lies within Europe and North America. The identified measures could reduce warming in the Arctic by about 0.7˚C (with a range of 0.2–1.3˚C) in 2040. This is nearly two-thirds of the estimated 1.1˚C (with a range of 0.7–1.7˚C) warming projected for the Arctic under the reference scenario, and should substantially decrease the risk of global impacts from changes in this sensitive region, such as sea ice loss, which affects global albedo, and permafrost melt. Although not identified as a measure for use in this Assessment, the control of boreal forest fires may also be important in reducing impacts in the Arctic.

The Antarctic is a far less studied region in terms of SLCF impacts. However, there are studies demonstrating BC deposition even in central portions of the continent, and reductions in O_3 and CH_4 should slow warming in places like the Antarctic Peninsula, currently the spot on the globe showing the most rapid temperature rise of all.

The Himalayas and the Tibetan Plateau are regions where BC is likely to have serious impacts. In the high valleys of the Himalayas, for example, BC levels can be as high as in

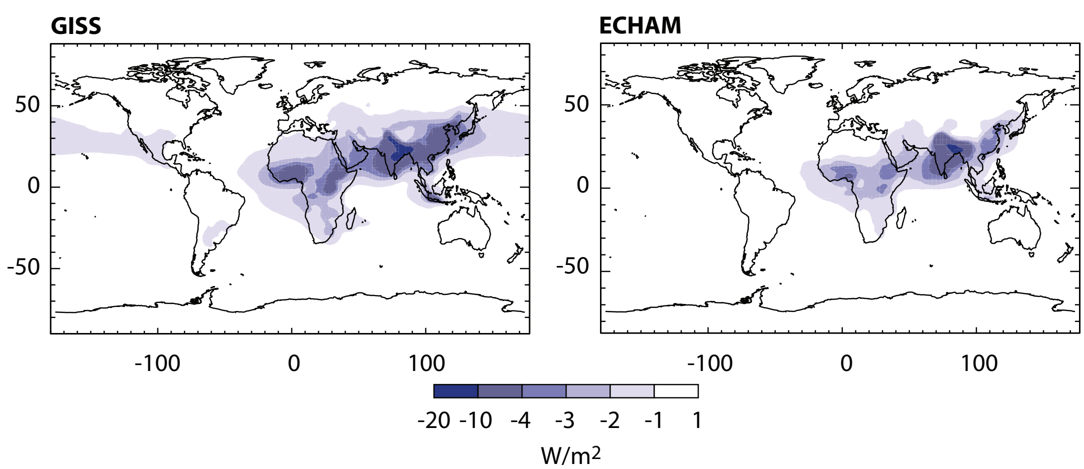


Figure 6. Change in atmospheric energy absorption (Watts per square metre, W/m² as annual mean), an important factor driving tropical rainfall and the monsoons resulting from implementation of BC measures. The changes in absorption of energy by the atmosphere are linked with changes in regional circulation and precipitation patterns, leading to increased precipitation in some regions and decreases in others. BC solar absorption increases the energy input to the atmosphere by as much as 5–15 per cent, with the BC measures removing the bulk of that heating. Results are shown for two independent models to highlight the similarity in the projections of where large regional decreases would occur.

a mid-sized city. Reducing emissions from local sources and those carried by long-range transport should lower glacial melt in these regions, decreasing the risk of impacts such as catastrophic glacial lake outbursts.

Benefits of the measures for human health

Fine particulate matter (measured as $PM_{2.5}$, which includes BC) and ground-level O_3 damage human health. $PM_{2.5}$ causes premature deaths primarily from heart disease and lung cancer, and O_3 exposure causes deaths primarily from respiratory illness. The health benefit estimates in the Assessment are limited to changes in these specific causes of death and include uncertainty in the estimation methods. However, these pollutants also contribute significantly to other health impacts including acute and chronic bronchitis and other respiratory illness, non-fatal heart attacks, low birth weight and results in increased emergency room visits and hospital admissions, as well as loss of work and school days.

Under the reference scenario, that is, without implementation of the identified measures, changes in concentrations of $PM_{2.5}$ and O_3 in 2030, relative to 2005, would have substantial effects globally on premature deaths related to air pollution. By region, premature deaths from outdoor pollution are projected to change in line with emissions. The latter are expected to decrease significantly over North America and Europe due to implementation of the existing and expected legislation. Over Africa and Latin America and the Caribbean, the number of premature deaths from these pollutants is expected to show modest changes under the reference scenario (Figure 7). Over Northeast Asia, Southeast Asia and Pacific, premature deaths are projected to decrease substantially due to reductions in $PM_{2.5}$ in some areas. However, in South, West and Central Asia, premature deaths are projected to rise significantly due to growth in emissions.

In contrast to the reference scenario, full implementation of the measures identified in the Assessment would substantially improve air quality and reduce premature deaths globally due to significant reductions in indoor and outdoor air pollution. The reductions in $PM_{2.5}$ concentrations resulting from the BC measures would, by 2030, avoid an estimated 0.7–4.6 million annual premature deaths due to outdoor air pollution (Figure 1).

Regionally, implementation of the identified measures would lead to greatly improved air quality and fewer premature deaths, especially in Asia (Figure 7). In fact, more than 80 per cent of the health benefits of implementing all measures occur in Asia. The benefits are large enough for all the worsening trends in human health due to outdoor air pollution to be reversed and turned into improvements, relative to 2005. In Africa, the benefit is substantial, although not as great as in Asia.

Benefits of the measures for crop yields

Ozone is toxic to plants. A vast body of literature describes experiments and observations showing the substantial effects of O_3 on visible leaf health, growth and productivity for a large number of crops, trees and other plants. Ozone also affects vegetation composition and diversity. Globally, the full implementation of CH_4 measures results in significant reductions in O_3 concentrations leading to avoided yield losses of about 25 million tonnes of four staple crops each year. The implementation of the BC measures would account for about a further 25 million tonnes of avoided yield losses in comparison with the reference scenario (Figure 1). This is due to significant reductions in emissions of the precursors CO, VOCs and NO_X that reduce O_3 concentrations.

The regional picture shows considerable differences. Under the reference scenario, O_3 concentrations over Northeast, Southeast

Asia and Pacific are projected to increase, resulting in additional crop yield losses (Figures 7 and 8). In South, West and Central Asia, both health and agricultural damage are projected to rise (Figure 8). Damage to agriculture is projected to decrease strongly over North America and Europe while changing minimally over Africa and Latin America and the Caribbean. For the whole Asian region maize yields show a decrease of 1–15 per cent, while yields decrease by less than 5 per cent for wheat and rice. These yield losses translate into nearly 40 million tonnes for all crops for the whole Asian region, reflecting the substantial cultivated area exposed to elevated O_3 concentrations in India – in particular the Indo-Gangetic Plain region. Rice production is also affected, particularly in Asia where elevated O_3 concentrations are likely to continue to increase to 2030. Yield loss values for rice are uncertain, however, due to a lack of experimental evidence on concentration-response functions. In contrast, the European and North American regional analyses suggest that all crops will see an improvement in yields under the reference scenario between 2005 and 2030. Even greater improvements would be seen upon implementation of the measures.

The identified measures lead to greatly reduced O_3 concentrations, with substantial benefits to crop yields, especially in Asia (Figure 8). The benefits of the measures are large enough to reverse all the worsening trends seen in agricultural yields and turn them into improvements, relative to 2005, with the exception of crop yields in Northeast and Southeast Asia and Pacific. Even in that case, the benefits of full implementation are quite large, with the measures reducing by 60 per cent the crop losses envisaged in the reference scenario.

It should be stressed that the Assessment's analyses include only the direct effect of changes in atmospheric composition on health and agriculture through changes in exposure to pollutants. As such, they do not include the benefits that avoided climate change would have on human health and agriculture due to factors such as reduced disruption of precipitation patterns, dimming, and reduced frequency of heat waves. Furthermore, even the direct influence on yields are based on estimates for only four staple crops, and impacts on leafy crops, productive grasslands and food quality were not included, so that the calculated values are likely to be an

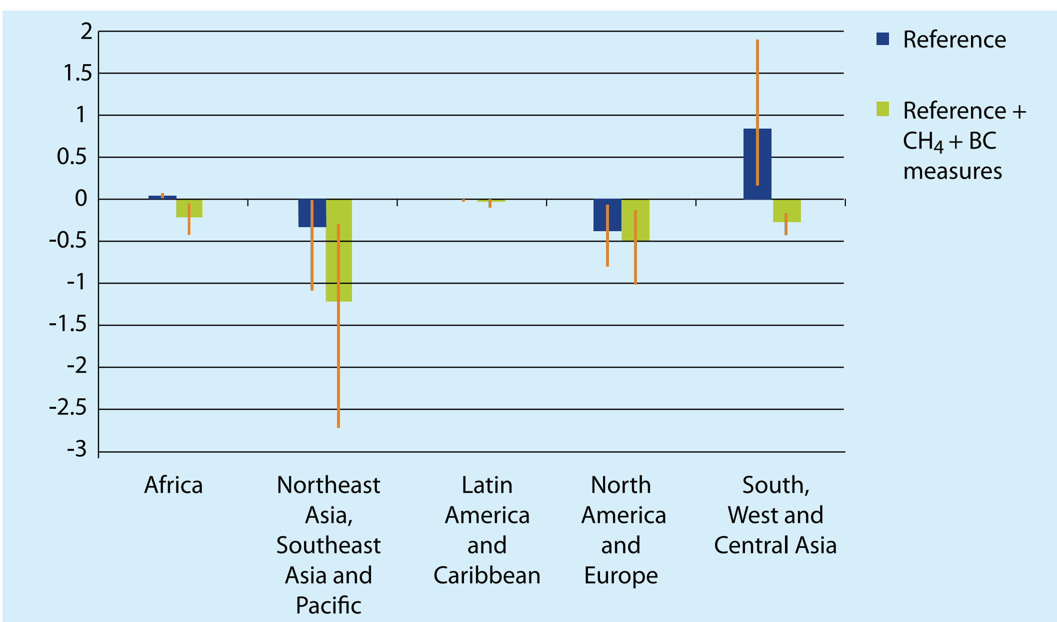


Figure 7. Comparison of premature mortality (millions of premature deaths annually) by region, showing the change in 2030 in comparison with 2005 for the reference scenario emission trends and the reference plus CH_4 + BC measures. The lines on each bar show the range of estimates.

Credit: Veerabhadran Ramanathan

The measures identified in the Assessment include replacement of traditional cookstoves, such as that shown here, with clean burning stoves which would substantially improve air quality and reduce premature deaths due to indoor and outdoor air pollution.

underestimate of the total impact. In addition, extrapolation of results from a number of experimental studies to assess O_3 impacts on ecosystems strongly suggests that reductions in O_3 could lead to substantial increases in the net primary productivity. This could have a substantial impact on carbon sequestration, providing additional climate benefits.

Relative importance and scientific confidence in the measures

Methane measures have a large impact on global and regional warming, which is achieved by reducing the greenhouse gases CH_4 and O_3. The climate mitigation impacts of the CH_4 measures are also the most certain because there is a high degree of confidence in the warming effects of this greenhouse gas. The reduced methane and hence O_3 concentrations also lead to significant benefits for crop yields.

The BC measures identified here reduce concentrations of BC, OC and O_3 (largely through reductions in emissions of CO). The warming effect of BC and O_3 and the compensating cooling effect of OC, introduces large uncertainty in the net effect of some BC measures on global warming (Figure 1). Uncertainty in the impact of BC measures is also larger than that for CH_4 because BC and OC can influence clouds that have multiple effects on climate that are not fully understood. This uncertainly in global impacts is particularly large for the

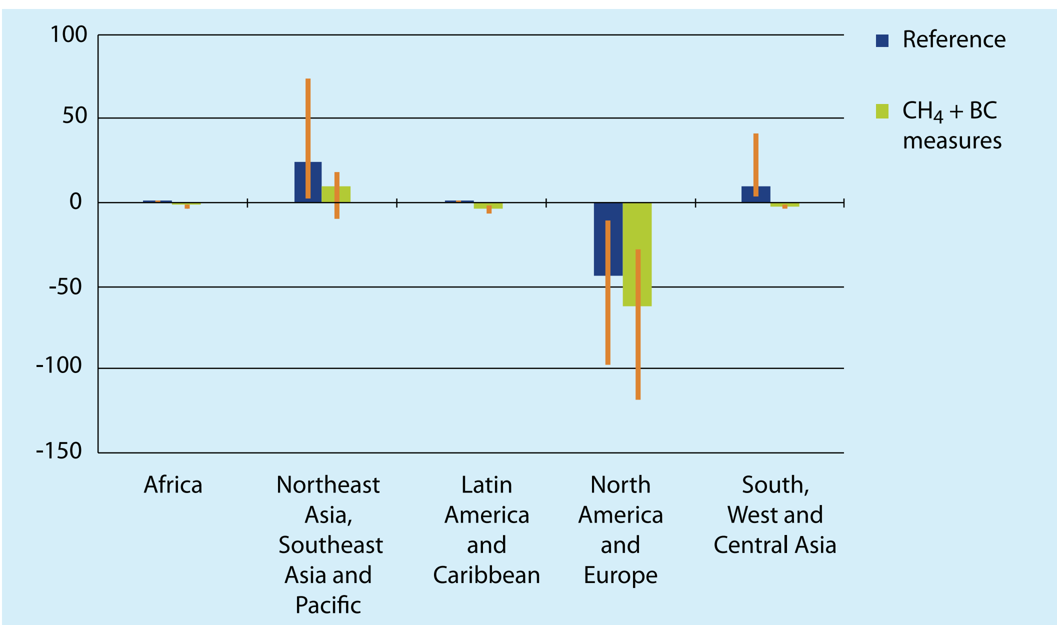
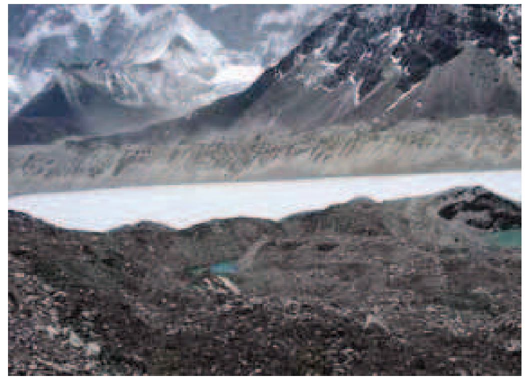


Figure 8. Comparison of crop yield losses (million tonnes annually of four key crops – wheat, rice, maize and soy combined) by region, showing the change in 2030 compared with 2005 for the reference emission trends and the reference with CH_4 + BC measures. The lines on each bar show the range of estimates.

Credit: Veerabhadran Ramanathan

Widespread haze over the Himalayas where BC concentrations can be as high as in mid-sized cities.



Credit: Govind Joshi

Reducing emissions should lower glacial melt and decrease the risk of outbursts from glacial lakes.

measures concerning biomass cookstoves and open burning of biomass. Hence with respect to global warming, there is much higher confidence for measures that mitigate diesel emissions than biomass burning because the proportion of co-emitted cooling OC particles is much lower for diesel.

On the other hand, there is higher confidence that BC measures have large impacts on human health through reducing concentrations of inhalable particles, on crop yields through reduced O_3, and on climate phenomena such as tropical rainfall, monsoons and snow-ice melt. These regional impacts are largely independent of the measures' impact on global warming. In fact, regionally, biomass cookstoves and open biomass burning can have much larger effects than fossil fuels. This is because BC directly increases atmospheric heating by absorbing sunlight, which, according to numerous published studies, affects the monsoon and tropical rainfall, and this is largely separate from the effect of co-emitted OC. The same conclusion applies with respect to the impact of BC measures on snow and ice. BC, because it is dark, significantly increases absorption of sunlight by snow and ice when it is deposited on these bright surfaces. OC that is deposited along with BC has very little effect on sunlight reflected by snow and ice since these surfaces are already very white. Hence knowledge of these regional impacts is, in some cases, more robust than the global impacts, and with respect to reducing regional impacts, all of the BC measures are likely to be significant. Confidence is also high that a large proportion of the health and crop benefits would be realized in Asia.

Mechanisms for rapid implementation

In December 2010 the Parties to the UNFCCC agreed that warming should not exceed 2°C above pre-industrial levels during this century. This Assessment shows that measures to reduce SLCFs, implemented in combination with CO_2 control measures, would increase the chances of staying below the 2°C target. The measures would also slow the rate of near-term temperature rise and also lead to significant improvements in health, decreased disruption of regional precipitation patterns and water supply, and in improved food security. The impacts of the measures on temperature change are felt over large geographical areas, while the air quality impacts are more localized near the regions where changes in emissions take place. Therefore, areas that control their emissions will receive the greatest human health and food supply benefits; additionally many of the climate benefits will be felt close to the region taking action.

The benefits would be realized in the near term, thereby providing additional incentives to overcome financial and institutional hurdles to the adoption of these measures. Countries in all regions have successfully implemented the identified measures to some degree for multiple environment and development objectives. These experiences


Credit: Brian Yap

Field burning of agricultural waste is a common way to dispose of crop residue in many regions.

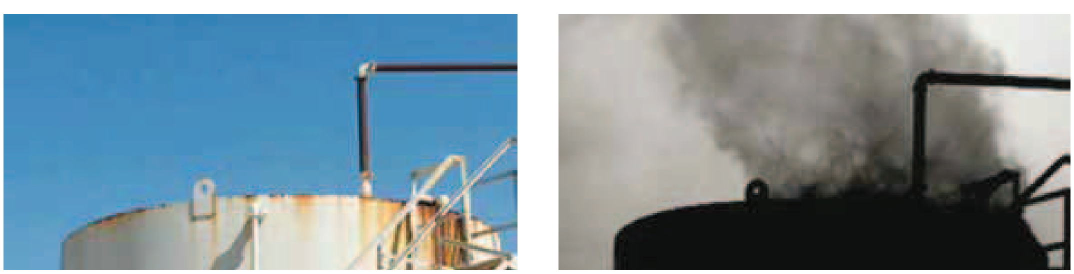
provide a considerable body of knowledge and potential models for others that wish to take action.

In most countries, mechanisms are already in place, albeit at different levels of maturity, to address public concern regarding air pollution problems. Mechanisms to tackle anthropogenic greenhouse gases are less well deployed, and systems to maximize the co-benefits from reducing air pollution and measures to address climate change are virtually non-existent. Coordination across institutions to address climate, air pollution, energy and development policy is particularly important to enhance achievement of all these goals simultaneously.

Many BC control measures require implementation by multiple actors on diffuse emission sources including diesel vehicles, field burning, cookstoves and residential heating. Although air quality and emission standards exist for particulate matter in some regions, they may or may not reduce BC, and implementation remains a challenge. Relevance, benefits and costs of different measures vary from region to region. Many of the measures entail cost savings but require substantial upfront investments. Accounting for air quality, climate and development co-benefits will be key to scaling up implementation.

Methane is one of the six greenhouse gases governed by the Kyoto Protocol, but there are no explicit targets for it. Many CH_4 measures are cost-effective and its recovery is, in many cases, economically profitable. There have been many Clean Development Mechanism (CDM) projects in key CH_4 emitting sectors in the past, though few such projects have been launched in recent years because of lack of financing.

Case studies from both developed and developing countries (Box 3) show that there are technical solutions available to deliver all of the measures (see Chapter 5). Given appropriate policy mechanisms the measures can be implemented, but to achieve the benefits at the scale described much wider implementation is required.


Credit: US EPA

To the naked eye, no emissions from an oil storage tank are visible (left), but with the aid of an infrared camera, escaping CH_4 is evident (right).

Box 3: Case studies of implementation of measures

CH_4 measures

Landfill biogas energy

Landfill CH_4 emissions contribute 10 per cent of the total greenhouse gas emissions in Mexico. Bioenergia de Nuevo Léon S.A. de C.V. (BENLESA) is using landfill biogas as fuel. Currently, the plant has an installed capacity of 12.7 megawatts. Since its opening in September 2003, it has avoided the release of more than 81 000 tonnes of CH_4, equivalent to the reduction in emissions of 1.7 million tonnes of CO_2, generating 409 megawatt hours of electricity. A partnership between government and a private company turned a liability into an asset by converting landfill gas (LFG) into electricity to help drive the public transit system by day and light city streets by night. LFG projects can also be found in Armenia, Brazil, China, India, South Africa, and other countries.

Recovery and flaring from oil and natural gas production

Oil drilling often brings natural gas, mostly CH_4, to the surface along with the oil, which is often vented to the atmosphere to maintain safe pressure in the well. To reduce these emissions, associated gas may be flared and converted to CO_2, or recovered, thus eliminating most of its warming potential and removing its ability to form ozone (O_3). In India, Oil India Limited (OIL), a national oil company, is undertaking a project to recover the gas, which is presently flared, from the Kumchai oil field, and send it to a gas processing plant for eventual transport and use in the natural gas grid. Initiatives in Angola, Indonesia and other countries are flaring and recovering associated gas yielding large reductions in CH_4 emissions and new sources of fuel for local markets.

Livestock manure management

In Brazil, a large CDM project in the state of Mina Gerais seeks to improve waste management systems to reduce the amount of CH_4 and other greenhouse gas emissions associated with animal effluent. The core of the project is to replace open-air lagoons with ambient temperature anaerobic digesters to capture and combust the resulting biogas. Over the course of a 10-year period (2004–2014) the project plans to reduce CH_4 and other greenhouse gas emissions by a total of 50 580 tonnes of CO_2 equivalent. A CDM project in Hyderabad, India, will use the poultry litter CH_4 to generate electricity which will power the plant and supply surplus electricity to the Andhra Pradesh state grid.

Credit: Raphaël V/flickr

Farm scale anaerobic digestion of manure from cattle is one of the key CH_4 measures

Box 3: Case studies of implementation of measures *(continued)*

BC measures

Diesel particle filters

In Santiago, municipal authorities, responding to public concern on air pollution, adopted a new emissions standard for urban buses, requiring installation of diesel particle filters (DPFs). Currently about one-third of the fleet is equipped with filters; it is expected that the entire fleet will be retrofitted by 2018. New York City adopted regulations in 2000 and 2003 requiring use of DPFs in city buses and off-road construction equipment working on city projects. London fitted DPFs to the city's bus fleet over several years beginning in 2003. Low emission zones in London and other cities create incentives for diesel vehicle owners to retrofit with particle filters, allowing them to drive within the city limits. Implementation in developing regions will require greater availability of low sulphur diesel, which is an essential prerequisite for using DPFs.

Improved brick kilns

Small-scale traditional brick kilns are a significant source of air pollution in many developing countries; there are an estimated 20 000 in Mexico alone, emitting large quantities of particulates. An improved kiln design piloted in Ciudad Juárez, near the border with the United States of America, improved efficiency by 50 per cent and decreased particulate pollution by 80 per cent. In the Bac Ninh province of Viet Nam, a project initiated with the aim of reducing ambient air pollution levels and deposition on surrounding rice fields piloted the use of a simple limestone scrubbing emissions control device and demonstrated how a combination of regulation, economic tools, monitoring and technology transfer can significantly improve air quality.

Credit: Alba Corral Avitia

Credit: Robert Marquez

A traditional brick kiln (left) and an improved (right) operating in Mexico.

Potential international regulatory responses

International responses would facilitate rapid and widespread implementation of the measures. Since a large portion of the impacts of SLCFs on climate, health, food security and ecosystems is regional or local in nature, regional approaches incorporating national actions could prove promising for their cost-effective reduction. This approach is still in its very early stage in most regions of the world. For example, the Convention on Long-Range Transboundary Air Pollution (CLRTAP) recently agreed to address BC in the revision of the Gothenburg Protocol in 2011 and to consider the impacts of CH_4 as an O_3 precursor in the longer term.

Other regional agreements (Box 4) are fairly new, and predominantly concentrate on scientific cooperation and capacity building. These arrangements might serve as a platform from which to address the emerging challenges related to air pollution from BC and tropospheric O_3 and provide potential vehicles for finance, technology transfer and capacity development. Sharing good practices

Box 4: Examples of regional atmospheric pollution agreements

The Convention on Long-Range Transboundary Air Pollution (CLRTAP) is a mature policy framework covering Europe, Central Asia and North America. Similar regional agreements have emerged in the last decades in other parts of the world. The Malé Declaration on Control and Prevention of Air Pollution and its Likely Transboundary Effects for South Asia was agreed in 1998 and addresses air quality including tropospheric O_3 and particulate matter. The Association of Southeast Asian Nations (ASEAN) Haze Protocol is a legally binding agreement addresses particulate pollution from forest fires in Southeast Asia. In Africa there are a number of framework agreements between countries in southern Africa (Lusaka Agreement), in East Africa (Nairobi Agreement); and West and Central Africa (Abidjan Agreement). In Latin America and the Caribbean a ministerial level intergovernmental network on air pollution has been formed and there is a draft framework agreement and ongoing collaboration on atmospheric issues under UNEP's leadership.

on an international scale, as is occurring within the Arctic Council, in a coordinated way could provide a helpful way forward.

This Assessment did not assess the cost-effectiveness of different identified measures or policy options under different national circumstances. Doing so would help to inform national air quality and climate policy makers, and support implementation on a wider scale. Further study and analyses of the local application of BC and tropospheric O_3 reduction technologies, costs and regulatory approaches could contribute to advancing adoption of effective action at multiple levels. This work would be best done based on local knowledge. Likewise further evaluation of the regional and global benefits of implementing specific measures by region would help to better target policy efforts. In support of these efforts, additional modelling and monitoring and measurement activities are needed to fill remaining knowledge gaps.

Opportunities for international financing and cooperation

The largest benefits would be delivered in regions where it is unlikely that significant national funds would be allocated to these issues due to other pressing development needs. International financing and technology support would catalyse and accelerate the adoption of the identified measures at sub-national, national and regional levels, especially in developing countries. Financing would be most effective if specifically targeted towards pollution abatement actions that maximize air quality and climate benefits.

Funds and activities to address CH_4 (such as the Global Methane Initiative; and the Global Methane Fund or Prototype Methane Financing Facility) and cookstoves (the Global Alliance for Clean Cookstoves) exist or are under consideration and may serve as models for other sectors. Expanded action will depend on donor recognition of the opportunity represented by SLCF reductions as a highly effective means to address near-term climate change both globally and especially in sensitive regions of the world.

Black carbon and tropospheric O_3 may also be considered as part of other environment, development and energy initiatives such as bilateral assistance, the UN Development Assistance Framework, the World Bank Energy Strategy, the Poverty and Environment Initiative of UNEP and the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP), interagency cooperation initiatives in the UN system such as the Environment Management Group and UN Energy, the UN Foundation, and the consideration by the UN Conference on Sustainable Development (Rio+20) of the institutional framework for sustainable development. These, and others, could take advantage of the opportunities identified in the Assessment to achieve their objectives.

Credit: John Ogren, NOAA

Aerosol measurement instruments

Credit: Christian Lagerek

Concluding Remarks

The Assessment establishes the climate co-benefits of air-quality measures that address black carbon and tropospheric ozone and its precursors, especially CH_4 and CO. The measures identified to address these short-lived climate forcers have been successfully tried around the world and have been shown to deliver significant and immediate development and environmental benefits in the local areas and regions where they are implemented.

Costs and benefits of the identified measures are region specific, and implementation often faces financial, regulatory and institutional barriers. However, widespread implementation of the identified measures can be effectively leveraged by recognizing that near-term strategies can slow the rate of global and regional warming, improving our chances of keeping global temperature increase below bounds that significantly lower the probability of major disruptive climate events. Such leverage should spur multilateral initiatives that focus on local priorities and contribute to the global common good.

It is nevertheless stressed that this Assessment does not in any way suggest postponing immediate and aggressive global action on anthropogenic greenhouse gases; in fact it requires such action on CO_2. This Assessment concludes that the chance of success with such longer-term measures can be greatly enhanced by simultaneously addressing short-lived climate forcers.

The benefits identified in this Assessment can be realised with a concerted effort globally to reduce the concentrations of black carbon and tropospheric ozone. A strategy to achieve this, when developed and implemented, will lead to considerable benefits for human well-being.

Glossary

Aerosol	A collection of airborne solid or liquid particles (excluding pure water), with a typical size between 0.01 and 10 micrometers (μm) and residing in the atmosphere for at least several hours. Aerosols may be of either natural or anthropogenic origin. Aerosols may influence climate in two ways: directly through scattering or absorbing radiation, and indirectly through acting as condensation nuclei for cloud formation or modifying the optical properties and lifetime of clouds.
Biofuels	Biofuels are non-fossil fuels. They are energy carriers that store the energy derived from organic materials (biomass), including plant materials and animal waste.
Biomass	In the context of energy, the term biomass is often used to refer to organic materials, such as wood and agricultural wastes, which can be burned to produce energy or converted into a gas and used for fuel.
Black carbon	Operationally defined aerosol species based on measurement of light absorption and chemical reactivity and/or thermal stability. Black carbon is formed through the incomplete combustion of fossil fuels, biofuel, and biomass, and is emitted in both anthropogenic and naturally occurring soot. It consists of pure carbon in several linked forms. Black carbon warms the Earth by absorbing heat in the atmosphere and by reducing albedo, the ability to reflect sunlight, when deposited on snow and ice.
Carbon sequestration	The uptake and storage of carbon. Trees and plants, for example, absorb carbon dioxide, release the oxygen and store the carbon.
Fugitive emissions	Substances (gas, liquid, solid) that escape to the air from a process or a product without going through a smokestack; for example, emissions of methane escaping from coal, oil, and gas extraction not caught by a capture system.
Global warming potential (GWP)	The global warming potential of a gas or particle refers to an estimate of the total contribution to global warming over a particular time that results from the emission of one unit of that gas or particle relative to one unit of the reference gas, carbon dioxide, which is assigned a value of one.
High-emitting vehicles	Poorly tuned or defective vehicles (including malfunctioning emission control system), with emissions of air pollutants (including particulate matter) many times greater than the average.
Hoffman kiln	Hoffmann kilns are the most common kiln used in production of bricks. A Hoffmann kiln consists of a main fire passage surrounded on each side by several small rooms which contain pallets of bricks. Each room is connected to the next room by a passageway carrying hot gases from the fire. This design makes for a very efficient use of heat and fuel.
Incomplete combustion	A reaction or process which entails only partial burning of a fuel. Combustion is almost always incomplete and this may be due to a lack of oxygen or low temperature, preventing the complete chemical reaction.
Oxidation	The chemical reaction of a substance with oxygen or a reaction in which the atoms in an element lose electrons and its valence is correspondingly increased.

Ozone	Ozone, the triatomic form of oxygen (O_3), is a gaseous atmospheric constituent. In the troposphere, it is created both naturally and by photochemical reactions involving gases resulting from human activities (it is a primary component of photochemical smog). In high concentrations, tropospheric ozone can be harmful to a wide range of living organisms. Tropospheric ozone acts as a greenhouse gas. In the stratosphere, ozone is created by the interaction between solar ultraviolet radiation and molecular oxygen. Stratospheric ozone provides a shield from ultraviolet B (UVB) radiation.
Ozone precursor	Chemical compounds, such as carbon monoxide (CO), methane (CH_4), non-methane volatile organic compounds (NMVOC), and nitrogen oxides (NO_X), which in the presence of solar radiation react with other chemical compounds to form ozone in the troposphere.
Particulate matter	Very small pieces of solid or liquid matter such as particles of soot, dust, or other aerosols.
Pre-industrial	Prior to widespread industrialisation and the resultant changes in the environment. Typically taken as the period before 1750.
Radiation	Energy transfer in the form of electromagnetic waves or particles that release energy when absorbed by an object.
Radiative forcing	Radiative forcing is a measure of the change in the energy balance of the Earth-atmosphere system with space. It is defined as the change in the net, downward minus upward, irradiance (expressed in Watts per square metre) at the tropopause due to a change in an external driver of climate change, such as, for example, a change in the concentration of carbon dioxide or the output of the Sun.
Smog	Classically a combination of smoke and fog in which products of combustion, such as hydrocarbons, particulate matter and oxides of sulphur and nitrogen, occur in concentrations that are harmful to human beings and other organisms. More commonly, it occurs as photochemical smog, produced when sunlight acts on nitrogen oxides and hydrocarbons to produce tropospheric ozone.
Stratosphere	Region of the atmosphere between the troposphere and mesosphere, having a lower boundary of approximately 8 km at the poles to 15 km at the equator and an upper boundary of approximately 50 km. Depending upon latitude and season, the temperature in the lower stratosphere can increase, be isothermal, or even decrease with altitude, but the temperature in the upper stratosphere generally increases with height due to absorption of solar radiation by ozone.
Trans-boundary movement	Movement from an area under the national jurisdiction of one State to or through an area under the national jurisdiction of another State or to or through an area not under the national jurisdiction of any State.
Transport (atmospheric)	The movement of chemical species through the atmosphere as a result of large-scale atmospheric motions.
Troposphere	The lowest part of the atmosphere from the surface to about 10 km in altitude in mid-latitudes (ranging from 9 km in high latitudes to 16 km in the tropics on average) where clouds and "weather" phenomena occur. In the troposphere temperatures generally decrease with height.

Acronyms and Abbreviations

ASEAN	Association of Southeast Asian Nations
BC	black carbon
BENLESA	Latin America Bioenergia de Nuevo Léon S.A. de C.V.
CDM	Clean Development Mechanism
CH_4	methane
CLRTAP	Convention on Long-Range Transboundary Air Pollution
CO	carbon monoxide
CO_2	carbon dioxide
DPF	diesel particle filter
ECHAM	Climate-chemistry-aerosol model developed by the Max Planck Institute in Hamburg, Germany
G8	Group of Eight: Canada, France, Germany, Italy, Japan, Russian Federation, United Kingdom, United States
GAINS	Greenhouse Gas and Air Pollution Interactions and Synergies
GISS	Goddard Institute for Space Studies
GWP	global warming potential
IEA	International Energy Agency
IIASA	International Institute for Applied System Analysis
IPCC	Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change
LFG	landfill gas
NASA	National Aeronautics and Space Administration
NO_x	nitrogen oxides
O_3	ozone
OC	organic carbon
OIL	Oil India Limited
PM	particulate matter ($PM_{2.5}$ has a diameter of 2.5µm or less)
ppm	parts per million
SLCF	short-lived climate forcer
SO_2	sulphur dioxide
UN	United Nations
UNDP	United Nations Development Programme
UNEP	United Nations Environment Programme
UNFCCC	United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change
UV	ultraviolet
VOC	volatile organic compound
WMO	World Meteorological Organization

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About the Assessment:

Growing scientific evidence of significant impacts of black carbon and tropospheric ozone on human well-being and the climatic system has catalysed a demand for information and action from governments, civil society and other main stakeholders. The United Nations, in consultation with partner expert institutions and stakeholder representatives, organized an integrated assessment of black carbon and tropospheric ozone, and its precursors, to provide decision makers with a comprehensive assessment of the problem and policy options needed to address it.

An assessment team of more than 50 experts was established, supported by the United Nations Environment Programme, World Meteorological Organization and Stockholm Environment Institute. The Assessment was governed by the Chair and four Vice-Chairs, representing Asia and the Pacific, Europe, Latin America and the Caribbean and North America regions. A High-level Consultative Group, comprising high-profile government advisors, respected scientists, representatives of international organizations and civil society, provided strategic advice on the assessment process and preparation of the *Summary for Decision Makers*.

The draft of the underlying Assessment and its *Summary for Decision Makers* were extensively reviewed and revised based on comments from internal and external review experts. Reputable experts served as review editors to ensure that all substantive expert review comments were afforded appropriate consideration by the authors. The text of the *Summary for Decision Makers* was accepted by the Assessment Chair, Vice-Chairs and the High-level Consultative Group members.

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This document summarizes findings and conclusions of the assessment report: Integrated Assessment of Black Carbon and Tropospheric Ozone. The assessment looks into all aspects of anthropogenic emissions of black carbon and tropospheric ozone precursors, such as methane. It analyses the trends in emissions of these substances and the drivers of these emissions; summarizes the science of atmospheric processes where these substances are involved; discusses related impacts on the climatic system, human health, crops in vulnerable regions and ecosystems; and societal responses to the environmental changes caused by those impacts. The Assessment examines a large number of potential measures to reduce harmful emissions, identifying a small set of specific measures that would likely produce the greatest benefits, and which could be implemented with currently available technology. An outlook up to 2070 is developed illustrating the benefits of those emission mitigation policies and measures for human well-being and climate. The Assessment concludes that rapid mitigation of anthropogenic black carbon and tropospheric ozone emissions would complement carbon dioxide reduction measures and would have immediate benefits for human well-being.

The Summary for Decision Makers was prepared by a writing team with inputs from the members of the High-level Consultative Group and with support from UNEP and WMO. It is intended to serve decision makers at all levels as a guide for assessment, planning and management for the future.

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United States Environmental Protection Agency

Carbon Monoxide
Health

CO can cause harmful health effects by reducing oxygen delivery to the body's organs (like the heart and brain) and tissues. At extremely high levels, CO can cause death.

Exposure to CO can reduce the oxygen-carrying capacity of the blood. People with several types of heart disease already have a reduced capacity for pumping oxygenated blood to the heart, which can cause them to experience myocardial ischemia (reduced oxygen to the heart), often accompanied by chest pain (angina), when exercising or under increased stress. For these people, short-term CO exposure further affects their body's already compromised ability to respond to the increased oxygen demands of exercise or exertion.

Last updated on Thursday, August 09, 2012

United States Environmental Protection Agency

April 2011

Inventory of U.S. Greenhouse Gas Emissions and Sinks: 1990–2009

Executive Summary

An emissions inventory that identifies and quantifies a country's primary anthropogenic[1] sources and sinks of greenhouse gases is essential for addressing climate change. This inventory adheres to both (1) a comprehensive and detailed set of methodologies for estimating sources and sinks of anthropogenic greenhouse gases, and (2) a common and consistent mechanism that enables Parties to the United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change (UNFCCC) to compare the relative contribution of different emission sources and greenhouse gases to climate change.

In 1992, the United States signed and ratified the UNFCCC. As stated in Article 2 of the UNFCCC, "The ultimate objective of this Convention and any related legal instruments that the Conference of the Parties may adopt is to achieve, in accordance with the relevant provisions of the Convention, stabilization of greenhouse gas concentrations in the atmosphere at a level that would prevent dangerous anthropogenic interference with the climate system. Such a level should be achieved within a time-frame sufficient to allow ecosystems to adapt naturally to climate change, to ensure that food production is not threatened and to enable economic development to proceed in a sustainable manner."[2]

All material taken from the *Inventory of U.S. Greenhouse Gas Emissions and Sinks: 1990–2009*, U.S. Environmental Protection Agency, Office of Atmospheric Programs, EPA 430-R-11-005, April 2011. You may electronically download the full inventory report from U.S. EPA's Global Climate Change web page at: **www.epa.gov/climatechange/emissions/usinventory.html.**

Parties to the Convention, by ratifying, "shall develop, periodically update, publish and make available…national inventories of anthropogenic emissions by sources and removals by sinks of all greenhouse gases not controlled by the *Montreal Protocol*, using comparable methodologies…"[3] The United States views the Inventory as an opportunity to fulfill these commitments.

This chapter summarizes the latest information on U.S. anthropogenic greenhouse gas emission trends from 1990 through 2009. To ensure that the U.S. emission inventory is comparable to those of other UNFCCC Parties, the estimates presented here were calculated using methodologies consistent with those recommended in the Revised 1996 Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC) *Guidelines for National Greenhouse Gas Inventories* (IPCC/UNEP/OECD/IEA 1997), the IPCC *Good Practice Guidance and Uncertainty Management in National Greenhouse Gas Inventories* (IPCC 2000), and the IPCC *Good Practice Guidance for Land Use, Land-Use Change, and Forestry* (IPCC 2003). Additionally, the U.S. emission inventory has continued to incorporate new methodologies and data from the *2006 IPCC Guidelines for National Greenhouse Gas Inventories* (IPCC 2006). The structure of the inventory report is consistent

[1] The term "anthropogenic", in this context, refers to greenhouse gas emissions and removals that are a direct result of human activities or are the result of natural processes that have been affected by human activities (IPCC/UNEP/OECD/IEA 1997).

[2] Article 2 of the Framework Convention on Climate Change published by the UNEP/WMO Information Unit on Climate Change. See <http://unfccc.int>.

[3] Article 4(1)(a) of the United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change (also identified in Article 12). Subsequent decisions by the Conference of the Parties elaborated the role of Annex I Parties in preparing national inventories. See <http://unfccc.int>.

with the UNFCCC guidelines for inventory reporting.[4] For most source categories, the IPCC methodologies were expanded, resulting in a more comprehensive and detailed estimate of emissions.

Box ES-1: Methodological approach for estimating and reporting U.S. emissions and sinks

In following the UNFCCC requirement under Article 4.1 to develop and submit national greenhouse gas emissions inventories, the emissions and sinks presented in the inventory report are organized by source and sink categories and calculated using internationally-accepted methods provided by the IPCC.[5] Additionally, the calculated emissions and sinks in a given year for the U.S. are presented in a common manner in line with the UNFCCC reporting guidelines for the reporting of inventories under this international agreement.[6] The use of consistent methods to calculate emissions and sinks by all nations providing their inventories to the UNFCCC ensures that these reports are comparable. In this regard, U.S. emissions and sinks reported in this inventory report are comparable to emissions and sinks reported by other countries. Emissions and sinks provided in this inventory do not preclude alternative examinations, but rather this inventory report presents emissions and sinks in a common format consistent with how countries are to report inventories under the UNFCCC. The inventory report itself follows this standardized format, and provides an explanation of the IPCC methods used to calculate emissions and sinks, and the manner in which those calculations are conducted.

ES.1. Background Information

Naturally occurring greenhouse gases include water vapor, carbon dioxide (CO_2), methane (CH_4), nitrous oxide (N_2O), and ozone (O_3). Several classes of halogenated substances that contain fluorine, chlorine, or bromine are also greenhouse gases, but they are, for the most part, solely a product of industrial activities. Chlorofluorocarbons (CFCs) and hydrochlorofluorocarbons (HCFCs) are halocarbons that contain chlorine, while halocarbons that contain bromine are referred to as bromofluorocarbons (i.e., halons). As stratospheric ozone depleting substances, CFCs, HCFCs, and halons are covered under the *Montreal Protocol* on Substances that Deplete the Ozone Layer. The UNFCCC defers to this earlier international treaty. Consequently, Parties to the UNFCCC are not required to include these gases in their national greenhouse gas emission inventories.[7] Some other fluorine-containing halogenated substances—hydrofluorocarbons (HFCs), perfluorocarbons (PFCs), and sulfur hexafluoride (SF_6)—do not deplete stratospheric ozone but are potent greenhouse gases. These latter substances are addressed by the UNFCCC and accounted for in national greenhouse gas emission inventories.

There are also several gases that do not have a direct global warming effect but indirectly affect terrestrial and/or solar radiation absorption by influencing the formation or destruction of greenhouse gases, including tropospheric and stratospheric ozone. These gases include carbon monoxide (CO), oxides of nitrogen (NO_x), and non-CH_4 volatile organic compounds (NMVOCs). Aerosols, which are extremely small particles or liquid droplets, such as those produced by sulfur dioxide (SO_2) or elemental carbon emissions, can also affect the absorptive characteristics of the atmosphere.

Although the direct greenhouse gases CO_2, CH_4, and N_2O occur naturally in the atmosphere, human activities have changed their atmospheric concentrations. From the pre-industrial era (i.e., ending about 1750) to 2005, concentrations of these greenhouse gases have increased globally by 36, 148, and 18 percent, respectively (IPCC 2007).

[4] See < http://unfccc.int/resource/docs/2006/sbsta/eng/09.pdf>.

[5] See < http://www.ipcc-nggip.iges.or.jp/public/index.html>.

[6] See < http://unfccc.int/national_reports/annex_i_ghg_inventories/national_inventories_submissions/items/5270.php>.

[7] Emissions estimates of CFCs, HCFCs, halons and other ozone-depleting substances are included in the annexes of the inventory report for informational purposes.

Beginning in the 1950s, the use of CFCs and other stratospheric ozone depleting substances (ODS) increased by nearly 10 percent per year until the mid-1980s, when international concern about ozone depletion led to the entry into force of the *Montreal Protocol*. Since then, the production of ODS is being phased out. In recent years, use of ODS substitutes such as HFCs and PFCs has grown as they begin to be phased in as replacements for CFCs and HCFCs. Accordingly, atmospheric concentrations of these substitutes have been growing (IPCC 2007).

Global Warming Potentials

Gases in the atmosphere can contribute to the greenhouse effect both directly and indirectly. Direct effects occur when the gas itself absorbs radiation. Indirect radiative forcing occurs when chemical transformations of the substance produce other greenhouse gases, when a gas influences the atmospheric lifetimes of other gases, and/or when a gas affects atmospheric processes that alter the radiative balance of the earth (e.g., affect cloud formation or albedo).[8] The IPCC developed the global warming potential (GWP) concept to compare the ability of each greenhouse gas to trap heat in the atmosphere relative to another gas.

The GWP of a greenhouse gas is defined as the ratio of the time-integrated radiative forcing from the instantaneous release of 1 kilogram (kg) of a trace substance relative to that of 1 kg of a reference gas (IPCC 2001). Direct radiative effects occur when the gas itself is a greenhouse gas. The reference gas used is CO_2, and therefore GWP-weighted emissions are measured in teragrams (or million metric tons) of CO_2 equivalent (Tg CO_2 Eq.).[9, 10] All gases in this Executive Summary are presented in units of Tg CO_2 Eq.

The UNFCCC reporting guidelines for national inventories were updated in 2006,[11] but continue to require the use of GWPs from the IPCC Second Assessment Report (SAR) (IPCC 1996). This requirement ensures that current estimates of aggregate greenhouse gas emissions for 1990 to 2009 are consistent with estimates developed prior to the publication of the IPCC Third Assessment Report (TAR) (IPCC 2001) and the IPCC Fourth Assessment Report (AR4) (IPCC 2007). Therefore, to comply with international reporting standards under the UNFCCC, official emission estimates are reported by the United States using SAR GWP values. All estimates are provided throughout the inventory report in both CO_2 equivalents and unweighted units. A comparison of emission values using the SAR GWPs versus the TAR and AR4 GWPs can be found in Chapter 1 and, in more detail, in Annex 6.1 of the inventory report. The GWP values used in the inventory report are listed below in Table ES-1.

Table ES-1: Global Warming Potentials (100-Year Time Horizon) Used in the Inventory Report

Gas	GWP
CO_2	1
CH_4*	21
N_2O	310
HFC-23	11,700
HFC-32	650
HFC-125	2,800
HFC-134a	1,300
HFC-143a	3,800
HFC-152a	140
HFC-227ea	2,900
HFC-236fa	6,300
HFC-4310mee	1,300
CF_4	6,500
C_2F_6	9,200
C_4F_{10}	7,000
C_6F_{14}	7,400
SF_6	23,900

Source: IPCC (1996)

* The CH_4 GWP includes the direct effects and those indirect effects due to the production of tropospheric ozone and stratospheric water vapor. The indirect effect due to the production of CO_2 is not included.

8 Albedo is a measure of the earth's reflectivity, and is defined as the fraction of the total solar radiation incident on a body that is reflected by it.

9 Carbon comprises 12/44ths of carbon dioxide by weight.

10 One teragram is equal to 10^{12} grams or one million metric tons.

11 See <http://unfccc.int/resource/docs/2006/sbsta/eng/09.pdf>.

Global warming potentials are not provided for CO, NO_x, NMVOCs, SO_2, and aerosols because there is no agreed-upon method to estimate the contribution of gases that are short-lived in the atmosphere, spatially variable, or have only indirect effects on radiative forcing (IPCC 1996).

ES.2. Recent Trends in U.S. Greenhouse Gas Emissions and Sinks

In 2009, total U.S. greenhouse gas emissions were 6,633.2 Tg or million metric tons CO_2 Eq. While total U.S. emissions have increased by 7.3 percent from 1990 to 2009, emissions decreased from 2008 to 2009 by 6.1 percent (427.9 Tg CO_2 Eq.). This decrease was primarily due to (1) a decrease in economic output resulting in a decrease in energy consumption across all sectors; and (2) a decrease in the carbon intensity of fuels used to generate electricity due to fuel switching as the price of coal increased, and the price of natural gas decreased significantly. Since 1990, U.S. emissions have increased at an average annual rate of 0.4 percent.

Figure ES-1 through Figure ES-3 illustrate the overall trends in total U.S. emissions by gas, annual changes, and absolute change since 1990.

Table ES-2 provides a detailed summary of U.S. greenhouse gas emissions and sinks for 1990 through 2009.

Figure ES-1

U.S. Greenhouse Gas Emissions by Gas

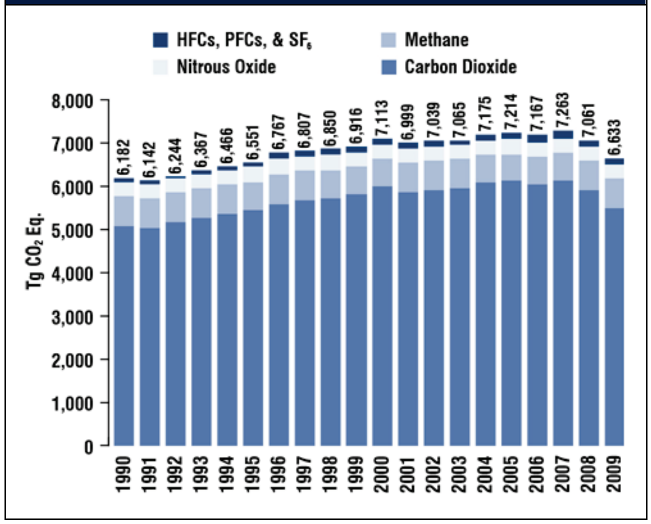


Figure ES-2

Annual Percent Change in U.S. Greenhouse Gas Emissions

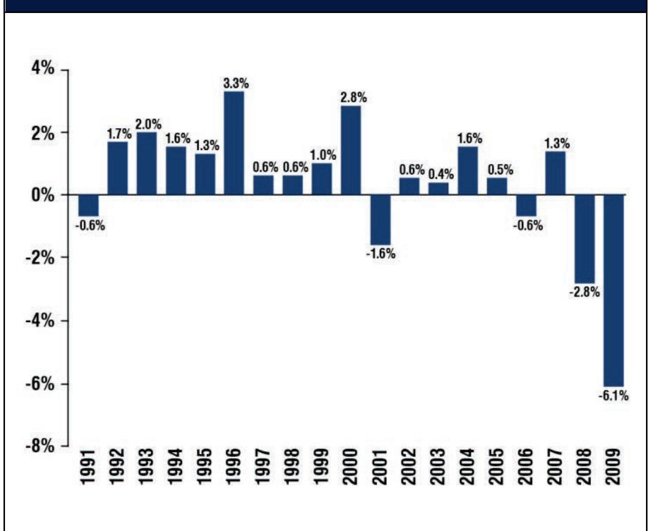


Figure ES-3

Cumulative Change in Annual U.S. Greenhouse Gas Emissions Relative to 1990

Table ES-2: Recent Trends in U.S. Greenhouse Gas Emissions and Sinks (Tg or million metric tons CO_2 Eq.)

Gas/Source	1990	2000	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
CO_2	**5,099.7**	**5,975.0**	**6,113.8**	**6,021.1**	**6,120.0**	**5,921.4**	**5,505.2**
Fossil Fuel Combustion	4,738.4	5,594.8	5,753.2	5,653.1	5,756.7	5,565.9	5,209.0
Electricity Generation	1,820.8	2,296.9	2,402.1	2,346.4	2,412.8	2,360.9	2,154.0
Transportation	1,485.9	1,809.5	1,896.6	1,878.1	1,894.0	1,789.9	1,719.7
Industrial	846.5	851.1	823.1	848.2	842.0	802.9	730.4
Residential	338.3	370.7	357.9	321.5	342.4	348.2	339.2
Commercial	219.0	230.8	223.5	208.6	219.4	224.2	224.0
U.S. Territories	27.9	35.9	50.0	50.3	46.1	39.8	41.7
Non-Energy Use of Fuels	118.6	144.9	143.4	145.6	137.2	141.0	123.4
Iron and Steel Production & Metallurgical Coke Production	99.5	85.9	65.9	68.8	71.0	66.0	41.9
Natural Gas Systems	37.6	29.9	29.9	30.8	31.1	32.8	32.2
Cement Production	33.3	40.4	45.2	45.8	44.5	40.5	29.0
Incineration of Waste	8.0	11.1	12.5	12.5	12.7	12.2	12.3
Ammonia Production and Urea Consumption	16.8	16.4	12.8	12.3	14.0	11.9	11.8
Lime Production	11.5	14.1	14.4	15.1	14.6	14.3	11.2
Cropland Remaining Cropland	7.1	7.5	7.9	7.9	8.2	8.7	7.8
Limestone and Dolomite Use	5.1	5.1	6.8	8.0	7.7	6.3	7.6
Soda Ash Production and Consumption	4.1	4.2	4.2	4.2	4.1	4.1	4.3
Aluminum Production	6.8	6.1	4.1	3.8	4.3	4.5	3.0
Petrochemical Production	3.3	4.5	4.2	3.8	3.9	3.4	2.7
Carbon Dioxide Consumption	1.4	1.4	1.3	1.7	1.9	1.8	1.8
Titanium Dioxide Production	1.2	1.8	1.8	1.8	1.9	1.8	1.5
Ferroalloy Production	2.2	1.9	1.4	1.5	1.6	1.6	1.5
Wetlands Remaining Wetlands	1.0	1.2	1.1	0.9	1.0	1.0	1.1
Phosphoric Acid Production	1.5	1.4	1.4	1.2	1.2	1.2	1.0
Zinc Production	0.7	1.0	1.1	1.1	1.1	1.2	1.0
Lead Production	0.5	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.5
Petroleum Systems	0.6	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.5
Silicon Carbide Production and Consumption	0.4	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.1
Land Use, Land-Use Change, and Forestry (Sink) [a]	*(861.5)*	*(576.6)*	*(1,056.5)*	*(1,064.3)*	*(1,060.9)*	*(1,040.5)*	*(1,015.1)*
Biomass – Wood [b]	*215.2*	*218.1*	*206.9*	*203.8*	*203.3*	*198.4*	*183.8*
International Bunker Fuels [c]	*111.8*	*98.5*	*109.7*	*128.4*	*127.6*	*133.7*	*123.1*
Biomass – Ethanol [b]	*4.2*	*9.4*	*23.0*	*31.0*	*38.9*	*54.8*	*61.2*
CH_4	**674.9**	**659.9**	**631.4**	**672.1**	**664.6**	**676.7**	**686.3**
Natural Gas Systems	189.8	209.3	190.4	217.7	205.2	211.8	221.2
Enteric Fermentation	132.1	136.5	136.5	138.8	141.0	140.6	139.8
Landfills	147.4	111.7	112.5	111.7	111.3	115.9	117.5
Coal Mining	84.1	60.4	56.9	58.2	57.9	67.1	71.0
Manure Management	31.7	42.4	46.6	46.7	50.7	49.4	49.5
Petroleum Systems	35.4	31.5	29.4	29.4	30.0	30.2	30.9
Wastewater Treatment	23.5	25.2	24.3	24.5	24.4	24.5	24.5
Forest Land Remaining Forest Land	3.2	14.3	9.8	21.6	20.0	11.9	7.8
Rice Cultivation	7.1	7.5	6.8	5.9	6.2	7.2	7.3
Stationary Combustion	7.4	6.6	6.6	6.2	6.5	6.5	6.2
Abandoned Underground Coal Mines	6.0	7.4	5.5	5.5	5.6	5.9	5.5
Mobile Combustion	4.7	3.4	2.5	2.3	2.2	2.0	2.0
Composting	0.3	1.3	1.6	1.6	1.7	1.7	1.7
Petrochemical Production	0.9	1.2	1.1	1.0	1.0	0.9	0.8
Iron and Steel Production & Metallurgical Coke Production	1.0	0.9	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.6	0.4
Field Burning of Agricultural Residues	0.3	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.2
Ferroalloy Production	+	+	+	+	+	+	+

Table ES-2: Recent Trends in U.S. Greenhouse Gas Emissions and Sinks (Tg or million metric tons CO_2 Eq.) (continued)

Gas/Source	1990	2000	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
Silicon Carbide Production and Consumption	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Incineration of Waste	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
International Bunker Fuels[c]	*0.2*	*0.1*	*0.1*	*0.2*	*0.2*	*0.2*	*0.1*
N_2O	**315.2**	**341.0**	**322.9**	**326.4**	**325.1**	**310.8**	**295.6**
Agricultural Soil Management	197.8	206.8	211.3	208.9	209.4	210.7	204.6
Mobile Combustion	43.9	53.2	36.9	33.6	30.3	26.1	23.9
Manure Management	14.5	17.1	17.3	18.0	18.1	17.9	17.9
Nitric Acid Production	17.7	19.4	16.5	16.2	19.2	16.4	14.6
Stationary Combustion	12.8	14.6	14.7	14.4	14.6	14.2	12.8
Forest Land Remaining Forest Land	2.7	12.1	8.4	18.0	16.7	10.1	6.7
Wastewater Treatment	3.7	4.5	4.8	4.8	4.9	5.0	5.0
N_2O from Product Uses	4.4	4.9	4.4	4.4	4.4	4.4	4.4
Adipic Acid Production	15.8	5.5	5.0	4.3	3.7	2.0	1.9
Composting	0.4	1.4	1.7	1.8	1.8	1.9	1.8
Settlements Remaining Settlements	1.0	1.1	1.5	1.5	1.6	1.5	1.5
Incineration of Waste	0.5	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4
Field Burning of Agricultural Residues	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
Wetlands Remaining Wetlands	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
International Bunker Fuels [c]	*1.1*	*0.9*	*1.0*	*1.2*	*1.2*	*1.2*	*1.1*
HFCs	**36.9**	**103.2**	**120.2**	**123.5**	**129.5**	**129.4**	**125.7**
Substitution of Ozone Depleting Substances [d]	0.3	74.3	104.2	109.4	112.3	115.5	120.0
HCFC-22 Production	36.4	28.6	15.8	13.8	17.0	13.6	5.4
Semiconductor Manufacture	0.2	0.3	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3
PFCs	**20.8**	**13.5**	**6.2**	**6.0**	**7.5**	**6.6**	**5.6**
Semiconductor Manufacture	2.2	4.9	3.2	3.5	3.7	4.0	4.0
Aluminum Production	18.5	8.6	3.0	2.5	3.8	2.7	1.6
SF_6	**34.4**	**20.1**	**19.0**	**17.9**	**16.7**	**16.1**	**14.8**
Electrical Transmission and Distribution	28.4	16.0	15.1	14.1	13.2	13.3	12.8
Magnesium Production and Processing	5.4	3.0	2.9	2.9	2.6	1.9	1.1
Semiconductor Manufacture	0.5	1.1	1.0	1.0	0.8	0.9	1.0
Total	**6,181.8**	**7,112.7**	**7,213.5**	**7,166.9**	**7,263.4**	**7,061.1**	**6,633.2**
Net Emissions (Sources and Sinks)	**5,320.3**	**6,536.1**	**6,157.1**	**6,102.6**	**6,202.5**	**6,020.7**	**5,618.2**

+ Does not exceed 0.05 Tg CO_2 Eq.

[a] Parentheses indicate negative values or sequestration. The net CO_2 flux total includes both emissions and sequestration, and constitutes a net sink in the United States. Sinks are only included in net emissions total.

[b] Emissions from Wood Biomass and Ethanol Consumption are not included specifically in summing energy sector totals. Net carbon fluxes from changes in biogenic carbon reservoirs are accounted for in the estimates for Land Use, Land-Use Change, and Forestry.

[c] Emissions from International Bunker Fuels are not included in totals.

[d] Small amounts of PFC emissions also result from this source.

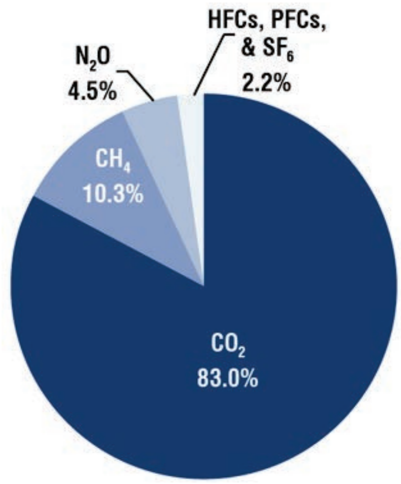
Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

Figure ES-4 illustrates the relative contribution of the direct greenhouse gases to total U.S. emissions in 2009. The primary greenhouse gas emitted by human activities in the United States was CO_2, representing approximately 83.0 percent of total greenhouse gas emissions. The largest source of CO_2, and of overall greenhouse gas emissions, was fossil fuel combustion. Methane emissions, which have increased by 1.7 percent since 1990, resulted primarily from natural gas systems, enteric fermentation associated with domestic livestock, and decomposition of wastes in landfills. Agricultural soil management and mobile source fuel combustion were the major sources of N_2O emissions. Ozone depleting substance substitute emissions and emissions of HFC-23 during the production of HCFC-22 were the primary contributors to aggregate HFC emissions. PFC emissions resulted as a byproduct of primary aluminum production and from semiconductor manufacturing, while electrical transmission and distribution systems accounted for most SF_6 emissions.

Overall, from 1990 to 2009, total emissions of CO_2 and CH_4 increased by 405.5 Tg CO_2 Eq. (8.0 percent) and 11.4 Tg CO_2 Eq. (1.7 percent), respectively. Conversely, N_2O emissions decreased by 19.6 Tg CO_2 Eq. (6.2 percent). During the same period, aggregate weighted emissions of HFCs, PFCs, and SF_6 rose by 54.1 Tg CO_2 Eq. (58.8 percent). From 1990 to 2009, HFCs increased by 88.8 Tg CO_2 Eq. (240.41 percent), PFCs decreased by 15.1 Tg CO_2 Eq. (73.0 percent), and SF_6 decreased by 19.5 Tg CO_2 Eq. (56.8 percent). Despite being emitted in smaller quantities relative to the other principal greenhouse gases, emissions of HFCs, PFCs, and SF_6 are significant because many of these gases have extremely high global warming potentials and, in the cases of PFCs and SF_6, long atmospheric lifetimes. Conversely, U.S. greenhouse gas emissions were partly offset by carbon sequestration in forests, trees in urban areas, agricultural soils, and landfilled yard trimmings and food scraps, which, in aggregate, offset 15.3 percent of total emissions in 2009. The following sections describe each gas' contribution to total U.S. greenhouse gas emissions in more detail.

Figure ES-4

2009 Greenhouse Gas Emissions by Gas (percents based on Tg CO_2 Eq.)



Carbon Dioxide Emissions

The global carbon cycle is made up of large carbon flows and reservoirs. Billions of tons of carbon in the form of CO_2 are absorbed by oceans and living biomass (i.e., sinks) and are emitted to the atmosphere annually through natural processes (i.e., sources). When in equilibrium, carbon fluxes among these various reservoirs are roughly balanced. Since the Industrial Revolution (i.e., about 1750), global atmospheric concentrations of CO_2 have risen about 36 percent (IPCC 2007), principally due to the combustion of fossil fuels. Within the United States, fossil fuel combustion accounted for 94.6 percent of CO_2 emissions in 2009. Globally, approximately 30,313 Tg of CO_2 were added to the atmosphere through the combustion of fossil fuels in 2009, of which the United States accounted for about 18 percent.[12] Changes in land use and forestry practices can also emit CO_2 (e.g., through conversion of forest land to agricultural or urban use) or can act as a sink for CO_2 (e.g., through net additions to forest biomass). In addition to fossil-fuel combustion, several other sources emit significant quantities of CO_2. These sources include, but are not limited to non-energy use of fuels, iron and steel production and cement production (Figure ES-5).

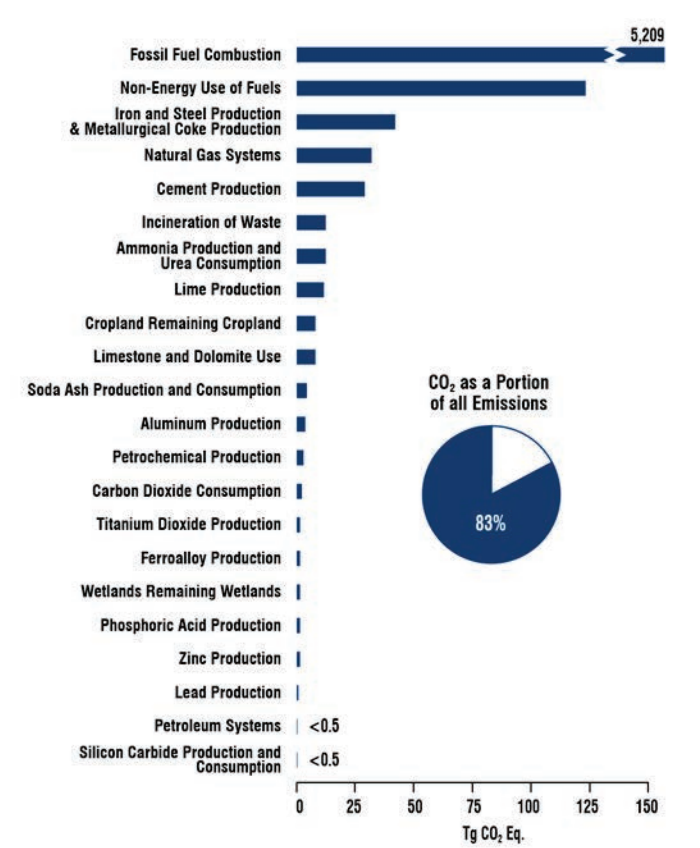
As the largest source of U.S. greenhouse gas emissions, CO_2 from fossil fuel combustion has accounted for approximately 78 percent of GWP-weighted emissions since 1990, growing slowly from 77 percent of total GWP-weighted emissions in 1990 to 79 percent in 2009. Emissions of CO_2 from fossil fuel combustion increased at an average annual rate of 0.4 percent from 1990 to 2009. The fundamental factors influencing this trend include: (1) a generally growing domestic economy over the last 20 years, and (2) overall growth in emissions from electricity generation and transportation activities. Between 1990 and 2009, CO_2 emissions from fossil fuel combustion increased from 4,738.4 Tg CO_2 Eq. to 5,209.0 Tg CO_2 Eq.—a 9.9 percent total increase over the twenty-year period. From 2008 to 2009, these emissions decreased by 356.9 Tg CO_2 Eq. (6.4 percent), the largest decrease in any year over the twenty-year period.

[12] Global CO_2 emissions from fossil fuel combustion were taken from Energy Information Administration *International Energy Statistics 2010* <http://tonto.eia.doe.gov/cfapps/ipdbproject/IEDIndex3.cfm> EIA (2010a).

Historically, changes in emissions from fossil fuel combustion have been the dominant factor affecting U.S. emission trends. Changes in CO_2 emissions from fossil fuel combustion are influenced by many long-term and short-term factors, including population and economic growth, energy price fluctuations, technological changes, and seasonal temperatures. In the short term, the overall consumption of fossil fuels in the United States fluctuates primarily in response to changes in general economic conditions, energy prices, weather, and the availability of non-fossil alternatives. For example, in a year with increased consumption of goods and services, low fuel prices, severe summer and winter weather conditions, nuclear plant closures, and lower precipitation feeding hydroelectric dams, there would likely be proportionally greater fossil fuel consumption than a year with poor economic performance, high fuel prices, mild temperatures, and increased output from nuclear and hydroelectric plants. In the long term, energy consumption patterns respond to changes that affect the scale of consumption (e.g., population, number of cars, and size of houses), the efficiency with which energy is used in equipment (e.g., cars, power plants, steel mills, and light bulbs) and behavioral choices (e.g., walking, bicycling, or telecommuting to work instead of driving).

Figure ES-5

2009 Sources of CO_2 Emissions



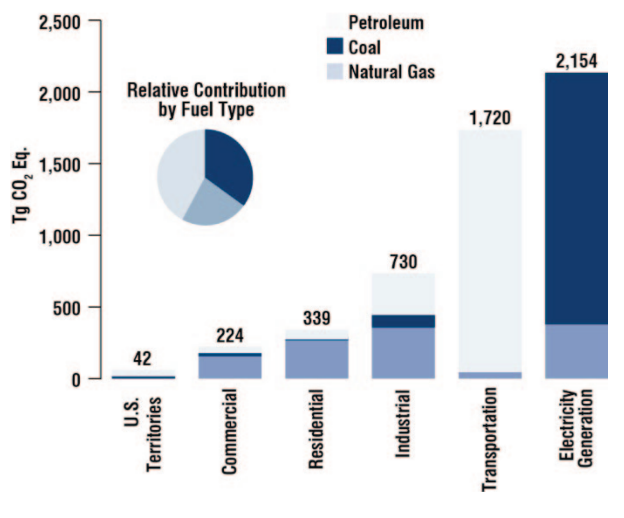
The five major fuel consuming sectors contributing to CO_2 emissions from fossil fuel combustion are electricity generation, transportation, industrial, residential, and commercial. Carbon dioxide emissions are produced by the electricity generation sector as they consume fossil fuel to provide electricity to one of the other four sectors, or "end-use" sectors. For the discussion below, electricity generation emissions have been distributed to each end-use sector on the basis of each sector's share of aggregate electricity consumption. This method of distributing emissions assumes that each end-use sector consumes electricity that is generated from the national average mix of fuels according to their carbon intensity. Emissions from electricity generation are also addressed separately after the end-use sectors have been discussed.

Note that emissions from U.S. territories are calculated separately due to a lack of specific consumption data for the individual end-use sectors.

Figure ES-6, Figure ES-7, and Table ES-3 summarize CO_2 emissions from fossil fuel combustion by end-use sector.

Figure ES-6

2009 CO_2 Emissions from Fossil Fuel Combustion by Sector and Fuel Type



Note: Electricity generation also includes emissions of less than 0.5 Tg CO_2 Eq. from geothermal-based electricity generation.

Figure ES-7

2009 End-Use Sector Emissions of CO_2, CH_4, and N_2O from Fossil Fuel Combustion

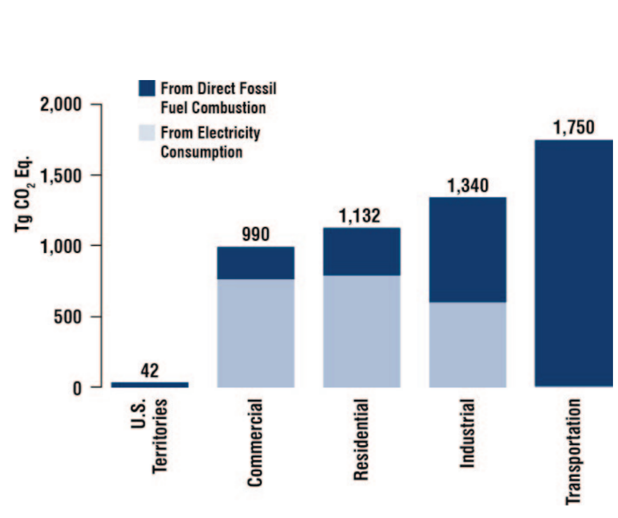


Table ES-3: CO_2 Emissions from Fossil Fuel Combustion by Fuel Consuming End-Use Sector (Tg or million metric tons CO_2 Eq.)

End-Use Sector	1990	2000	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
Transportation	**1,489.0**	**1,813.0**	**1,901.3**	**1,882.6**	**1,899.0**	**1,794.6**	**1,724.1**
Combustion	1,485.9	1,809.5	1,896.6	1,878.1	1,894.0	1,789.9	1,719.7
Electricity	3.0	3.4	4.7	4.5	5.0	4.7	4.4
Industrial	**1,533.2**	**1,640.8**	**1,560.0**	**1,560.2**	**1,572.0**	**1,517.7**	**1,333.7**
Combustion	846.5	851.1	823.1	848.2	842.0	802.9	730.4
Electricity	686.7	789.8	737.0	712.0	730.0	714.8	603.3
Residential	**931.4**	**1,133.1**	**1,214.7**	**1,152.4**	**1,198.5**	**1,182.2**	**1,123.8**
Combustion	338.3	370.7	357.9	321.5	342.4	348.2	339.2
Electricity	593.0	762.4	856.7	830.8	856.1	834.0	784.6
Commercial	**757.0**	**972.1**	**1,027.2**	**1,007.6**	**1,041.1**	**1,031.6**	**985.7**
Combustion	219.0	230.8	223.5	208.6	219.4	224.2	224.0
Electricity	538.0	741.3	803.7	799.0	821.7	807.4	761.7
U.S. Territories [a]	**27.9**	**35.9**	**50.0**	**50.3**	**46.1**	**39.8**	**41.7**
Total	**4,738.4**	**5,594.8**	**5,753.2**	**5,653.1**	**5,756.7**	**5,565.9**	**5,209.0**
Electricity Generation	**1,820.8**	**2,296.9**	**2,402.1**	**2,346.4**	**2,412.8**	**2,360.9**	**2,154.0**

[a] Fuel consumption by U.S. territories (i.e., American Samoa, Guam, Puerto Rico, U.S. Virgin Islands, Wake Island, and other U.S. Pacific Islands) is included in the inventory report.
Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding. Combustion-related emissions from electricity generation are allocated based on aggregate national electricity consumption by each end-use sector.

Transportation End-Use Sector. Transportation activities (excluding international bunker fuels) accounted for 33 percent of CO_2 emissions from fossil fuel combustion in 2009.[13] Virtually all of the energy consumed in this end-use sector came from petroleum products. Nearly 65 percent of the emissions resulted from gasoline consumption for personal vehicle use. The remaining emissions came from other transportation activities, including the combustion of diesel fuel in heavy-

[13] If emissions from international bunker fuels are included, the transportation end-use sector accounted for 35 percent of U.S. emissions from fossil fuel combustion in 2009.

duty vehicles and jet fuel in aircraft. From 1990 to 2009, transportation emissions rose by 16 percent due, in large part, to increased demand for travel and the stagnation of fuel efficiency across the U.S. vehicle fleet. The number of vehicle miles traveled by light-duty motor vehicles (passenger cars and light-duty trucks) increased 39 percent from 1990 to 2009, as a result of a confluence of factors including population growth, economic growth, urban sprawl, and low fuel prices over much of this period.

Industrial End-Use Sector. Industrial CO_2 emissions, resulting both directly from the combustion of fossil fuels and indirectly from the generation of electricity that is consumed by industry, accounted for 26 percent of CO_2 from fossil fuel combustion in 2009. Approximately 55 percent of these emissions resulted from direct fossil fuel combustion to produce steam and/or heat for industrial processes. The remaining emissions resulted from consuming electricity for motors, electric furnaces, ovens, lighting, and other applications. In contrast to the other end-use sectors, emissions from industry have steadily declined since 1990. This decline is due to structural changes in the U.S. economy (i.e., shifts from a manufacturing-based to a service-based economy), fuel switching, and efficiency improvements.

Residential and Commercial End-Use Sectors. The residential and commercial end-use sectors accounted for 22 and 19 percent, respectively, of CO_2 emissions from fossil fuel combustion in 2009. Both sectors relied heavily on electricity for meeting energy demands, with 70 and 77 percent, respectively, of their emissions attributable to electricity consumption for lighting, heating, cooling, and operating appliances. The remaining emissions were due to the consumption of natural gas and petroleum for heating and cooking. Emissions from these end-use sectors have increased 25 percent since 1990, due to increasing electricity consumption for lighting, heating, air conditioning, and operating appliances.

Electricity Generation. The United States relies on electricity to meet a significant portion of its energy demands. Electricity generators consumed 36 percent of U.S. energy from fossil fuels and emitted 41 percent of the CO_2 from fossil fuel combustion in 2009. The type of fuel combusted by electricity generators has a significant effect on their emissions. For example, some electricity is generated with low CO_2 emitting energy technologies, particularly non-fossil options such as nuclear, hydroelectric, or geothermal energy. However, electricity generators rely on coal for over half of their total energy requirements and accounted for 95 percent of all coal consumed for energy in the United States in 2009. Consequently, changes in electricity demand have a significant impact on coal consumption and associated CO_2 emissions.

Other significant CO_2 trends included the following:

- Carbon dioxide emissions from non-energy use of fossil fuels have increased 4.7 Tg CO_2 Eq. (4.0 percent) from 1990 through 2009. Emissions from non-energy uses of fossil fuels were 123.4 Tg CO_2 Eq. in 2009, which constituted 2.2 percent of total national CO_2 emissions, approximately the same proportion as in 1990.

- Carbon dioxide emissions from iron and steel production and metallurgical coke production decreased by 24.1 Tg CO_2 Eq. (36.6 percent) from 2008 to 2009, continuing a trend of decreasing emissions from 1990 through 2009 of 57.9 percent (57.7 Tg CO_2 Eq.). This decline is due to the restructuring of the industry, technological improvements, and increased scrap utilization.

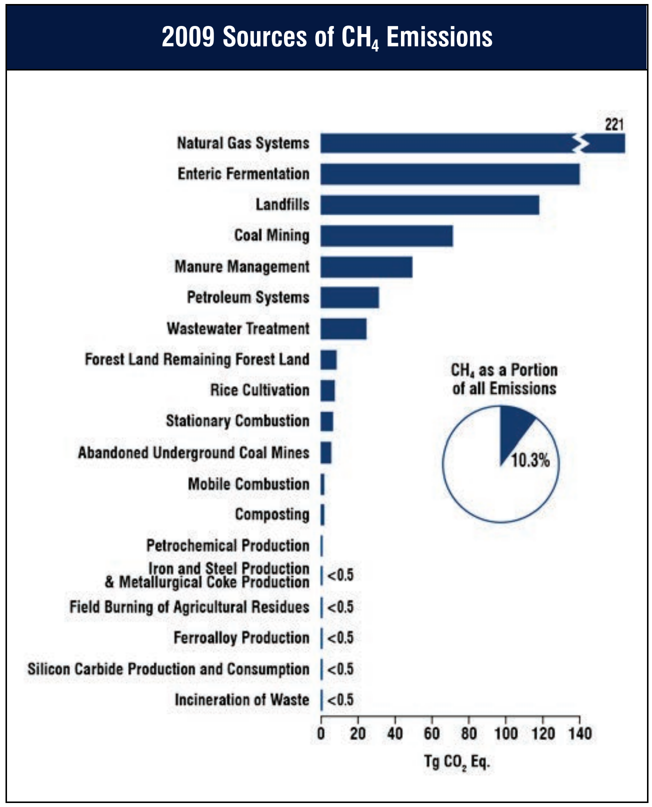
- In 2009, CO_2 emissions from cement production decreased by 11.5 Tg CO_2 Eq. (28.4 percent) from 2008. After decreasing in 1991 by two percent from 1990 levels, cement production emissions grew every year through 2006; emissions decreased in the last three years. Overall, from 1990 to 2009, emissions from cement production decreased by 12.8 percent, a decrease of 4.3 Tg CO_2 Eq.

- Net CO_2 uptake from Land Use, Land-Use Change, and Forestry increased by 153.5 Tg CO_2 Eq. (17.8 percent) from 1990 through 2009. This increase was primarily due to an increase in the rate of net carbon accumulation in forest carbon stocks, particularly in aboveground and belowground tree biomass, and harvested wood pools. Annual carbon accumulation in landfilled yard trimmings and food scraps slowed over this period, while the rate of carbon accumulation in urban trees increased.

Methane Emissions

Methane (CH_4) is more than 20 times as effective as CO_2 at trapping heat in the atmosphere (IPCC 1996). Over the last two hundred and fifty years, the concentration of CH_4 in the atmosphere increased by 148 percent (IPCC 2007). Anthropogenic sources of CH_4 include natural gas and petroleum systems, agricultural activities, landfills, coal mining, wastewater treatment, stationary and mobile combustion, and certain industrial processes (see Figure ES-8).

Figure ES-8



Some significant trends in U.S. emissions of CH_4 include the following:

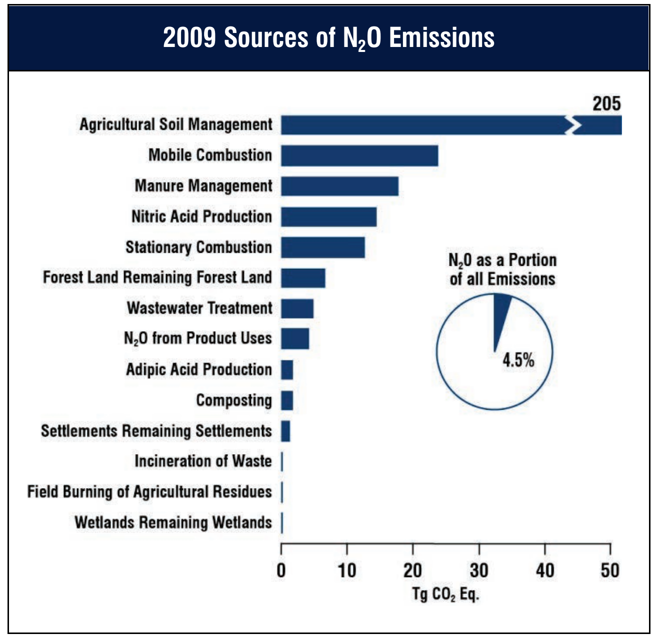
- In 2009, CH_4 emissions from coal mining were 71.0 Tg CO_2 Eq., a 3.9 Tg CO_2 Eq. (5.8 percent) increase over 2008 emission levels. The overall decline of 13.0 Tg CO_2 Eq. (15.5 percent) from 1990 results from the mining of less gassy coal from underground mines and the increased use of CH_4 collected from degasification systems.
- Natural gas systems were the largest anthropogenic source category of CH_4 emissions in the United States in 2009 with 221.2 Tg CO_2 Eq. of CH_4 emitted into the atmosphere. Those emissions have increased by 31.4 Tg CO_2 Eq. (16.6 percent) since 1990. Methane emissions from this source increased 4 percent from 2008 to 2009 due to an increase in production and production wells.
- Enteric Fermentation is the second largest anthropogenic source of CH_4 emissions in the United States. In 2009, enteric fermentation CH_4 emissions were 139.8 Tg CO_2 Eq. (20 percent of total CH_4 emissions), which represents an increase of 7.7 Tg CO_2 Eq. (5.8 percent) since 1990.
- Methane emissions from manure management increased by 55.9 percent since 1990, from 31.7 Tg CO_2 Eq. in 1990 to 49.5 Tg CO_2 Eq. in 2009. The majority of this increase was from swine and dairy cow manure, since the general trend in manure management is one of increasing use of liquid systems, which tends to produce greater CH_4 emissions. The increase in liquid systems is the combined result of a shift to larger facilities, and to facilities in the West and Southwest, all of which tend to use liquid systems. Also, new regulations limiting the application of manure nutrients have shifted manure management practices at smaller dairies from daily spread to manure managed and stored on site.
- Landfills are the third largest anthropogenic source of CH_4 emissions in the United States, accounting for 17 percent of total CH_4 emissions (117.5 Tg CO_2 Eq.) in 2009. From 1990 to 2009, CH_4 emissions from landfills decreased by 29.9 Tg CO_2 Eq. (20 percent), with small increases occurring in some interim years. This downward trend in overall

emissions is the result of increases in the amount of landfill gas collected and combusted,[14] which has more than offset the additional CH_4 emissions resulting from an increase in the amount of municipal solid waste landfilled.

Nitrous Oxide Emissions

Nitrous oxide is produced by biological processes that occur in soil and water and by a variety of anthropogenic activities in the agricultural, energy-related, industrial, and waste management fields. While total N_2O emissions are much lower than CO_2 emissions, N_2O is approximately 300 times more powerful than CO_2 at trapping heat in the atmosphere (IPCC 1996). Since 1750, the global atmospheric concentration of N_2O has risen by approximately 18 percent (IPCC 2007). The main anthropogenic activities producing N_2O in the United States are agricultural soil management, fuel combustion in motor vehicles, manure management, nitric acid production and stationary fuel combustion, (see Figure ES-9).

Figure ES-9



Some significant trends in U.S. emissions of N_2O include the following:

- In 2009, N_2O emissions from mobile combustion were 23.9 Tg CO_2 Eq. (approximately 8.1 percent of U.S. N_2O emissions). From 1990 to 2009, N_2O emissions from mobile combustion decreased by 45.6 percent. However, from 1990 to 1998 emissions increased by 25.6 percent, due to control technologies that reduced NO_x emissions while increasing N_2O emissions. Since 1998, newer control technologies have led to an overall decline in N_2O from this source.

- Nitrous oxide emissions from adipic acid production were 1.9 Tg CO_2 Eq. in 2009, and have decreased significantly since 1996 from the widespread installation of pollution control measures. Emissions from adipic acid production have decreased by 87.7 percent since 1990, and emissions from adipic acid production have remained consistently lower than pre-1996 levels since 1998.

- Agricultural soils accounted for approximately 69.2 percent of N_2O emissions in the United States in 2009. Estimated emissions from this source in 2009 were 204.6 Tg CO_2 Eq. Annual N_2O emissions from agricultural soils fluctuated between 1990 and 2009, although overall emissions were 3.4 percent higher in 2009 than in 1990.

[14] The CO_2 produced from combusted landfill CH_4 at landfills is not counted in national inventories as it is considered part of the natural C cycle of decomposition.

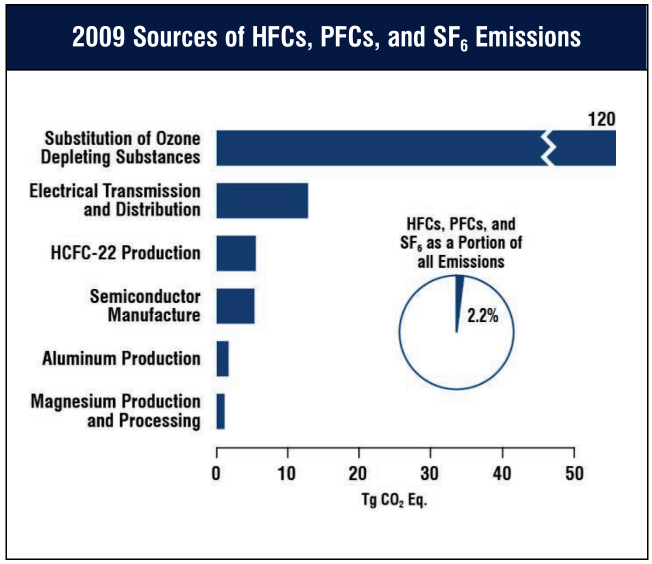
HFC, PFC, and SF_6 Emissions

HFCs and PFCs are families of synthetic chemicals that are used as alternatives to ODS, which are being phased out under the *Montreal Protocol* and Clean Air Act Amendments of 1990. HFCs and PFCs do not deplete the stratospheric ozone layer, and are therefore acceptable alternatives under the *Montreal Protocol*.

These compounds, however, along with SF_6, are potent greenhouse gases. In addition to having high global warming potentials, SF_6 and PFCs have extremely long atmospheric lifetimes, resulting in their essentially irreversible accumulation in the atmosphere once emitted. Sulfur hexafluoride is the most potent greenhouse gas the IPCC has evaluated (IPCC 1996).

Other emissive sources of these gases include electrical transmission and distribution systems, HCFC-22 production, semiconductor manufacturing, aluminum production, and magnesium production and processing (see Figure ES-10).

Figure ES-10



Some significant trends in U.S. HFC, PFC, and SF_6 emissions include the following:

- Emissions resulting from the substitution of ODS (e.g., CFCs) have been consistently increasing, from small amounts in 1990 to 120.0 Tg CO_2 Eq. in 2009. Emissions from ODS substitutes are both the largest and the fastest growing source of HFC, PFC, and SF_6 emissions. These emissions have been increasing as phase-outs required under the *Montreal Protocol* come into effect, especially after 1994, when full market penetration was made for the first generation of new technologies featuring ODS substitutes.

- HFC emissions from the production of HCFC-22 decreased by 85.2 percent (31.0 Tg CO_2 Eq.) from 1990 through 2009, due to a steady decline in the emission rate of HFC-23 (i.e., the amount of HFC-23 emitted per kilogram of HCFC-22 manufactured) and the use of thermal oxidation at some plants to reduce HFC-23 emissions.

- Sulfur hexafluoride emissions from electric power transmission and distribution systems decreased by 54.8 percent (15.6 Tg CO_2 Eq.) from 1990 to 2009, primarily because of higher purchase prices for SF_6 and efforts by industry to reduce emissions.

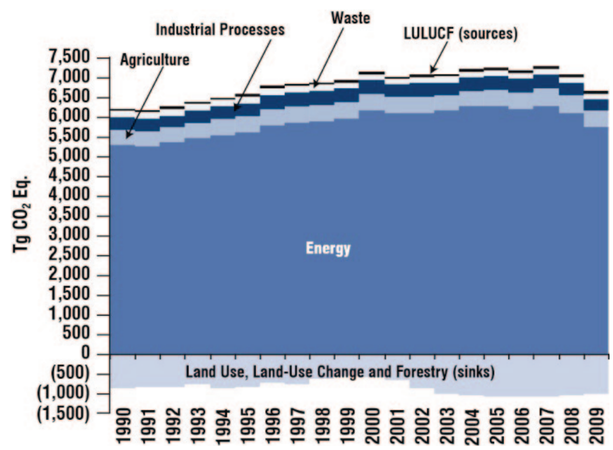
- PFC emissions from aluminum production decreased by 91.5 percent (17.0 Tg CO_2 Eq.) from 1990 to 2009, due to both industry emission reduction efforts and lower domestic aluminum production.

ES.3. Overview of Sector Emissions and Trends

In accordance with the *Revised 1996 IPCC Guidelines for National Greenhouse Gas Inventories* (IPCC/UNEP/OECD/IEA 1997), and the 2003 UNFCCC Guidelines on Reporting and Review (UNFCCC 2003), Figure ES-11 and Table ES-4 aggregate emissions and sinks by these chapters. Emissions of all gases can be summed from each source category from IPCC guidance. Over the twenty-year period of 1990 to 2009, total emissions in the Energy and Agriculture sectors grew by 463.3 Tg CO_2 Eq. (9 percent), and 35.7 Tg CO_2 Eq. (9 percent), respectively. Emissions decreased in the Industrial Processes, Waste, and Solvent and Other Product Use sectors by 32.9 Tg CO_2 Eq. (10 percent), 24.7 Tg CO_2 Eq. (14 percent) and less than 0.1 Tg CO_2 Eq. (0.4 percent), respectively. Over the same period, estimates of net C sequestration in the Land Use, Land-Use Change, and Forestry sector (magnitude of emissions plus CO_2 flux from all LULUCF source categories) increased by 143.5 Tg CO_2 Eq. (17 percent).

Figure ES-11

U.S. Greenhouse Gas Emissions and Sinks by Chapter/IPCC Sector



Note: Relatively smaller amounts of GWP-weighted emissions are also emitted from the Solvent and Other Product Use Sectors.

Table ES-4: Recent Trends in U.S. Greenhouse Gas Emissions and Sinks by Chapter/IPCC Sector (Tg or million metric tons CO_2 Eq.)

Chapter/IPCC Sector	1990	2000	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
Energy	5,287.8	6,168.0	6,282.8	6,210.2	6,290.7	6,116.6	5,751.1
Industrial Processes	315.8	348.8	334.1	339.4	350.9	331.7	282.9
Solvent and Other Product Use	4.4	4.9	4.4	4.4	4.4	4.4	4.4
Agriculture	383.6	410.6	418.8	418.8	425.8	426.3	419.3
Land Use, Land-Use Change, and Forestry (Emissions)	15.0	36.3	28.6	49.8	47.5	33.2	25.0
Waste	175.2	143.9	144.9	144.4	144.1	149.0	150.5
Total Emissions	**6,181.8**	**7,112.7**	**7,213.5**	**7,166.9**	**7,263.4**	**7,061.1**	**6,633.2**
Net CO_2 Flux from Land Use, Land-Use Change, and Forestry (Sinks)[a]	(861.5)	(576.6)	(1,056.5)	(1,064.3)	(1,060.9)	(1,040.5)	(1,015.1)
Net Emissions (Sources and Sinks)	**5,320.3**	**6,536.1**	**6,157.1**	**6,102.6**	**6,202.5**	**6,020.7**	**5,618.2**

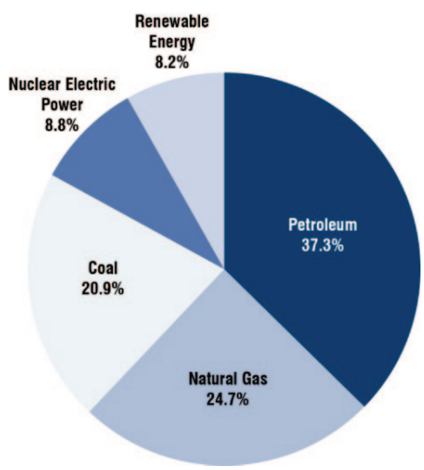
[a] The net CO_2 flux total includes both emissions and sequestration, and constitutes a sink in the United States. Sinks are only included in net emissions total.
Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding. Parentheses indicate negative values or sequestration.

Energy

The Energy chapter contains emissions of all greenhouse gases resulting from stationary and mobile energy activities including fuel combustion and fugitive fuel emissions. Energy-related activities, primarily fossil fuel combustion, accounted for the vast majority of U.S. CO_2 emissions for the period of 1990 through 2009. In 2009, approximately 83 percent of the energy consumed in the United States (on a Btu basis) was produced through the combustion of fossil fuels. The remaining 17 percent came from other energy sources such as hydropower, biomass, nuclear, wind, and solar energy (see Figure ES-12). Energy-related activities are also responsible for CH_4 and N_2O emissions (49 percent and 13 percent of total U.S. emissions of each gas, respectively). Overall, emission sources in the Energy chapter account for a combined 87 percent of total U.S. greenhouse gas emissions in 2009.

Figure ES-12

2009 U.S. Energy Consumption by Energy Source



Industrial Processes

The Industrial Processes chapter contains byproduct or fugitive emissions of greenhouse gases from industrial processes not directly related to energy activities such as fossil fuel combustion. For example, industrial processes can chemically transform raw materials, which often release waste gases such as CO_2, CH_4, and N_2O. These processes include iron and steel production and metallurgical coke production, cement production, ammonia production and urea consumption, lime production, limestone and dolomite use (e.g., flux stone, flue gas desulfurization, and glass manufacturing), soda ash production and consumption, titanium dioxide production, phosphoric acid production, ferroalloy production, CO_2 consumption, silicon carbide production and consumption, aluminum production, petrochemical production, nitric acid production, adipic acid production, lead production, and zinc production. Additionally, emissions from industrial processes release HFCs, PFCs, and SF_6. Overall, emission sources in the Industrial Process chapter account for 4 percent of U.S. greenhouse gas emissions in 2009.

Solvent and Other Product Use

The Solvent and Other Product Use chapter contains greenhouse gas emissions that are produced as a byproduct of various solvent and other product uses. In the United States, emissions from N_2O from product uses, the only source of greenhouse gas emissions from this sector, accounted for about 0.1 percent of total U.S. anthropogenic greenhouse gas emissions on a carbon equivalent basis in 2009.

Agriculture

The Agriculture chapter contains anthropogenic emissions from agricultural activities (except fuel combustion, which is addressed in the Energy chapter, and agricultural CO_2 fluxes, which are addressed in the Land Use, Land-Use Change, and Forestry Chapter). Agricultural activities contribute directly to emissions of greenhouse gases through a variety of processes, including the following source categories: enteric fermentation in domestic livestock, livestock manure management, rice cultivation, agricultural soil management, and field burning of agricultural residues. CH_4 and N_2O were the primary greenhouse gases emitted by agricultural activities. Methane emissions from enteric fermentation and manure management represented 20 percent and 7 percent of total CH_4 emissions from anthropogenic activities, respectively, in 2009.

Agricultural soil management activities such as fertilizer application and other cropping practices were the largest source of U.S. N_2O emissions in 2009, accounting for 69 percent. In 2009, emission sources accounted for in the Agriculture chapter were responsible for 6.3 percent of total U.S. greenhouse gas emissions.

Land Use, Land-Use Change, and Forestry

The Land Use, Land-Use Change, and Forestry chapter contains emissions of CH_4 and N_2O, and emissions and removals of CO_2 from forest management, other land-use activities, and land-use change. Forest management practices, tree planting in urban areas, the management of agricultural soils, and the landfilling of yard trimmings and food scraps resulted in a net uptake (sequestration) of C in the United States. Forests (including vegetation, soils, and harvested wood) accounted for 85 percent of total 2009 net CO_2 flux, urban trees accounted for 9 percent, mineral and organic soil carbon stock changes accounted for 4 percent, and landfilled yard trimmings and food scraps accounted for 1 percent of the total net flux in 2009. The net forest sequestration is a result of net forest growth and increasing forest area, as well as a net accumulation of carbon stocks in harvested wood pools. The net sequestration in urban forests is a result of net tree growth in these areas. In agricultural soils, mineral and organic soils sequester approximately 5.5 times as much C as is emitted from these soils through liming and urea fertilization. The mineral soil C sequestration is largely due to the conversion of cropland to permanent pastures and hay production, a reduction in summer fallow areas in semi-arid areas, an increase in the adoption of conservation tillage practices, and an increase in the amounts of organic fertilizers (i.e., manure and sewage sludge) applied to agriculture lands. The landfilled yard trimmings and food scraps net sequestration is due to the long-term accumulation of yard trimming carbon and food scraps in landfills.

Land use, land-use change, and forestry activities in 2009 resulted in a net C sequestration of 1,015.1 Tg CO_2 Eq. (Table ES-5). This represents an offset of 18 percent of total U.S. CO_2 emissions, or 15 percent of total greenhouse gas emissions in 2009. Between 1990 and 2009, total land use, land-use change, and forestry net C flux resulted in a 17.8 percent increase in CO_2 sequestration, primarily due to an increase in the rate of net C accumulation in forest C stocks, particularly in aboveground and belowground tree biomass, and harvested wood pools. Annual C accumulation in landfilled yard trimmings and food scraps slowed over this period, while the rate of annual C accumulation increased in urban trees.

Table ES-5: Net CO_2 Flux from Land Use, Land-Use Change, and Forestry (Tg or million metric tons CO_2 Eq.)

Sink Category	1990	2000	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
Forest Land Remaining Forest Land	(681.1)	(378.3)	(911.5)	(917.5)	(911.9)	(891.0)	(863.1)
Cropland Remaining Cropland	(29.4)	(30.2)	(18.3)	(19.1)	(19.7)	(18.1)	(17.4)
Land Converted to Cropland	2.2	2.4	5.9	5.9	5.9	5.9	5.9
Grassland Remaining Grassland	(52.2)	(52.6)	(8.9)	(8.8)	(8.6)	(8.5)	(8.3)
Land Converted to Grassland	(19.8)	(27.2)	(24.4)	(24.2)	(24.0)	(23.8)	(23.6)
Settlements Remaining Settlements	(57.1)	(77.5)	(87.8)	(89.8)	(91.9)	(93.9)	(95.9)
Other (Landfilled Yard Trimmings and Food Scraps)	(24.2)	(13.2)	(11.5)	(11.0)	(10.9)	(11.2)	(12.6)
Total	**(861.5)**	**(576.6)**	**(1,056.5)**	**(1,064.3)**	**(1,060.9)**	**(1,040.5)**	**(1,015.1)**

Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding. Parentheses indicate net sequestration.

Emissions from Land Use, Land-Use Change, and Forestry are shown in Table ES-6. The application of crushed limestone and dolomite to managed land (i.e., liming of agricultural soils) and urea fertilization resulted in CO_2 emissions of 7.8 Tg CO_2 Eq. in 2009, an increase of 11 percent relative to 1990. The application of synthetic fertilizers to forest and settlement soils in 2009 resulted in direct N_2O emissions of 1.9 Tg CO_2 Eq. Direct N_2O emissions from fertilizer application to forest soils have increased by 455 percent since 1990, but still account for a relatively small portion of overall emissions. Additionally, direct N_2O emissions from fertilizer application to settlement soils increased by 55 percent since 1990. Forest fires resulted in CH_4 emissions of 7.8 Tg CO_2 Eq., and in N_2O emissions of 6.4 Tg CO_2 Eq. in 2009. Carbon dioxide and N_2O emissions from peatlands totaled 1.1 Tg CO_2 Eq. and less than 0.01 Tg CO_2 Eq. in 2009, respectively.

Table ES-6: Emissions from Land Use, Land-Use Change, and Forestry (Tg or million metric tons CO_2 Eq.)

Source Category	1990	2000	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
CO_2	**8.1**	**8.8**	**8.9**	**8.8**	**9.2**	**9.6**	**8.9**
Cropland Remaining Cropland: Liming of Agricultural Soils	4.7	4.3	4.3	4.2	4.5	5.0	4.2
Cropland Remaining Cropland: Urea Fertilization	2.4	3.2	3.5	3.7	3.7	3.6	3.6
Wetlands Remaining Wetlands: Peatlands Remaining Peatlands	1.0	1.2	1.1	0.9	1.0	1.0	1.1
CH_4	**3.2**	**14.3**	**9.8**	**21.6**	**20.0**	**11.9**	**7.8**
Forest Land Remaining Forest Land: Forest Fires	3.2	14.3	9.8	21.6	20.0	11.9	7.8
N_2O	**3.7**	**13.2**	**9.8**	**19.5**	**18.3**	**11.6**	**8.3**
Forest Land Remaining Forest Land: Forest Fires	2.6	11.7	8.0	17.6	16.3	9.8	6.4
Forest Land Remaining Forest Land: Forest Soils	0.1	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4
Settlements Remaining Settlements: Settlement Soils	1.0	1.1	1.5	1.5	1.6	1.5	1.5
Wetlands Remaining Wetlands: Peatlands Remaining Peatlands	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Total	**15.0**	**36.3**	**28.6**	**49.8**	**47.5**	**33.2**	**25.0**

+ Less than 0.05 Tg CO_2 Eq.
Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

Waste

The Waste chapter contains emissions from waste management activities (except incineration of waste, which is addressed in the Energy chapter). Landfills were the largest source of anthropogenic greenhouse gas emissions in the Waste chapter, accounting for just over 78 percent of this chapter's emissions, and 17 percent of total U.S. CH_4 emissions.[15] Additionally, wastewater treatment accounts for 20 percent of Waste emissions, 4 percent of U.S. CH_4 emissions, and 2 percent of U.S. N_2O emissions. Emissions of CH_4 and N_2O from composting are also accounted for in this chapter; generating emissions of 1.7 Tg CO_2 Eq. and 1.8 Tg CO_2 Eq., respectively. Overall, emission sources accounted for in the Waste chapter generated 2.3 percent of total U.S. greenhouse gas emissions in 2009.

ES.4. Other Information

Emissions by Economic Sector

Throughout the Inventory of U.S. Greenhouse Gas Emissions and Sinks report, emission estimates are grouped into six sectors (i.e., chapters) defined by the IPCC: Energy; Industrial Processes; Solvent Use; Agriculture; Land Use, Land-Use Change, and Forestry; and Waste. While it is important to use this characterization for consistency with UNFCCC reporting guidelines, it is also useful to allocate emissions into more commonly used sectoral categories. This section reports emissions by the following economic sectors: Residential, Commercial, Industry, Transportation, Electricity Generation, Agriculture, and U.S. Territories.

Table ES-7 summarizes emissions from each of these sectors, and Figure ES-13 shows the trend in emissions by sector from 1990 to 2009.

[15] Landfills also store carbon, due to incomplete degradation of organic materials such as wood products and yard trimmings, as described in the Land-Use, Land-Use Change, and Forestry chapter of the inventory report.

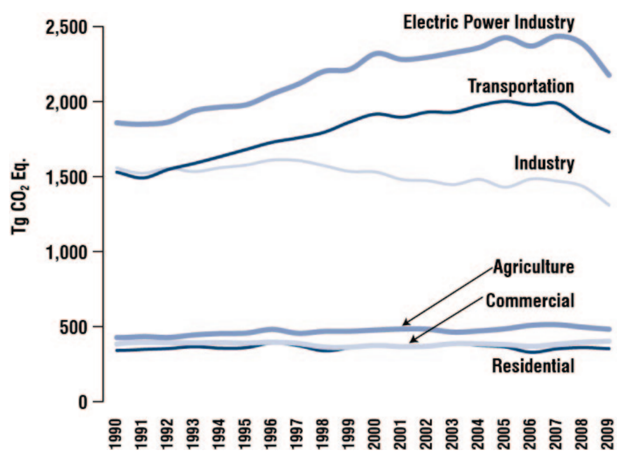
Table ES-7: U.S. Greenhouse Gas Emissions Allocated to Economic Sectors (Tg or million metric tons CO_2 Eq.)

Implied Sectors	1990	2000	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
Electric Power Industry	1,868.9	2,337.6	2,444.6	2,388.2	2,454.0	2,400.7	2,193.0
Transportation	1,545.2	1,932.3	2,017.4	1,994.4	2,003.8	1,890.7	1,812.4
Industry	1,564.4	1,544.0	1,441.9	1,497.3	1,483.0	1,446.9	1,322.7
Agriculture	429.0	485.1	493.2	516.7	520.7	503.9	490.0
Commercial	395.5	381.4	387.2	375.2	389.6	403.5	409.5
Residential	345.1	386.2	371.0	335.8	358.9	367.1	360.1
U.S. Territories	33.7	46.0	58.2	59.3	53.5	48.4	45.5
Total Emissions	**6,181.8**	**7,112.7**	**7,213.5**	**7,166.9**	**7,263.4**	**7,061.1**	**6,633.2**
Land Use, Land-Use Change, and Forestry (Sinks)	(861.5)	(576.6)	(1,056.5)	(1,064.3)	(1,060.9)	(1,040.5)	(1,015.1)
Net Emissions (Sources and Sinks)	**5,320.3**	**6,536.1**	**6,157.1**	**6,102.6**	**6,202.5**	**6,020.7**	**5,618.2**

Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding. Emissions include CO_2, CH_4, N_2O, HFCs, PFCs, and SF_6.
See Table 2-12 of the inventory report for more detailed data.

Figure ES-13

Emissions Allocated to Economic Sectors



Note: Does not include U.S. Territories.

Using this categorization, emissions from electricity generation accounted for the largest portion (33 percent) of U.S. greenhouse gas emissions in 2009. Transportation activities, in aggregate, accounted for the second largest portion (27 percent), while emissions from industry accounted for the third largest portion (20 percent) of U.S. greenhouse gas emissions in 2009. In contrast to electricity generation and transportation, emissions from industry have in general declined over the past decade. The long-term decline in these emissions has been due to structural changes in the U.S. economy (i.e., shifts from a manufacturing-based to a service-based economy), fuel switching, and energy efficiency improvements. The remaining 20 percent of U.S. greenhouse gas emissions were contributed by, in order of importance, the agriculture, commercial, and residential sectors, plus emissions from U.S. territories. Activities related to agriculture accounted for 7 percent of U.S. emissions; unlike other economic sectors, agricultural sector emissions were dominated by N_2O emissions from agricultural soil management and CH_4 emissions from enteric fermentation. The commercial sector accounted for 6 percent of emissions while the residential sector accounted for 5 percent of emissions and U.S. territories accounted for 1 percent of emissions; emissions from these sectors primarily consisted of CO_2 emissions from fossil fuel combustion.

Carbon dioxide was also emitted and sequestered by a variety of activities related to forest management practices, tree planting in urban areas, the management of agricultural soils, and landfilling of yard trimmings.

Electricity is ultimately consumed in the economic sectors described above. Table ES-8 presents greenhouse gas emissions from economic sectors with emissions related to electricity generation distributed into end-use categories (i.e., emissions from electricity generation are allocated to the economic sectors in which the electricity is consumed). To distribute electricity emissions among end-use sectors, emissions from the source categories assigned to electricity generation were allocated to the residential, commercial, industry, transportation, and agriculture economic sectors according to retail sales of electricity.[16] These source categories include CO_2 from fossil fuel combustion and the use of limestone and dolomite for flue gas desulfurization, CO_2 and N_2O from incineration of waste, CH_4 and N_2O from stationary sources, and SF_6 from electrical transmission and distribution systems.

Table ES-8: U.S. Greenhouse Gas Emissions by Economic Sector with Electricity-Related Emissions Distributed (Tg or million metric tons CO_2 Eq.)

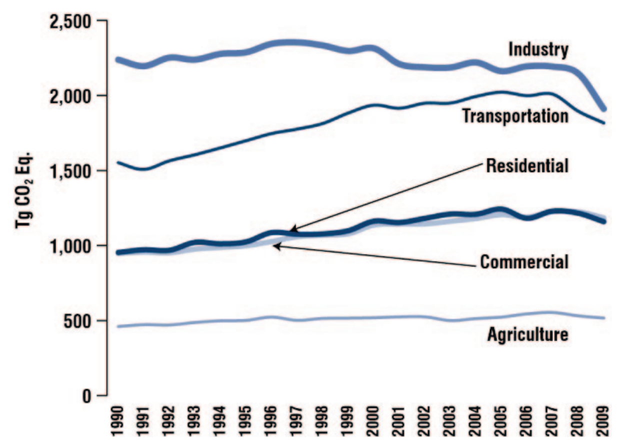
Implied Sectors	1990	2000	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
Industry	2,238.3	2,314.4	2,162.5	2,194.6	2,192.9	2,146.5	1,910.9
Transportation	1,548.3	1,935.8	2,022.2	1,999.0	2,008.9	1,895.5	1,816.9
Commercial	947.7	1,135.8	1,205.1	1,188.5	1,225.3	1,224.5	1,184.9
Residential	953.8	1,162.2	1,242.9	1,181.5	1,229.6	1,215.1	1,158.9
Agriculture	460.0	518.4	522.7	544.1	553.2	531.1	516.0
U.S. Territories	33.7	46.0	58.2	59.3	53.5	48.4	45.5
Total Emissions	**6,181.8**	**7,112.7**	**7,213.5**	**7,166.9**	**7,263.4**	**7,061.1**	**6,633.2**
Land Use, Land-Use Change, and Forestry (Sinks)	(861.5)	(576.6)	(1,056.5)	(1,064.3)	(1,060.9)	(1,040.5)	(1,015.1)
Net Emissions (Sources and Sinks)	**5,320.3**	**6,536.1**	**6,157.1**	**6,102.6**	**6,202.5**	**6,020.7**	**5,618.2**

See Table 2-14 of the inventory report for more detailed data.

When emissions from electricity are distributed among these sectors, industrial activities account for the largest share of U.S. greenhouse gas emissions (29 percent) in 2009. Transportation is the second largest contributor to total U.S. emissions (28 percent). The commercial and residential sectors contributed the next largest shares of total U.S. greenhouse gas emissions in 2009. Emissions from these sectors increase substantially when emissions from electricity are included, due to their relatively large share of electricity consumption (e.g., lighting, appliances, etc.). In all sectors except agriculture, CO_2 accounts for more than 80 percent of greenhouse gas emissions, primarily from the combustion of fossil fuels. Figure ES-14 shows the trend in these emissions by sector from 1990 to 2009.

Figure ES-14

U.S. Emissions with Electricity Distributed to Economic Sectors



Note: Does not include U.S. Territories.

[16] Emissions were not distributed to U.S. territories, since the electricity generation sector only includes emissions related to the generation of electricity in the 50 states and the District of Columbia.

Box ES-2: Recent Trends in Various U.S. Greenhouse Gas Emissions-Related Data

Total emissions can be compared to other economic and social indices to highlight changes over time. These comparisons include: (1) emissions per unit of aggregate energy consumption, because energy-related activities are the largest sources of emissions; (2) emissions per unit of fossil fuel consumption, because almost all energy-related emissions involve the combustion of fossil fuels; (3) emissions per unit of electricity consumption, because the electric power industry—utilities and nonutilities combined—was the largest source of U.S. greenhouse gas emissions in 2009; (4) emissions per unit of total gross domestic product as a measure of national economic activity; and (5) emissions per capita.

Table ES-9 provides data on various statistics related to U.S. greenhouse gas emissions normalized to 1990 as a baseline year. Greenhouse gas emissions in the United States have grown at an average annual rate of 0.4 percent since 1990. This rate is slightly slower than that for total energy and for fossil fuel consumption, and much slower than that for electricity consumption, overall gross domestic product and national population (see Figure ES-15).

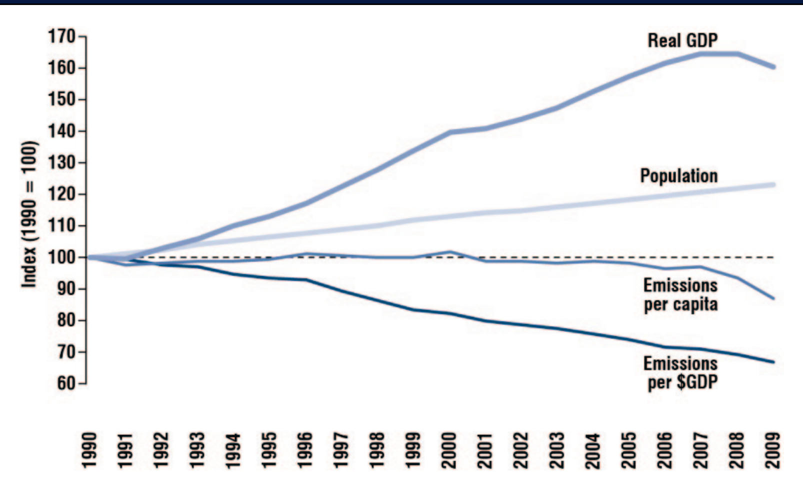
Table ES-9: Recent Trends in Various U.S. Data (Index 1990 = 100)

Variable	1990	2000	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	Growth Rate[a]
GDP [b]	100	140	157	162	165	165	160	2.5%
Electricity Consumption [c]	100	127	134	135	138	138	132	1.5%
Fossil Fuel Consumption [c]	100	117	119	117	119	116	108	0.5%
Energy Consumption [c]	100	116	118	118	120	118	112	0.6%
Population [d]	100	113	118	120	121	122	123	1.1%
Greenhouse Gas Emissions [e]	100	115	117	116	117	114	107	0.4%

[a] Average annual growth rate
[b] Gross Domestic Product in chained 2005 dollars (BEA 2010)
[c] Energy content-weighted values (EIA 2010b)
[d] U.S. Census Bureau (2010)
[e] GWP-weighted values

Figure ES-15

U.S. Greenhouse Gas Emissions Per Capita and Per Dollar of Gross Domestic Product



Source: BEA (2010), U.S. Census Bureau (2010), and emission estimates in the inventory report.

Indirect Greenhouse Gases (CO, NO_x, NMVOCs, and SO_2)

The reporting requirements of the UNFCCC[17] request that information be provided on indirect greenhouse gases, which include CO, NO_x, NMVOCs, and SO_2. These gases do not have a direct global warming effect, but indirectly affect terrestrial radiation absorption by influencing the formation and destruction of tropospheric and stratospheric ozone, or, in the case of SO_2, by affecting the absorptive characteristics of the atmosphere. Additionally, some of these gases may react with other chemical compounds in the atmosphere to form compounds that are greenhouse gases.

Since 1970, the United States has published estimates of annual emissions of CO, NO_x, NMVOCs, and SO_2 (EPA 2010, EPA 2009),[18] which are regulated under the Clean Air Act. Table ES-10 shows that fuel combustion accounts for the majority of emissions of these indirect greenhouse gases. Industrial processes—such as the manufacture of chemical and allied products, metals processing, and industrial uses of solvents—are also significant sources of CO, NO_x, and NMVOCs.

Table ES-10: Emissions of NO_x, CO, NMVOCs, and SO_2 (Gg)

Gas/Activity	1990	2000	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
NO_x	**21,707**	**19,116**	**15,900**	**15,039**	**14,380**	**13,547**	**11,468**
Mobile Fossil Fuel Combustion	10,862	10,199	9,012	8,488	7,965	7,441	6,206
Stationary Fossil Fuel Combustion	10,023	8,053	5,858	5,545	5,432	5,148	4,159
Industrial Processes	591	626	569	553	537	520	568
Oil and Gas Activities	139	111	321	319	318	318	393
Incineration of Waste	82	114	129	121	114	106	128
Agricultural Burning	8	8	6	7	8	8	8
Solvent Use	1	3	3	4	4	4	3
Waste	0	2	2	2	2	2	2
CO	**130,038**	**92,243**	**70,809**	**67,238**	**63,625**	**60,039**	**51,452**
Mobile Fossil Fuel Combustion	119,360	83,559	62,692	58,972	55,253	51,533	43,355
Stationary Fossil Fuel Combustion	5,000	4,340	4,649	4,695	4,744	4,792	4,543
Industrial Processes	4,125	2,216	1,555	1,597	1,640	1,682	1,549
Incineration of Waste	978	1,670	1,403	1,412	1,421	1,430	1,403
Agricultural Burning	268	259	184	233	237	270	247
Oil and Gas Activities	302	146	318	319	320	322	345
Waste	1	8	7	7	7	7	7
Solvent Use	5	45	2	2	2	2	2
NMVOCs	**20,930**	**15,227**	**13,761**	**13,594**	**13,423**	**13,254**	**9,313**
Mobile Fossil Fuel Combustion	10,932	7,229	6,330	6,037	5,742	5,447	4,151
Solvent Use	5,216	4,384	3,851	3,846	3,839	3,834	2,583
Industrial Processes	2,422	1,773	1,997	1,933	1,869	1,804	1,322
Stationary Fossil Fuel Combustion	912	1,077	716	918	1,120	1,321	424
Oil and Gas Activities	554	388	510	510	509	509	599
Incineration of Waste	222	257	241	238	234	230	159
Waste	673	119	114	113	111	109	76
Agricultural Burning	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA
SO_2	**20,935**	**14,830**	**13,466**	**12,388**	**11,799**	**10,368**	**8,599**
Stationary Fossil Fuel Combustion	18,407	12,849	11,541	10,612	10,172	8,891	7,167
Industrial Processes	1,307	1,031	831	818	807	795	798
Mobile Fossil Fuel Combustion	793	632	889	750	611	472	455
Oil and Gas Activities	390	287	181	182	184	187	154
Incineration of Waste	38	29	24	24	24	23	24
Waste	0	1	1	1	1	1	1
Solvent Use	0	1	0	0	0	0	0
Agricultural Burning	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA

NA (Not Available)
Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.
Source: (EPA 2010, EPA 2009) except for estimates from field burning of agricultural residues.

17 See <http://unfccc.int/resource/docs/cop8/08.pdf>.

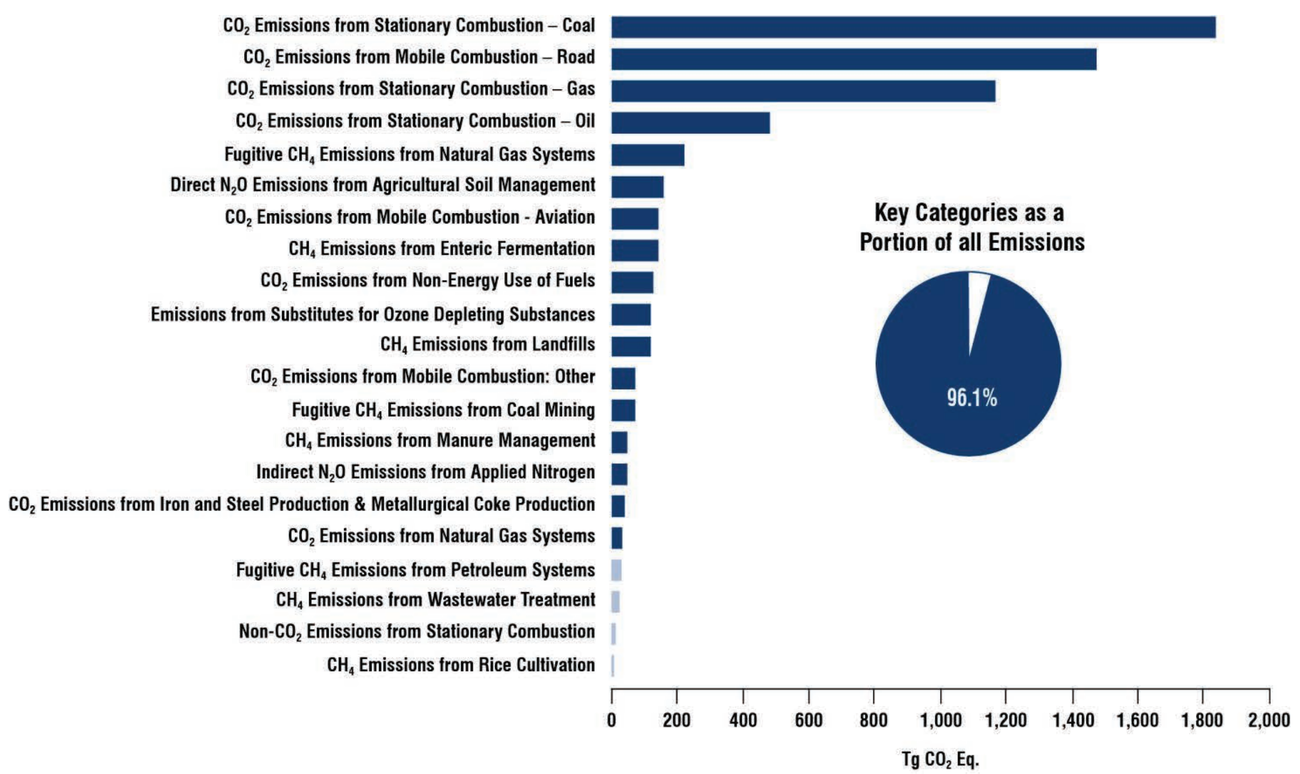
18 NO_x and CO emission estimates from field burning of agricultural residues were estimated separately, and therefore not taken from EPA (2008).

Key Categories

The *2006 IPCC Guidelines for National Greenhouse Gas Inventories* (IPCC 2006) defines a key category as a "[source or sink category] that is prioritized within the national inventory system because its estimate has a significant influence on a country's total inventory of direct greenhouse gases in terms of the absolute level of emissions, the trend in emissions, or both."[19] By definition, key categories are sources or sinks that have the greatest contribution to the absolute overall level of national emissions in any of the years covered by the time series. In addition, when an entire time series of emission estimates is prepared, a thorough investigation of key categories must also account for the influence of trends of individual source and sink categories. Finally, a qualitative evaluation of key categories should be performed, in order to capture any key categories that were not identified in either of the quantitative analyses.

Figure ES-16

2009 Key Categories



Note: For a complete discussion of the key category analysis, see Annex 1 of the inventory report. Darker bars indicate a Tier 1 level assessment key category. Lighter bars indicate a Tier 2 level assessment key category.

Figure ES-16 presents 2009 emission estimates for the key categories as defined by a level analysis (i.e., the contribution of each source or sink category to the total inventory level). The UNFCCC reporting guidelines request that key category analyses be reported at an appropriate level of disaggregation, which may lead to source and sink category names which differ from those used elsewhere in the inventory report. For more information regarding key categories, see section 1.5 and Annex 1.

[19] See Chapter 7 "Methodological Choice and Recalculation" in IPCC (2000). <http://www.ipcc-nggip.iges.or.jp/public/gp/gpgaum.htm>.

Quality Assurance and Quality Control (QA/QC)

The United States seeks to continually improve the quality, transparency, and credibility of the Inventory of U.S. Greenhouse Gas Emissions and Sinks. To assist in these efforts, the United States implemented a systematic approach to QA/QC. While QA/QC has always been an integral part of the U.S. national system for inventory development, the procedures followed for the current inventory have been formalized in accordance with the QA/QC plan and the UNFCCC reporting guidelines.

Uncertainty Analysis of Emission Estimates

While the current U.S. emissions inventory provides a solid foundation for the development of a more detailed and comprehensive national inventory, there are uncertainties associated with the emission estimates. Some of the current estimates, such as those for CO_2 emissions from energy-related activities and cement processing, are considered to have low uncertainties. For some other categories of emissions, however, a lack of data or an incomplete understanding of how emissions are generated increases the uncertainty associated with the estimates presented. Acquiring a better understanding of the uncertainty associated with inventory estimates is an important step in helping to prioritize future work and improve the overall quality of the inventory report. Recognizing the benefit of conducting an uncertainty analysis, the UNFCCC reporting guidelines follow the recommendations of the IPCC Good Practice Guidance (IPCC 2000) and require that countries provide single estimates of uncertainty for source and sink categories.

Currently, a qualitative discussion of uncertainty is presented for all source and sink categories. Within the discussion of each emission source, specific factors affecting the uncertainty surrounding the estimates are discussed. Most sources also contain a quantitative uncertainty assessment, in accordance with UNFCCC reporting guidelines.

Box ES-3: Recalculations of Inventory Estimates

Each year, emission and sink estimates are recalculated and revised for all years in the Inventory of U.S. Greenhouse Gas Emissions and Sinks, as attempts are made to improve both the analyses themselves, through the use of better methods or data, and the overall usefulness of the inventory report. In this effort, the United States follows the 2006 IPCC Guidelines (IPCC 2006), which states, “Both methodological changes and refinements over time are an essential part of improving inventory quality. It is good practice to change or refine methods” when: available data have changed; the previously used method is not consistent with the IPCC guidelines for that category; a category has become key; the previously used method is insufficient to reflect mitigation activities in a transparent manner; the capacity for inventory preparation has increased; new inventory methods become available; and for correction of errors.” In general, recalculations are made to the U.S. greenhouse gas emission estimates either to incorporate new methodologies or, most commonly, to update recent historical data.

In each inventory report, the results of all methodology changes and historical data updates are presented in the "Recalculations and Improvements" chapter; detailed descriptions of each recalculation are contained within each source's description contained in the report, if applicable. In general, when methodological changes have been implemented, the entire time series (in the case of the most recent inventory report, 1990 through 2009) has been recalculated to reflect the change, per the 2006 IPCC Guidelines (IPCC 2006). Changes in historical data are generally the result of changes in statistical data supplied by other agencies. References for the data are provided for additional information.

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United States
Environmental Protection Agency

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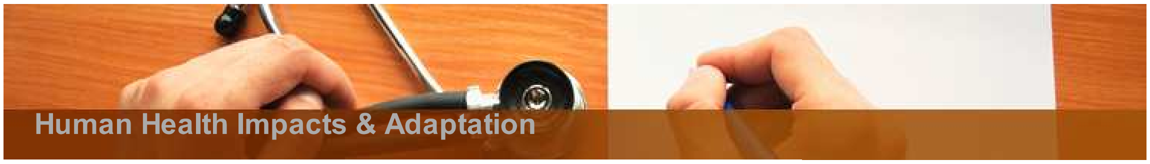
Climate Change
Human Health Impacts & Adaptation

climatechange/impacts-adaptation/health.html#adapt



[Climate Impacts on Human Health] [Adaptation Examples in Human Health]

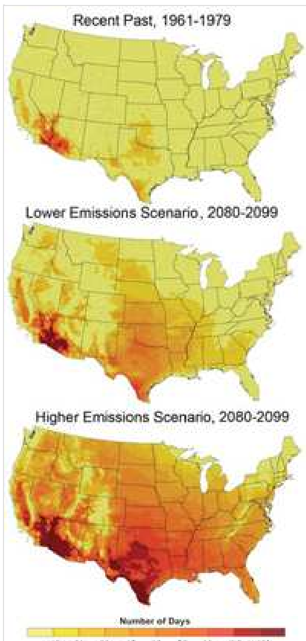
ON THIS PAGE

Weather and climate play a significant role in people's health. Changes in climate affect the average weather conditions that we are accustomed to. Warmer average temperatures will likely lead to hotter days and more frequent and longer heat waves. This could increase the number of heat-related illnesses and deaths. Increases in the frequency or severity of extreme weather events such as storms could increase the risk of dangerous flooding, high winds, and other direct threats to people and property. Warmer temperatures could increase the concentrations of unhealthy air and water pollutants. Changes in temperature, precipitation patterns, and extreme events could enhance the spread of some diseases.

Sun setting over a city on a hot day.
Source: EPA (2010)

The impacts of climate change on health will depend on many factors. These factors include the effectiveness of a community's public health and safety systems to address or prepare for the risk and the behavior, age, gender, and economic status of individuals affected. Impacts will likely vary by region, the sensitivity of populations, the extent and length of exposure to climate change impacts, and society's ability to adapt to change.

Although the United States has well-developed public health systems (compared with those of many developing countries), climate change will still likely affect many Americans. In addition, the impacts of climate change on public health around the globe could have important consequences for the United States. For example, more frequent and intense storms may require more disaster relief and declines in agriculture may increase food shortages.



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The number of 100-degree days per year is projected to increase.
Source: USGCRP (2009)

Impacts from Heat Waves

Heat waves can lead to heat stroke and dehydration, and are the most common cause of weather-related deaths.[1] [2] Excessive heat is more likely to impact populations in northern latitudes where people are less prepared to cope with excessive temperatures. Young children, older adults, people with medical conditions, and the poor are more vulnerable than others to heat-related illness. The share of the U.S. population composed of adults over age 65 is currently 12%, but is projected to grow to 21% by 2050, leading to a larger vulnerable population.[1]

Climate change will likely lead to more frequent, more severe, and longer heat waves in the summer (see 100-degree-days figure), as well as less severe cold spells in the winter. A recent assessment of the science suggests that increases in heat-related deaths due to climate change would outweigh decreases in deaths from cold-snaps.[1]

Urban areas are typically warmer than their rural surroundings. Climate change could lead to even warmer temperatures in cities. This would increase the demand for electricity in the summer to run air conditioning, which in turn would increase air pollution and greenhouse gas emissions from power plants. The impacts of future heat waves could be especially severe in

Key Points

- A warmer climate is expected to both increase the risk of heat-related illnesses and death and worsen conditions for air quality.
- Climate change will likely increase the frequency and strength of extreme events (such as floods, droughts, and storms) that threaten human safety and health.
- Climate changes may allow some diseases to spread more easily.

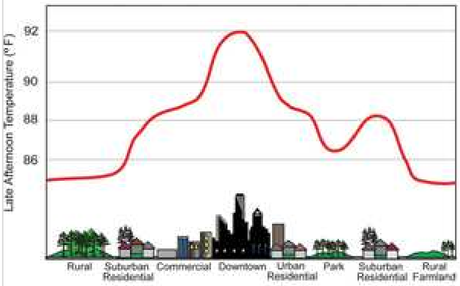
Related Links

EPA:

- Climate Change Indicators in the United States
- Heat Island Effect
- Excessive Heat Events Guidebook
- Global Change Research Program
- Climate Change and Children's Health
- Climate Change and Health Effects on Older Adults
- *Assessment of the Impacts of Global Change on Regional U.S. Air Quality: A Synthesis of Climate Change Impacts on Ground-Level Ozone*
- *Our Nation's Air: Status and Trends Through 2008*

Other:

- CDC Climate Change and Public Health
- USGCRP *Synthesis Assessment Product 4.6: Analyses of the Effects of Global Change on Human Health and Welfare and Human Systems*
- IPCC Fourth Assessment Report, Working Group II EXIT Disclaimer
- USGCRP, Global Climate Change Impacts in the United States: Human Health
- NRC America's Climate Choices: Adapting to the Impacts of Climate Change EXIT Disclaimer
- National Institute of Environmental Health Sciences: *A Human Health Perspective on Climate Change* (PDF)
- World Health Organization, *Climate Change and Human Health: Risks and Responses* EXIT Disclaimer



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The "urban heat island" refers to the fact that the local temperature in urban areas is a few degrees higher than the surrounding area. Source: USGCRP (2009)

large metropolitan areas. For example, in Los Angeles, annual heat-related deaths are projected to increase two- to seven-fold by the end of the 21st century, depending on the future growth of greenhouse gas emissions. [1] Heat waves are also often accompanied by periods of stagnant air, leading to increases in air pollution and the associated health effects

Impacts from Extreme Weather Events

The frequency and intensity of extreme precipitation events is projected to increase in some locations, as is the severity (wind speeds and rain) of tropical storms. [1] These extreme weather events could cause injuries and, in some cases, death. As with heat waves, the people most at risk include young children, older adults, people with medical conditions, and the poor. Extreme events can also indirectly threaten human health in a number of ways. For example, extreme events can:

- Reduce the availability of fresh food and water. [2]
- Interrupt communication, utility, and health care services. [2]
- Contribute to carbon monoxide poisoning from portable electric generators used during and after storms. [2]
- Increase stomach and intestinal illness among evacuees. [1]
- Contribute to mental health impacts such as depression and post-traumatic stress disorder (PTSD). [1]

Flooded streets in New Orleans after Hurricane Katrina in 2005. Source: FEMA (2005)

Climate Change Affects Human Health and Welfare

In 2008, the U.S. Global Change Research Program produced a report that analyzed the impacts of global climate change on human health and welfare. The report finds that:

- Many of the expected health effects are likely to fall mostly on the poor, the very old, the very young, the disabled, and the uninsured.
- Climate change will likely result in regional differences in U.S. impacts, due not only to a regional pattern of changes in climate but also to regional variations in the distribution of sensitive populations and the ability of communities to adapt to climate changes.
- Adaptation should begin now, starting with public health infrastructure. Individuals, communities, and government agencies can take steps to moderate the impacts of climate change on human health. (To learn more, see the Health Adaptation section)

Impacts from Reduced Air Quality

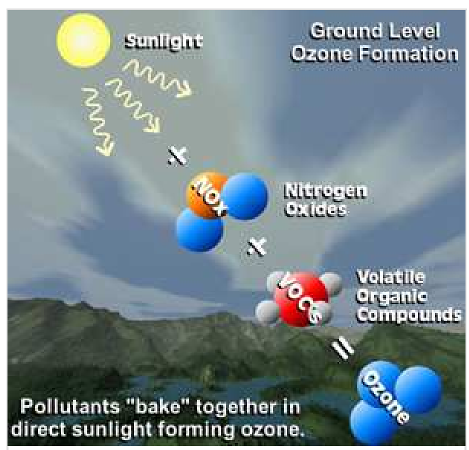
Despite significant improvements in U.S. air quality since the 1970s, as of 2008 more than 126 million Americans lived in counties that did not meet national air quality standards. [3]

Increases in Ozone

Scientists project that warmer temperatures from climate change will increase the frequency of days with unhealthy levels of ground-level ozone, a harmful air pollutant, and a component in smog. [2] [3]

- Ground-level ozone can damage lung tissue and can reduce lung function and inflame airways. This can increase respiratory symptoms and aggravate asthma or other lung diseases. It is especially harmful to children, older adults, outdoor workers, and those with asthma and other chronic lung diseases. [4]
- Ozone exposure also has been associated with increased susceptibility to respiratory infections, medication use, doctor visits, and emergency department visits and hospital admissions for individuals with lung disease. Some studies suggest that ozone may increase the risk of premature mortality, and possibly even the development of asthma. [1] [2] [3] [5]
- Ground-level ozone is formed when certain air pollutants, such as carbon monoxide, oxides of nitrogen (also called NO_X), and volatile organic compounds, are exposed to each other in sunlight. Ground-level ozone is one of the pollutants in smog. [2] [3]
- Because warm, stagnant air tends to increase the formation of ozone, climate change is likely to increase levels of ground-level ozone in already-polluted areas of the United States and increase the number of days with poor air quality. [1] If emissions of air pollutants remain fixed at today's levels until 2050, warming from climate change alone could increase the number of Red Ozone Alert Days (when the air is unhealthy for everyone) by 68% in the 50 largest eastern U.S. cities. [1] (See Box below "EPA Report on Air Quality and Climate Change.")

Smog in Los Angeles decreases visibility and can be harmful to human health. Source: California Air Resources Board (2011)



Ozone chemistry. Source: NASA (2012)

Changes in Fine Particulate Matter

Particulate matter is the term for a category of extremely small particles and liquid droplets suspended in the atmosphere. Fine particles include particles smaller than 2.5 micrometers (about one ten-thousandth of an inch). These particles may be emitted directly or may be formed in the atmosphere from chemical reactions of gases such as sulfur dioxide, nitrogen dioxide, and volatile organic compounds.

- Inhaling fine particles can lead to a broad range of adverse health effects, including premature mortality, aggravation of cardiovascular and respiratory disease, development of chronic lung disease, exacerbation of asthma, and decreased lung function growth in children. [6]
- Sources of fine particle pollution include power plants, gasoline and diesel engines, wood combustion, high-temperature industrial processes such as smelters and steel mills, and forest fires. [6]

Due to the variety of sources and components of fine particulate matter, scientists do not yet know whether climate change will increase or decrease particulate matter concentrations across the United States. [7] [8] A lot of particulate matter is cleaned from the air by rainfall, so increases in precipitation could have a beneficial effect. At the same time, other climate-related changes in stagnant air episodes, wind patterns, emissions from vegetation and the chemistry of atmospheric pollutants will likely affect particulate matter levels. [2] Climate change will also affect particulates through changes in wildfires, which are expected to become more frequent and intense in a warmer climate. [7]

Changes in Allergens

Climate change may affect allergies and respiratory health. [4] The spring pollen season is already occurring earlier in the United States due to climate change. The length of the season may also have increased. In addition, climate change may facilitate the spread of ragweed, an invasive plant with very allergenic pollen. Tests on ragweed show that increasing carbon dioxide concentrations and temperatures would increase the amount and timing of ragweed pollen production. [1] [2] [9]

Impacts from Climate-Sensitive Diseases

Changes in climate may enhance the spread of some diseases. [1] Disease-causing agents, called pathogens, can be transmitted through food, water, and animals such as deer, birds, mice, and insects. Climate change could affect all of these transmitters.

EPA Report on Air Quality and Climate Change

Improving America's air quality is one of EPA's top priorities. EPA's Global Change Research Program is investigating the potential consequences of climate change on U.S. air quality. A recent interim assessment finds that:

- Climate change could increase surface-level ozone concentrations in areas w here pollution levels are already high.
- Climate change could make U.S. air quality management more difficult.
- Policy makers should consider the potential impacts of climate change on air quality w hen making air quality management decisions.

Food-borne Diseases

- Higher air temperatures can increase cases of salmonella and other bacteria-related food poisoning because bacteria grow more rapidly in warm environments. These diseases can cause gastrointestinal distress and, in severe cases, death. [1]
- Flooding and heavy rainfall can cause overflows from sewage treatment plants into fresh water sources. Overflows could contaminate certain food crops with pathogen-containing feces. [1]

Water-borne Diseases

- Heavy rainfall or flooding can increase water-borne parasites such as *Cryptosporidium* and *Giardia* that are sometimes found in drinking water. [1] These parasites can cause gastrointestinal distress and in severe cases, death.
- Heavy rainfall events cause stormwater runoff that may contaminate water bodies used for recreation (such as lakes and beaches) with other bacteria. [9] The most common illness contracted from contamination at beaches is gastroenteritis, an inflammation of the stomach and the intestines that can cause symptoms such as vomiting, headaches, and fever. Other minor illnesses include ear, eye, nose, and throat infections. [2]

Animal-borne Diseases

- The geographic range of ticks that carry Lyme disease is limited by temperature. As air temperatures rise, the range of these ticks is likely to continue to expand northward. [9] Typical symptoms of Lyme disease include fever, headache, fatigue, and a characteristic skin rash.
- In 2002, a new strain of West Nile virus, which can cause serious, life-altering disease, emerged in the United States. Higher temperatures are favorable to the survival of this new strain. [1]


Mosquitoes favor w arm, w et climates and can spread diseases such as West Nile virus.

The spread of climate-sensitive diseases will depend on both climate and non-climate factors. The United States has public health infrastructure and programs to monitor, manage, and prevent the spread of many diseases. The risks for climate-sensitive diseases can be much higher in poorer countries that have less capacity to prevent and treat illness. [9] For more information, please visit the International Impacts & Adaptation page.

Other Heath Linkages

Other linkages exist between climate change and human health. For example, changes in temperature and precipitation, as well as droughts and floods, will likely affect agricultural yields and production. In some regions of the world, these impacts may compromise food security and threaten human health through malnutrition, the spread of infectious diseases, and food poisoning. The worst of these effects are projected to occur in developing countries, among vulnerable populations. [9] Declines in human health in other countries might affect the United States through trade, migration and immigration and have implications for national security. [1] [2]

Although the impacts of climate change have the potential to affect human health in the United States and around the world, there is a lot we can do to prepare for and adapt to these changes. Learn about how we can adapt to climate impacts on health.

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United States Environmental Protection Agency

Sulfur Dioxide
Health

Current scientific evidence links short-term exposures to SO_2, ranging from 5 minutes to 24 hours, with an array of adverse respiratory effects including bronchoconstriction and increased asthma symptoms. These effects are particularly important for asthmatics at elevated ventilation rates (e.g., while exercising or playing.)

Studies also show a connection between short-term exposure and increased visits to emergency departments and hospital admissions for respiratory illnesses, particularly in at-risk populations including children, the elderly, and asthmatics.

EPA's National Ambient Air Quality Standard for SO_2 is designed to protect against exposure to the entire group of sulfur oxides (SOx). SO_2 is the component of greatest concern and is used as the indicator for the larger group of gaseous sulfur oxides (SOx). Other gaseous sulfur oxides (e.g. SO3) are found in the atmosphere at concentrations much lower than SO_2.

Emissions that lead to high concentrations of SO_2 generally also lead to the formation of other SOx. Control measures that reduce SO_2 can generally be expected to reduce people's exposures to all gaseous SOx. This may have the important co-benefit of reducing the formation of fine sulfate particles, which pose significant public health threats.

SOx can react with other compounds in the atmosphere to form small particles. These particles penetrate deeply into sensitive parts of the lungs and can cause or worsen respiratory disease, such as emphysema and bronchitis, and can aggravate existing heart disease, leading to increased hospital admissions and premature death. EPA's NAAQS for particulate matter (PM) are designed to provide protection against these health effects.

Last updated on Thursday, July 12, 2012

EPA United States Environmental Protection Agency

Particulate Matter (PM)
Health

The size of particles is directly linked to their potential for causing health problems. Small particles less than10 micrometers in diameter pose the greatest problems, because they can get deep into your lungs, and some may even get into your bloodstream.

Exposure to such particles can affect both your lungs and your heart. Small particles of concern include "inhalable coarse particles" (such as those found near roadways and dusty industries), which are larger than 2.5 micrometers and smaller than 10 micrometers in diameter; and "fine particles" (such as those found in smoke and haze), which are 2.5 micrometers in diameter and smaller.

The Clean Air Act requires EPA to set air quality standards to protect both public health and the public welfare (e.g. visibility, crops and vegetation). Particle pollution affects both.

Health Effects

Particle pollution - especially fine particles - contains microscopic solids or liquid droplets that are so small that they can get deep into the lungs and cause serious health problems. Numerous scientific studies have linked particle pollution exposure to a variety of problems, including:

- premature death in people with heart or lung disease,
- nonfatal heart attacks,
- irregular heartbeat,
- aggravated asthma,
- decreased lung function, and
- increased respiratory symptoms, such as irritation of the airways, coughing or difficulty breathing.

People with heart or lung diseases, children and older adults are the most likely to be affected by particle pollution exposure. However, even if you are healthy, you may experience temporary symptoms from exposure to elevated levels of particle pollution. For more information about asthma, visit www.epa.gov/asthma.

Environmental Effects

Visibility impairment
Fine particles ($PM_{2.5}$) are the main cause of reduced visibility (haze) in parts of the United States, including many of our treasured national parks and wilderness areas. For more information about visibility, visit www.epa.gov/visibility.

Environmental damage
Particles can be carried over long distances by wind and then settle on ground or water. The effects of this settling include: making lakes and streams acidic; changing the nutrient balance in coastal waters and large river basins; depleting the nutrients in soil; damaging sensitive forests and farm crops; and affecting the diversity of ecosystems. More information about the effects of particle pollution and acid rain.

Aesthetic damage
Particle pollution can stain and damage stone and other materials, including culturally important objects such as statues and monuments. More information about the effects of particle pollution and acid rain.

For more information on particle pollution, health and the environment, visit:

Particle Pollution and Your Health (PDF) (2pp, 320k): Learn who is at risk from exposure to particle pollution, what health effects you may experience as a result of particle exposure, and simple measures you can take to reduce your risk.

How Smoke From Fires Can Affect Your Health: It's important to limit your exposure to smoke -- especially if you may be susceptible. This publication provides steps you can take to protect your health.

Integrated Science Assessment for Particulate Matter (December 2009): This comprehensive assessment of scientific data about the health and environmental effects of particulate matter is an important part of EPA's review of its particle pollution standards.

Last updated on Friday, June 15, 2012

EPA United States Environmental Protection Agency

Visibility
Basic Information

How far can you see?

Every year there are over 280 million visitors to our nation's most treasured parks and wilderness areas. Unfortunately, many visitors aren't able to see the spectacular vistas they expect. During much of the year a veil of white or brown haze hangs in the air blurring the view. Most of this haze is not natural. It is air pollution, carried by the wind often many hundreds of miles from where it originated.

In our nation's scenic areas, the visual range has been substantially reduced by air pollution. In eastern parks, average visual range has decreased from 90 miles to 15-25 miles. In the West, visual range has decreased from 140 miles to 35-90 miles.

What is haze?

Haze is caused when sunlight encounters tiny pollution particles in the air. Some light is absorbed by particles. Other light is scattered away before it reaches an observer. More pollutants mean more absorption and scattering of light, which reduce the clarity and color of what we see. Some types of particles such as sulfates, scatter more light, particularly during humid conditions.

Where does haze-forming pollution come from?

Air pollutants come from a variety of natural and manmade sources. Natural sources can include windblown dust, and soot from wildfires. Manmade sources can include motor vehicles, electric utility and industrial fuel burning, and manufacturing operations. Particulate matter pollution is the major cause of reduced visibility (haze) in parts of the United States, including many of our national parks. Find out more about particulate pollution.

Some haze-causing particles are directly emitted to the air. Others are formed when gases emitted to the air form particles as they are carried many miles from the source of the pollutants.

What else can these pollutants do to you and the environment?

Some of the pollutants which form haze have also been linked to serious health problems and environmental damage. Exposure to very small particles in the air have been linked with increased respiratory illness, decreased lung function, and even premature death. In addition, particles such as nitrates and sulfates contribute to acid rain formation which makes lakes, rivers, and streams unsuitable for many fish, and erodes buildings, historical monuments, and paint on cars.

How can I learn more about visibility?

How Air Pollution Affects the View (PDF) (2 pp, 793 KB) - EPA brochure describing the health and environmental effects of haze.

Introduction to Visibility (PDF) (79 pp., 3.3 MB) - Report by William Malm, National Park Service and Colorodo State Institute for Research on the Atmosphere

What other Federal agencies address visibility?

- National Park Service EXIT Disclaimer
- U.S. Forest Service EXIT Disclaimer
- U.S. Fish and Wildlife Service EXIT Disclaimer

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The National Energy Modeling System: An Overview 2009

October 2009

Energy Information Administration
Office of Integrated Analysis and Forecasting
U.S. Department of Energy
Washington, DC 20585

This publication is on the WEB at:
www.eia.doe.gov/oiaf/aeo/overview/

Preface

The National Energy Modeling System: An Overview 2009 provides a summary description of the National Energy Modeling System, which was used to generate the projections of energy production, demand, imports, and prices through the year 2030 for the *Annual Energy Outlook 2009, (DOE/EIA-0383(200*9)), released in March 2009. *AEO2009* presents national projections of energy markets for five primary cases—a reference case and four additional cases that assume higher and lower economic growth and higher and lower world oil prices than in the reference case. The Overview presents a brief description of the methodology and scope of each of the component modules of NEMS. The model documentation reports listed in the appendix of this document provide further details.

The Overview was prepared by the Energy Information Administration, Office of Integrated Analysis and Forecasting under the direction of John J. Conti (john.conti@eia.doe.gov, 202/586-2222), Director, Office of Integrated Analysis and Forecasting; Paul D. Holtberg (paul.holtberg@eia.doe.gov, 202/586-1284), Director of the Demand and Integration Division; Joseph A. Beamon (jbeamon@eia.doe.gov, 202/586-2025), Director of the Coal and Electric Power Division; A. Michael Schaal (michael,schaal@eia.doe.gov, 202/586-5590), Director of the Oil and Gas Division; Glen E. Sweetnam (glen.sweetnam@eia.doe.gov, 202-586-2188), Director, International, Economic, and Greenhouse Gases Division; and Andy S. Kydes (akydes@eia.doe.gov, 202/586-2222), Senior Technical Advisor.

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AEO2009 is available on the EIA Home Page on the Internet (http://www.eia.doe.gov/oiaf/aeo/index.html). Assumptions underlying the projections are available in Assumptions to the Annual Energy Outlook 2009 at http://www.eia.doe.gov/oiaf/aeo/assumption/index.html. Tables of regional projections and other underlying details of the reference case are available at http://www.eia.doe.gov/oiaf/aeo/supplement/index.html. Model documentation reports and The National Energy Modeling System: An Overview 2009 are also available on the Home Page at http://tonto.eia.doe.gov/reports/reports_kindD.asp?type=model documentation.

For ordering information and for questions on energy statistics, please contact EIA's National Energy Information Center.

National Energy Information Center, EI-30
Energy Information Administration, Forrestal Building
Washington, DC 20585, Telephone: 202/586-8800
FAX: 202/586-0727, TTY: 202/586-1181
9 a.m. to 5 p.m., eastern time, M-F
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World Wide Web Site: http://www.eia.doe.gov, FTP Site: ftp://ftp.eia.doe.gov

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Introduction

Introduction

The National Energy Modeling System (NEMS) is a computer-based, energy-economy modeling system of U.S. through 2030. NEMS projects the production, imports, conversion, consumption, and prices of energy, subject to assumptions on macroeconomic and financial factors, world energy markets, resource availability and costs, behavioral and technological choice criteria, cost and performance characteristics of energy technologies, and demographics. NEMS was designed and implemented by the Energy Information Administration (EIA) of the U.S. Department of Energy (DOE).

The National Energy Modeling System: An Overview 2009 provides an overview of the structure and methodology of NEMS and each of its components. This chapter provides a description of the design and objectives of the system, followed by a chapter on the overall modeling structure and solution algorithm. The remainder of the report summarizes the methodology and scope of the component modules of NEMS. The model descriptions are intended for readers familiar with terminology from economic, operations research, and energy modeling. More detailed model documentation reports for all the NEMS modules are also available from EIA (Appendix, "Bibliography").

Purpose of NEMS

NEMS is used by EIA to project the energy, economic, environmental, and security impacts on the United States of alternative energy policies and different assumptions about energy markets. The projection horizon is approximately 25 years into the future. The projections in *Annual Energy Outlook 2009 (AEO2009)* are from the present through 2030. This time period is one in which technology, demographics, and economic conditions are sufficiently understood in order to represent energy markets with a reasonable degree of confidence. NEMS provides a consistent framework for representing the complex interactions of the U.S. energy system and its response to a wide variety of alternative assumptions and policies or policy initiatives. As an annual model, NEMS can also be used to examine the impact of new energy programs and policies.

Energy resources and prices, the demand for specific energy services, and other characteristics of energy markets vary widely across the United States. To address these differences, NEMS is a regional model. The regional disaggregation for each module reflects the availability of data, the regional format typically used to analyze trends in the specific area, geology, and other factors, as well as the regions determined to be the most useful for policy analysis. For example, the demand modules (e.g., residential, commercial, industrial and transportation) use the nine Census divisions, the Electricity Market Module uses 15 supply regions based on the North American Electric Reliability Council (NERC) regions, the Oil and Gas Supply Modules use 12 supply regions, including 3 offshore and 3 Alaskan regions, and the Petroleum Market Module uses 5 regions based on the Petroleum Administration for Defense Districts.

Baseline projections are developed with NEMS and published annually in the *Annual Energy Outlook (AEO)*. In accordance with the requirement that EIA remain policy-neutral, the *AEO* projections are generally based on Federal, State, and local laws and regulations in affect at the time of the projection. The potential impacts of pending or proposed legislation, regulations, and standards—or of sections of legislation that have been enacted but that require implementing regulations or appropriations of funds that have not been provided or specified in the legislation itself—are not reflected in NEMS. The first version of NEMS, completed in December 1993, was used to develop the projections presented in the *Annual Energy Outlook 1994*. This report describes the version of NEMS used for the *AEO2009*.[1]

The projections produced by NEMS are not considered to be statements of what will happen but of what might happen, given the assumptions and methodologies used. Assumptions include, for example, the estimated size of the economically recoverable resource base of fossil fuels, and changes in world energy supply and demand. The projections are business-as-usual trend estimates, given known technological and demographic trends.

Analytical Capability

NEMS can be used to analyze the effects of existing and proposed government laws and regulations related to energy production and use; the potential impact of new and advanced energy production, conversion, and consumption technologies; the impact and cost of greenhouse gas control; the impact of increased use of renewable energy sources; and the potential savings

1 Energy Information Administration, *Annual Energy Outlook 2009,* DOE/EIA-0383(2009) (Washington, DC, March 2009)

from increased efficiency of energy use; and the impact of regulations on the use of alternative or reformulated fuels.

In addition to producing the analyses in the *AEO*, NEMS is used for one-time analytical reports and papers, such as *An Updated Annual Energy Outlook 2009 Reference Case Reflecting Provisions of the American Recovery and Reinvestment Act and Recent Changes in the Economic Outlook*,[2] which updates the *AEO2009* reference case to reflect the enactment of the American Recovery and Reinvestment Act in February 2009 and to adopt a revised macroeconomic outlook for the U.S. and global economies. The revised *AEO2009* reference case will be used as the starting point for pending and future analyses of proposed energy and environmental legislation. Other analytical papers, which either describe the assumptions and methodology of the NEMS or look at current energy markets issues, are prepared using the NEMS. Many of these papers are published in the Issues In Focus section of the *AEO*. Past and current analyses are available at http://www.eia.doe.gov/oiaf/aeo/otheranalysis/aeo_analyes.html.

NEMS has also been used for a number of special analyses at the request of the Administration, U.S. Congress, other offices of DOE and other government agencies, who specify the scenarios and assumptions for the analysis. Some recent examples include:

- *Energy Market and Economic Impacts of H.R. 2454, the American Clean Energy and Security Act of 2009*,[3] requested by Chairman Henry Waxman and Chairman Edward Markey to analyze the impacts of H.R. 2454, the American Clean Energy and Security Act of 2009 (ACESA), which was passed by the House of Representatives on June 26, 2009. ACESA is a complex bill that regulates emissions of greenhouse gases through market-based mechanisms, efficiency programs, and economic incentives.
- *Impacts of a 25-Percent Renewable Electricity Standard as Proposed in the American Clean Energy and Security Act*,[4] requested by Senator Markey to analyze the effects of a 25-percent Federal renewable electricity standard (RES) as included in the discussion draft of broader legislation, the American Clean Energy and Security Act.
- *Light-Duty Diesel Vehicles: Efficiency and Emissions Attributes and Market Issues*,[5] requested by Senator Sessions *to* analyze the environmental and energy efficiency attributes of diesel-fueled light-duty vehicles (LDV's), including comparison of the characteristics of the vehicles with those of similar gasoline-fueled, E85-fueled, and hybrid vehicles, as well as a discussion of any technical, economic, regulatory, or other obstacles to increasing the use of diesel-fueled vehicles in the United States.
- *The Impact of Increased Use of Hydrogen on Petroleum Consumption and Carbon Dioxide Emissions*,[6] requested by Senator Dorgan to analyze the impacts on U.S. energy import dependence and emissions reductions resulting from the commercialization of advanced hydrogen and fuel cell technologies in the transportation and distributed generation markets.
- *Analysis of Crude Oil Production in the Arctic National Wildlife Refuge*,[7] requested by Senator Stevens to access the impact of Federal oil and natural gas leasing in the coastal plain of the Arctic National Wildlife Refuge in Alaska.
- *Energy Market and Economic Impacts of S.2191, the Lieberman-Warner Climate Security Act of*

2 Energy Information Administration, *An Updated Annual Energy Outlook 2009 Reference Case Reflecting Provisions of the American Recovery and Reinvestment Act and Recent Changes in the Economic Outlook*, SR/OIAF/2009-4 (Washington, DC, April 2009).

3 Energy Information Administration, Energy Market and Economic Impacts of H.R. 2454, the American Clean energy and Security Act of 2009, SR/OIAF/2009-05 (Washington, DC, August 2009).

4 Energy Information Administration, *Impacts of a 25-Percent Renewable Electricity Standard as proposed in the American Clean Energy and Security Act Discussion*, SR/OIAF/2009-03 (Washington, DC, April 2009)

5 Energy Information Administration, *Light-Duty Diesel Vehicles: Efficiency and Emissions Attributes and Market Issues*, SR/OIAF/2009-02 (Washington, DC, February 2009).

6 Energy Information Administration, *The Impact of Increased Use of Hydrogen on Petroleum Consumption and Carbon Light-Duty Diesel Vehicles: Efficiency and Emissions Attributes and Market Issues*, SR/OIAF/2008-04 (Washington, DC, September 2008).

7 Energy Information Administration, *Analysis of Crude Oil Production in the Arctic National Wildlife Refuge*, SR/OIAF/2008-03 (Washington, DC, May 2008).

2007,[8] requested by Senators Lieberman, Warner, Inhofe, Voinovich, and Barrasso to analyze the impacts of the greenhouse gas cap-and-trade program that would be established under Title I of S.2191.

- *Energy Market and Economic Impacts* of S.1766, the Low Carbon Economy Act of 2007,[9] requested by Senators Bingaman and Specter to analyze the impact of the mandatory greenhouse gas allowance program under S.1766 designed to maintain covered emissions at approximately 2006 levels in 2020, 1990 levels in 2030, and at least 60 percent below 1990 levels by 2050.

Representations of Energy Market Interactions

NEMS is designed to represent the important interactions of supply and demand in U.S. energy markets. In the United States, energy markets are driven primarily by the fundamental economic interactions of supply and demand. Government regulations and policies can exert considerable influence, but the majority of decisions affecting fuel prices and consumption patterns, resource allocation, and energy technologies are made by private individuals who value attributes other than life cycle costs or companies attempting to optimize their own economic interests. NEMS represents the market behavior of the producers and consumers of energy at a level of detail that is useful for analyzing the implications of technological improvements and policy initiatives.

Energy Supply/Conversion/Demand Interactions

NEMS is a modular system. Four end-use demand modules represent fuel consumption in the residential, commercial, transportation, and industrial sectors, subject to delivered fuel prices, macroeconomic influences, and technology characteristics. The primary fuel supply and conversion modules compute the levels of domestic production, imports, transportation costs, and fuel prices that are needed to meet domestic and export demands for energy, subject to resource base characteristics, industry infrastructure and technology, and world market conditions. The modules interact to solve for the economic supply and demand balance for each fuel. Because of the modular design, each sector can be represented with the methodology and the level of detail, including regional detail, appropriate for that sector. The modularity also facilitates the analysis, maintenance, and testing of the NEMS component modules in the multi-user environment.

Domestic Energy System/Economy Interactions

The general level of economic activity, represented by gross domestic product, has traditionally been used as a key explanatory variable or driver for projections of energy consumption at the sectoral and regional levels. In turn, energy prices and other energy system activities influence economic growth and activity. NEMS captures this feedback between the domestic economy and the energy system. Thus, changes in energy prices affect the key macroeconomic variables—such as gross domestic product, disposable personal income, industrial output, housing starts, employment, and interest rates—that drive energy consumption and capacity expansion decisions.

Domestic/World Energy Market Interactions

World oil prices play a key role in domestic energy supply and demand decision making and oil price assumptions are a typical starting point for energy system projections. The level of oil production and consumption in the U.S. energy system also has a significant influence on world oil markets and prices. In NEMS, an international module represents the response of world oil markets (supply and demand) to assumed world oil prices. The results/outputs of the module are international liquids consumption and production by region, and a crude oil supply curve representing international crude oil similar in quality to West Texas Intermediate that is available to U.S. markets through the Petroleum Market Module (PMM) of NEMS. The supply-curve calculations are based on historical market data and a world oil supply/demand balance, which is developed from reduced-form models of international liquids supply and demand, current investment trends in exploration and development, and long-term resource economics for 221 countries/territories. The oil production estimates include both conventional and unconventional supply recovery technologies.

8 Energy Information Administration, *Energy Market and Economic Impacts of S.2191, the Lieberan-Warner Climate Security Act of 2007*, SR/OIAF/2008-01 (Washington, DC, April 2008).

9 Energy Information Administration, *Energy Market and Economic Impacts of S.1766, the Low Carbon Economy Act of 2007*, SR/OIAF/2007-06 (Washington, DC, January 2008).

Economic Decision Making Over Time

The production and consumption of energy products today are influenced by past investment decisions to develop energy resources and acquire energy-using capital stock. Similarly, the production and consumption of energy in a future time period will be influenced by decisions made today and in the past.

Current investment decisions depend on expectations about future markets. For example, expectations of rising energy prices in the future increase the likelihood of current decisions to invest in more energy-efficient technologies or alternative energy sources. A variety of assumptions about planning horizons, the formation of expectations about the future, and the role of those expectations in economic decision making are applied within the individual NEMS modules.

Technology Representation

A key feature of NEMS is the representation of technology and technology improvement over time. Five of the sectors—residential, commercial, transportation, electricity generation, and refining—include extensive treatment of individual technologies and their characteristics, such as the initial capital cost, operating cost, date of availability, efficiency, and other characteristics specific to the particular technology. For example, technological progress in lighting technologies results in a gradual reduction in cost and is modeled as a function of time in these end-use sectors. In addition, the electricity sector accounts for technological optimism in the capital costs of first-of-a-kind generating technologies and for a decline in cost as experience with the technologies is gained both domestically and internationally. In each of these sectors, equipment choices are made for individual technologies as new equipment is needed to meet growing demand for energy services or to replace retired equipment.

In the other sectors—industrial, oil and gas supply, and coal supply—the treatment of technologies is more limited due to a lack of data on individual technologies. In the industrial sector, only the combined heat and power and motor technologies are explicitly considered and characterized. Cost reductions resulting from technological progress in combined heat and power technologies are represented as a function of time as experience with the technologies grows. Technological progress is not explicitly modeled for the industrial motor technologies. Other technologies in the energy-intensive industries are represented by technology bundles, with technology possibility curves representing efficiency improvement over time. In the oil and gas supply sector, technological progress is represented by econometrically estimated improvements in finding rates, success rates, and costs. Productivity improvements over time represent technological progress in coal production.

External Availability

In accordance with EIA requirements, NEMS is fully documented and archived. EIA has been running NEMS on four EIA terminal servers and several dual-processor personal computers (PCs) using the Windows XP operating system. The archive file provides the source language, input files, and output files to replicate the *Annual Energy Outlook* reference case runs on an identically equipped computer; however, it does not include the proprietary portions of the model, such as the IHS Global Insight, Inc. (formerly DRI-WEFA) macroeconomic model and the optimization modeling libraries. NEMS can be run on a high-powered individual PC as long as the required proprietary software resides on the PC. Because of the complexity of NEMS, and the relatively high cost of the proprietary software, NEMS is not widely used outside of the Department of Energy. However, NEMS, or portions of it, is installed at the Lawrence Berkeley National Laboratory, Oak Ridge National Laboratory, the Electric Power Research Institute, the National Energy Technology Laboratory, the National Renewable Energy Laboratory, several private consulting firms, and a few universities.

Overview of NEMS

Overview of NEMS

NEMS explicitly represents domestic energy markets by the economic decision making involved in the production, conversion, and consumption of energy products. Where possible, NEMS includes explicit representation of energy technologies and their characteristics. Since energy costs, availability, and energy-consuming characteristics vary widely across regions, considerable regional detail is included. Other details of production and consumption are represented to facilitate policy analysis and ensure the validity of the results. A summary of the detail provided in NEMS is shown in Table 1.

Table 1. Characteristics of Selected Modules

Energy Activity	Categories	Regions
Residential Demand	Twenty four end-use services Three housing types Fifty end-use technologies	Nine Census divisions
Commercial demand	Ten end-use services Eleven building types Eleven distributed generation technologies Sixty-three end-use technologies	Nine Census divisions
Industrial demand	Seven energy-intensive industries Eight non-energy-intensive industries Six non-manufacturing industries Cogeneration	Four Census regions, shared to nine Census divisions
Transportation demand	Six car sizes Six light truck sizes Sixty-three conventional fuel-saving technologies for light-duty vehicles Gasoline, diesel, and fourteen alternative-fuel vehicle technologies for light-duty vehicles Twenty vintages for light-duty vehicles Regional, narrow, and wide-body aircraft Six advanced aircraft technologies Light, medium, and heavy freight trucks Thirty-seven advanced freight truck technologies	Nine Census divisions
Electricity	Eleven fossil generation technologies Two distributed generation technologies Eight renewable generation technologies Conventional and advanced nuclear Storage technology to model load shifting Marginal and average cost pricing Generation capacity expansion Seven environmental control technologies	Fifteen electricity supply regions (including Alaska and Hawaii) based on the North American Electric Reliability Council regions and subregions Nine Census divisions for demand Fifteen electricity supply regions
Renewables	Two wind technologies—onshore and offshore—, geothermal, solar thermal, solar photovoltaic, landfill gas, biomass, conventional hydropower	
Oil supply	Lower-48 onshore Lower-48 deep and shallow offshore Alaska onshore and offshore	Six lower 48 onshore regions Three lower 48 offshore regions Three Alaska regions
Natural gas supply	Conventional lower-48 onshore Lower-48 deep and shallow offshore Coalbed methane Gas shales Tight sands	Six lower 48 onshore regions Three lower 48 offshore regions Three Alaska regions
Natural gas transmission and distribution	Core vs. noncore delivered prices Peak vs. off-peak flows and prices Pipeline capacity expansion Pipeline and distributor tariffs Canada, Mexico, and LNG imports and exports Alaska gas consumption and supply	Twelve lower 48 regions Ten pipeline border points Eight LNG import regions
Refining	Five crude oil categories Fourteen product categories More than 40 distinct technologies Refinery capacity expansion	Five refinery regions based on the Petroleum Administration for Defense Districts
Coal supply	Three sulfur categories Four thermal categories Underground and surface mining types Imports and Exports	Fourteen supply regions Fourteen demand regions Seventeen export regions Twenty import regions

Major Assumptions

Each module of NEMS embodies many assumptions and data to characterize the future production, conversion, or consumption of energy in the United States. Two of the more important factors influencing energy markets are economic growth and oil prices.

The *AEO2009* includes five primary fully-integrated cases: a reference case, high and low economic growth cases, and high and low oil price cases. The primary determinant for different economic growth rates are assumptions about growth in the labor force and productivity, while the long-term oil price paths are based on access to and cost of oil from the non-Organization of Petroleum Exporting Countries (OPEC), OPEC supply decisions, and the supply potential of unconventional liquids, as well as the demand for liquids.

In addition to the five primary fully-integrated cases, *AEO2009* includes 34 other cases that explore the impact of varying key assumptions in the individual components of NEMS. Many of these cases involve changes in the assumptions that impact the penetration of new or improved technologies, which is a major uncertainty in formulating projections of future energy markets. Some of these cases are run as fully integrated cases (e.g., integrated 2009 technology case, integrated high technology case, low and high renewables technology cost cases, slow and rapid oil and gas technology cases, and low and high coal cost cases). Others exploit the modular structure of NEMS by running only a portion of the entire modeling system in order to focus on the first-order impacts of changes in the assumptions (e.g., 2009, high, and best available technology cases in the residential and commercial sectors, 2009 and high technology cases in the industrial sector and, low and high technology cases in the transportation sector).

NEMS Modular Structure

Overall, NEMS represents the behavior of energy markets and their interactions with the U.S. economy. The model achieves a supply/demand balance in the end-use demand regions, defined as the nine Census divisions (Figure 1), by solving for the prices of each energy type that will balance the quantities producers are willing to supply with the quantities consumers wish to consume. The system reflects market economics, industry structure, and existing energy policies and regulations that influence market behavior.

NEMS consists of four supply modules (oil and gas, natural gas transmission and distribution, coal market, and renewable fuels); two conversion modules (electricity market and petroleum market); four end-use demand modules (residential demand, commercial demand, industrial demand, and transportation demand); one module to simulate energy/economy interactions (macroeconomic activity); one module to simulate international energy markets (international energy); and one module that provides the mechanism to achieve a general market equilibrium among all the other modules (integrating module). Figure 2 depicts the high-level structure of NEMS.

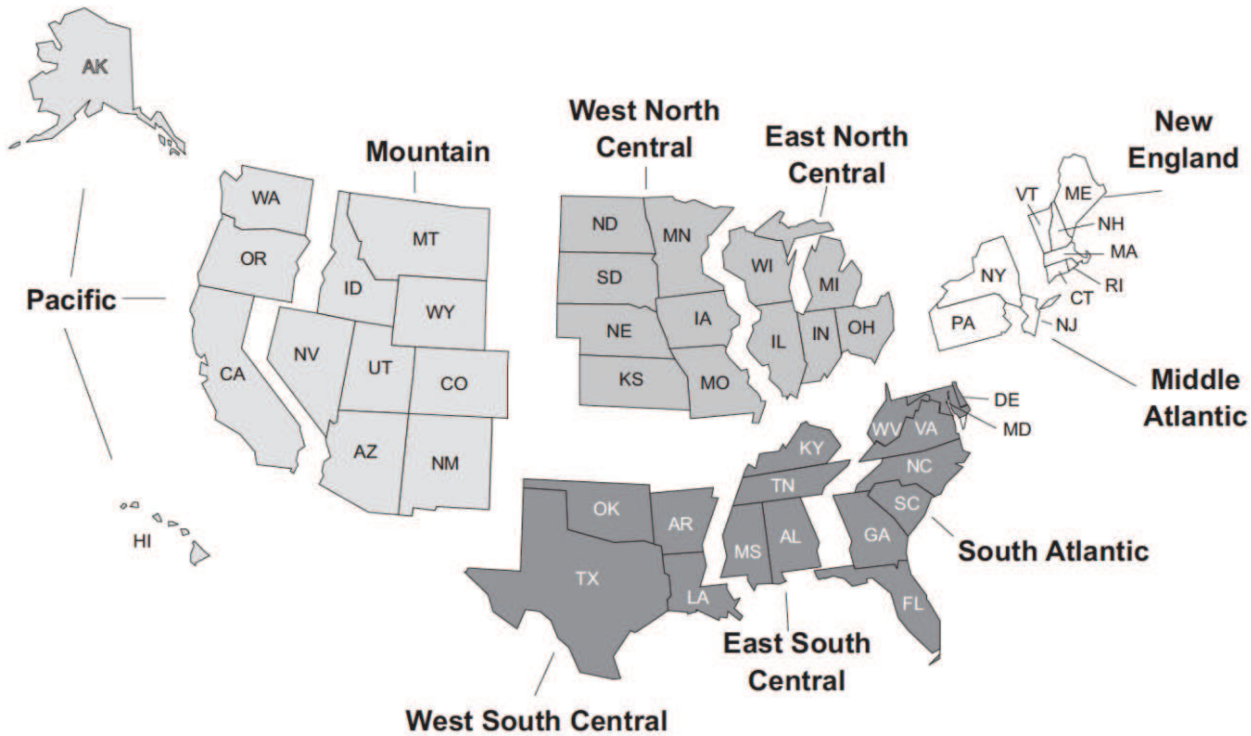
Because energy markets are heterogeneous, a single methodology does not adequately represent all supply, conversion, and end-use demand sectors. The modularity of the NEMS design provides the flexibility for each component of the U.S. energy system to use the methodology and coverage that is most appropriate. Furthermore, modularity provides the capability to execute the modules individually or in collections of modules, which facilitates the development and analysis of the separate component modules. The interactions among these modules are controlled by the integrating module.

The NEMS global data structure is used to coordinate and communicate the flow of information among the modules. These data are passed through common interfaces via the integrating module. The global data structure includes energy market prices and consumption; macroeconomic variables; energy production, transportation, and conversion information; and centralized model control variables, parameters, and assumptions. The global data structure excludes variables that are defined locally within the modules and are not communicated to other modules.

A key subset of the variables in the global data structure is the end-use prices and quantities of fuels that are used to equilibrate the NEMS energy balance in the convergence algorithm. These delivered prices of energy and the quantities demanded are defined by product, region, and sector. The delivered prices of fuel encompass all the activities necessary to produce, import, and transport fuels to the end user. The regions used for the price and quantity variables in the global data structure are the nine Census divisions. The four Census regions (shown in Figure 1 by breaks between State groups) and nine Census divisions are a common, mainstream level of regionality widely used by EIA and other organizations for data collection and analysis.

Overview of NEMS

Figure 1. Census Division



Division 1

New England

Connecticut

Maine

Massachusetts

New Hampshire

Rhode Island

Vermont

Division 2

Middle Atlantic

New Jersey

New York

Pennsylvania

Division 3

East North Central

Illinois

Indiana

Michigan

Ohio

Wisconsin

Division 4

West North Central

Iowa

Kansas

Minnesota

Missouri

Nebraska

North Dakota

South Dakota

Division 5

South Atlantic

Delaware

District of Columbia

Florida

Georgia

Maryland

North Carolina

South Carolina

Virginia

West Virginia

Division 6

East South Central

Alabama

Kentucky

Mississippi

Tennessee

Division 7

West South Central

Arkansas

Louisiana

Oklahoma

Texas

Division 8

Mountain

Arizona

Colorado

Idaho

Montana

Nevada

New Mexico

Utah

Wyoming

Division 9

Pacific

Alaska

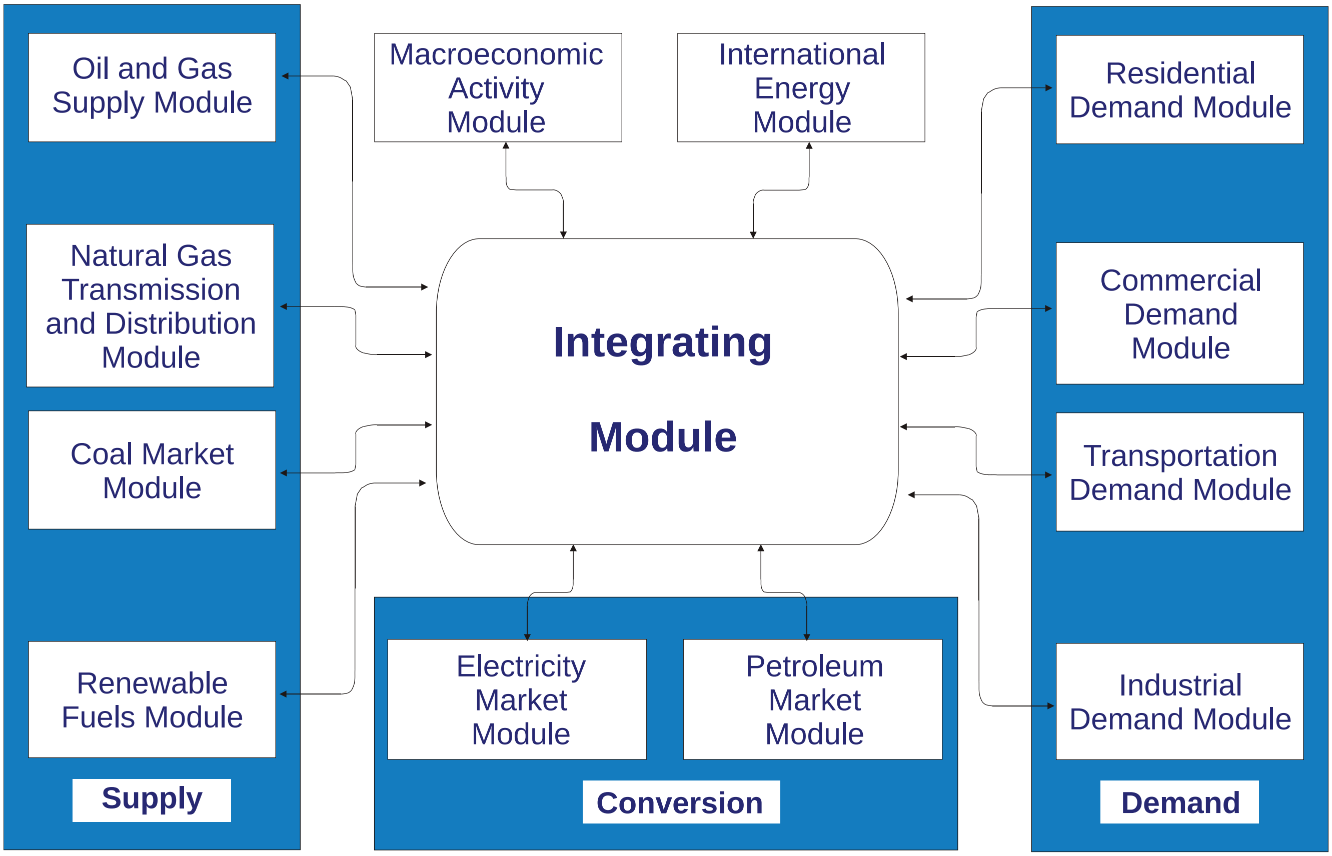
California

Hawaii

Oregon

Washington

Figure 2. National Energy Modeling System



Integrating Module

The NEMS integrating module controls the entire NEMS solution process as it iterates to determine a general market equilibrium across all the NEMS modules. It has the following functions:

- Manages the NEMS global data structure
- Executes all or any of the user-selected modules in an iterative convergence algorithm
- Checks for convergence and reports variables that remain out of convergence
- Implements convergence relaxation on selected variables between iterations to accelerate convergence
- Updates expected values of the key NEMS variables.

The integrating module executes the demand, conversion, and supply modules iteratively until it achieves an economic equilibrium of supply and demand in all the consuming and producing sectors. Each module is called in sequence and solved, assuming that all other variables in the energy markets are fixed. The modules are called iteratively until the end-use prices and quantities remain constant within a specified tolerance, a condition defined as convergence. Equilibration is achieved annually throughout the projection period, currently through 2030, for each of the nine Census divisions.

In addition, the macroeconomic activity and international energy modules are executed iteratively to incorporate the feedback on the economy and international energy markets from changes in the domestic energy markets. Convergence tests check the stability of a set of key macroeconomic and international trade variables in response to interactions with the domestic energy system.

The NEMS algorithm executes the system of modules until convergence is reached. The solution procedure for one iteration involves the execution of all the component modules, as well as the updating of expectation variables (related to foresight assumptions) for use in the next iteration. The system is executed sequentially for each year in the projection period. During each iteration, the modules are executed in turn, with intervening convergence checks that isolate specific modules that are not converging. A convergence check is made for each price and quantity variable to see whether the percentage change in the variable is within the assumed tolerance. To avoid unnecessary iterations for changes in insignificant values, the quantity convergence check is omitted for quantities less than a user-specified minimum level. The order of execution of the modules may affect the rate of convergence but will generally not prevent convergence to an equilibrium solution or significantly alter the results. An optional relaxation routine can be executed to dampen swings in solution values between iterations. With this option, the current iteration values are reset partway between solution values from the current and previous iterations. Because of the modular structure of NEMS and the iterative solution algorithm, any single module or subset of modules can be executed independently. Modules not executed are bypassed in the calling sequence, and the values they would calculate and provide to the other modules are held fixed at the values in the global data structure, which are the solution values from a previous run of NEMS. This flexibility is an aid to independent development, debugging, and analysis.

Carbon Dioxide Emissions

Carbon Dioxide Emissions

The emissions policy submodule, part of the integrating module, estimates energy-related carbon dioxide emissions and is capable of representing two related greenhouse gas (GHG) emissions policies: a cap-and-trade program and a carbon dioxide emission tax.

Carbon dioxide emissions are calculated from fossil-fuel energy consumption and fuel-specific emissions factors. The estimates are adjusted for carbon capture technologies where applicable. Carbon dioxide emissions from energy use are dependent on the carbon content of the fossil fuel, the fraction of the fuel consumed in combustion, and the consumption of that fuel. The product of the carbon content at full combustion and the combustion fraction yields an adjusted carbon emission factor. The adjusted carbon emissions factors, one for each fuel and sector, are provided as input to the emissions policy module.

Data on past carbon dioxide emissions and emissions factors are updated each year from the EIA's annual inventory, ***Emissions of Greenhouse Gases the United States***.[10] To provide a more complete accounting of greenhouse gas emissions consistent with that inventory, a baseline emissions projection for the non-energy carbon dioxide and other greenhouse gases may be specified as an exogenous input.

To represent carbon tax or cap-and-trade policies, an incremental cost of using each fossil fuel, on a dollar-per-Btu basis, is calculated based the carbon dioxide emissions factors and the per-ton carbon dioxide tax or cap-and-trade allowance cost. This incremental cost, or carbon price adjustment, is added to the corresponding energy prices as seen by the energy demand modules. These price adjustments influence energy demand and energy-related CO_2 emissions, as well as macroeconomic trends.

Under a cap-and-trade policy, the allowance or permit price is determined in an iterative solution process such that the annual covered emissions match the cap each year. If allowance banking is permitted, a constant-growth allowance price path is found such that cumulative emissions over the banking interval match the cumulative covered emissions. To the extent the policies cover greenhouse gases other than CO_2, the coverage assumptions and abatement potential for the gases must be provided as input. In past studies, EIA has drawn on work by the Environmental Protection Agency (EPA) to represent exogenous estimates of emissions abatement and the use of offsets as a function of allowance prices.

Representing specific cap-and-trade policies in NEMS almost always requires customization of the model. Among the issues that must be addressed are what gases and sectors are covered, what offsets are eligible as compliance measures, how the revenues raised by the taxes or allowance sales are used, how allowances or the value of allowances are distributed, and how the distribution affects energy pricing or the cost of using energy.

10 Energy Information Administration, ***Emissions of Greenhouse Gases in the United States 2007***, DOE/EIA-0573 (2007) (Washington, DC, December 2008), web site www.eia.doe.gov/oiaf/1605/ggrpt/index.html.

Macroeconomic Activity Module

Macroeconomic Activity Module

The Macroeconomic Activity Module (MAM) links NEMS to the rest of the economy by providing projections of economic driver variables for use by the supply, demand, and conversion modules of NEMS. The derivation of the baseline macroeconomic projection lays a foundation for the determination of the energy demand and supply forecast. MAM is used to present alternative macroeconomic growth cases to provide a range of uncertainty about the growth potential for the economy and its likely consequences for the energy system. MAM is also able to address the macroeconomic impacts associated with changing energy market conditions, such as alternative world oil price assumptions. Outside of the *AEO* setting, MAM represents a system of linked modules which can assess the potential impacts on the economy of changes in energy events or policy proposals. These economic impacts then feed back into NEMS for an integrated solution. MAM consists of five submodules:

- Global Insight Model of the U.S. Economy
- Global Insight Industry Model
- Global Insight Employment Model
- EIA Regional Model
- EIA Commercial Floorspace Model

The IHS Global Insight Model of the U.S. Economy (Macroeconomic Model) is the same model used by IHS Global Insight, Inc. to generate the economic projections behind the company's monthly assessment of the U.S. economy. The Industry and Employment submodules, are derivatives of IHS Global Insight's Industry and Employment Models, and have been tailored to provide the industry and regional detail required by NEMS. The Regional and Commercial Floorspace Submodules were developed by EIA to complement the set of Global Insight models, providing a fully integrated approach to projecting economic activity at the national, industry and regional levels. The set of models is designed to run in a recursive manner (see Figure 3). Global Insight's Macroeconomic Model determines the national economy's growth path and final demand mix. The Global Insight Macroeconomic Model provides projections of over 1300 concepts spanning final demands, aggregate supply, prices, incomes, international trade, industrial detail, interest rates and financial flows.

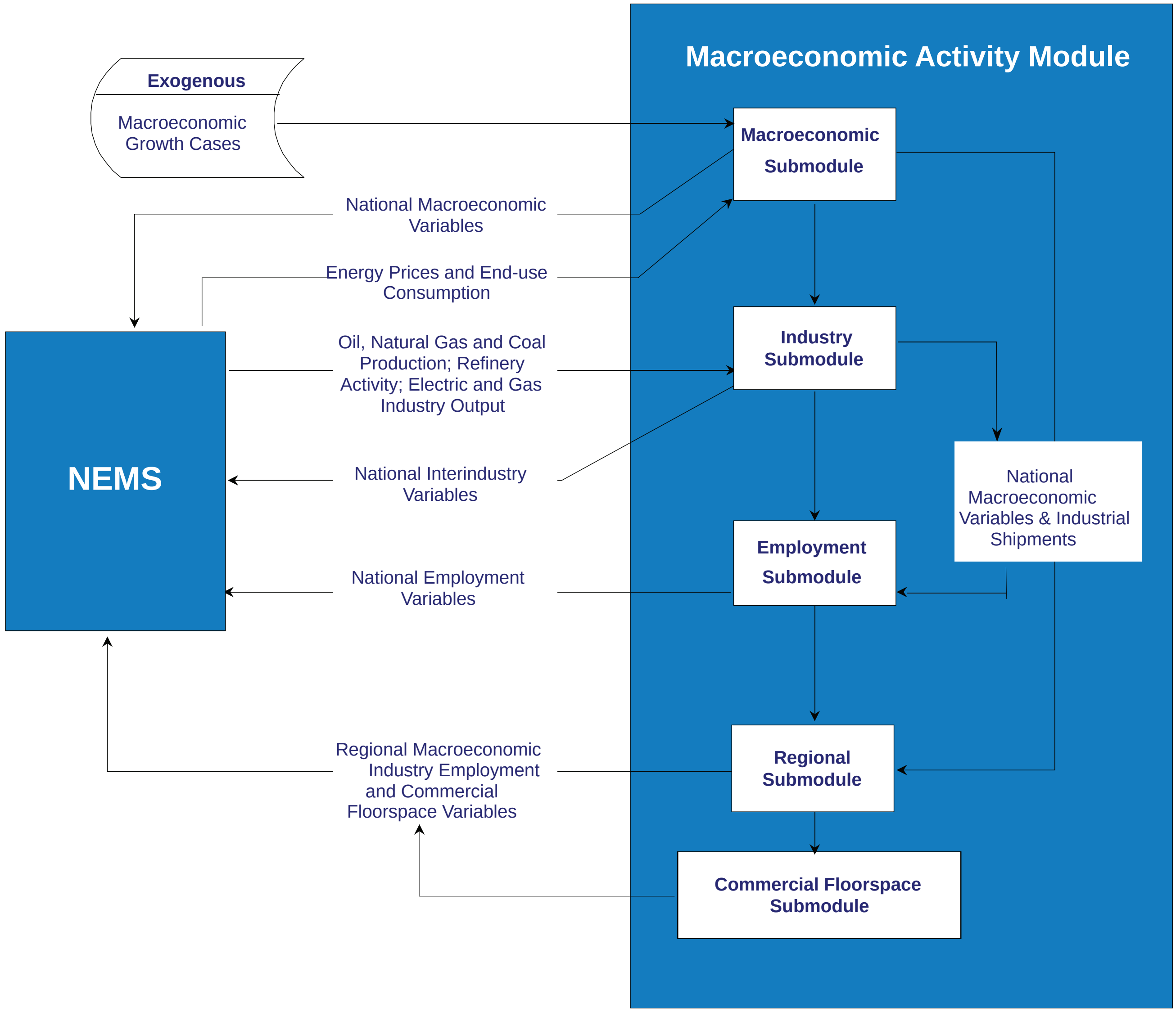
The Industry Submodule takes the final demand projections from the Macroeconomic Submodule as inputs to provide projections of output and other key indicators for 61 sectors, covering the entire economy. This is later aggregated to 41 sectors to provide information to NEMS. The Industry Submodule insures that supply by industry is consistent with the final demands (consumption, investment, government spending, exports and imports) generated in the Macroeconomic Submodule.

The Employment Submodule takes the industry output projections from the Industry Submodule and national wage rates, productivity trends and average work-week trends from the Macroeconomic Submodule to project employment for the 41 NEMS industries. The sum of non-agricultural employment is constrained to sum to the national total projected by the Macroeconomic Submodule.

The Regional Submodule determines the level of industry output and employment, population, incomes, and housing activity in each of nine Census regions. The Commercial Floorspace Submodule calculates regional floorspace for 13 types of building use by Census Division.

MAM Outputs	Inputs from NEMS	Exogenous Inputs
Gross domestic product Other economic activity measures, including housing starts, commercial floorspace growth, vehicle sales, population Price indices and deflators Production and employment for manufacturing Production and employment for nonmanufacturing Interest rates	Petroleum, natural gas, coal, and electricity prices Oil, natural gas, and coal production Electric and gas industry output Refinery output End-use energy consumption by fuel	Macroeconomic variables defining alternative economic growth cases

Figure 3. Macroeconomic Activity Module Structure



Integrated forecasts of NEMS center around estimating the state of the energy-economy system under a set of alternative energy conditions. Typically, the projections fall into the following four types of integrated NEMS simulations:

- Baseline Projection
- Alternative World Oil Prices
- Proposed Energy Fees or Emissions Permits
- Proposed Changes in Combined Average Fuel Economy (CAFE) Standards

In these integrated NEMS simulations, projection period baseline values for over 240 macroeconomic and demographic variables from MAM are passed to NEMS which solves for demand, supply and prices of energy for the projection period. These energy prices and quantities are passed back to MAM and solved in the Macroeconomic, Industry, Employment, Regional, and Commercial Floorspace Submodules in the EViews environment.[11]

11 Eviews is a model building nad operating software package maintained by QMS (Quantitative Micro Software.)

International Energy Module

International Energy Module

The International Energy Module (IEM) (Figure 4) performs the following functions:

- Calculates the world oil price (WOP) that equilibrates world crude-like liquids supply with demand for each year. The WOP is defined as the price of light, low sulfur crude oil delivered to Cushing, Oklahoma.
- Provides the projected world crude-like liquids supply curve (for each year) used by the Petroleum Market Module (PMM). These curves are adjusted to reflect expected conditions in international oil markets and projected changes in U.S. crude-like liquids production and consumption.
- Provide annual regional (country) level production detail for conventional and unconventional liquids based on exogenous assumptions about expected country-level liquid fuels production and producer behavior.
- Projects crude oil and light and heavy refined product import quantities into the U.S. by year and by source based on exogenous assumptions about future exploration, production, refining, and distribution investments worldwide.

Scope of IEM

Non-U.S. liquid fuels markets are represented in NEMS by the interaction between the PMM and the IEM. Using the specific algorithm described in the documentation of this module, IEM calculates the WOP that equilibrates world crude-like liquids supply with demand for each year. The IEM then estimates new world crude-like liquids supply curves based on exogenous, expected U.S. and world crude-like liquids supply and demand curves and that incorporate any changes in U.S. crude-like liquids production or consumption projected by other NEMS modules. Operationally, IEM passes to PMM an array of nine points of this supply curve, with the equilibrium point being the fifth point of this array.

Input data into IEM contain the historical percentages of imports of oils, heavy and light products imported into U.S. from different regions in the world. Using these values and total imports into the U.S. of crudes, heavy and light products provided by PMM, IEM generates a report, with imports by source for every year in the projection.

While the IEM is intended to be executed as a module of the NEMS system, and utilizing its complete capabilities and features requires a NEMS interface, it is also possible to execute the IEM module on a stand-alone basis. In stand-alone mode, the IEM calculates the WOP based on an exogenously specified projection of U.S. crude-like liquids production and consumption. Sensitivity analyses can be conducted to examine the response of the world oil market to changes in oil price, production capacity, and demand. To summarize, the model searches for the WOP that equilibrates crude-like liquids supply and demand at the world level.

Based on the final results for U.S. total liquids production and consumption, IEM also provides an International Petroleum Supply and Disposition Summary table for world conventional and unconventional liquids production as well as for world liquids demand by region. Exogenous data used to build this report is contained in omsinput.wk1 file. Each scenario has its own version of this file.

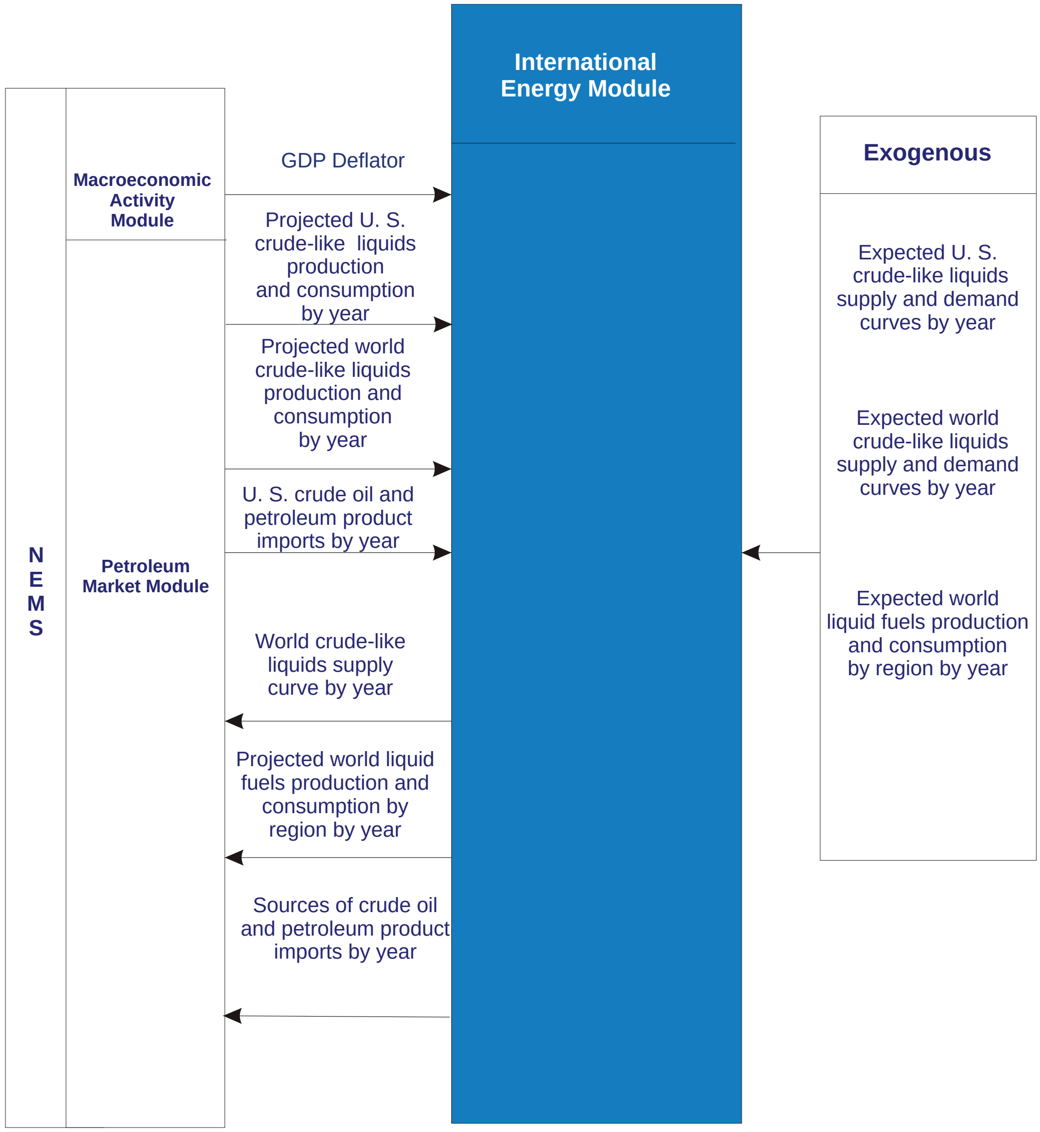
Because U.S. production and consumption of conventional liquids are dynamic values (output from NEMS), all other world regions have been proportionally updated such that the world liquids production and consumption reflect the corresponding value as in the *International Energy Outlook* (*IEO*).

Relation to Other NEMS Components

The IEM both uses information from and provides information to other NEMS components. It primarily uses information about projected U.S and world crude-like liquids production and consumption and petroleum imports and provides information about the world liquid fuels markets, including global crude-like liquids supply curves and the sources of petroleum imports into the U.S. It should be noted, however, that the present focus of the IEM is on the international oil market where the

IEM *Outputs*	Inputs from NEMS	Exogenous Inputs
World crude-like liquids supply curves Projected world liquid fuels production and consumption by region Sources of crude oil and petroleum product imports by year	Controlling information: iteration count, time horizon, etc GDP deflator Projected U.S. and world crude-like liquids production and consumption U.S. crude oil and petroleum product imports	Expected US and world crude-like liquids supply and demand curves Expected world liquid fuel production and consumption by region

Figure 4. International Energy Module Structure



WOP is computed. Any interactions between the U.S. and foreign regions in fuels other than oil (for example, coal trade) are modeled in the particular NEMS module that deals with that fuel.

For U.S. crude-like liquids production and consumption in any year of the projection period, the IEM uses projections generated by the NEMS PMM (based on supply curves provided by the Oil and Gas Supply Module (OGSM) and demand curves from the end-use demand modules).

U.S. and world expected crude-like liquids supply and demand curves, for any year in the projection period, are exogenously provided through data included in input file omsecon.txt, as detailed in the documentation of the IEM.

Residential Demand Module

Residential Demand Module

The residential demand module (RDM) projects energy consumption by Census division for seven marketed energy sources plus solar, wind, and geothermal energy. RDM is a structural model and its demand projections are built up from projections of the residential housing stock and energy-consuming equipment. The components of RDM and its interactions with the NEMS system are shown in Figure 5. NEMS provides projections of residential energy prices, population, disposable income, and housing starts, which are used by RDM to develop projections of energy consumption by end–use service, fuel type, and Census division.

RDM incorporates the effects of four broadly-defined determinants of energy consumption: economic and demographic effects, structural effects, technology turnover and advancement effects, and energy market effects. Economic and demographic effects include the number, dwelling type (single-family, multifamily or mobile homes), occupants per household, disposable income, and location of housing units.Structural effects include increasing average dwelling size and changes in the mix of desired end-use services provided by energy (new end uses and/or increasing penetration of current end uses, such as the increasing popularity of electronic equipment and computers). Technology effects include changes in the stock of installed equipment caused by normal turnover of old, worn out equipment with newer versions that tend to be more energy efficient, the integrated effects of equipment and building shell (insulation level) in new construction, and the projected availability of even more energy-efficient equipment in the future. Energy market effects include the short-run effects of energy prices on energy demands, the longer-run effects of energy prices on the efficiency of purchased equipment and the efficiency of building shells, and limitations on minimum levels of efficiency imposed by legislated efficiency standards.

Housing Stock Submodule

The base housing stock by Census division and dwelling type is derived from EIA's 2005 Residential Energy Consumption Survey (RECS). Each element of the of the base stock is retired on the basis of a constant rate of decay for each dwellling type. RDM receives as an input from the macroeconomic activity module projections of housing additions by type and Census division. RDM supplements the surviving stocks from the previous year with the projected additions by dwelling type and Census division. The average square footage of new construction is based on recent upward trends developed from the RECS and the Census Bureau's Characteristics of New Housing.

Appliance Stock Submodule

The installed stock of appliances is also taken from the 2005 RECS. The efficiency of the appliance stock is derived from historical shipments by efficiency level over a multi-year interval for the following equipment: heat pumps, gas furnaces, central air conditioners, room air conditioners, water heaters, refrigerators, freezers, stoves, dishwashers, clothes washers, and clothes dryers. A linear retirement function with both minimum and maximum equipment lives is used to retire equipment in surviving housing units. For equipment where shipment data are available, the efficiency of the retiring equipment varies over the projection. In early years, the retiring efficiency tends to be lower as the older, less efficient equipment in the stock turns over first. Also, as housing units retire, the associated appliances are removed from the base appliance stock as well. Additions to the base stock are tracked separately for housing units existing in 2005 and for cumulative new construction.

As appliances are removed from the stock, they are replaced by new appliances with generally higher efficiencies due to technology improvements, equipment standards, and market forces. Appliances added due to new construction are accumulated and retired parallel to appliances in the existing stock. Appliance stocks are maintained by fuel, end use, and technology as shown in Table 2.

Technology Choice Submodule

Fuel-specific equipment choices are made for both new construction and replacement purchases. For new construction, initial heating system shares (taken from the most recently available Census Bureau survey data covering new construction, currently 2005) are adjusted

RDM Outputs	Inputs from NEMS	Exogenous Inputs
Energy demand by service and fuel type Changes in housing and appliance stocks Appliance stock efficiency	Energy product prices Housing starts Population	Current housing stocks and retirement rates Current appliance stocks and life expectancy New appliance types, efficiences, and costs Housing shell retrofit indices Unit energy consumption Square footage

Figure 5. Residential Demand Module Structure

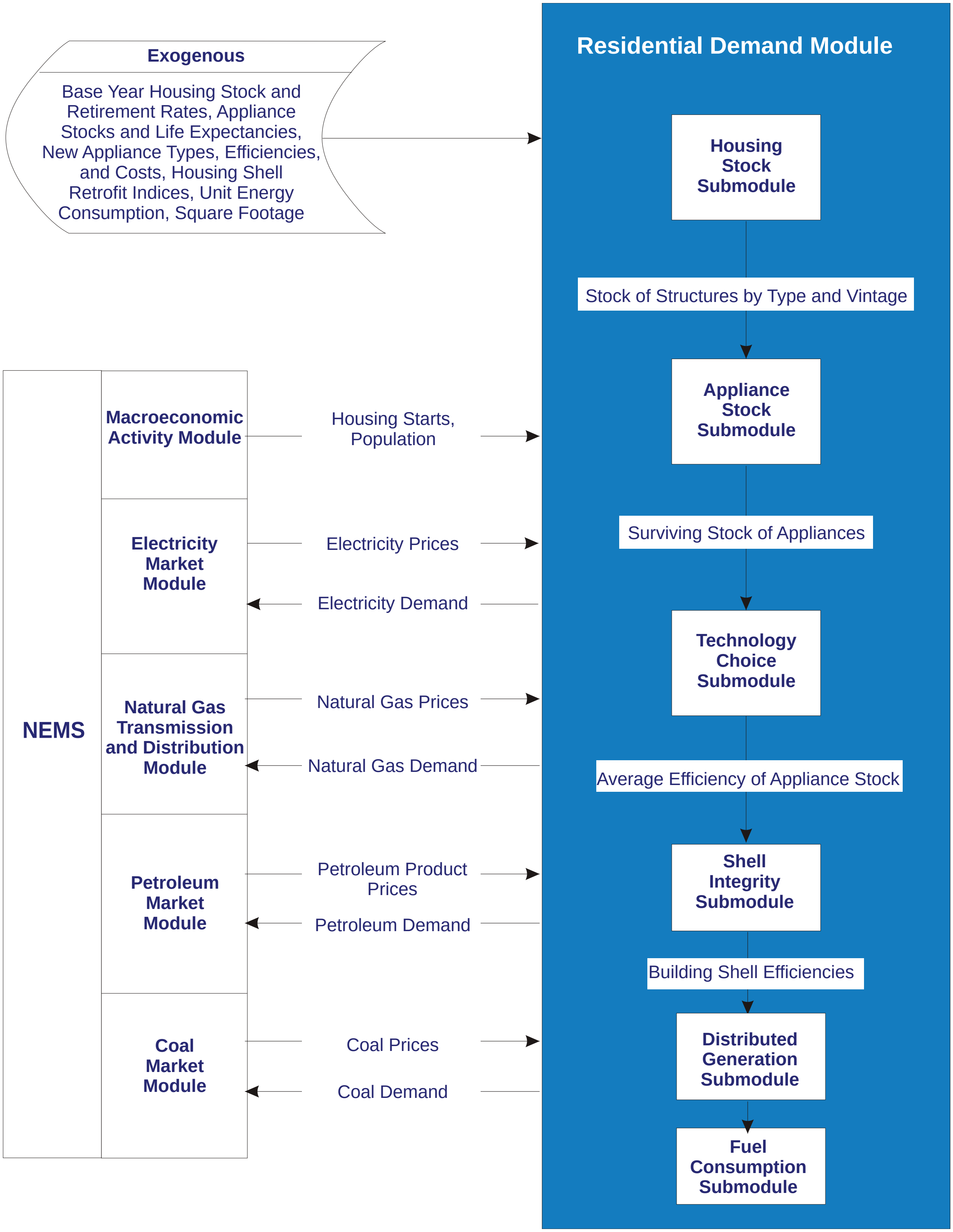


Table 2. NEMS Residential Module Equipment Summary

Space Heating Equipment: electric furnace, electric air-source heat pump, natural gas furnace, natural gas hydronic, kerosene furnace, liquefied petroleum gas, distillate furnace, distillate hydronic, wood stove, ground-source heat pump, natural gas heat pump.
Space Cooling Equipment: room air conditioner, central air conditioner, electric air-source heat pump, ground-source heat pump, natural gas heat pump.
Water Heaters: solar, natural gas, electric distiallate, liquefied petroleum gas.
Refrigerators: 18 cubic foot top-mounted freezer, 25 cubic foot side-by-side with through-the-door features.
Freezers: chest - manual defrost, upright - manual defrost.
Lighting: incandescent, compact fluorescent, LED, halogen, linear fluoresent.
Clothes Dryers: natural gas, electric.
Cooking: natural gas, electric, liquefied petroleum gas.
Dishwashers
Clothes Washers
Fuel Cells
Solar Photovoltaic
Wind

based on relative life cycle costs for all competing technology and fuel combinations. Once new home heating system shares are established, the fuel choices for other services, such as water heating and cooking, are determined based on the fuel chosen for space heating. For replacement purchases, fuel switching is allowed for an assumed percentage of all replacements but is dependent on the estimated costs of fuel-switching (for example, switching from electric to gas heating is assumed to involve the costs of running a new gas line).

For both replacement equipment and new construction, a "second-stage" of the equipment choice decision requires selecting from several available efficiency levels. The efficiency range of available equipment represents a "menu" of efficiency levels and installed cost combinations projected to be available at the time the choice is being made. Costs and efficiencies for selected appliances are shown in Table 3, derived from the report Assumptions to the *Annual Energy Outlook 2009*.[12] At the low end of the efficiency range are the minimum levels required by legislated standards. In any given year, higher efficiency levels are associated with higher installed costs. Thus, purchasing higher than the minimum efficiency involves a trade-off between higher installation costs and future savings in energy expenditures. In RDM, these trade-offs are calibrated to recent shipment, cost, and efficiency data. Changes in purchases by efficiency level are based on changes in either the installed capital costs or changes in the first-year operating costs across the available efficiency levels. As energy prices increase, the incentive of greater energy expenditures savings will promote increased purchases of higher-efficiency equipment. In some cases, due to government programs or general projections of technology improvement, increases in efficiency or decreases in the installed costs of higher-efficiency equipment will also promote purchases of higher-efficiency equipment.

Shell Integrity Submodule

Shell integrity is also tracked separately for the existing housing stock and new construction. Shell integrity for existing construction is assumed to respond to increases in real energy prices by becoming more efficient. There is no change in existing shell integrity when real energy prices decline. New shell efficiencies are based on the cost and performance of the heating and cooling equipment as well as the shell characteristics. Several efficiency levels of shell characteristics are available throughout the projection period and can change over time based on changes in building codes. All shell efficiencies are subject to a maximum shell efficiency based on studies of currently available residential construction methods.

Distributed Generation Submodule

Distributed generation equipment with explicit technology characterizations is also modeled for residential customers. Currently, three technologies are characterized, photovoltaics, wind, and fuel cells. The submodule incorporates historical estimates of photovoltaics (residential-sized fuel cells are not expected to be commercialized until after 2005, the base year of the model) from its technology characterization and exogenous penetration input file. Program-based photovoltaic

12 Energy Information Administration, Assumptions to the Annual Energy Outlook 2009, http://www.eia.doe.gov/oiaf/aeo/assumption/pdf/0554(2009).pdf (Washington, DC, March 2009).

estimates for the Department of Energy's Million Solar Roofs program are also input to the submodule from the exogenous penetration portion of the input file. Endogenous, economic purchases are based on a penetration function driven by a cash flow model that simulates the costs and benefits of distributed generation purchases. The cash flow calculations are developed from NEMS projected energy prices coupled with the technology characterizations provided from the input file.

Potential economic purchases are modeled by Census division and technology for all years subsequent to the base year. The cash flow model develops a 30-year cost-benefit horizon for each potential investment. It includes considerations of annual costs (down payments, loan payments, maintenance costs and, for fuel cells, gas costs) and annual benefits (interest tax deductions, any applicable tax credits, electricity cost savings, and water heating savings for fuel cells) over the entire 30-year period. Penetration for a potential investment in either photovoltaics, wind, or fuel cells is a function of whether it achieves a cumulative positive discounted cash flow, and if so, how many years it takes to achieve it.

Once the cumulative stock of distributed equipment is projected, reduced residential purchases of electricity are provided to NEMS. For fuel cells, increased residential natural gas consumption is also provided to NEMS based on the calculated energy input requirements of the fuel cells, partially offset by natural gas water heating savings from the use of waste heat from the fuel cell.

Energy Consumption Submodule

The fuel consumption submodule modifies base year energy consumption intensities in each projection year. Base year energy consumption for each end use is derived from energy intensity estimates from the 2005 RECS. The base year energy intensities are modified for the following effects: (1) increases in efficiency, based on a comparison of the appliance stock serving this end use relative to the base year stock, (2) changes in shell integrity for space heating and cooling end uses, (3) changes in real fuel prices—(short-run price elasticity effects), (4) changes in square footage, (5) changes in the number of occupants per household, (6) changes in disposable income, (7) changes in weather relative to the base year, (8) adjustments in utilization rates caused by efficiency increases (efficiency "rebound" effects), and (9) reductions in purchased electricity and increases in natural gas consumption from distributed generation. Once these modifications are made, total energy use is computed across end uses and housing types and then summed by fuel for each Census division.

Table 3. Characteristics of Selected Equipment

Equipment Type	Relative Performance[1]	2007 Installed Cost ($2007)[2]	Efficiency[3]	2020 Installed Cost ($2007)[2]	Efficiency[3]	Approximate Hurdle Rate
Electric Heat Pump	Minimum	$3,800	13.0	$3,800	13.0	15%
	Best	$6,700	17.0	$6,700	20.0	
Natural Gas Furnace	Minimum	$1,900	0.80	$1,900	0.80	15%
	Best	$3,050	0.96	$2,700	0.96	
Room Air Conditioner	Minimum	$310	9.8	$310	9.8	140%
	Best	$925	11.7	$875	12.0	
Central Air Conditioner	Minimum	$3,000	13.0	$3,000	13.0	15%
	Best	$5,700	21.0	$5,750	23.0	
Refrigerator (23.9 cubic ft in adjusted volume)	Minimum	$550	510	$550	510	19%
	Best	$950	417	$1000	417	
Electric Water Heater	Minimum	$400	0.90	$400	0.90	30%
	Best	$1,400	2.4	$1,700	2.4	

[1]Minimum performance refers to the lowest efficiency equipment available. Best refers to the highest efficiency equipment available.

[2]Installed costs are given in 2007 dollars in the original source document.

[3]Efficiency measurements vary by equipment type. Electric heat pumps and central air conditioners are rated for cooling performance using the Seasonal Energy Efficiency Ratio (SEER); natural gas furnaces are based on Annual Fuel Utilization Efficiency; room air conditioners are based on Energy Efficiency Ratio (EER); refrigerators are based on kilowatt-hours per year; and water heaters are based on Energy Factor (delivered Btu divided by input Btu).

Source: Navigant Consulting, *EIA Technology Forecast Updates-Residential and Commercial Buildings Technologies*, September 2007.

Commercial Demand Module

Commercial Demand Module

The commercial demand module (CDM) projects energy consumption by Census division for eight marketed energy sources plus solar, wind, and geothermal energy. For the three major commercial sector fuels, electricity, natural gas and distillate oil, CDM is a structural model and the projections are built up from the stock of commercial floorspace and energy-consuming equipment. For the remaining five marketed minor fuels, simple econometric projections are made.

The commercial sector encompasses business establishments that are not engaged in industrial or transportation activities. Commercial sector energy is consumed mainly in buildings, except for a relatively small amount for services such as street lights and water supply. CDM incorporates the effects of four broadly-defined determinants of energy consumption: economic and demographics, structural, technology turnover and change, and energy markets. Demographic effects include total floorspace, building type and location. Structural effects include changes in the mix of desired end-use services provided by energy (such as the penetration of telecommunications equipment, personal computers and other office equipment). Technology effects include changes in the stock of installed equipment caused by the normal turnover of old, worn out equipment to newer versions that tend to be more energy efficient, the integrated effects of equipment and building shell (insulation level) in new construction, and the projected availability of equipment with even greater energy-efficiency. Energy market effects include the short-run effects of energy prices on energy demands, the longer-run effects of energy prices on the efficiency of purchased equipment, and limitations on minimum levels of efficiency imposed by legislated efficiency standards. The model structure carries out a sequence of five basic steps, as shown in Figure 6. The first step is to project commercial sector floorspace. The second step is to project the energy services (space heating, lighting, etc.) required by the projected floorspace. The third step is to project the electricity generation and water and space heating supplied by distributed generation and combined heat and power (CHP) technologies. The fourth step is to select specific technologies (natural gas furnaces, fluorescent lights, etc.) to meet the demand for energy services. The last step is to determine how much energy will be consumed by the equipment chosen to meet the demand for energy services.

Floorspace Submodule

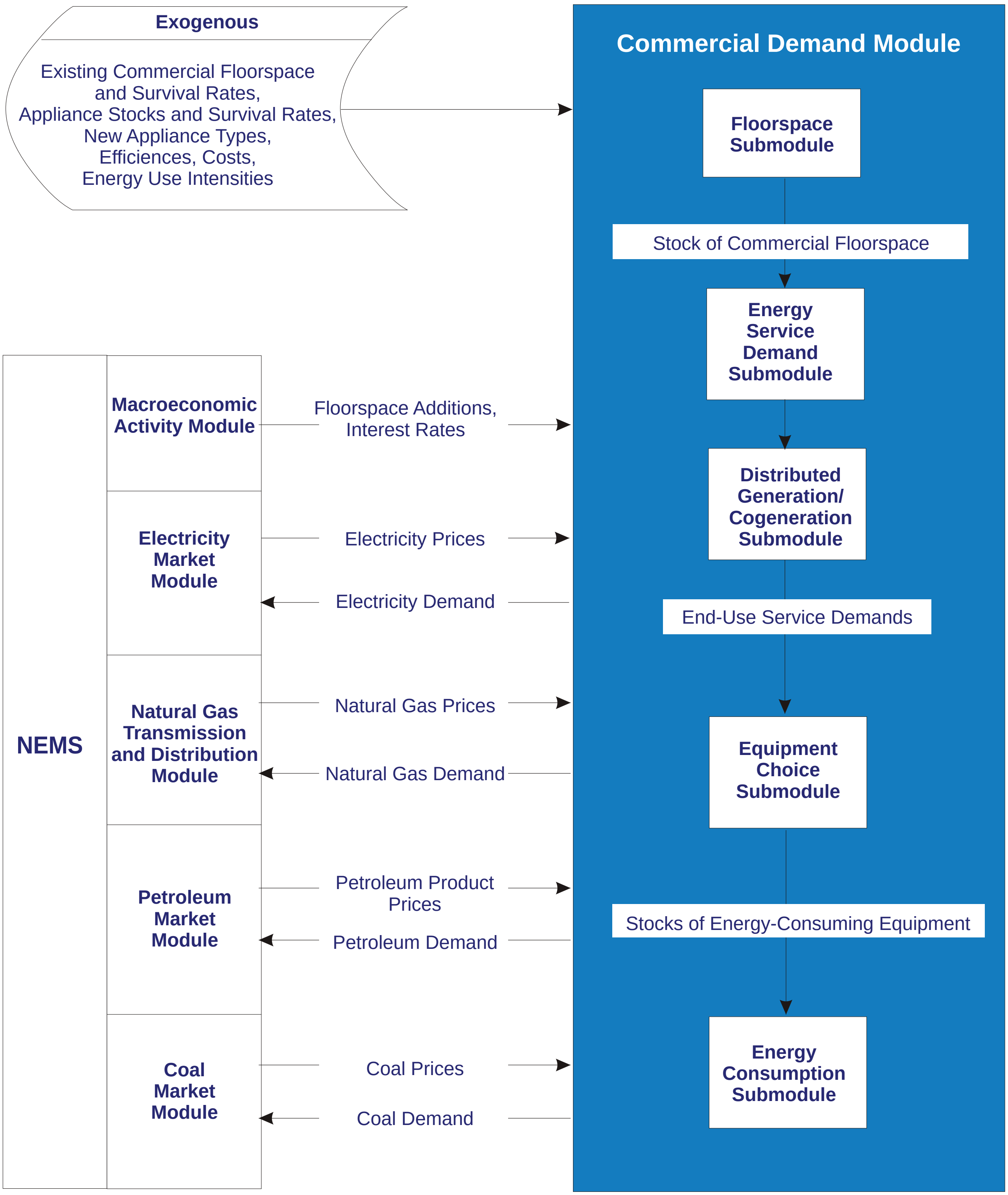
The base stock of commercial floorspace by Census division and building type is derived from EIA's 2003 Commercial Buildings Energy Consumption Survey (CBECS). CDM receives projections of total floorspace by building type and Census division from the macroeconomic activity module (MAM) based on IHS Global Insight, Inc. definitions of the commercial sector. These projections embody both economic and demographic effects on commercial floorspace. Since the definition of commercial floorspace from IHS Global Insight, Inc. is not calibrated to CBECS, CDM estimates the surviving floorspace from the previous year and then calibrates its new construction so that growth in total floorspace matches that from MAM by building type and Census division.

CDM models commercial floorspace for the following 11 building types:

- Assembly
- Education
- Food sales
- Food service
- Health care
- Lodging
- Office-large
- Office-small
- Mercantile and service
- Warehouse
- Other

CDM Outputs	Inputs from NEMS	Exogenous Inputs
Energy demand by service and fuel type Changes in floorspace and appliance stocks	Energy product prices Interest rates Floorspace growth	Existing commercial floorspace Floorspace survival rates Appliance stocks and survival New appliance types, efficiencies, costs Energy use intensities

Figure 6. Commercial Demand Module Structure



Commercial Demand Module

Energy Service Demand Submodule

Energy consumption is derived from the demand for energy services. So the next step is to project energy service demands for the projected floorspace. CDM models service demands for the following ten end-use services:

- Heating
- Cooling
- Ventilation
- Water heating
- Lighting
- Cooking
- Refrigeration
- Office equipment personal computer
- Office equipment other
- Other end uses.

Different building types require unique combinations of energy services. A hospital must have more light than a warehouse. An office building in the Northeast requires more heating than one in the South. Total service demand for any service depends on the floorspace, type, and location of buildings. Base service demand by end use by building type and Census division is derived from estimates developed from CBECS energy consumption data. Projected service demands are adjusted for trends in new construction based on CBECS data concerning recent construction.

Distributed Generation and CHP Submodule

Commercial consumers may decide to purchase equipment to generate electricity (and perhaps provide heat as well) rather than depend on purchased electricity to fulfill all of their electric power requirements. The third step of the commercial module structure is to project electricity generation, fuel consumption, water heating, and space heating supplied by eleven distributed generation and CHP technologies. The technologies characterized include: photovoltaic solar systems, wind turbines, natural gas fuel cells, reciprocating engines, turbines and microturbines, diesel engine, coal-fired CHP, and municipal solid waste, wood, and hydroelectric generators.

Existing electricity generation by CHP technologies is derived from historical data contained in the most recent year's version of Form EIA-860, Annual Electric Generator Report. The estimated units form the installed base of CHP equipment that is carried forward into future years and supplemented with any additions. Proven installations of solar photovoltaic systems, wind turbines and fuel cells are also included based on information from the Departments of Energy and Defense. For years following the base year, an endogenous projection of distributed generation and CHP is developed based on the economic returns projected for distributed generation technologies. A detailed discounted cash-flow approach is used to estimate the internal rate of return for an investment. The calculations include the annual costs (down payments, loan payments, maintenance costs, and fuel costs) and returns (tax deductions, tax credits, and energy cost savings) from the investment covering a 30-year period from the time of the investment decision. Penetration of these technologies is a function of how quickly an investment in a technology is estimated to recoup its flow of costs. In terms of NEMS projections, investments in distributed generation reduce purchases of electricity. Fuel consuming technologies also generate waste heat that is assumed to be partially captured and used to offset commercial water heating and space heating energy use.

Equipment Choice Submodule

Once service demands are projected, the next step is to define the type and efficiency of equipment that will be used to satisfy the demands. The bulk of equipment required to meet service demand will carry over from the equipment stock of the previous model year. However, equipment must always be purchased to satisfy service demand for new construction. It must also be purchased to replace equipment that has either worn out (replacement equipment) or reached the end of its economically useful life (retrofit equipment). For required equipment replacements, CDM uses a constant decay rate based on equipment life. A technology will be retrofitted only if the combined annual operating and maintenance costs plus annualized capital costs of a potential technology are lower than the annual operating and maintenance costs of an existing technology.

Equipment choices are made based on a comparison of annualized capital and operating and maintenance costs across all allowable equipment for a particular end-use service. In order to add inertia to the equipment choices, only subsets of the total menu of potentially available equipment may be allowed for defined market segments. For example, only 7 percent of floorspace in large office buildings may consider all available equipment using any fuel or technology when making space heating equipment replacement decisions. A second segment equal to 31 percent of floorspace, must select from technologies using the same fuel as already installed. A third segment, the remaining 62 percent of floorspace, is constrained to consider only different efficiency levels of the same fuel and technology already installed. For lighting and refrigeration, all replacement choices are limited to the same technology class, where technologies are broadly defined to encompass the principal competing technologies for a particular application. For example, a commercial ice maker may replace another ice maker, but may not replace a refrigerated vending machine.

When computing annualized costs to determine equipment choices, commercial floorspace is segmented by what are referred to as hurdle rates or implicit discount rates (to distinguish them from the generally lower and more common notion of financial discount rates). Seven segments are used to simulate consumer behavior when purchasing commercial equipment. The segments range from rates as low as the 10-year Treasury bond rate to rates high enough to guarantee that only equipment with the lowest capital cost (and least efficiency) is chosen. As real energy prices increase (decrease) there is an incentive for all but the highest implicit discount rate segments to purchase increased (decreased) levels of efficiency.

The equipment choice submodule is designed to choose among a discrete set of technologies that are characterized by a menu which defines availability, capital costs, maintenance costs, efficiencies, and equipment life. Technology characteristics for selected space heating equipment are shown Table 4, derived from the report *Assumptions to the Annual Energy Outlook 2009*.[13] This menu of equipment includes technological innovation, market developments, and policy interventions. For the *AEO2009*, the technology types that are included for seven of the ten service demand categories are listed in Table 5.

The remaining three end-use services (PC-related office equipment, other office equipment, and other end uses) are considered minor services and are projected using exogenous equipment efficiency and market penetration trends.

Energy Consumption Submodule

Once the required equipment choices have been made, the total stock and efficiency of equipment for a particular end use are determined. Energy consumption by fuel can be calculated from the amount of service demand satisfied by each technology and the corresponding efficiency of the technology. At this stage, adjustments to energy consumption are also made. These include adjustments for changes in real energy prices (short-run price elasticity effects), adjustments in utilization rates caused by efficiency increases (efficiency rebound effects), and changes for weather relative to the CBECS survey year. Once these modifications are made, total energy use is computed across end uses and building types for the three major fuels, for each Census division. Combining these projections with the econometric/trend projections for the five minor fuels yields total projected commercial energy consumption.

13 Energy Information Administration, *Assumptions to the Annual Energy Outlook 2009*, http://www.eia.doe.gov/oiaf/aeo/assumption/pdf/0554(2009).pdf (Washington, DC, March 2009)

Table 4. Capital Cost and Efficiency Ratings of Selected Commercial Space Heating Equipment[1]

Equipment Type	Vintage	Efficiency[2]	Capital Cost ($2007 per Mbtu/hour) [3]	Maintenance Cost ($2007 per Mbtu/hour) [3]	Service Life (Years)
Electric Rooftop Heat Pump	2007- typical	3.2	$72.78	$1.39	15
	2007- high efficiency	3.4	$96.67	$1.39	15
	2010 - typical (standard)	3.3	$76.67	$1.39	15
	2010 - high efficiency	3.4	$96.67	$1.39	15
	2020 - typical	3.3	$76.67	$1.39	15
	2020 - high efficiency	3.4	$96.67	$1.39	15
Ground-Source Heat Pump	2007 - typical	3.5	$140.00	$16.80	20
	2007 - high efficiency	4.9	$170.00	$16.80	20
	2010 - typical	3.5	$140.00	$16.80	20
	2010 - high efficiency	4.9	$170.00	$16.80	20
	2020 - typical	4.0	$140.00	$16.80	20
	2020 - high efficiency	4.9	$170.00	$16.80	20
Electric Boiler	Current typical	0.98	$17.53	$0.58	21
Packaged Electric	Typical	0.96	$16.87	$3.95	18
Natural Gas Furnace	Current Standard	0.80	$9.35	$0.97	20
	2007 - high efficiency	0.82	$9.90	$0.94	20
	2020 - typical	0.81	$9.23	$0.96	20
	2020 - high efficiency	0.90	$11.57	$0.86	20
	2030 - typical	0.82	$9.12	$0.94	20
	2030 - high efficiency	0.91	$11.44	$0.85	20
Natural Gas Boiler	Current Standard	0.80	$22.42	$0.50	25
	2007 - mid efficiency	0.85	$25.57	$0.47	25
	2007 - high efficiency	0.96	$39.96	$0.52	25
	2020 - typical	0.82	$21.84	$0.49	25
Natural Gas Heat Pump	2007 - absorption	1.4	$158.33	$2.50	15
	2010 - absorption	1.4	$158.33	$2.50	15
	2020 - absorption	1.4	$158.33	$2.50	15
Distillate Oil Furnace	Current Standard	0.81	$11.14	$0.96	20
	2020 - typical	0.81	$11.14	$0.96	20
Distillate Oil Boiler	Current Standard	0.83	$17.63	$0.15	20
	2007 - high efficiency	0.89	$19.84	$0.14	20
	2020 - typical	0.83	$17.63	$015	20

[1]Equipment listed is for the New England Census division, but is also representative of the technology data for the rest of the U.S. See the source referenced below for the complete set of technology data.·

[2]Efficiency measurements vary by equipment type. Electric rooftop air-source heat pumps, ground source and natural gas heat pumps are rated for heating performance using coefficient of performance; natural gas and distillate furnaces are based on Thermal Efficiency; and boilers are based on combustion efficiency.

[3]Capital and maintenance costs are given in 2007 dollars.

Source: Energy Information Administration, “EIA - Technology Forecast Updates - Residential and Commercial Building Technologies - Reference Case Second Edition (Revised)”, Navigant Consulting, Inc., Reference Number 20070831.1, September 2007.

Table 5. Commercial End-Use Technology Types

End-Use Service by Fuel	Technology Types
Electric Space Heating	air-source heat pump, ground-source heat pump, boiler, packaged space heating
Natural Gas Space Heating	boiler, furnace, absorption heat pump
Fuel Oil Space Heating	boiler, furnace
Electric Space Cooling	air-source heat pump, ground-source heat pump, reciprocating chiller, centrifugal chiller, screw chiller, scroll chiller, rooftop air conditioner, residential style central air conditioner, window unit
Natural Gas Space Cooling	absorption chiller, engine-driven chiller, rooftop air conditioner, engine-driven heat pump, absorption heat pump
Electric Water Heating	electric resistance, heat pump water heater, solar water heater with electric back-up
Natural Gas Water Heating	natural gas water heater
Fuel Oil Water Heating	fuel oil water heater
Ventilation	constant air volume (CAV) system, variable air volume (VAV) system
Electric Cooking	range/oven/griddle, induction range/oven/griddle
Natural Gas Cooking	range/oven/griddle, power burner range/oven/griddle
Incandescent Style Lighting	incandescent, compact fluorescent, halogen, halogen-infrared, light emitting diode (LED)
Four-foot Fluorescent Lighting	magnetic ballast, electronic ballast-T8 electronic w/controls, electronic w/reflectors, electronic ballast-T5, electronic ballast-super T8, LED,
Eight-foot Fluorescent Lighting	magnetic ballast, electronic ballast, electronic-high output, LED
High Intensity-Discharge Lighting	metal halide, mercury vapor, high pressure sodium, electronic-T8 high output, electronic-T5 high output, LED
Refrigeration	supermarket compressor rack, suupermarket condenser, supermarket display case, walk-in cooler, walk-in freezer, reach-in refrigerator, reach-in freezer, ice machine, beverage merchandiser, refrigerated vending machine

Industrial Demand Module

Industrial Demand Module

The Industrial Demand Module (IDM) projects energy consumption for fuels and feedstocks for fifteen manufacturing industries and six nonmanufacturing industries, subject to delivered prices of energy and macroeconomic variables representing the value of shipments for each industry. The module includes electricity generated through Combined Heat and Power (CHP) systems that is either used in the industrial sector or sold to the electricity grid. The IDM structure is shown in Figure 7.

Industrial energy demand is projected as a combination of "bottom up" characterizations of the energy-using technology and "top down" econometric estimates of behavior. The influence of energy prices on industrial energy consumption is modeled in terms of the efficiency of use of existing capital, the efficiency of new capital acquisitions, and the mix of fuels utilized, given existing capital stocks. Energy conservation from technological change is represented over time by trend-based "technology possibility curves." These curves represent the aggregate efficiency of all new technologies that are likely to penetrate the future markets as well as the aggregate improvement in efficiency of 2002 technology.

IDM incorporates three major industry categories: energy-intensive manufacturing industries, non-energy-intensive manufacturing industries, and nonmanufacturing industries (see Table 6). The level and type of modeling and detail is different for each. Manufacturing disaggregation is at the 3-digit North American Industrial Classification System (NAICS) level, with some further disaggregation of large and energy-intensive industries. Detailed industries include food, paper, chemicals, glass, cement, steel, and aluminum. Energy product demands are calculated independently for each industry.

Each industry is modeled (where appropriate) as three interrelated components: buildings (BLD), boilers/steam/cogeneration (BSC), and process/assembly (PA) activities. Buildings are estimated to account for 4 percent of energy consumption in manufacturing industries (in nonmanufacturing industries, building energy consumption is not currently calculated).

Table 6. Economic Subsectors Within the IDM

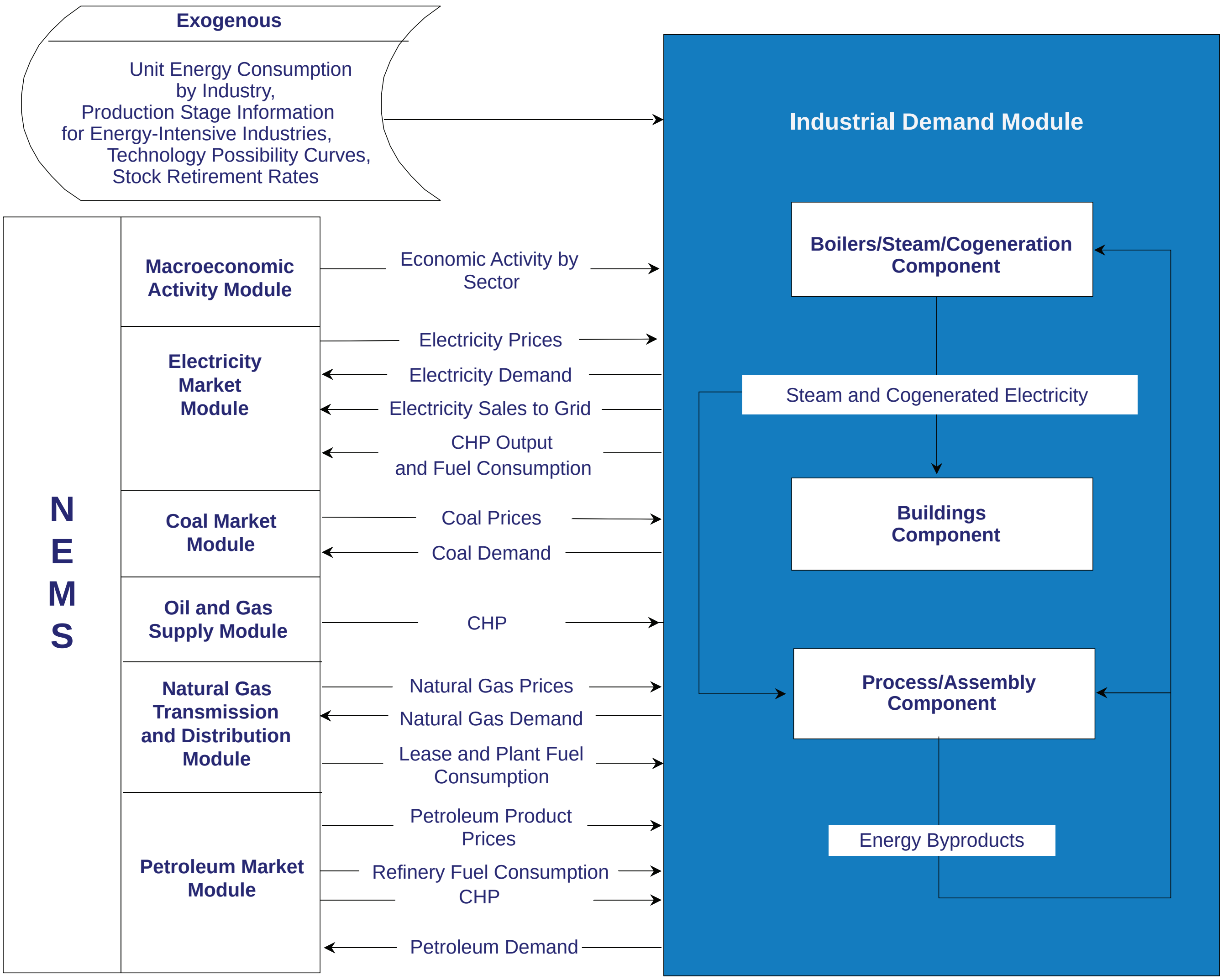
Energy-Intensive Manufacturing	**Nonmanufacturing Industries**
Food and Kindred Products (NAICS 311)	Agricultural Production - Crops (NAICS 111)
Paper and Allied Products (NAICS 322)	Other Agriculture including Livestock (NAICS 112-115)
Bulk Chemicals (NAICS 325)	Coal Mining (NAICS 2121)
Glass and Glass Products (NAICS 3272)	Oil and Gas Extraction (NAICS 211)
Hydraulic Cement (NAICS 32731)	Metal and Other Nonmetallic Mining (NAICS 2122-2123)
Blast Furnaces and Basic Steel (NAICS 331111)	Construction (NAICS 233-235)
Aluminum (NAICS 3313)	
Nonenergy-Intensive Manufacturing	
Metals-Based Durables (NAICS 332-336)	
Other Manufacturing (all remaining manufacturing NAICS)	

NAICS = North American Industry Classification System

Consequently, IDM uses a simple modeling approach for the BLD component. Energy consumption in industrial buildings is assumed to grow at the same rate as the average growth rate of employment and output in that industry. The BSC component consumes energy to meet the steam demands from and provide internally generated electricity to the other two components. The boiler component consumes by-product fuels and fossil fuels to produce steam, which is passed to the PA and BLD components.

IDM Outputs	Inputs from NEMS	Exogenous Inputs
Energy demand by service and fuel type Electricity sales to grid Cogeneration output and fuel consumption	Energy product prices Economic output by industry Refinery fuel consumption Lease and plant fuel consumption Cogeneration from refineries and oil and gas production	Production stages in energy-intensive industries Technology possibility curves Unit energy consumption of outputs Capital stock retirement rates

Figure 7. Industrial Demand Module Structure



IDM models "traditional" CHP based on steam demand from the BLD and the PA components. The "non-traditional" CHP units are represented in the electricity market module since these units are mainly grid-serving, electricity-price-driven entities.

CHP capacity, generation, and fuel use are calculated from exogenous data on existing and planned capacity additions and new additions determined from an engineering and economic evaluation. Existing CHP capacity and planned additions are derived from Form EIA-860, "Annual Electric Generator Report," formerly Form EIA-867, "Annual Nonutility Power Producer Report." Existing CHP capacity is assumed to remain in service throughout the projection or, equivalently, to be refurbished or replaced with similar units of equal capacity.

Calculation of unplanned CHP capacity additions begins in 2009. Modeling of unplanned capacity additions is done in two parts: biomass-fueled and fossil-fueled. Biomass CHP capacity is assumed to be added to the extent possible as additional biomass waste products are produced, primarily in the pulp and paper industry. The amount of biomass CHP capacity added is equal to the quantity of new biomass available (in Btu), divided by the total heat rate from biomass steam turbine CHP.

Table 7. Fuel-Consuming Activities for the Energy-Intensive Manufacturing Subsectors

End Use Characterization
Food: direct fuel, hot water/steam, refrigeration, and other energy uses.
Bulk Chemicals: direct fuel, hot water/steam, electrotytic, and other energy uses.
Process Step characterization
Pulp and Paper: wood preparation, waste pulping, mechanical pulping, semi-chemical pulping, kraft pulping, bleaching, and paper making.
Glass: batch preparation, melting/refining, and forming.
Cement: dry process clinker, wet process clinker, and finish grinding.
Steel: coke oven, open hearth steel making, basic oxygen furnace steel making, electric arc furnace steel making, ingot casting, continuous casting, hot rolling, and cold rolling.
Aluminum: primary and secondary (scrap) aluminum smelting, semi-fabrication (e.g. sheet, wire, etc.).

It is assumed that the technical potential for fossil-fuel source CHP is based primarily on supplying thermal requirements. First, the model assesses the amount of capacity that could be added to generate the industrial steam requirements not met by existing CHP. The second step is an economic evaluation of gas turbine prototypes for each steam load segment. Finally, CHP additions are projected based on a range of acceptable payback periods.

The PA component accounts for the largest share of direct energy consumption for heat and power, 55 percent. For the seven most energy-intensive industries, process steps or end uses are modeled using engineering concepts. The production process is decomposed into the major steps, and the energy relationships among the steps are specified.

The energy intensities of the process steps or end uses vary over time, both for existing technology and for technologies expected to be adopted in the future. In IDM, this variation is based on engineering judgement and is reflected in the parameters of technology possibility curves, which show the declining energy intensity of existing and new capital relative to the 2002 stock.

IDM uses "technology bundles" to characterize technological change in the energy-intensive industries. These bundles are defined for each production process step for five of the industries and for end uses in the remaining two energy-intensive industries. The process step industries are pulp and paper, glass, cement, steel, and aluminum. The end-use industries are food and bulk chemicals (see Table 7).

Machine drive electricity consumption in the food, bulk chemicals, metal-based durables, and balance of manufacturing sectors is calculated by a motor stock model. The beginning stock of motors is modified over the projection horizon as motors are added to accommodate growth in shipments for each sector, as motors are retired and replaced, and as failed motors are rewound. When a new motor is added, either to accommodate growth or as a replacement, an economic choice is made between purchasing a motor that meets the EPACT minimum for efficiency or a premium efficiency motor. There are seven motor size groups in each of the four industries. The EPACT efficiency standards only apply to the five smallest groups (up to 200 horsepower). As the motor stock changes over the projection horizon, the overall efficiency of the motor population changes as well.

The Unit Energy Consumption (UEC) is defined as the energy use per ton of throughput at a process step or as energy use per dollar of shipments for the end-use industries. The "Existing UEC" is the current average installed intensity as of 2002. The "New 2002 UEC" is the intensity assumed to prevail for a new installation in 2002. Similarly, the "New 2030 UEC" is the intensity expected to prevail for a new installation in 2030. For intervening years, the intensity is interpolated.

The rate at which the average intensity declines is determined by the rate and timing of new additions to capacity. In IDM, the rate and timing of new additions are functions of retirement rates and industry growth rates.

IDM uses a vintaged capital stock accounting framework that models energy use in new additions to the stock and in the existing stock. This capital stock is represented as the aggregate vintage of all plants built within an industry and does not imply the inclusion of specific technologies or capital equipment.

The capital stock is grouped into three vintages: old, middle, and new. The old vintage consists of capital in production prior to 2002, which is assumed to retire at a fixed rate each year. Middle-vintage capital is that added after 2002. New production capacity is built in the projection years when the capacity of the existing stock of capital in

IDM cannot produce the output projected by the NEMS regional submodule of the macroeconomic activity module. Capital additions during the projection horizon are retired in subsequent years at the same rate as the pre-2002 capital stock.

The energy-intensive and/or large energy-consuming industries are modeled with a structure that explicitly describes the major process flows or “stages of production” in the industry (some industries have major consuming uses).

Technology penetration at the level of major processes in each industry is based on a technology penetration curve relationship. A second relationship can provide additional energy conservation resulting from increases in relative energy prices. Major process choices (where applicable) are determined by industry production, specific process flows, and exogenous assumptions.

Recycling, waste products, and byproduct consumption are modeled using parameters based on off-line analysis and assumptions about the manufacturing processes or technologies applied within industry. These analyses and assumptions are mainly based upon environmental regulations such as government requirements about the share of recycled paper used in offices. IDM also accounts for trends within industry toward the production of more specialized products such as specialized steel which can be produced using scrap material versus raw iron ore.

Transportation Demand Module

Transportation Demand Module

The transportation demand module (TRAN) projects the consumption of transportation sector fuels by transportation mode, including the use of renewables and alternative fuels, subject to delivered prices of energy and macroeconomic variables, including disposable personal income, gross domestic product, level of imports and exports, industrial output, new car and light truck sales, and population. The structure of the module is shown in Figure 8.

Projections of future fuel prices influence fuel efficiency, vehicle-miles traveled, and alternative-fuel vehicle (AFV) market penetration for the current fleet of vehicles. Alternative-fuel vehicle shares are projected on the basis of a multinomial logit model, subject to State and Federal government mandates for minimum AFV sales volumes.

Fuel Economy Submodule

This submodule projects new light-duty vehicle fuel economy by 12 U.S. Environmental Protection Agency (EPA) vehicle size classes and 16 propulsion technologies (gasoline, diesel, and 14 AFV technologies) as a function of energy prices and income-related variables. There are 61 fuel-saving technologies which vary in cost and marginal fuel savings by size class. Characteristics of a sample of these technologies are shown in Table 8, a complete list is published in Assumptions to the Annual Energy Outlook 2009.[14] Technologies penetrate the market based on a cost-effectiveness algorithm that compares the technology cost to the discounted stream of fuel savings and the value of performance to the consumer. In general, higher fuel prices lead to higher fuel efficiency estimates within each size class, a shift to a more fuel-efficient size class mix, and an increase in the rate at which alternative-fuel vehicles enter the marketplace.

Regional Sales Submodule

Vehicle sales from the MAM are divided into car and light truck sales. The remainder of the submodule is a simple accounting mechanism that uses endogenous estimates of new car and light truck sales and the historical regional vehicle sales adjusted for regional population trends to produce estimates of regional sales, which are subsequently passed to the alternative-fuel vehicle and the light-duty vehicle stock submodules.

Alternative-Fuel Vehicle Submodule

This submodule projects the sales shares of alternative-fuel technologies as a function of technology attributes, costs, and fuel prices. The alternative-fuel vehicles attributes are shown in Table 9, derived from *Assumptions to the Annual Energy Outlook 2009*. Both conventional and new technology vehicles are considered. The alternative-fuel vehicle submodule receives regional new car and light truck sales by size class from the regional sales submodule.

The projection of vehicle sales by technology utilizes a nested multinomial logit (NMNL) model that predicts sales shares based on relevant vehicle and fuel attributes. The nesting structure first predicts the probability of fuel choice for multi-fuel vechicles within a technology set. The second level nesting predicts penetration among similar technologies within a technology set (i.e. gasoline versus diesel hybrids). The third level choice determines market share among the the different technology sets.[15]

TRAN Outputs	Inputs from NEMS	Exogenous Inputs
Fuel demand by mode Sales, stocks, and characteristics of vehicle types by size class Vehicle-miles traveled Fuel economy by technology type Alternative-fuel vehicle sales by technology type Light-duty commercial fleet vehicle characteristics	Energy product prices Gross domestic product Disposable personal income Industrial output Vehicle sales International trade Natural gas pipeline Population	Existing vehicle stocks by vintage and fuel economy Vehicle survival rates New vehicle technology characteristics Fuel availability Commercial availability Vehicle safety and emissions reglations Vehicle miles-per-gallon degradation rates

14 Energy Information Administration, *Assumptions to the Annual Energy Outlook 2009* http://www.eia.doe.gov/oiaf/aeo/assumption/pdf/0554(2009) (Washington, DC, January 2009).

15 Greene, David L. and S.M. Chin, "Alternative Fuels and Vehicles (AFV) Model Changes," Center for Transportation Analysis, Oak Ridge National Laboratory, page 1, (Oak Ridge, TN, November 14, 2000).

Table 8. Selected Technology Characteristics for Automobiles

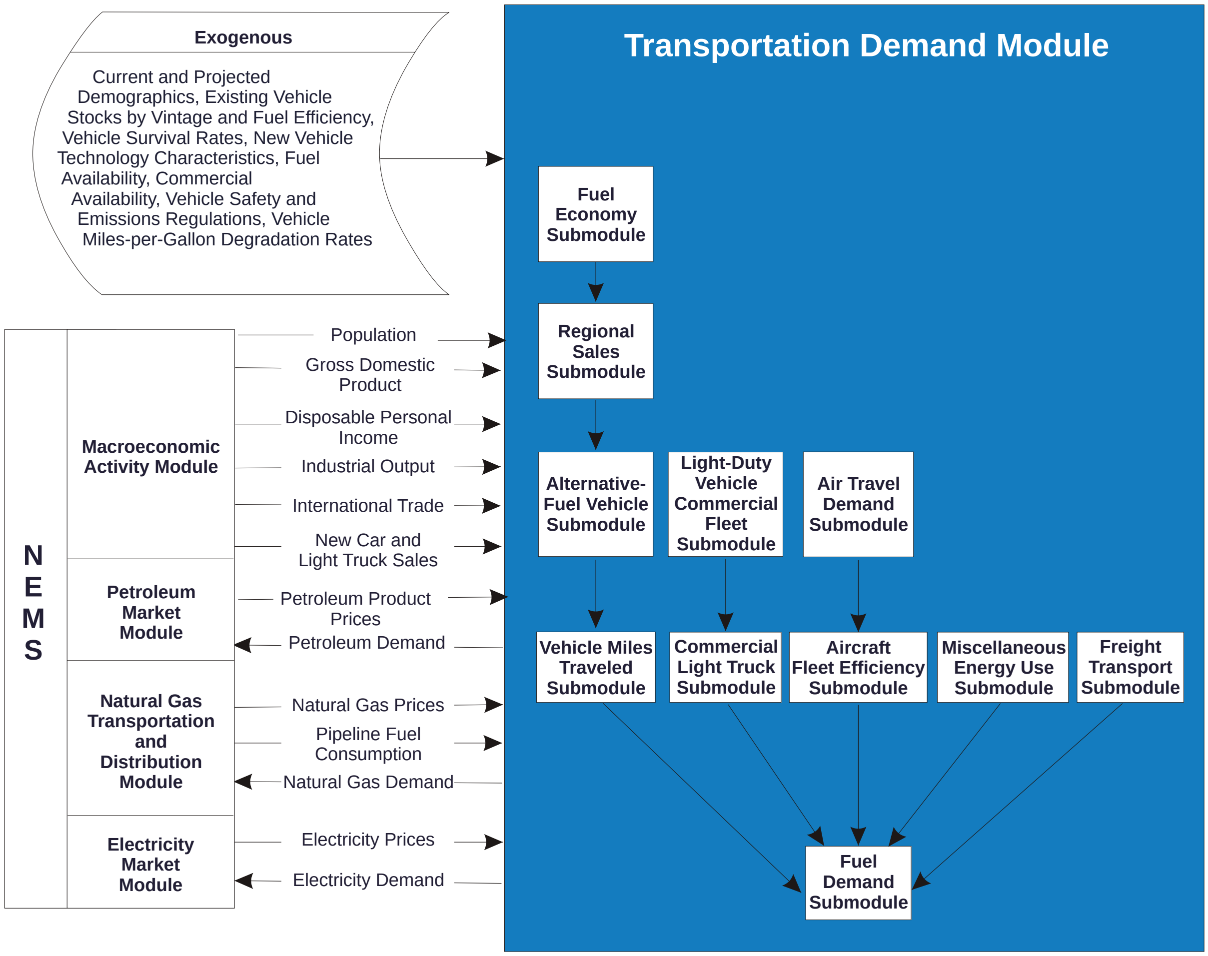
	Fractional Fuel Efficiency Change	First Year Introduced	Fractional Horsepower Change
Material Substitution IV	0.099	2006	0
Drag Reduction IV	0.042	2000	0
5-Speed Automatic	0.025	1995	0
CVT	0.052	1998	0
Automated Manual Trans	0.073	2004	0
VVL-6 Clinder	0.033	2000	0.10
Camless Valve Actuation 6 Cylinder	0.058	2020	0.13
Electric Power Steering	0.015	2004	0
42V-Launch Assist and Regen	0.075	2005	-0.05

Table 9. Examples of Midsize Automobile Attributes

	Year	Gasoline	TDI Diesel	Ethanol Flex	LPG Bi-Fuel	Electric Gasoline Hybrid	Fuel Cell Hydrogen
Vehicle Price (thousand 2007 dollars)	2006	28.0	29.8	28.7	33.3	31.1	78.6*
	2030	29.8	30.7	30.2	35.0	31.0	54.2
Vehicle Miles per Gallon	2006	29.5	39.8	29.9	29.6	42.7	53.3*
	2030	37.8	48.2	38.1	37.7	51.0	54.9
Vehicle Range (miles)	2006	521	704	381	417	652	594*
	2030	674	910	492	539	843	674

*First year of availability

Figure 8. Transportation Demand Module Structure



Alternative Fuel Vehicles

Ethanol flex-fueled
Ethanol neat (85 percent ethanol)
Compressed natural gas (CNG)
CNG bi-fuel
Liquefied petroleum gas (LPG)
LPG bi-fuel
Battery electric vehicle
Plug-in hybrid with 10 mile all electric range
Plug-in hybrid with 40 mile all electric range
Gasoline hybrid
Diesel Hybrid
Fuel cell gasoline
Fuel cell hydrogen
Fuel cell methanol

The technology sets include:

- Conventional fuel capable (gasoline, diesel, bi-fuel and flex-fuel),
- Hybrid (gasoline and diesel) and plug-in hybrid
- Dedicated alternative fuel (compressed natural gas (CNG), liquified petroleum gas (LPG), and ethanol),
- Fuel cell (gasoline, methanol, and hydrogen),
- Electric battery powered (nickel-metal hydride, lithium)

The vehicles attributes considered in the choice algorithm include: price, maintenance cost, battery replacement cost, range, multi-fuel capability, home refueling capability, fuel economy, acceleration and luggage space.

With the exception of maintenance cost, battery replacement cost, and luggage space, vehicle attributes are determined endogenously.[16] The fuel attributes used in market share estimation include availability and price. Vehicle attributes vary by six EPA size classes for cars and light trucks and fuel availability varies by Census division. The NMNL model coefficients were developed to reflect purchase preferences for cars and light trucks separately.

Light-Duty Vehicle (LDV) Stock Submodule

This submodule specifies the inventory of LDVs from year to year. Survival rates are applied to each vintage, and new vehicle sales are introduced into the vehicle stock through an accounting framework. The fleet of vehicles and their fuel efficiency characteristics are important to the translation of transportation services demand into fuel demand.

TRAN maintains a level of detail that includes twenty vintage classifications and six passenger car and six light truck size classes corresponding to EPA interior volume classifications for all vehicles less than 8,500 pounds, as follows:

Light Duty Vehicle Size Classes

Cars:
- Mini-compact - less than 85 cubic feet
- Subcompact - between 85 and 99 cubic feet
- Compact - between 100 and 109 cubic feet
- Mid-size - between 110 and 119 cubic feet
- Large - 120 or more cubic feet
- Two-seater - designed to seat two adults

Trucks:
- Small vans - gross vehicle weight rating (GVWR) less than 4,750 pounds
- Large vans - GVWR 4,750 to 8,500 pounds
- Small pickups - GVWR less than 4,750 pounds
- Large pickups - GVWR 4,750 to 8,500 pounds
- Small utility - GVWR less than 4,750 pounds
- Large utility - GVWR 4,750 to 8,500 pounds

Vehicle-Miles Traveled (VMT) Submodule

This submodule projects travel demand for automobiles and light trucks. VMT per capita estimates are based on the fuel cost of driving per mile and per capita disposable personal income. Total VMT is calculated by multiplying VMT by the number of licensed drivers.

LDV Commercial Fleet Submodule

This submodule generates estimates of the stock of cars and trucks used in business, government, and utility fleets. It also estimates travel demand, fuel efficiency, and energy consumption for the fleet vehicles prior to their transition to the private sector at predetermined vintages.

Commercial Light Truck Submodule

The commercial light truck submodule estimates sales, stocks, fuel efficiencies, travel, and fuel demand for all trucks greater than 8,500 pounds and less than 10,000 pounds gross vehicle weight rating.

Air Travel Demand Submodule

This submodule estimates the demand for both passenger and freight air travel. Passenger travel is projected by domestic travel (within the U.S.), international travel (between U.S. and Non U.S.), and Non U.S. travel. Dedicated air freight travel is estimated for U.S. and Non U.S. demand. In each of the market segments, the demand for air travel is estimated as a function of the cost of air travel (including fuel costs) and economic growth (GDP, disposable income, and merchandise exports).

Aircraft Fleet Efficiency Submodule

This submodule projects the total world-wide stock and the average fleet efficiency of narrow body, wide body, and regional jets required to meet the projected travel demand. The stock estimation is based on the growth of travel demand and the flow of aircraft into and out of the United States The overall fleet efficiency is determined by the weighted average of the surviving aircraft efficiency (including retrofits) and the efficiencies of the newly acquired aircraft. Efficiency improvements of new aircraft are determined by projecting the market penetration of advanced aircraft technologies.

16 Energy and Environmental Analysis, Inc., Updates to the Fuel Economy Model (FEM) and Advanced Technology Vehicle (ATV:) Module of the National Energy Modeling System (NEMS) Transportation Model, prepared for the Energy Information Administration (EIA),

Freight Transport Submodule

This submodule translates NEMS estimates of industrial production into ton-miles traveled for rail and ships and into vehicle vehicle-miles traveled for trucks, then into fuel demand by mode of freight travel. The freight truck stock is subdivided into medium and heavy-duty trucks. VMT freight estimates by truck size class and technology are based on matching freight needs, as measured by the growth in industrial output by NAICS code, to VMT levels associated with truck stocks and new vehicles. Rail and shipping ton-miles traveled are also estimated as a function of growth in industrial output.

Freight truck fuel efficiency growth rates are tied to historical growth rates by size class and are also dependent on the maximum penetration, introduction year, fuel trigger price (based on cost-effectiveness), and fuel economy improvement of advanced technologies, which include alternative-fuel technologies. A subset of the technology characteristics are shown in Table 10. In the rail and shipping modes, energy efficiency estimates are structured to evaluate the potential of both technology trends and efficiency improvements related to energy prices.

Miscellaneous Energy Use Submodule

This submodule projects the use of energy in military operations, mass transit vehicles, recreational boats, and lubricants, based on endogenous variables within NEMS (e.g., vehicle fuel efficiencies) and exogenous variables (e.g., the military budget).

Table 10. Example of Truck Technology Characteristics (Diesel)

	Fuel Economy Improvement (percent)		Maximum Penetration (percent)		Introduction Year		Capital Cost (2001 dollars)	
	Medium	Heavy	Medium	Heavy	Medium	Heavy	Medium	Heavy
Aero Dynamics: bumper, underside air battles, wheel well covers	3.6	2.3	50	40	2002	N/A	N/A	$1,500
Low rolling resistence tires	2.3	2.7	50	66	2004	2005	$180	$550
Transmission: lock-up, electronic controls, reduced friction	1.8	1.8	100	100	2005	2005	$750	$1,000
Diesel Engine: hybrid electric powertrain	36.0	N/A	15	N/A	2010	N/A	$6,000	N/A
Reduce waste heat, thermal mgmt	N/A	9.0	N/A	35	N/A	2010	N/A	$2,000
Weight reduction	4.5	9.0	20	30	2010	2005	$1,300	$2,000
Diesel Emission No_X non-thermal plasma catalyst	-1.5	-1.5	25	25	2007	2007	$1,000	$1,250
PM catalytic filter	-2.5	-1.5	95	95	2008	2006	$1,000	$1,500
HC/CO: oxidation catalyst	-0.5	-0.5	95	95	2002	2002	$150	$250
NO_X adsorbers	-3.0	-3.0	90	90	2007	2007	$1,500	$2,500

Electricity Market Module

Electricity Market Module

The electricity market module (EMM) represents the generation, transmission, and pricing of electricity, subject to: delivered prices for coal, petroleum products, and natural gas; the cost of centralized generation from renewable fuels; macroeconomic variables for costs of capital and domestic investment; and electricity load shapes and demand. The submodules consist of capacity planning, fuel dispatching, finance and pricing, and load and demand (Figure 9). In addition, nonutility supply and electricity trade are represented in the fuel dispatching and capacity planning submodules. Nonutility generation from CHP and other facilities whose primary business is not electricity generation is represented in the demand and fuel supply modules. All other nonutility generation is represented in the EMM. The generation of electricity is accounted for in 15 supply regions (Figure 10), and fuel consumption is allocated to the 9 Census divisions.

The EMM determines airborne emissions produced by the generation of electricity. It represents limits for sulfur dioxide and nitrogen oxides specified in the Clean Air Act Amendments of 1990 (CAAA90) and the Clean Air Interstate Rule. The *AEO2009* also models State-level regulations implementing mercury standards. The EMM also has the ability to track and limit emissions of carbon dioxide, and the *AEO2009* includes the regional carbon restrictions of the Regional Greenhouse Gas Initiative (RGGI).

Operating (dispatch) decisions are provided by the cost-minimizing mix of fuel and variable operating and maintenance (O&M) costs, subject to environmental costs. Capacity expansion is determined by the least-cost mix of all costs, including capital, O&M, and fuel. Electricity demand is represented by load curves, which vary by region and season. The solution to the submodules of EMM is simultaneous in that, directly or indirectly, the solution for each submodule depends on the solution to every other submodule. A solution sequence through the submodules can be viewed as follows:

- The electricity load and demand submodule processes electricity demand to construct load curves
- The electricity capacity planning submodule projects the construction of new utility and nonutility plants, the level of firm power trades, and the addition of equipment for environmental compliance
- The electricity fuel dispatch submodule dispatches the available generating units, both utility and nonutility, allowing surplus capacity in select regions to be dispatched to meet another regions needs (economy trade)
- The electricity finance and pricing submodule calculates total revenue requirements for each operation and computes average and marginal-cost based electricity prices.

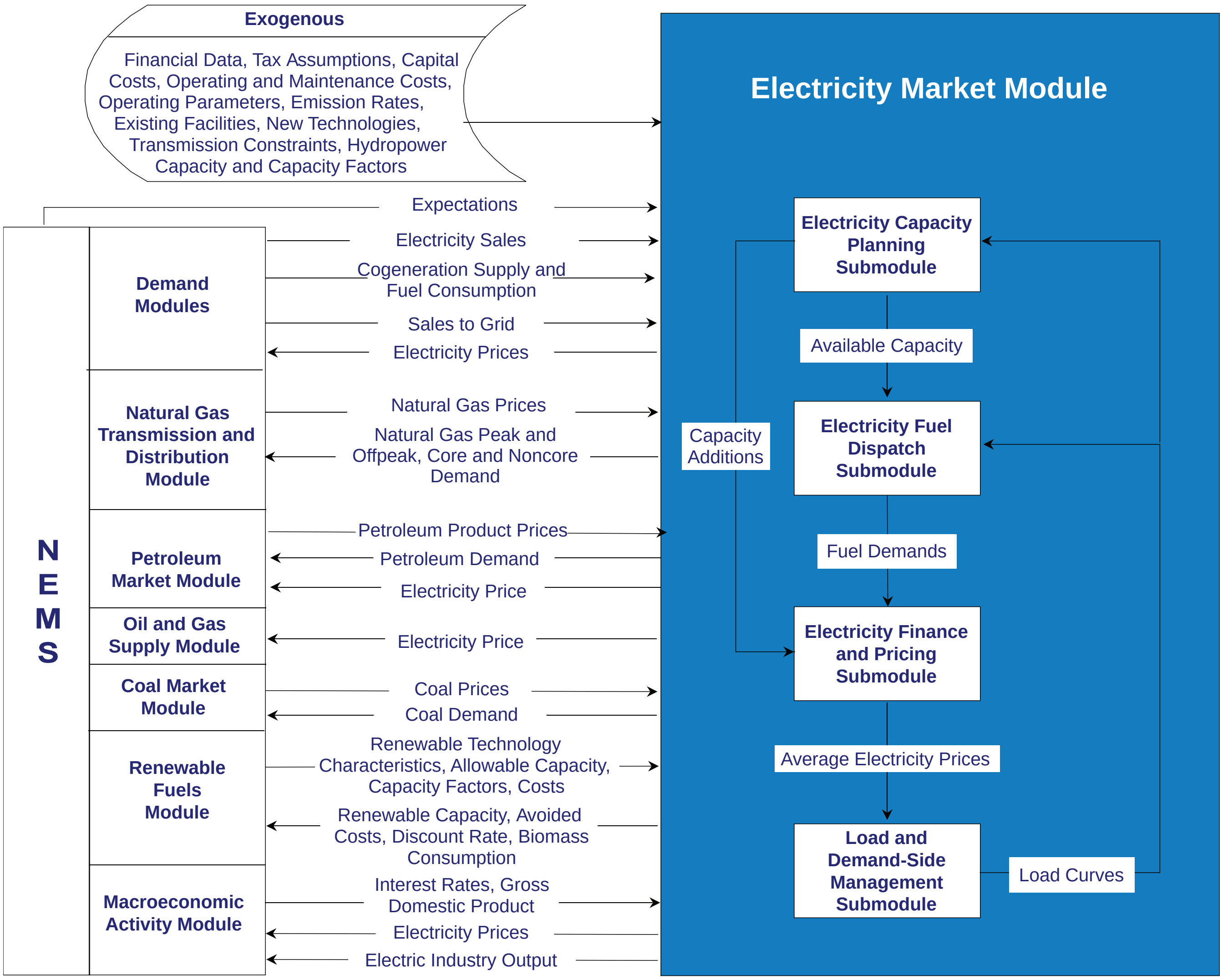
Electricity Capacity Planning Submodule

The electricity capacity planning (ECP) submodule determines how best to meet expected growth in electricity demand, given available resources, expected load shapes, expected demands and fuel prices, environmental constraints, and costs for utility and nonutility technologies. When new capacity is required to meet growth in electricity demand, the technology chosen is determined by the timing of the demand increase, the expected utilization of the new capacity, the operating efficiencies, and the construction and operating costs of available technologies.

The expected utilization of the capacity is important in the decision-making process. A technology with relatively high capital costs but comparatively low operating costs (primarily fuel costs) may be the appropriate choice if the capacity is expected to operate continuously (base load). However, a plant type with high operating costs but low capital costs may be the most economical selection to serve the peak load (i.e., the highest demands on the system), which occurs infrequently. Intermediate or cycling load occupies a middle ground between base and peak load and is best served

EMM Outputs	Inputs from NEMS	Exogenous Inputs
Electricity prices and price components Fuel demands Capacity additions Capital requirements Emissions Renewable capacity Avoided costs	Electricity sales Fuel prices Cogeneration supply and fuel consumption Electricity sales to the grid Renewable technology characteristics, allowable capacity, and costs Renewable capacity factors Gross domestic product Interest rates	Financial data Tax assumptions Capital costs Operation and maintenance costs Operating parameters Emmissions rates New technologies Existing facilities Transmission constraints

Figure 9. Electricity Market Module Strucuture



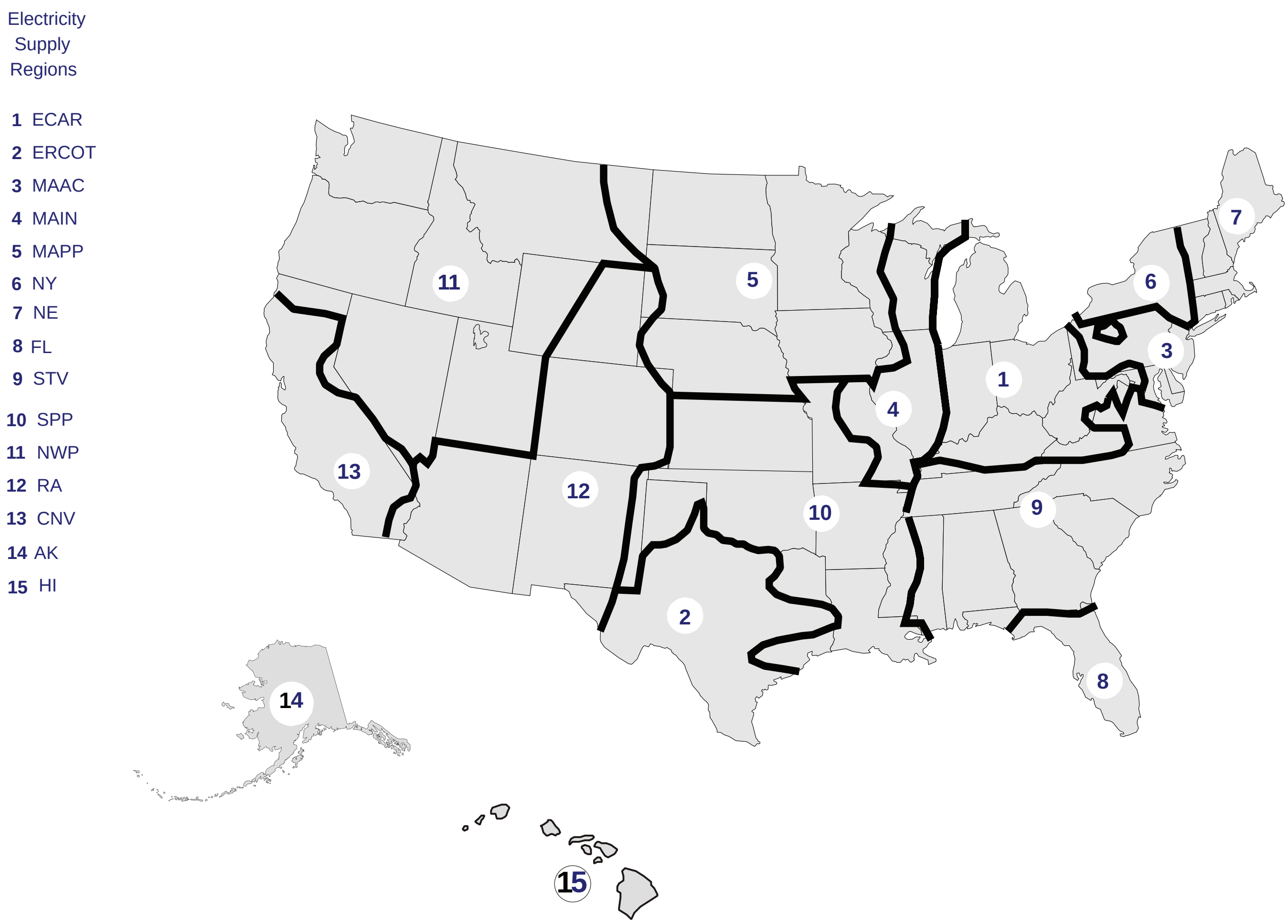
by plants that are cheaper to build than baseload plants and cheaper to operate than peak load plants.

Technologies are compared on the basis of total capital and operating costs incurred over a 20-year period. As new technologies become available, they are competed against conventional plant types. Fossil-fuel, nuclear, and renewable central-station generating technologies are represented, as listed in Table 11. The EMM also considers two distributed generation technologies -baseload and peak. The EMM also has the ability to model a demand storage technology to represent load shifting.

Uncertainty about investment costs for new technologies is captured in ECP using technological optimism and learning factors. The technological optimism factor reflects the inherent tendency to underestimate costs for new technologies. The degree of technological optimism depends on the complexity of the engineering design and the stage of development. As development proceeds and more data become available, cost estimates become more accurate and the technological optimism factor declines.

Learning factors represent reductions in capital costs due to learning-by-doing. For new technologies, cost reductions due to learning also account for international experience in building generating capacity. These factors

Figure 10. Electricity Market Module Supply Regions



are calculated for each of the major design components of a plant type design. For modeling purposes, components are identified only if the component is shared between multiple plant types, so that the ECP can reflect the learning that occurs across technologies. The cost adjustment factors are based on the cumulative capacity of a given component. A 3-step learning curve is utilized for all design components.

Typically, the greatest amount of learning occurs during the initial stages of development and the rate of cost reductions declines as commercialization progresses. Each step of the curve is characterized by the learning rate and the number of doublings of capacity in which this rate is applied. Depending on the stage of development for a particular component, some of the learning may already be incorporated in the initial cost estimate.

Capital costs for all new electricity generating technologies (fossil, nuclear, and renewable) decrease in response to foreign and domestic experience. Foreign units of new technologies are assumed to contribute to reductions in capital costs for units that are installed in the United States to the extent that (1) the technology characteristics are similar to those used in U.S. markets, (2) the design and construction firms and key personnel compete in the U.S. market, (3) the owning and operating firm competes actively in the United States, and (4) there exists relatively complete information about the status of the associated facility. If the new foreign units do not satisfy one or more of these requirements, they are given a reduced weight or not included in the learning effects calculation. Capital costs, heat rates, and first year of availablilty from the *AEO2009* reference case are shown in Table 12; capital costs represent the costs of building new plants ordered in 2008. Additional information about costs and performance characteristics can be found on page 89 of the "Assumptions to the Annual Energy Outlook 2009."[17]

Initially, investment decisions are determined in ECP using cost and performance characteristics that are represented as single point estimates corresponding to the average (expected) cost. However, these parameters are also subject to uncertainty and are better represented by distributions. If the distributions of two or more options overlap, the option with the lowest average cost is not likely to capture the entire market. Therefore, ECP uses a market-sharing algorithm to adjust the initial solution and reallocate some of the capacity expansion decisions to technologies that are competitive but do not have the lowest average cost.

Fossil-fired steam and nuclear plant retirements are calculated endogenously within the model. Plants are retired if the market price of electricity is not sufficient to support continued operation. The expected revenues from these plants are compared to the annual going-forward costs, which are mainly fuel and O&M costs. A plant is retired if these costs exceed the revenues and the overall cost of electricity can be reduced by building replacement capacity.

The ECP submodule also determines whether to contract for unplanned firm power imports from Canada and from neighboring electricity supply regions. Imports from Canada are competed using supply curves developed from cost estimates for potential hydroelectric projects in Canada. Imports from neighboring electricity supply regions are competed in the ECP based on the cost of the unit in the exporting region plus the additional cost of transmitting the power. Transmission costs are computed as a fraction of revenue.

After building new capacity, the submodule passes total available capacity to the electricity fuel dispatch submodule and new capacity expenses to the electricity finance and pricing submodule.

Electricity Fuel Dispatch Submodule

Given available capacity, firm purchased-power agreements, fuel prices, and load curves, the electricity fuel dispatch (EFD) submodule minimizes variable costs as it solves for generation facility utilization and economy power exchanges to satisfy demand in each time period and region. Limits on emissions of sulfur dioxide from generating units and the engineering characteristics of units serve as constraints. Coal-fired capacity can co-fire with biomass in order to lower operating costs and/or emissions.

The EFD uses a linear programming (LP) approach to provide a minimum cost solution to allocating (dispatching) capacity to meet demand. It simulates the electric transmission network on the NERC region level and simultaneously dispatches capacity regionally by time slice until demand for the year is met. Traditional cogeneration and firm trade capacity is removed from the load duration curve prior to the dispatch decision. Capacity costs for each time slice are based on fuel and variable O&M costs, making adjustments for RPS

Table 11. Generating Technologies

Fossil
Existing coal steam plants (with or without environmental controls) New pulverized coal with environmental controls Advanced clean coal technology Advanced clean coal technology with sequestration Oil/Gas steam Conventional combined cycle Advanced combined cycle Advanced combined cycle with sequestration Conventional combusion turbine Fuel cells
Nuclear
Conventional nuclear Advanced nuclear
Renewables
Conventional hydropower Pumped storage Geothermal Solar-thermal Solar-photovoltaic Wind - onshore and offshore Wood Municipal solid waste
Environmental controls include flue gas desulfurization (FGD), selective catalytic reduction (SCR), selective non-catalytic reduction (SNCR), fabric filters, spray cooling, activated carbon injection (ACI), and particulate removal equipiment.

17 Energy Information Administration, *Assumptions to the Annual Energy Outlook 2009*, http://www.eia.doe.gov/oiaf/aeo/assumption/pdf/0554(2009).pdf (March 2009)

credits, if applicable, and production tax credits. Generators are required to meet planned maintenance requirements, as defined by plant type.

Interregional economy trade is also represented in the EFD submodule by allowing surplus generation in one region to satisfy electricity demand in an importing region, resulting in a cost savings. Economy trade with Canada is determined in a similar manner as interregional economy trade. Surplus Canadian energy is allowed to displace energy in an importing region if it results in a cost savings. After dispatching, fuel use is reported back to the fuel supply modules and operating expenses and revenues from trade are reported to the electricity finance and pricing submodule.

Electricity Finance and Pricing Submodule

The costs of building capacity, buying power, and generating electricity are tallied in the electricity finance and pricing (EFP) submodule, which simulates both competitive electricity pricing and the cost-of-service method often used by State regulators to determine the price of electricity. The AEO2009 reference case assumes a transition to full competitive pricing in New York, Mid-Atlantic Area Council, and Texas, and a 95 percent transition to competitive pricing in New England (Vermont being the only fully-regulated State in that region). California returned to almost fully regulated pricing in 2002, after beginning a transition to competition in 1998. In addition electricity prices in the

Table 12. 2008 Overnight Capital Costs (including Contingencies), 2008 Heat Rates, and Online Year by Technology for the AEO2009 Reference Case

Technology	Capital Costs[1] (2007$/KW)	Heatrate in 2008 (Btu/kWhr)	Online Year[2]
Scrubbed Coal New	2058	9200	2012
Integrated Coal-gasification Comb Cycle (IGCC)	2378	8765	2012
IGCC with carbon sequestration	3496	10781	2016
Coventional Gas/Oil Comb Cycle	962	7196	2011
Advanced Gas/Oil Comb Cycle (CC)	948	6752	2011
Advanced CC with carbon sequestration	1890	8613	2016
Conventional Combusion Turbine	670	10810	2010
Advanced Combusition Turbine	634	9289	2010
Fuel Cells	5360	7930	2011
Adv nuclear	3318	10434	2016
Distributed Generation - Base	1370	9050	2011
Distributed Generation - Peak	1645	10069	2010
Biomass	3766	9646	2012
MSW - Landfill Gas	2543	13648	2010
Geothermal[3]	1711	34633	2010
Conventional Hydropower [3,4]	2242	9919	2012
Wind[4]	1923	9919	2009
Wind Offshore[4]	3851	9919	2012
Solar Thermal	5021	9919	2012
Photovoltaic	6038	9919	2011

[1]Overnight capital cost including contingency factors, excluding reigonal multipliers and learning effects. Interest charges are also excluded. These represent costs of new projects initiated in 2008. Capital costs are shown before investment tax credits are applied, where applicable.

[2]Online year represents the first year that a new unit could be completed, given an order date of 2008. For wind, geothermal and landfill gas, the online year was moved earlier to acknowledge the significant market activity already occuring in anticipation of the expiration of the Production Tax Credit in 2009 for wind and 2010 for the others.

[3]Because geothermal and hydro cost and performance characteristics are specific for each site, the table entries represent the cost of the least expensive plant that could be built in the Northwest Power Pool region, where most of the proposed sites are located.

[4]For hydro, wind, and solar technologies, the heatrate shown represents the average heatrate for conventional thermal generation as of 2007. This isused for purposes of calculating primary energy consumption displaced for these resources, and does not imply an estimate of their actual energy conversion efficiency.

East Central Area Reliability Council, the Mid-American Interconnected Network, the Southeastern Electric Reliability Council, the Southwest Power Pool, the Northwest Power Pool, and the Rocky Mountain Power Area/Arizona are a mix of both competitive and regulated prices. Since some States in each of these regions have not taken action to deregulate their pricing of electricity, prices in those States are assumed to continue to be based on traditional cost-of-service pricing. The price for mixed regions is a load-weighted average of the competitive price and the regulated price, with the weight based on the percent of electricity load in the region that has taken action to deregulate. In regions where none of the states in the region have introduced competition—Florida Reliability Coordinating Council and Mid-Continent Area Power Pool—electricity prices are assumed to remain regulated and the cost-of-service calculation is used to determine electricity prices.

Using historical costs for existing plants (derived from various sources such as Federal Energy Regulatory Commission Form 1, Annual Report of Major Electric Utilities, Licensees and Others, and Form EIA-412, Annual Report of Public Electric Utilities), cost estimates for new plants, fuel prices from the NEMS fuel supply modules, unit operating levels, plant decommissioning costs, plant phase-in costs, and purchased power costs, the EFP submodule calculates total revenue requirements for each area of operation—generation, transmission, and distribution—for pricing of electricity in the fully regulated States. Revenue requirements shared over sales by customer class yield the price of electricity for each class. Electricity prices are returned to the demand modules. In addition, the submodule generates detailed financial statements.

For those States for which it is applicable, the EFP also determines competitive prices for electricity generation. Unlike cost-of-service prices, which are based on average costs, competitive prices are based on marginal costs. Marginal costs are primarily the operating costs of the most expensive plant required to meet demand. The competitive price also includes a reliability price adjustment, which represents the value consumers place on reliability of service when demands are high and available capacity is limited. Prices for transmission and distribution are assumed to remain regulated, so the delivered electricity price under competition is the sum of the marginal price of generation and the average price of transmission and distribution.

Electricity Load and Demand Submodule

The electricity load and demand (ELD) submodule generates load curves representing the demand for electricity. The demand for electricity varies over the course of a day. Many different technologies and end uses, each requiring a different level of capacity for different lengths of time, are powered by electricity. For operational and planning analysis, an annual load duration curve, which represents the aggregated hourly demands, is constructed. Because demand varies by geographic area and time of year, the ELD submodule generates load curves for each region and season.

Emissions

EMM tracks emission levels for sulfur dioxide (SO_2) and nitrogen oxides (NO_x). Facility development, retrofitting, and dispatch are constrained to comply with the pollution constraints of the CAAA90 and other pollution constraints including the Clean Air Interstate Rule. An innovative feature of this legislation is a system of trading emissions allowances. The trading system allows a utility with a relatively low cost of compliance to sell its excess compliance (i.e., the degree to which its emissions per unit of power generated are below maximum allowable levels) to utilities with a relatively high cost of compliance. The trading of emissions allowances does not change the national aggregate emissions level set by CAAA90, but it does tend to minimize the overall cost of compliance.

In addition to SO_2, and NO_x, the EMM also determines mercury and carbon dioxide emissions. It represents control options to reduce emissions of these four gases, either individually or in any combination. Fuel switching from coal to natural gas, renewables, or nuclear can reduce all of these emissions. Flue gas desulfurization equipment can decrease SO_2 and mercury emissions. Selective catalytic reduction can reduce NO_x and mercury emissions. Selective non-catalytic reduction and low-NO_x burners can lower NO_x emissions. Fabric filters and activated carbon injection can reduce mercury emissions. Lower emissions resulting from demand reductions are determined in the end-use demand modules.

The *AEO2009* includes a generalized structure to model current state-level regulations calling for the best available control technology to control mercury. The *AEO2009* also includes the carbon caps for States that are part of the RGGI.

Renewable Fuels Module

Renewable Fuels Module

The renewable fuels module (RFM) represents renewable energy resoures and large–scale technologies used for grid-connected U.S. electricity supply (Figure 11). Since most renewables (biomass, conventional hydroelectricity, geothermal, landfill gas, solar photovoltaics, solar thermal, and wind) are used to generate electricity, the RFM primarily interacts with the electricity market module (EMM).

New renewable energy generating capacity is either model–determined or based on surveys or other published information. A new unit is only included in surveys or acccepted from published information if it is reported to or identified by the EIA and the unit meets EIA criteria for inclusion (the unit exists, is under construction, under contract, is publicly declared by the vendor, or is mandated by state law, such as under a state renewable portfolio standard). EIA may also assume minimal builds for reasons based on historical experience (floors). The penetration of grid-connected renewable energy generating technologies, with the exception of landfill gas, is determined by the EMM.

Each renewable energy submodule of the RFM is treated independently of the others, except for their least-cost competition in the EMM. Because variable operation and maintenance costs for renewable technologies are lower than for any other major generating technology, and because they generally produce little or no air pollution, all available renewable capacity, except biomass, is assumed to be dispatched first by the EMM. Because of its potentially significant fuel cost, biomass is dispatched according to its variable cost by the EMM.

With significant growth over time, installation costs are assumed to be higher because of growing constraints on the availability of sites, natural resource degradation, the need to upgrade existing transmission or distribution networks, and other resource-specific factors.

Geothermal-Electric Submodule

The geothermal-electric submodule provides the EMM the amounts of new geothermal capacity that can be built at known and well characterized geothermal resource sites, along with related cost and performance data. The information is expressed in the form of a three–step supply function that represents the aggregate amount of new capacity and associated costs that can be offered in each year in each region.

Only hydrothermal (hot water and steam) resources are considered. Hot dry rock resources are not included, because they are not expected to be economically accessible during the NEMS projection horizon.

Capital and operating costs are estimated separately, and life-cycle costs are calculated by the RFM. The costing methodology incorporates any applicable effects of Federal and State energy tax construction and production incentives

Wind-Electric Submodule

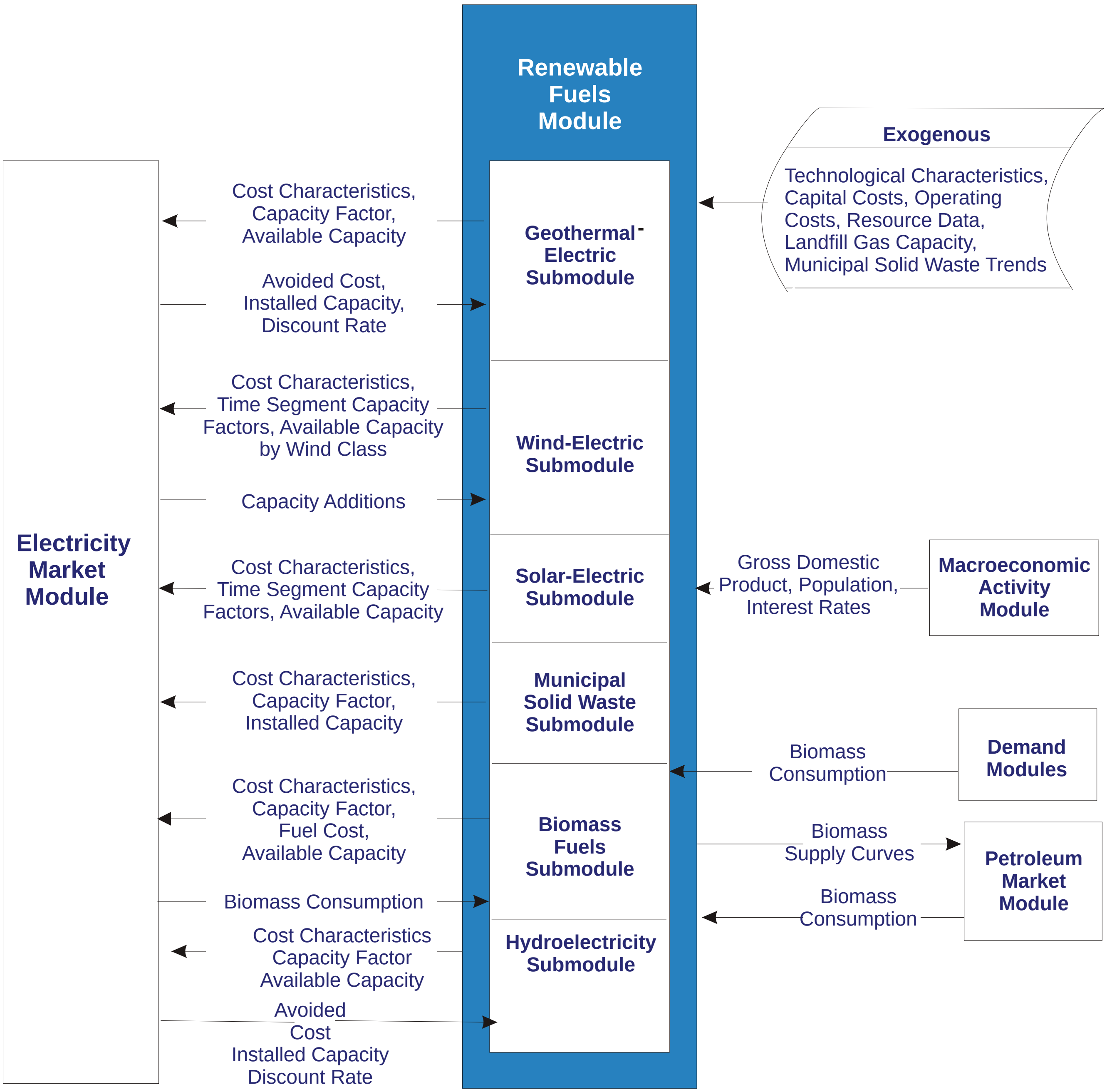
The wind-electric submodule projects the availability of wind resources as well as the cost and performance of wind turbine generators. This information is passed to EMM so that wind turbines can be built and dispatched in competition with other electricity generating technologies. The wind turbine data are expressed in the form of energy supply curves that provide the maximum amount, capital cost, and capacity factor of turbine generating capacity that could be installed in a region in a year, given the available land area and wind speed. The model also evaluates the contribution of the wind capacity to meeting system reliability requirements so that the EMM can appropriately incorporate wind capacity into calculations for regional reliability reserve margins.

Solar-Electric Submodule

The solar-electric submodule represents both photovoltaic and high-temperature thermal electric (concen-

RFM Outputs	Inputs from NEMS	Exogenous Inputs
Energy production capacities Capital costs Operating costs (including wood supply prices for the wood submodule) Capacity factors Available capacity Biomass fuel costs Biomass supply curves	Installed energy production capacity Gross domestic product Population Interest Rates Avoided cost of electricity Discount rate Capacity additions Biomass consumption	Site-specific geothermal resource quantity data Site-specific wind resource quality data Plant utilization (capacity factor) Technology cost and performance parameters Landfill gas capacity

Figure 11. Renewable Fuels Module Structure



trating solar power) installations. Only central-station, grid-connected applications constructed by a utility or independent power producer are considered in this portion of the model.

The solar-electric submodule provides the EMM with time-of-day and seasonal solar availability data for each region, as well as current costs. The EMM uses this data to evaluate the cost and performance of solar-electric technologies in regional grid applications. The commercial and residential demand modules of NEMS also model photovoltaic systems installed by consumers, as discussed in the demand module descriptions under “Distributed Generation.”

Landfill Gas Submodule

The landfill gas submodule provides annual projections of electricity generation from methane from landfills (landfill gas). The submodule uses the quantity of municipal solid waste (MSW) that is produced, the proportion of MSW that will be recycled, and the methane emission characteristics of three types of landfills to produce projections of the future electric power generating capacity from landfill gas. The amount of methane available is calculated by first determining the amount of total waste generated in the United States. The amount of total waste generated is derived from an econometric equation that uses gross domestic product and population as the projection drivers. It is assumed that no new mass burn waste–to–energy (MSW) facilities will be built and operated during the projection period in the United States. It is also assumed that operational mass-burn facilities will continue to operate and retire as planned throughout the projection period. The landfill gas submodule passes cost and performance characteristics of the landfill gas–to–electricity technology to the EMM for capacity planning decisions. The amount of new land-fill-gas-to-electricity capacity competes with other technologies using supply curves that are based on the amount of high, medium, and low methane producing landfills located in each EMM region.

Biomass Fuels Submodule

The biomass fuels submodule provides biomass-fired plant technology characterizations (capital costs, operating costs, capacity factors, etc.) and fuel information for EMM, thereby allowing biomass-fueled power plants to compete with other electricity generating technologies.

Biomass fuel prices are represented by a supply curve constructed according to the accessibility of resources to the electricity generation sector. The supply curve employs resource inventory and cost data for four categories of biomass fuel - urban wood waste and mill residues, forest residues, energy crops, and agricultural residues. Fuel distribution and preparation cost data are built into these curves. The supply schedule of biomass fuel prices is combined with other variable operating costs associated with burning biomass. The aggregate variable cost is then passed to EMM.

Hydroelectricity Submodule

The hydroelectricity submodule provides the EMM the amounts of new hydroelectric capacity that can be built at known and well characterized sites, along with related cost and performance data. The information is expressed in the form of a three–step supply function that represents the aggregate amount of new capacity and associated costs that can be offered in each year in each region. Sites include undeveloped stretches of rivers, existing dams or diversions that do not currently produce power, and existing hydroelectric plants that have known capability to expand operations through the addition of new generating units. Capacity or efficiency improvements through the replacement of existing equipment or changes to operating procedures at a facility are not included in the hydroelectricity supply.

Oil And Gas Supply Module

Oil and Gas Supply Module

The OGSM consists of a series of process submodules that project the availability of domestic crude oil production and dry natural gas production from onshore, offshore, and Alaskan reservoirs, as well as conventional gas production from Canada. The OGSM regions are shown in Figure 12.

The driving assumption of OGSM is that domestic oil and gas exploration and development are undertaken if the discounted present value of the recovered resources at least covers the present value of taxes and the cost of capital, exploration, development, and production. Crude oil is transported to refineries, which are simulated in the PMM, for conversion and blending into refined petroleum products. The individual submodules of the OGSM are solved independently, with feedbacks achieved through NEMS solution iterations (Figure 13).

Technological progress is represented in OGSM through annual increases in the finding rates and success rates, as well as annual decreases in costs. For conventional onshore, a time trend was used in econometrically estimated equations as a proxy for technology. Reserve additions per well (or finding rates) are projected through a set of equations that distinquish between new field discoveries and discoveries (extensions) and revisions in known fields. The finding rate equations capture the impacts of technology, prices, and declining resources. Another representation of technology is in the success rate equations. Success rates capture the impact of technology and saturation of the area through cumulative drilling. Technology is further represented in the determination of drilling, lease equipment, and operating costs. Technological progress puts downward pressure on the drilling, lease equipment, and operating cost projections. For unconventional gas, a series of eleven different technology groups are represented by time–dependent adjustments to factors which influence finding rates, success rates, and costs.

Conventional natural gas production in Western Canada is modeled in OGSM with three econometrically estimated equations: total wells drilled, reserves added per well, and expected production-to-reserves ratio. The model performs a simple reserves accounting and applies the expected production-to-reserve ratio to estimate an expected production level, which in turn is used to establish a supply curve for conventional Western Canada natural gas. The rest of the gas production sources in Canada are represented in the Natural Gas Transmission and Distribution Module (NGTDM).

Lower 48 Onshore and Shallow Offshore Supply Submodule

The lower 48 onshore supply submodule projects crude oil and natural gas production from conventional recovery techniques. This submodule accounts for drilling, reserve additions, total reserves, and production -to-reserves ratios for each lower 48 onshore supply region.

The basic procedure is as follows:

- First, the prospective costs of a representative drilling project for a given fuel category and well class within a given region are computed. Costs are a function of the level of drilling activity, average well depth, rig availability, and the effects of technological progress.
- Second, the present value of the discounted cash flows (DCF) associated with the representative project is computed. These cash flows include both the capital and operating costs of the project, including royalties and taxes, and the revenues derived from a declining well production profile, computed after taking into account the progressive effects of resource depletion and valued at constant real prices as of the year of initial valuation.
- Third, drilling levels are calculated as a function of projected profitability as measured by the projected DCF levels for each project and national level cashflow.

OGSM Outputs	Inputs from NEMS	Exogenous Inputs
Crude oil production Domestic nonassociated and Canadian conventional natural gas suply curves Cogeneration from oil and gas producton Reserves and reserve additions Drilling levels Domestic associated-dissolved gas production	Domestic and Canadian natural gas production and wellhead prices Crude oil demand World oil price Electricity price Gross domestic product Inflation rate	Resource levels Initial finding rate parameters and costs Production profiles Tax parameters

Figure 12. Oil and Gas Supply Module Regions

- Fourth, regional finding rate equations are used to project new field discoveries from new field wildcats, new pools, and extensions from other exploratory drilling, and reserve revisions from development drilling.
- Fifth, production is determined on the basis of reserves, including new reserve additions, previous productive capacity, flow from new wells, and, in the case of natural gas, fuel demands. This occurs within the market equilibration of the NGTDM for natural gas and within OGSM for oil.

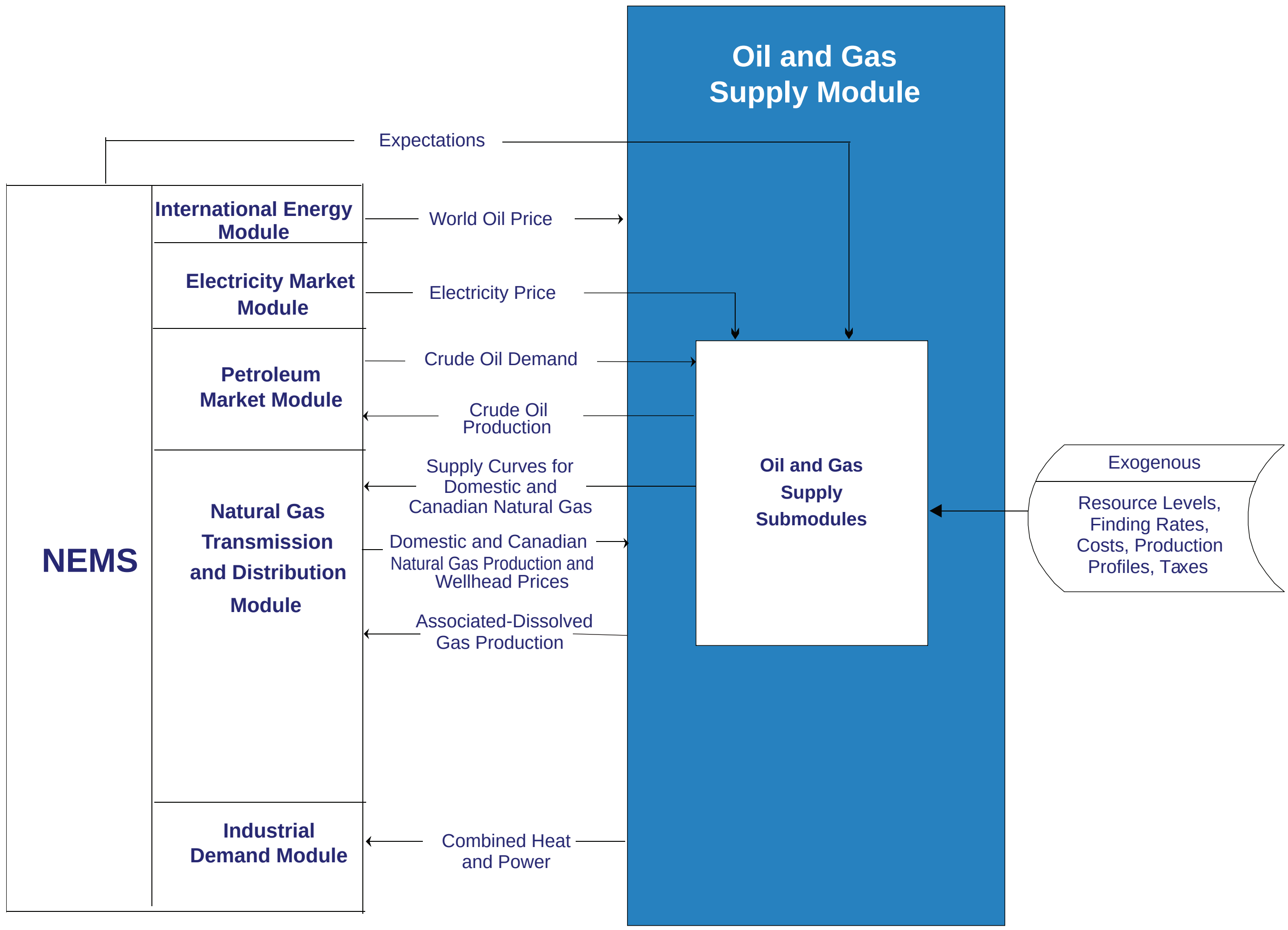
Unconventional Gas Recovery Supply Submodule

Unconventional gas is defined as gas produced from nonconventional geologic formations, as opposed to conventional (sandstones) and carbonate rock formations. The three unconventional geologic formations considered are low–permeability or tight sandstones, gas shales and coalbed methane.

For unconventional gas, a play–level model calculates the economic feasibility of individual plays based on locally specific wellhead prices and costs, resource quantity and quality, and the various effects of technology on both resources and costs. In each year, an initial resource characterization determines the expected ultimate recovery (EUR) for the wells drilled in a particular play. Resource profiles are adjusted to reflect assumed technological impacts on the size, availability, and industry knowledge of the resources in the play.

Oil and Gas Supply Module

Figure 13. Oil and Gas Supply Module Structure



Subsequently, prices received from NGTDM and endogenously determined costs adjusted to reflect technological progress are utilized to calculate the economic profitability (or lack thereof) for the play. If the play is profitable, drilling occurs according to an assumed schedule, which is adjusted annually to account for technological improvements, as well as varying economic conditions. This drilling results in reserve additions, the quantities of which are directly related to the EURs for the wells in that play. Given these reserve additions, reserve levels and expected production–to–reserves (P/R) ratios are calculated at both the OGSM and the NGTDM region level. The resultant values are aggregated with similar values from the conventional onshore and offshore submodules. The aggregate P/R ratios and reserve levels are then passed to NGTDM, which determines the prices and production for the following year through market equilibration.

Offshore Supply Submodule

This submodule uses a field-based engineering approach to represent the exploration and development of U.S. offshore oil and natural gas resources. The submodule simulates the economic decision-making at each stage of development from frontier areas to post-mature areas. Offshore resources are divided into 3 categories:

- **Undiscovered Fields.** The number, location, and size of the undiscovered fields are based on the MMS's 2006 hydrocarbon resource assessment.
- **Discovered, Undeveloped Fields.** Any discovery that has been announced but is not currently producing is evaluated in this component of the model. The first production year is an input and is based on announced plans and expectations.

- **Producing Fields.** The fields in this category have wells that have produced oil and/or gas through the year prior to the AEO projection. The production volumes are from the Minerals Management Service (MMS) database.

Resource and economic calculations are performed at an evaluation unit basis. An evaluation unit is defined as the area within a planning area that falls into a specific water depth category. Planning areas are the Western Gulf of Mexico (GOM), Central GOM, Eastern GOM, Pacific, and Atlantic. There are six water depth categories: 0-200 meters, 200-400 meters, 400-800 meters, 800-1600 meters, 1600-2400 meters, and greater than 2400 meters.

Supply curves for crude oil and natural gas are generated for three offshore regions: Pacific, Atlantic, and GOM. Crude oil production includes lease condensate. Natural gas production accounts for both nonassociated gas and associated-dissolved gas. The model is responsive to changes in oil and natural gas prices, royalty relief assumptions, oil and natural gas resource base, and technological improvements affecting exploration and development.

Alaska Oil and Gas Submodule

This submodule projects the crude oil and natural gas produced in Alaska. The Alaskan oil submodule is divided into three sections: new field discoveries, development projects, and producing fields. Oil transportation costs to lower 48 facilities are used in conjunction with the relevant market price of oil to calculate the estimated net price received at the wellhead, sometimes called the netback price. A discounted cash flow method is used to determine the economic viability of each project at the netback price.

Alaskan oil supplies are modeled on the basis of discrete projects, in contrast to the onshore lower 48 conventional oil and gas supplies, which are modeled on an aggregate level. The continuation of the exploration and development of multiyear projects, as well as the discovery of new fields, is dependent on profitability. Production is determined on the basis of assumed drilling schedules and production profiles for new fields and developmental projects, historical production patterns, and announced plans for currently producing fields.

- Alaskan gas production is set separately for any gas targeted to flow through a pipeline to the lower 48 States and gas produced for consumption in the State and for export to Japan. The latter is set based on a projection of Alaskan consumption in the NGTDM and an exogenous specification of exports. North Slope production for the pipeline is dependent on construction of the pipeline, set to commence if the lower 48 average wellhead price is maintained at a level exceeding the established comparable cost of delivery to the lower 48 States.

Natural Gas Transmission and Distribution Module

Natural Gas Transmission And Distribution Module

The NGTDM of NEMS represents the natural gas market and determines regional market–clearing prices for natural gas supplies and for end–use consumption, given the information passed from other NEMS modules (Figure 14). A transmission and distribution network (Figure 15), composed of nodes and arcs, is used to simulate the interregional flow and pricing of gas in the contiguous United States and Canada in both the peak (December through March) and offpeak (April through November) period. This network is a simplified representation of the physical natural gas pipeline system and establishes the possible interregional flows and associated prices as gas moves from supply sources to end users.

Flows are further represented by establishing arcs from transshipment nodes to each demand sector represented in an NGTDM region (residential, commercial, industrial, electric generators, and transportation). Mexican exports and net storage injections in the offpeak period are also represented as flow exiting a transshipment node. Similarly, arcs are also established from supply points into a transshipment node. Each transshipment node can have one or more entering arcs from each supply source represented: U.S. or Canadian onshore or U.S. offshore production, liquefied natural gas imports, supplemental gas production, gas produced in Alaska and transported via pipeline, Mexican imports, or net storage withdrawals in the region in the peak period. Most of the types of supply listed above are set independently of current year prices and before NGTDM determines a market equilibrium solution.

Only the onshore and offshore lower 48 U.S. and Western Canadian Sedimentary Basin production, along with net storage withdrawals, are represented by short–term supply curves and set dynamically during the NGTDM solution process. The construction of natural gas pipelines from Alaska and Canada's MacKenzie Delta are triggered when market prices exceed estimated project costs. The flow of gas during the peak period is used to establish interregional pipeline and storage capacity requirements and the associated expansion. These capacity levels provide an upper limit for the flow during the offpeak period.

Arcs between transshipment nodes, from the transshipment nodes to end–use sectors, and from supply sources to transshipment nodes are assigned tariffs. The tariffs along interregional arcs reflect reservation (represented with volume dependent curves) and usage fees and are established in the pipeline tariff submodule. The tariffs on arcs to end–use sectors represent the interstate pipeline tariffs in the region, intrastate pipeline tariffs, and distributor markups set in the distributor tariff submodule. Tariffs on arcs from supply sources represent gathering charges or other differentials between the price at the supply source and the regional market hub. The tariff associated with injecting, storing, and withdrawing from storage is assigned to the arc representing net storage withdrawals in the peak period. During the primary solution process in the interstate transmission submodule, the tariffs along an interregional arc are added to the price at the source node to arrive at a price for the gas along the arc right before it reaches its destination node.

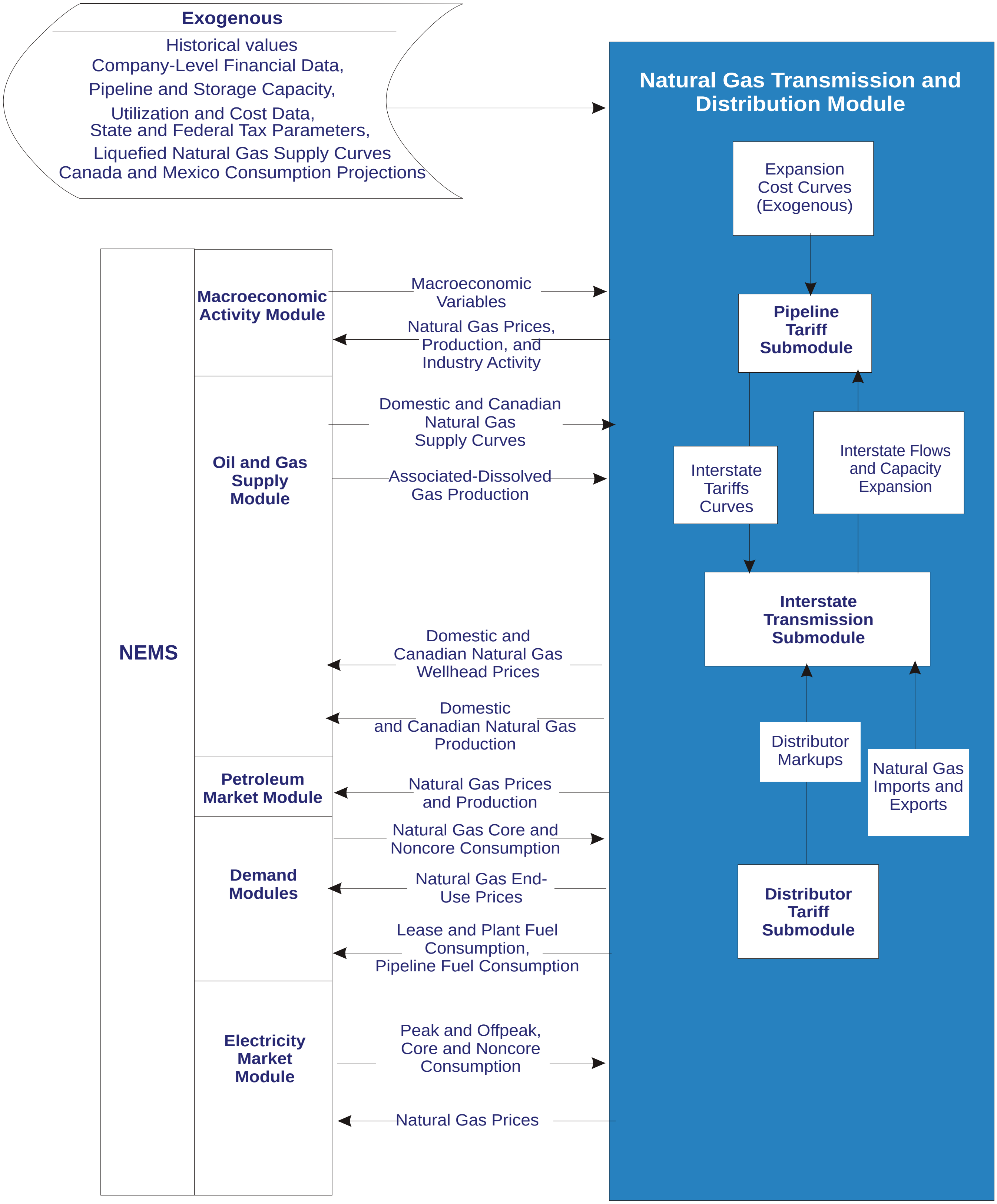
Interstate Transmission Submodule

The interstate transmission submodule (ITS) is the main integrating module of NGTDM. One of its major functions is to simulate the natural gas price determination process. ITS brings together the major economic factors that influence regional natural gas trade on a seasonal basis in the United States, the balancing of the demand for and the domestic supply of natural gas, including competition from imported natural gas. These are examined in combination with the relative prices associated with moving the gas from the producer to the end user where and when (peak versus offpeak) it is

NGTDM Outputs	Inputs from NEMS	Exogenous Inputs
Natural gas delivered prices Domestic and Canadian natural gas wellhead prices Domestic natural gas production Mexican and liquefied natural gas imports and exports Canadian natural gas imports and production Lease and plant fuel consumption Pipeline and distribution tariffs Interregional natural gas flows Storage and pipeline capacity expansion Supplemental gas production	Natural gas demands Domestic and Canadian natural gas supply curves Macroeconomic variables Associated-dissolved natural gas production	Historical consumption and flow patterns Historical supplies Pipeline company-level financial data Pipeline and storage capacity and utilization data Historical end-use citygate, and wellhead prices State and Federal tax parameters Pipeline and storage expansion cost data Liquefied natural gas supply curves Canada and Mexico consumption projections

Natural Gas Transmission And Distribution Module

Figure 14. Natural Gas Transmission and Distribution Module Structure



needed. In the process, ITS simulates the decision–making process for expanding pipeline and/or seasonal storage capacity in the U.S. gas market, determining the amount of pipeline and storage capacity to be added between or within regions in NGTDM. Storage serves as the primary link between the two seasonal periods represented.

ITS employs an iterative heuristic algorithm, along with an acyclic hierarchical representation of the primary arcs in the network, to establish a market equilibrium solution. Given the consumption levels from other NEMS modules, the basic process followed by ITS involves first establishing the backward flow of natural gas in each period from the consumers, through the network, to the producers, based primarily on the relative prices offered for the gas from the previous ITS iteration. This process is performed for the peak period first since the net withdrawals from storage during the peak period will establish the net injections during the offpeak period. Second, using the model's supply curves, wellhead and import prices are set corresponding to the desired production volumes. Also, using the pipeline and storage tariffs from the pipeline tariff submodule, pipeline and storage tariffs are set corresponding to the associated flow of gas, as determined in the first step. These prices are then translated from the producers, back through the network, to the city gate and the end users, by adding the appropriate tariffs along the way. A regional storage tariff is added to the price of gas injected into storage in the offpeak to arrive at the price of the gas when withdrawn in the peak period. This process is then repeated until the solution has converged. Finally, delivered prices are derived for residential, commercial, and transportation customers, as well as for both core and noncore industrial and electric generation sectors using the distributor tariffs provided by the distributor tariff submodule.

Pipeline Tariff Submodule

The pipeline tariff submodule (PTS) provides usage fees and volume dependent curves for computing unitized reservation fees (or tariffs) for interstate transportation and storage services within the ITS. These curves extend beyond current capacity levels and relate incremental pipeline or storage capacity expansion to corresponding estimated rates. The underlying basis for each tariff curve in the model is a projection of the associated regulated revenue requirement. Econometrically estimated equations within a general accounting framework are used to track costs and compute revenue requirements associated with both reservation and usage fees under current rate design and regulatory scenarios. Other than an assortment of macroeconomic indicators, the primary input to PTS from other modules in NEMS is pipeline and storage capacity utilization and expansion in the previous projection year.

Once an expansion is projected to occur, PTS calculates the resulting impact on the revenue requirement. PTS assumes rolled–in (or average), not incremental, rates for new capacity. The pipeline tariff curves generated by PTS are used within the ITS when determining the relative cost of purchasing and moving gas from one source versus another in the peak and offpeak seasons.

Distributor Tariff Submodule

The distributor tariff submodule (DTS) sets distributor markups charged by local distribution companies for the distribution of natural gas from the city gate to the end user. For those that do not typically purchase gas through a local distribution company, this markup represents the differential between the citygate and delivered price. End–use distribution service is distinguished within the DTS by sector (residential, commercial, industrial, electric generators, and transportation), season (peak and offpeak), and service type (core and noncore).

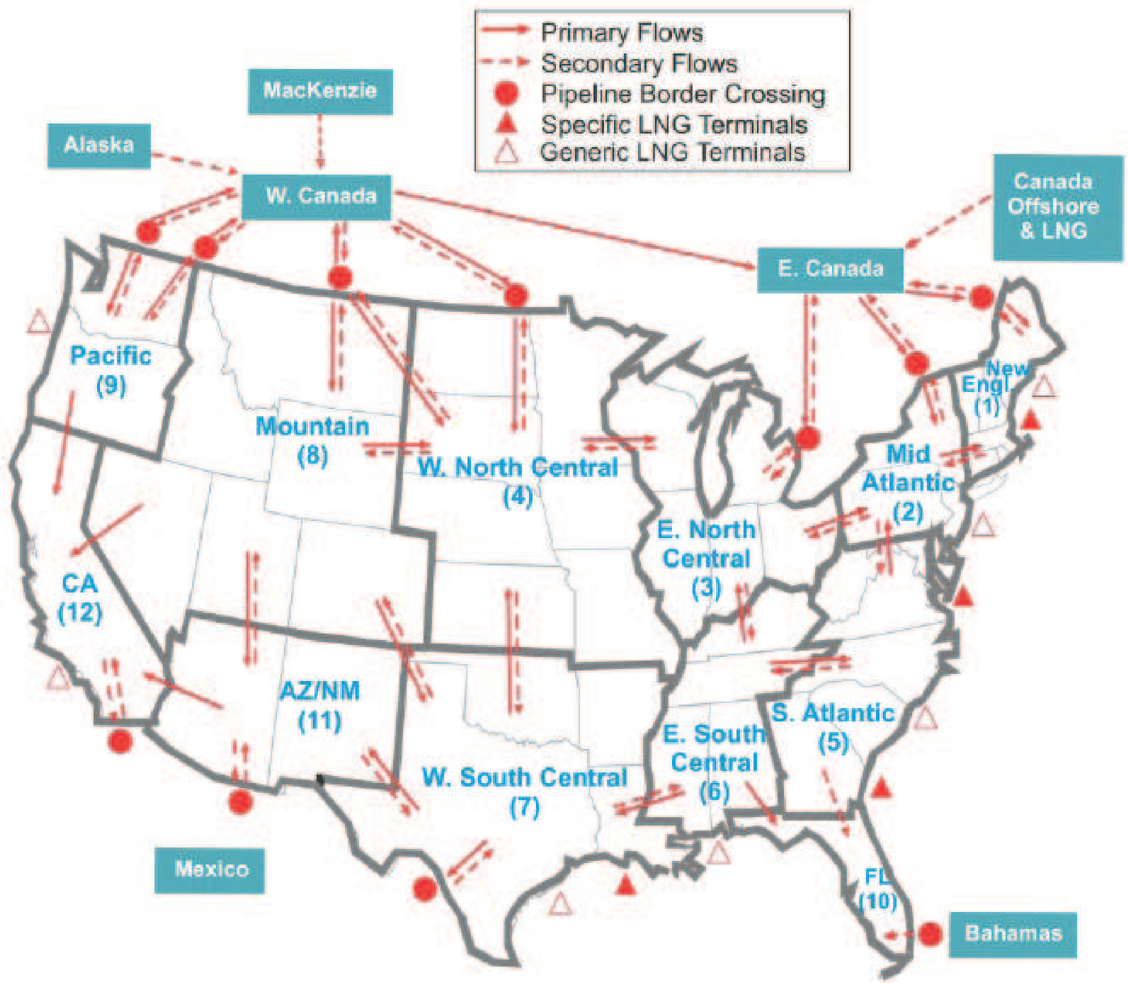
Distributor tariffs for all but the transportation sector are set using econometrically estimated equations. The natural gas vehicle sector markups are calculated separately for fleet and personal vehicles and account for distribution to delivery stations, retail markups, and federal and state motor fuels taxes.

Natural Gas Imports and Exports

Liquefied natural gas imports for the U.S., Canada, and Baja, Mexico are set at the beginning of each NEMS iteration within the NGTDM by evaluating seasonal east and west supply curves, based on outputs from EIA's International Natural Gas Model, at associated regasification tailgate prices set in the previous NEMS iteration. A sharing algorithm is used to allocate the resulting import volumes to particular regions. LNG exports to Japan from Alaska are set exogenously by the OGSM.

The Mexico model is largely based on exogenously specified assumptions about consumption and production growth rates and LNG import levels. For the most part, natural gas imports from Mexico are set exogenously for each of the three border crossing points with

Figure 15. Natural Gas Transmission and Distribution Module Network



the United States, with the exception of any gas that is imported into Baja, Mexico in liquid form only to be exported to the United States. Exports to Mexico from the United States are established before the NGTDM equilibrates and represent the required level to balance the assumed consumption in (and exports from) Mexico against domestic production and LNG imports. The production levels are also largely assumption based, but are set to vary with changes in the expected wellhead price in the United States.

A node for east and west Canada is included in the NGTDM equilibration network, as well as seven border crossings into the United States. The model includes a representation/accounting of the U.S. border crossing pipeline capacity, east and west seasonal storage transfers, east and west consumption, east and west LNG imports, eastern production, conventional/tight sands production in the west, and coalbed/shale production. Imports from the United States, conventional production in eastern Canada, and base level natural gas consumption (which varies with the world oil price) are set exogenously. Conventional/tight sands production in the west is set using a supply curve from the OGSM. Coalbed and shale gas production are effectively based on an assumed production growth rate which is adjusted with realized prices.

Petroleum Market Module

Petroleum Market Module

The PMM represents domestic refinery operations and the marketing of liquid fuels to consumption regions. PMM solves for liquid fuel prices, crude oil and product import activity (in conjunction with the IEM and the OGSM), and domestic refinery capacity expansion and fuel consumption. The solution satisfies the demand for liquid fuels, incorporating the prices for raw material inputs, imported liquid fuels, capital investment, as well as the domestic production of crude oil, natural gas liquids, and other unconventional refinery inputs. The relationship of PMM to other NEMS modules is illustrated in Figure 16.

The PMM is a regional, linear programming formulation of the five Petroleum Administration for Defense Districts (PADDs) (Figure 17). For each region two distinct refinery are modeled. One is highly complex using over 40 different refinrry processes, while the second is defined as a simple refinery that provides marginal cost economics. Refining capacity is allowed to expand in each region, but the model does not distinguish between additions to existing refineries or the building of new facilities. Investment criteria are developed exogenously, although the decision to invest is endogenous.

PMM assumes that the petroleum refining and marketing industry is competitive. The market will move toward lower-cost refiners who have access to crude oil and markets. The selection of crude oils, refinery process utilization, and logistics (transportation) will adjust to minimize the overall cost of supplying the market with liquid fuels.

PMM's model formulation reflects the operation of domestic liquuid fuels. If demand is unusually high in one region, the price will increase, driving down demand and providing economic incentives for bringing supplies in from other regions, thus restoring the supply and demand balance.

Existing regulations concerning product types and specifications, the cost of environmental compliance, and Federal and State taxes are also modeled. PMM incorporates provisions from the Energy Independence and Security Act of 2007 (EISA2007) and the Energy Policy Act of 2005 (EPACT05). The costs of producing new formulations of gasoline and diesel fuel as a result of the CAAA90 are determined within the linear-programming representation by incorporating specifications and demands for these fuels.

PMM also includes the interaction between the domestic and international markets. Prior to AEO2009, PMM postulated entirely exogenous prices for oil on the international market (the world oil price). Subsequent AEOs include an International Energy Module (IEM) that estimates supply curves for imported crude oils and products based on, among other factors, U.S. participation in global trade of crude oil and liquid fuels.

Regions

PMM models U.S. crude oil refining capabilities based on the five PADDs which were established during World War II and are still used by EIA for data collection and analysis. The use of PADD data permits PMM to take full advantage of EIA's historical database and allows analysis within the same framework used by the petroleum industry.

PMM Outputs	Inputs from NEMS	Exogenous Inputs
Petroleum product prices Crude oil imports and exports Crude oil demand Petroleum product imports and exports Refinery activity and fuel use Ethanol demand and price Combined heat and power (CHP) Natural gas plant liquids production Processing gain Capacity additions Capital expenditures Revenues	Petroleum product demand by sector Domestic crude oil production World oil price International crude oil supply curves International product supply curves International oxygenates supply curves Natural gas prices Electricity prices Natural glas production Macroeconomic variables Biomass supply curves Coal prices	Processing unit operating parameters Processing unit capacities Product specifications Operating costs Capital costs Transmission and distribution costs Federal and State taxes Agricultural feedstock quantities and costs CHP unit operating parameters CHP unit capacities

Figure 16. Petroleum Market Module Structure

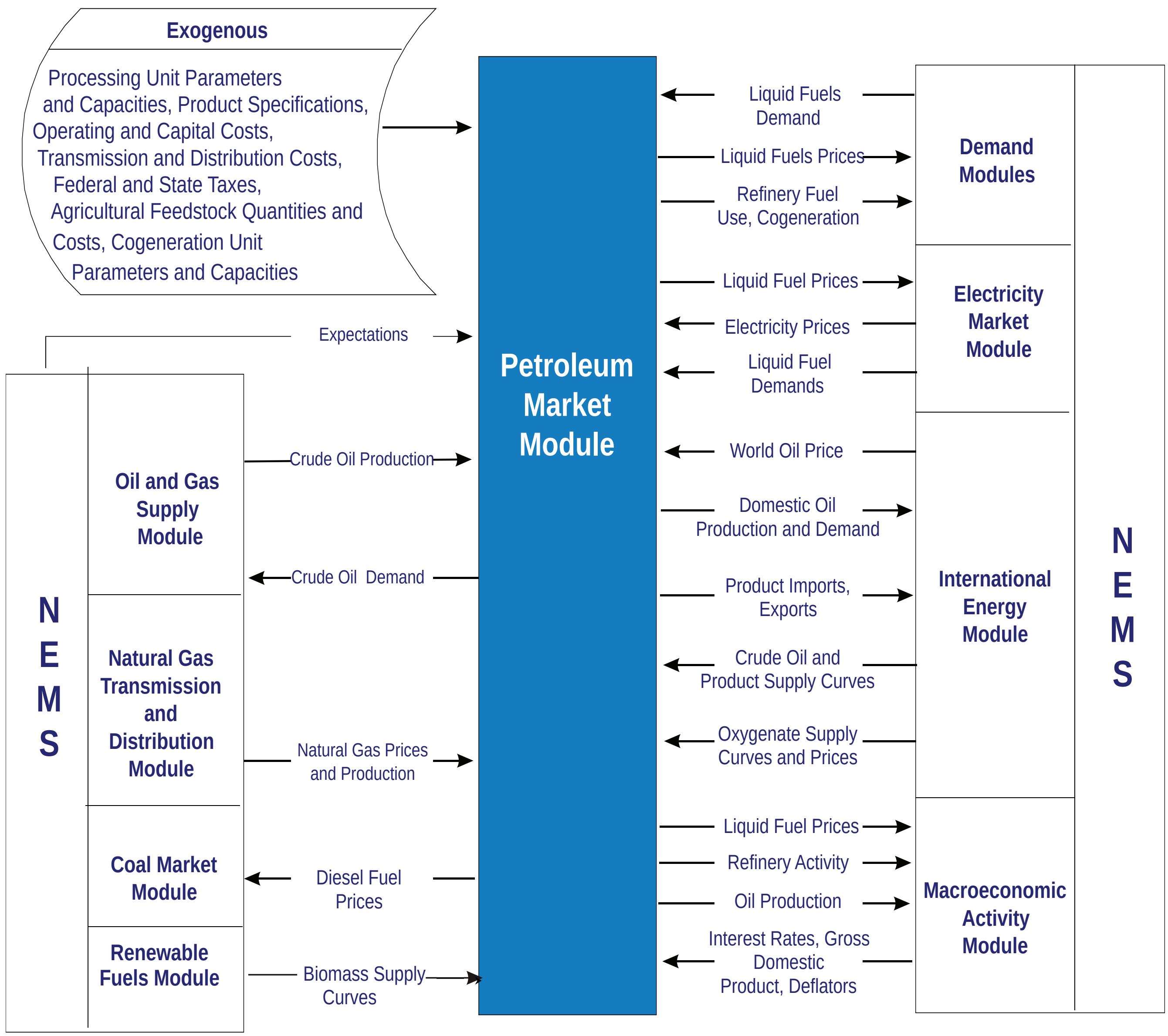
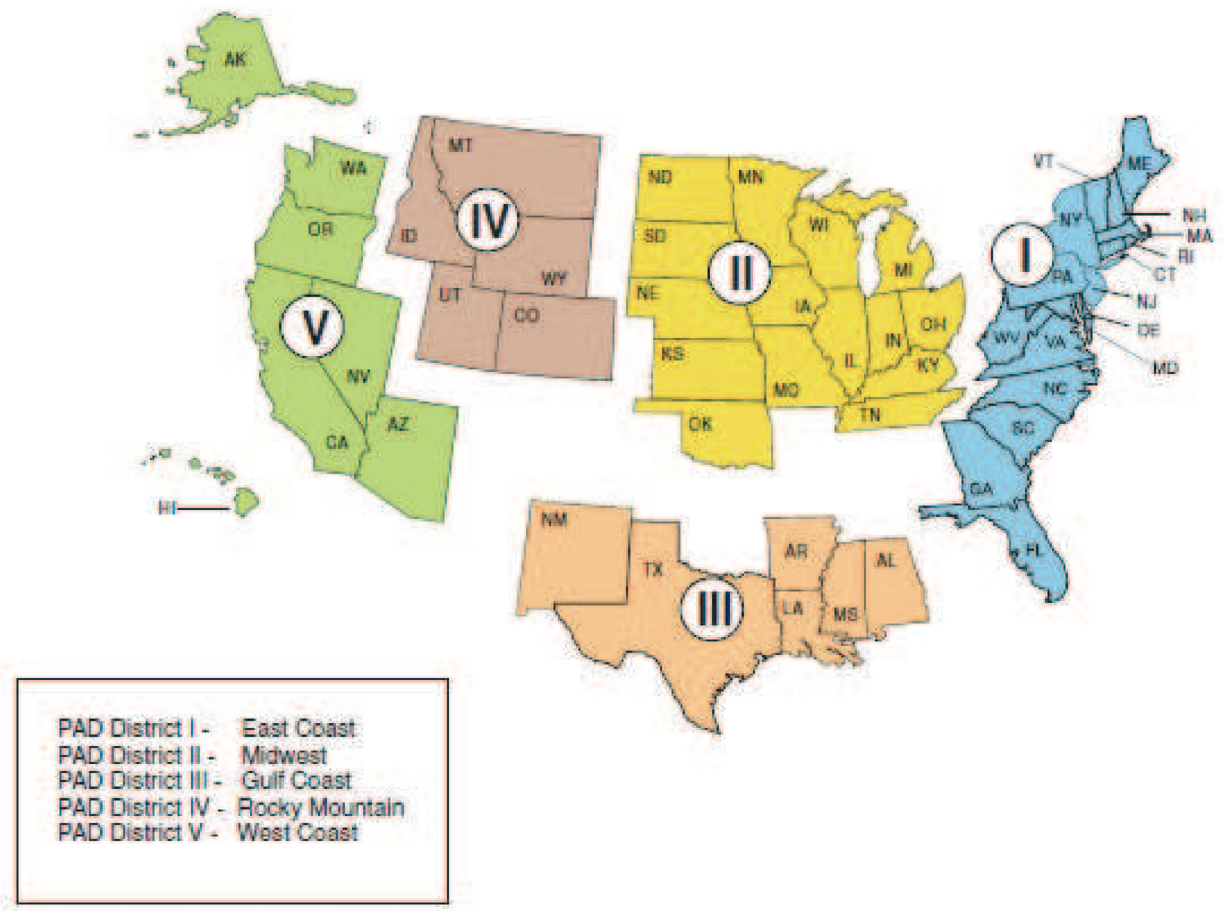


Figure 17. Petroleum Administration for Defense Districts



Product Categories

Product categories, specifications and recipe blends modeled in PMM include the following:

Liquid Fuels Modeled in PMM

Motor gasoline: conventional (oxygenated and non-oxygentated), reformulated, and California reformulated
Jet fuels: kerosene-based
Distillates: kerosene, heating oil, low sulfur (LSD) and ultra-low-sulfur (ULSD) highway diesel, distillate fuel oil, and distillate fuel from various non-crude feedstocks (coal, biomass, natural gas) via the Fischer-Tropsch process (BTL, CTL, GTL)
Alternative Fuel: Biofuels [including ethanol, biodiesel (methyl-ester), renewable diesel, biomass-to-liquids (BTL)], coal-to-liquids (CTL), gas-to-liquids (GTL).
Residual fuels: low sulfur and high sulfur residual fuel oil
Liquefied petroleum gas (LPG): a light-end mixture used for fuel in a wide range of sectors comprised primarily of propane
Natural gas plant:ethane, propane, iso and normal butane, and pentanes plus (natural gasoline)
Petrochemical feedstocks
Other: asphalt and road oil, still gas, (refinery fuel) petroleum coke, lubes and waxes, special naphthas

Fuel Use

PMM determines refinery fuel use by refining region for purchased electricity, natural gas, distillate fuel, residual fuel, liquefied petroleum gas, and other petroleum. The fuels (natural gas, petroleum, other gaseous fuels, and other) consumed within the refinery to generate electricity from CHP facilities are also determined.

Crude Oil Categories

Both domestic and imported crude oils are aggregated into five categories as defined by API gravity and sulfur content ranges. This aggregation of crude oil types allows PMM to account for changes in crude oil composition over time. A composite crude oil with the appropriate yields and qualities is developed for each category by averaging characteristics of foreign and domestic crude oil streams.

Refinery Processes

The following distinct processes are represented in the PMM:

1) Crude Oil Distillation
   a. Atmospheric Crude Unit
   b. Vacuum Crude Unit

2) Residual Oil Upgrading
   a. Coker - Delayed, fluid
   b. Thermal Cracker/Visbreaker
   c. Residuum Hydrocradker
   d. Solvent Deasphalting

3) Cracking
   a. Fluidized Catalytic Cracker
   b. Hydrocracker

4) Final Product Treating/Upgrading
   a. Traditional Hydrotreating
   b. Modern Hydrotreating
   c. Alkylation
   d. Jet Fuel Production
   e. Benzene Saturation
   f. Catalytic Reforming

5) Light End Treating
   a. Saturated Gas Plant
   b. Isomerization
   c. Dimerization/Polymerization
   d. C2-C5 Dehydrogenation

6) Non-Fuel Production
   a. Sulfur Plant
   b. Methanol Production
   c. Oxgenate Production
   d. Lube and Wax Production
   e. Steam/Power Generation
   f. Hydrogen Production
   g. Aromatics Production

7) Specialty Unit Operations
   a. Olefins to Gasoline/Diesel
   b. Methanol to Olefins

8) Merchant Facilities
   a. Coal/Gas/Biomass to Liquids
   b. Natural Gas Plant
   c. Ethanol Production
   d. Biodiesel Plant

Natural Gas Plants

Natural gas plant liquids (ethane, propane, normal butane, isobutane, and natural gasoline) produced from natural gas processing plants are modeled in PMM. Their production levels are based on the projected natural gas supply and historical liquids yields from various natural gas sources. These products move directly into the market to meet demand (e.g., for fuel or petrochemical feedstocks) or are inputs to the refinery.

Petroleum Market Module

Biofuels

PMM contains submodules which provide regional supplies and prices for biofuels: ethanol (conventional/corn, advanced, cellulosic) and various forms of biomass-based diesel: FAME (methyl ester), biomass-to-liquid (Fisher-Tropsch), and renewable ("green") diesel (hydrogenation of vegetable oils or fats). Ethanol is assumed to be blended either at 10 percent into gasoline (conventional or reformulated) or as E85. Food feedstock supply curves (corn, soybean oil, etc.) are updated to USDA baseline projections; biomass feedstocks are drawn from the same supply curves that also supply biomass fuel to renewable power generation within the Renewable Fuels Module of NEMS. The merchant processing units which generate the biofuels supplies sum these feedstock costs with other cost inputs (e.g., capital, operating). A major driving force behind the production of these biofuels is the Renewable Fuels Standard under EISA2007. Details on the market penetration of the advanced biofuels production capacity (such as cellulosic ethanol and BTL) which are not yet commercialized can be found in the PMM documentation.

End-Use Markups

The linear programming portion of the model provides unit prices of products sold in the refinery regions (refinery gate) and in the demand regions (wholesale). End use markups are added to produce a retail price for each of the Census Divisions. The mark ups are based on an average of historical markups, defined as the difference between the end-use prices by sector and the corresponding wholesale price for that product. The average is calculated using data from 2000 to the present. Because of the lack of any consistent trend in the historical end-use markups, the markups remain at the historical average level over the projection period.

State and Federal taxes are also added to transportation fuel prices to determine final end-use prices. Previous tax trend analysis indicates that state taxes increase at the rate of inflation, while Federal taxes do not. In PMM, therefore state taxes are held constant in real terms throughout the projection while Federal taxes are felated at the rate of inflation.[18]

Gasoline Types

Motor vehicle fuel in PMM is categorized into four gasoline blends (conventional, oxygenated conventional, reformulated, and California reformulated) and also E85. While federal law does not mandate gasoline to be oxygenated, all gasoline complying with the Federal reformulated gasoline program is assumed to contain 10 percent ethanol, while conventional gasoline may be "clear" (no ethanol) or used as E10. As the mandate for biofuels grows under the Renewable Fuels Standard, the proportion of conventional gasoline that is E10 also generally grows. California reformulated motor gasoline is assumed to contain 5.7% ethanol in 2009 and 10 percent thereafter in line with its approval of the use of California's Phase 3 reformulated gasoline.

EIA defines E85 as a gasoline type but is treated as a separate fuel in PMM. The transportation module in NEMS provides PMM with a flex fuel vehicle (FFV) demand, and PMM computes a supply curve for E85. This curve incorporates E85 infrastructure and station costs, as well as a logit relationship between the E85 station availability and demand of E85. Infrastructure costs dictate that the E85 supplies emerge in the Midwest first, followed by an expansion to the coasts.

Ultra–Low–Sulfur Diesel

By definition, Ultra Low Sulfur Diesel (ULSD) is highway diesel fuel that contains no more than 15 ppm sulfur at the pump. As of June 2006, 80 percent of all highway diesel produced or imported into the United States was required to be ULSD, while the remaining 20 percent contained a maximum of 500 parts per million. By December 1, 2010 all highway fuel sold at the pump will be required to be ULSD. Major assumptions related to the ULSD rule are as follows:

- Highway diesel at the refinery gate will contain a maximum of 7-ppm sulfur. Although sulfur content is limited to 15 ppm at the pump, there is a general consensus that refineries will need to produce diesel below 10 ppm sulfur in order to allow for contamination during the distribution process.

- Demand for highway grade diesel, both 500 and 15 ppm combined, is assumed to be equivalent to the total transportation distillate demand. Historically, highway grade diesel supplied has nearly matched total transportation distillate sales, although some highway grade

18 http://www.eia.doe.gov/oiaf/archive/aeo07/leg_reg.html.

diesel has gone to non-transportation uses such as construction and agriculture.

Gas, Coal and Biomass to Liquids

Natural gas, coal, and biomass conversion to liquid fuels is modeled in the PMM based on a three step process known as indirect liquefaction. This process is sometimes called Fischer-Tropsch (FT) liquefaction after the inventors of the second step.

The liquid fuels produced include four separate products: FT light naphtha, FT heavy naphtha, FT kerosene, and FT diesel. The FT designation is used to distinguish these liquid fuels from their petroleum counterparts. This is necessary due to the different physical and chemical properties of the FT fuels. For example, FT diesel has a typical cetane rating of approximately 70-75 while that of petroleum diesel is typically much lower (about 40). In addition, the above production methods have differing impacts with regard to current and potential legislation, particularly RFS and CO2.

Coal Market Module

Coal Market Module

The coal market module (CMM) represents the mining, transportation, and pricing of coal, subject to end-use demand. Coal supplies are differentiated by thermal grade, sulfur content, and mining method (underground and surface). CMM also determines the minimum cost pattern of coal supply to meet exogenously defined U.S. coal export demands as a part of the world coal market. Coal distribution, from supply region to demand region, is projected on a cost-minimizing basis. The domestic production and distribution of coal is projected for 14 demand regions and 14 supply regions (Figures 18 and 19).

The CMM components are solved simultaneously. The sequence of solution among components can be summarized as follows. Coal supply curves are produced by the coal production submodule and input to the coal distribution submodule. Given the coal supply curves, distribution costs, and coal demands, the coal distribution submodule projects delivered coal prices. The module is iterated to convergence with respect to equilibrium prices to all demand sectors. The structure of the CMM is shown in Figure 20.

Coal Production Submodule

This submodule produces annual coal supply curves, relating annual production to minemouth prices. The supply curves are constructed from an econometric analysis of prices as a function of productive capacity, capacity utilization, productivity, and various factor input costs. A separate supply curve is provided for surface and underground mining for all significant production by coal thermal grade (metallurgical, bituminous, subbituminous and lignite), and sulfur level in each supply region. Each supply curve is assigned a unique heat, sulfur, and mercury content, and carbon dioxide emissions factor. Constructing curves for the coal types available in each region yields a total of 40 curves that are used as inputs to the coal distribution submodule. Supply curves are updated for each year in the projection period. Coal supply curves are shared with both the EMM and the PMM. For detailed assumptions, please see the Assumptions to the Annual Energy Outlook updated each year with the release of the AEO.

Coal Distribution Submodule: Domestic Component

The coal distribution submodule is a linear program that determines the least-cost supplies of coal for a given set of coal demands by demand region and sector, accounting for transportation costs from the different supply curves, heat and sulfur content, and existing coal supply contracts. Existing supply contracts between coal producers and electricity generators are incorporated in the model as minimum flows for supply curves to coal demand regions. Depending on the specific scenario, coal distribution may also be affected by any restrictions on sulfur dioxide, mercury, or carbon dioxide emissions.

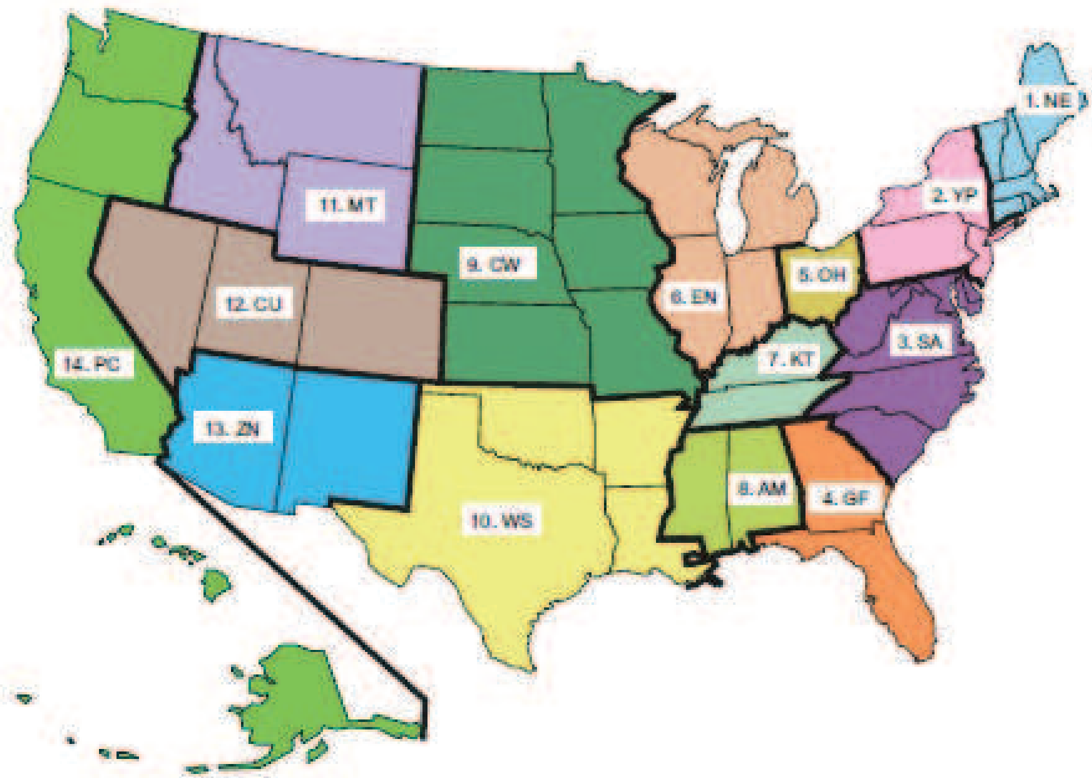
Coal transportation costs are simulated using interregional coal transportation costs derived by subtracting reported minemouth costs for each supply curve from reported delivered costs for each demand type in each demand region. For the electricity sector, higher transportation costs are assumed for market expansion in certain supply and demand region combinations. Transportation rates are modified over time using econometrically based multipliers which considers the impact of changing productivity and equipment costs. When diesel fuel prices are sufficiently high, a fuel surcharge is also added to the transportation costs.

Coal Distribution Submodule: International Component

The international component of the coal distribution submodule projects quantities of coal imported and exported from the United States. The quantities are determined within a world trade context, based on assumed characteristics of foreign coal supply and demand. The component disaggregates coal into 17 export regions and 20 import regions, as shown inTable 13. The supply and demand components of world coal trade are

CMM Outputs	Inputs from NEMS	Exogenous Inputs
Coal production and distribution Minemouth coal prices End-use coal prices U.S. coal exports and imports Transportation rates Coal quality by source, destination, and end-use sector World coal flows	Coal demand Interest rates Price indices and deflators Diesel fuel prices Electricity prices	Base year production, productive capacity, capacity utilization, prices, and coal quality parameters Contract quantities Labor productivity Labor costs Domestic transportation costs International transportation costs International supply curves International coal import demands

Figure 18. Coal Market Module Demand Regions



Region Code	Region Content
1. NE	CT,MA,ME,NH,RI,VT
2. YP	NY,PA,NJ
3. SA	WV,MD,DC,DE,VA,NC,SC
4. GF	GA,FL
5. OH	OH
6. EN	IN,IL,MI,WI
7. KT	KY,TN

Region Code	Region Content
8. AM	AL,MS
9. CW	MN,IA,ND,SD,NE,MO,KS
10. WS	TX,LA,OK,AR
11. MT	MT,WY,ID
12. CU	CO,UT,NV
13. ZN	AZ,NM
14. PC	AK,HI,WA,OR,CA

segmented into two separate markets: 1) coking coal, which is used for the production of coke for the steelmaking process; and 2) steam coal, which is primarily consumed in the electricity and industrial sectors.

The international component is solved as part of the linear program that optimizes U.S. coal supply. It determines world coal trade distribution by minimizing overall costs for coal, subject to coal supply prices in the United States and other coal exporting regions plus transportation costs. The component also incorporates supply diversity constraints that reflect the observed tendency of coal-importing countries to avoid excessive dependence upon one source of supply, even at a somewhat higher cost.

Figure 19. Coal Market Module Supply Regions

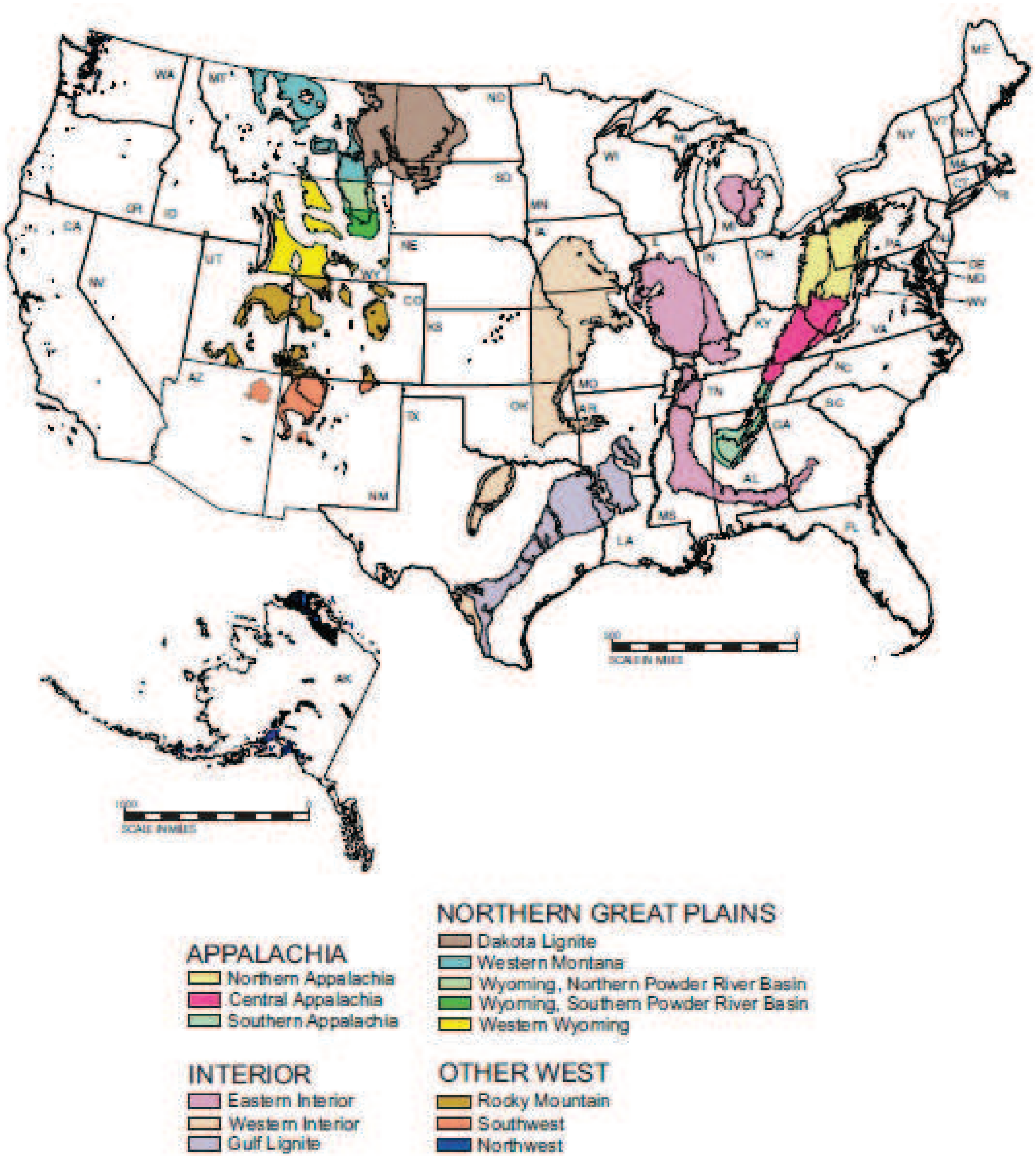
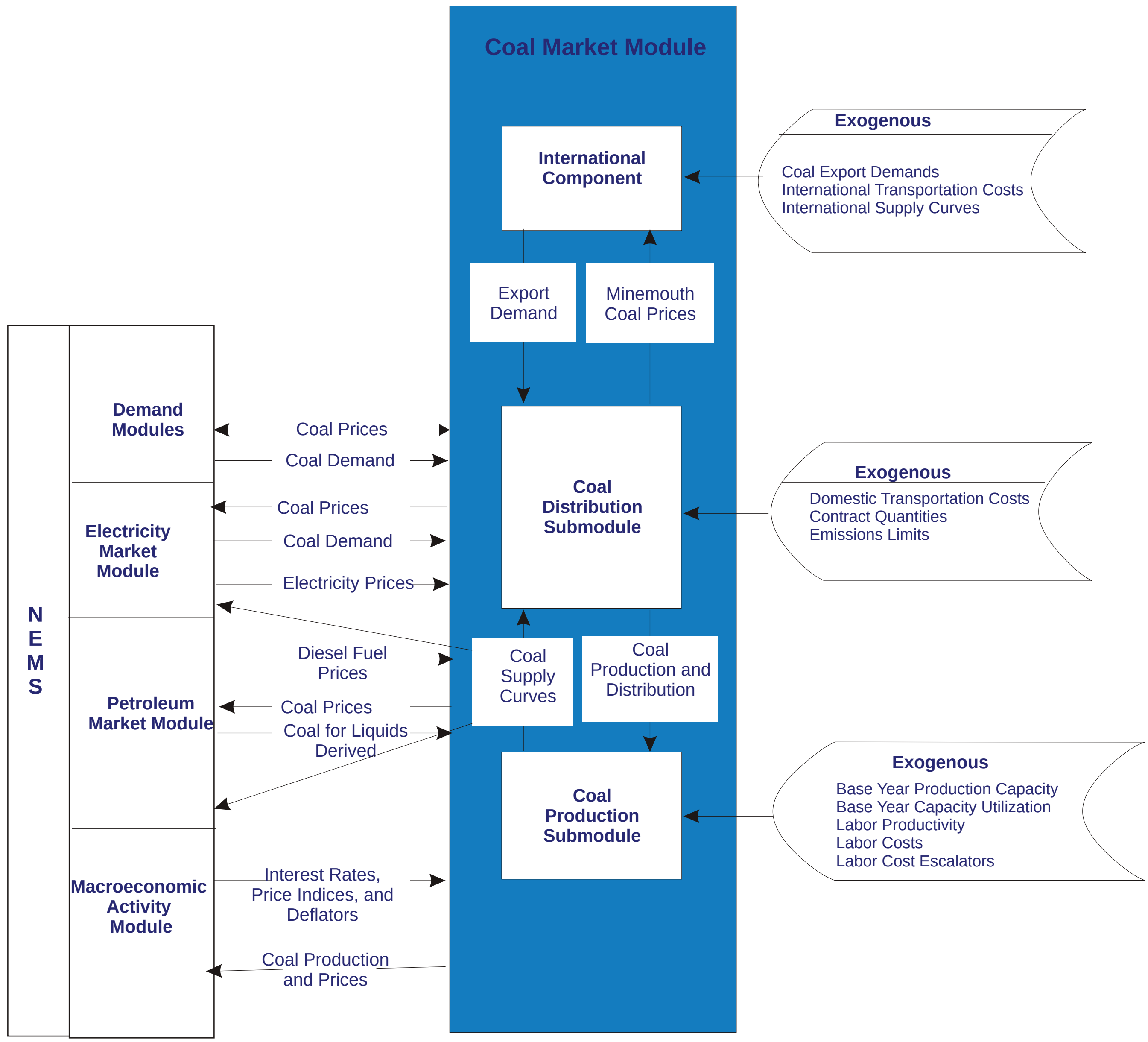


Table 13. Coal Export Component

Coal Export Regions	Coal Import Regions
U.S. East Coast	U.S. East Coast
U.S. Gulf Coast	U.S. Gulf Coast
U.S. Southwest and West	U.S. Northern Interior
U.S. Northern Interior	U.S. Noncontiguous
U.S. Noncontiguous	Eastern Canada
Australia	Interior Canada
Western Canada	Scandinavia
Interior Canada	United Kingdom and Ireland
Southern Africa	Germany and Austria
Poland	Other Northwestern Europe
Eurasia-exports to Europe	Iberia
Eurasia-exports to Asia	Italy
China	Mediterranean and Eastern Europe
Colombia	Mexico
Indonesia	South America
Venezuela	Japan
Vietnam	East Asia
	China and Hong Kong
	ASEAN (Association of Southeast Asian Nations)
	India and South Asia

Figure 20. Coal Market Module Structure



Appendix

Appendix Bibliography

The National Energy Modeling System is documented in a series of model documentation reports, available on the EIA Web site at http://tonto.eia.doe.gov/reports/reports_kindD.asp?type=model documentation or by contacting the National Energy Information Center (202/586-8800).

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DOE/EIA-M062(2011)

Model Documentation

Natural Gas Transmission and Distribution Module of the National Energy Modeling System

February 2012

Office of Petroleum, Gas, and Biofuels Analysis
U.S. Energy Information Administration
U.S. Department of Energy
Washington, DC 20585

Contact Information

The Natural Gas Transmission and Distribution Module (NGTDM) of the National Energy Modeling System is developed and maintained by the U.S. Energy Information Administration (EIA), Office of Petroleum, Gas, and Biofuels Analysis. General questions about the use of the model can be addressed to Michael Schaal (202) 586-5590, Director of the Office of Petroleum, Gas, and Biofuels Analysis. Specific questions concerning the NGTDM may be addressed to:

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This report documents the archived version of the NGTDM that was used to produce the natural gas forecasts presented in the *Annual Energy Outlook 2011*, (DOE/EIA-0383(2011). The purpose of this report is to provide a reference document for model analysts, users, and the public that defines the objectives of the model, describes its basic approach, and provides detail on the methodology employed.

The model documentation is updated annually to reflect significant model methodology and software changes that take place as the model develops. The next version of the documentation is planned to be released in the first quarter of 2012.

Update Information

This edition of the model documentation of the Natural Gas Transmission and Distribution Module (NGTDM) reflects changes made to the module over the past year for the *Annual Energy Outlook 2011*. Aside from general data and parameter updates, the notable changes include the following:

- Reestimated equations for distributor and pipeline tariffs.

- Updated coalbed and shale undiscovered resource assumptions in Canada.

- Moved representation of conventional and tight natural gas production in Western Canada from the Oil and Gas Supply Module to the NGTDM.

Contents

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Abbreviations and Acronyms

AEO	Annual Energy Outlook
Bcf	Billion cubic feet
Bcfd	Billion cubic feet per day
BTU	British Thermal Unit
DTS	Distributor Tariff Submodule
EMM	Electricity Market Module
GAMS	Gas Analysis Modeling System
IFFS	Integrated Future Forecasting System
ITS	Interstate Transmission Submodule
MEFS	Mid-term Energy Forecasting System
MMBTU	Million British thermal units
Mcf	Thousand cubic feet
MMcf	Million cubic feet
MMcfd	Million cubic feet per day
MMBBL	Million barrels
NEMS	National Energy Modeling System
NGA	Natural Gas Annual
NGM	Natural Gas Monthly
NGTDM	Natural Gas Transmission and Distribution Module
OGSM	Oil and Gas Supply Module
PIES	Project Independence Evaluation System
PMM	Petroleum Market Module
PTS	Pipeline Tariff Submodule
STEO	Short-Term Energy Outlook
Tcf	Trillion cubic feet
WCSB	Western Canadian Sedimentary Basin

1. Background/Overview

The Natural Gas Transmission and Distribution Module (NGTDM) is the component of the National Energy Modeling System (NEMS) that is used to represent the U.S. domestic natural gas transmission and distribution system. NEMS was developed by the former Office of Integrated Analysis and Forecasting of the U.S. Energy Information Administration (EIA) and is the third in a series of computer-based, midterm energy modeling systems used since 1974 by the EIA and its predecessor, the Federal Energy Administration, to analyze and project U.S. domestic energy-economy markets. From 1982 through 1993, the Intermediate Future Forecasting System (IFFS) was used by the EIA for its integrated analyses. Prior to 1982, the Midterm Energy Forecasting System (MEFS), an extension of the simpler Project Independence Evaluation System (PIES), was employed. NEMS was developed to enhance and update EIA's modeling capability. Greater structural detail in NEMS permits the analysis of a broader range of energy issues. While NEMS was initially developed in 1992 the model is updated each year, from simple historical data updates to complete replacements of submodules.

The time horizon of NEMS is the midterm period that extends approximately 25 years to year 2035. In order to represent the regional differences in energy markets, the component modules of NEMS function at regional levels appropriate for the markets represented, with subsequent aggregation/disaggregation to the Census Division level for reporting purposes. The projections in NEMS are developed assuming that energy markets are in equilibrium[1] using a recursive price adjustment mechanism.[2]. For each fuel and consuming sector, NEMS balances energy supply and demand, accounting for the economic competition between the various fuels and sources. NEMS is organized and implemented as a modular system.[3] The NEMS modules represent each of the fuel supply markets, conversion sectors (e.g., refineries and power generation), and end-use consumption sectors of the energy system. NEMS also includes macroeconomic and international modules. A routine was also added to the system that simulates a carbon emissions cap and trade system with annual fees to limit carbon emissions from energy-related fuel combustion. The primary flows of information between each of these modules are the delivered prices of energy to the end user and the quantities consumed by product, Census Division, and end-use sector. The delivered fuel prices encompass all the activities necessary to produce, import, and transport fuels to the end user. The information flows also include other data such as economic activity, domestic production activity, and international petroleum supply availability.

The integrating routine of NEMS controls the execution of each of the component modules. The modular design provides the capability to execute modules individually, thus allowing independent analysis with, as well as development of, individual modules. This modularity allows the use of the methodology and level of detail most appropriate for each energy sector. Each forecasting year, NEMS solves by iteratively calling each module in sequence (once in each NEMS iteration) until the delivered prices and quantities of each fuel in each region have

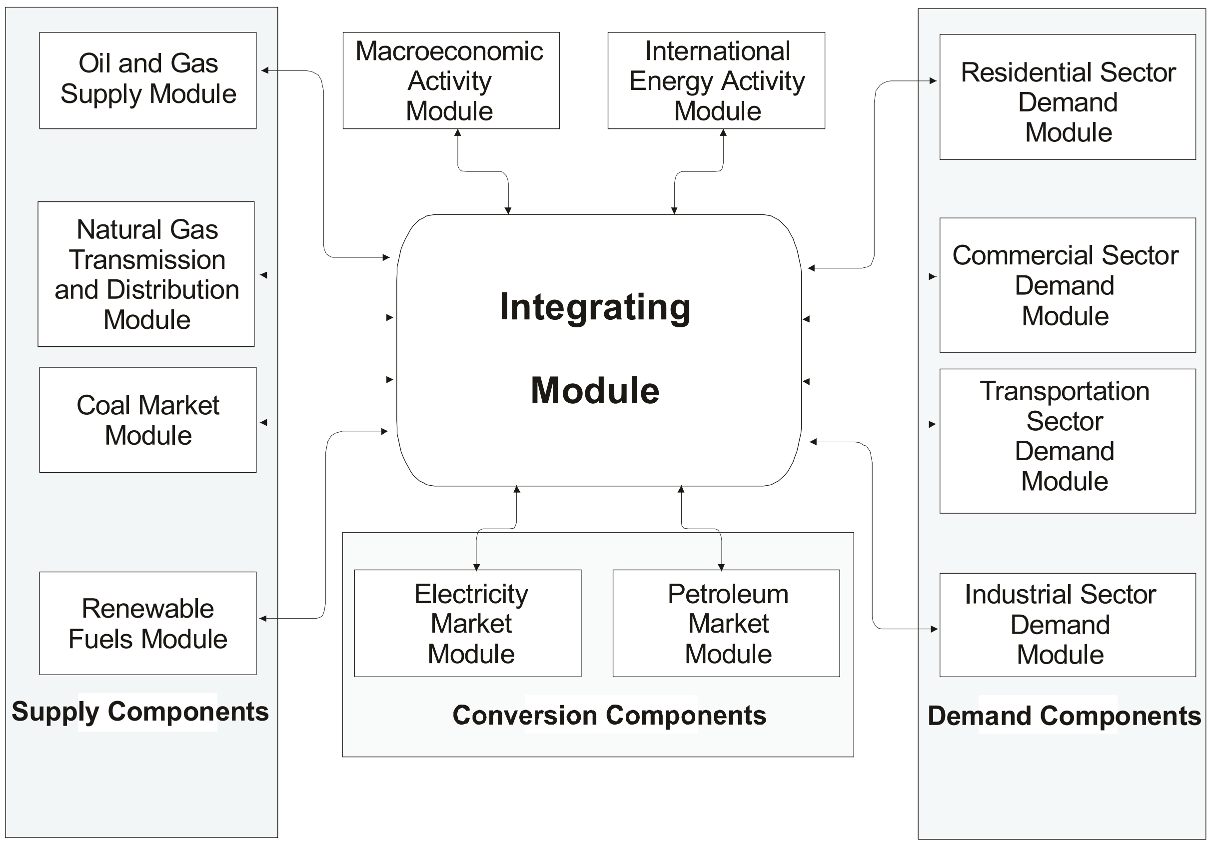
[1]Markets are said to be in equilibrium when the quantities demanded equal the quantities supplied at the same price; that is, at a price that sellers are willing to provide the commodity and consumers are willing to purchase the commodity.

[2]The central theme of the approach used is that supply and demand imbalances will eventually be rectified through an adjustment in prices that eliminates excess supply or demand.

[3]The NEMS is composed of 13 modules including a system integration routine.

converged within tolerance between the various modules, thus achieving an economic equilibrium of supply and demand in the consuming sectors. Module solutions are reported annually through the midterm horizon. A schematic of the NEMS is provided in **Figure 1-1**, while a list of the associated model documentation reports is in Appendix C, including a report providing an overview of the whole system.

Figure 1-1. Schematic of the National Energy Modeling System



NGTDM Overview

The NGTDM module within the NEMS represents the transmission, distribution, and pricing of natural gas. Based on information received from other NEMS modules, the NGTDM also includes representations of the end-use demand for natural gas, the production of domestic natural gas, and the availability of natural gas traded on the international market. The NGTDM links natural gas suppliers (including importers) and consumers in the lower 48 States and across the Mexican and Canadian borders via a natural gas transmission and distribution network, while determining the flow of natural gas and the regional market clearing prices between suppliers and end-users. For two seasons of each forecast year, the NGTDM determines the production, flows, and prices of natural gas within an aggregate representation of the U.S./Canadian pipeline network, connecting domestic and foreign supply regions with 12 U.S. and 2 Canadian demand regions. Since the NEMS operates on an annual (not a seasonal) basis, NGTDM results are generally passed to other NEMS modules as annual totals or quantity-weighted annual averages. Since the Electricity Market Module has a seasonal component, peak and off-peak[4] prices are also provided for natural gas to electric generators.

Natural gas pricing and flow patterns are derived by obtaining a market equilibrium across the three main elements of the natural gas market: the supply element, the demand element, and the transmission and distribution network that links them. The methodology employed allows for the analysis of impacts of regional capacity constraints in the interstate natural gas pipeline network and the identification of primary pipeline and storage capacity expansion requirements. Key components of interstate pipeline tariffs are projected, along with distributor tariffs.

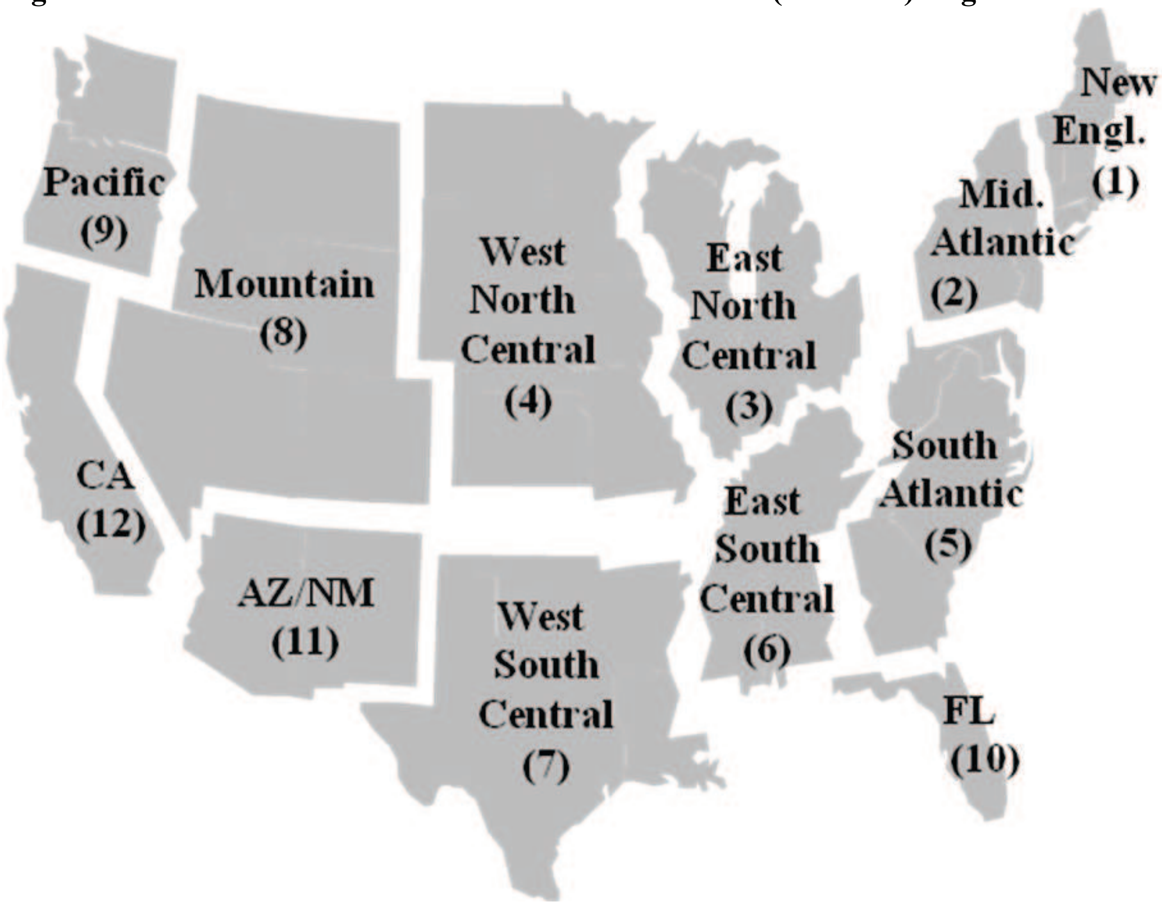
The lower-48 demand regions represented are the 12 NGTDM regions (**Figure 1-2**). These regions are an extension of the 9 Census Divisions, with Census Division 5 split into South Atlantic and Florida, Census Division 8 split into Mountain and Arizona/New Mexico, Census Division 9 split into California and Pacific, and Alaska and Hawaii handled independently. Within the U.S. regions, consumption is represented for five end-use sectors: residential, commercial, industrial, electric generation, and transportation (or natural gas vehicles), with the industrial and electric generator sectors further distinguished by core and noncore segments. One or more domestic supply region is represented in each of the 12 NGTDM regions. Canadian supply and demand are represented by two interconnected regions -- East Canada and West Canada -- which connect to the lower 48 regions via seven border crossing nodes. The demarcation of East and West Canada is at the Manitoba/Ontario border. In addition, the model accounts for the potential construction of a pipeline from Alaska to Alberta and one from the MacKenzie Delta to Alberta, if market prices are high enough to make the projects economic. The representation of the natural gas market in Canada is much less detailed than for the United States since the primary focus of the model is on the domestic U.S. market. Potential liquefied natural gas (LNG) imports into North America are modeled for each of the coastal regions represented in the model, including seven regions in the United States, a potential import point in the Bahamas, potential import points in eastern and western Canada, and in western Mexico (if destined for the United States).[5] Any LNG facilities in existence or under construction are represented in the model. However, the model does not project the construction of any additional facilities. Finally, LNG exports from Alaska's Nikiski plant are included, as well as three import/export border crossings at the Mexican border.

The module consists of three major components: the Interstate Transmission Submodule (ITS), the Pipeline Tariff Submodule (PTS), and the Distributor Tariff Submodule (DTS). The ITS is the integrating submodule of the NGTDM. It simulates the natural gas price determination process by bringing together all major economic factors that influence regional natural gas trade in the United States, including pipeline and storage capacity expansion decisions. The Pipeline Tariff Submodule (PTS) generates a representation of tariffs for interstate transportation and storage services, both existing and expansions. The Distributor Tariff Submodule (DTS) generates markups for distribution services provided by local distribution companies and for

[4]The peak period covers the period from December through March; the off-peak period covers the remaining months.
[5]The LNG imports into Mexico to serve the Mexico market are set exogenously.

transmission services provided by intrastate pipeline companies. The modeling techniques employed are a heuristic/iterative process for the ITS, an accounting algorithm for the PTS, and a series of historically based and econometrically based equations for the DTS.

Figure 1-2. Natural Gas Transmission and Distribution (NGTDM) Regions



NGTDM Objectives

The purpose of the NGTDM is to derive natural gas delivered and wellhead prices, as well as flow patterns for movements of natural gas through the regional interstate network. Although the NEMS operates on an annual basis, the NGTDM was designed to be a two-season model, to better represent important features of the natural gas market. The prices and flow patterns are derived by obtaining a market equilibrium across the three main elements of the natural gas market: the supply element, the demand element, and the transmission and distribution network that links them. The representations of the key features of the transmission and distribution network are the focus of the various components of the NGTDM. These key modeling objectives/capabilities include:

- Represent interregional flows of gas and pipeline capacity constraints
- Represent regional and import supplies
- Determine the amount and the location of required additional pipeline and storage capacity on a regional basis, capturing the economic tradeoffs between pipeline and storage capacity additions
- Provide a peak/off-peak, or seasonal analysis capability
- Represent transmission and distribution service pricing

Overview of the Documentation Report

The archived version of the NGTDM that was used to produce the natural gas forecasts used in support of the *Annual Energy Outlook 2011*, DOE/EIA-0383(2011) is documented in this report. The purpose of this report is to provide a reference document for model analysts, users, and the public that defines the objectives of the model, describes its basic design, provides detail on the methodology employed, and describes the model inputs, outputs, and key assumptions. It is intended to fulfill the legal obligation of the EIA to provide adequate documentation in support of its models (Public Law 94-385, Section 57.b.2). Subsequent chapters of this report provide:

- A description of the interface between the NEMS and the NGTDM and the representation of demand and supply used in the module (Chapter 2)
- An overview of the solution methodology of the NGTDM (Chapter 3)
- The solution methodology for the Interstate Transmission Submodule (Chapter 4)
- The solution methodology for the Distributor Tariff Submodule (Chapter 5)
- The solution methodology for the Pipeline Tariff Submodule (Chapter 6)
- A description of module assumptions, inputs, and outputs (Chapter 7).

The archived version of the model is available through the National Energy Information Center (202-586-8800, infoctr@eia.doe.gov) and is identified as NEMS2011 (part of the National Energy Modeling System archive package as archived for the Annual Energy Outlook 2011, DOE/EIA-0383(2011)).

The document includes a number of appendices to support the material presented in the main body of the report. Appendix A presents the module abstract. Appendix B lists the major references used in developing the NGTDM. Appendix C lists the various NEMS Model Documentation Reports for the various modules that are mentioned throughout the NGTDM documentation. A mapping of equations presented in the documentation to the relevant subroutine in the code is provided in Appendix D. Appendix E provides a mapping between the variables that are assigned values through READ statements in the module and the data input files that are read. The input files contain detailed descriptions of the input data, including variable names, definitions, sources, units and derivations.[6] Appendix F documents the

[6]The NGTDM data files are available upon request by contacting Joe Benneche at Joseph.Benneche@eia.doe.gov or (202) 586-6132. Alternatively an archived version of the NEMS model (source code and data files) can be downloaded from ftp://ftp.eia.doe.gov/pub/forecasts/aeo.

derivation of all empirical estimations used in the NGTDM. Variable cross-reference tables are provided in Appendix G. Finally, Appendix H contains a description of the algorithm used to project new coal-to-gas plants and the pipeline quality gas produced.

2. Demand and Supply Representation

This chapter describes how supply and demand are represented within the NGTDM and the basic role that the Natural Gas Transmission and Distribution Module (NGTDM) fulfills in the NEMS. First, a general description of the NEMS is provided, along with an overview of the NGTDM. Second, the data passed to and from the NGTDM and other NEMS modules is described along with the methodology used within the NGTDM to transform the input values prior to their use in the model. The natural gas demand representation used in the module is described, followed by a section on the natural gas supply interface and representation, and concluding with a section on the representation of demand and supply in Alaska.

A Brief Overview of NEMS and the NGTDM

The NEMS represents all of the major fuel markets (crude oil and petroleum products, natural gas, coal, electricity, and imported energy) and iteratively solves for an annual supply/demand balance for each of the nine Census Divisions, accounting for the price responsiveness in both energy production and end-use demand, and for the interfuel substitution possibilities. NEMS solves for an equilibrium in each forecast year by iteratively operating a series of fuel supply and demand modules to compute the end-use prices and consumption of the fuels represented, effectively finding the intersection of the theoretical supply and demand curves reflected in these modules.[7] The end-use demand modules (for the residential, commercial, industrial, and transportation sectors) are detailed representations of the important factors driving energy consumption in each of these sectors. Using the delivered prices of each fuel, computed by the supply modules, the demand modules evaluate the consumption of each fuel, taking into consideration the interfuel substitution possibilities, the existing stock of fuel and fuel conversion burning equipment, and the level of economic activity. Conversely, the fuel conversion and supply modules determine the end-use prices needed in order to supply the amount of fuel demanded by the customers, as determined by the demand modules. Each supply module considers the factors relevant to that particular fuel, for example: the resource base for oil and gas, the transportation costs for coal, or the refinery configurations for petroleum products. Electric generators and refineries are both suppliers and consumers of energy.

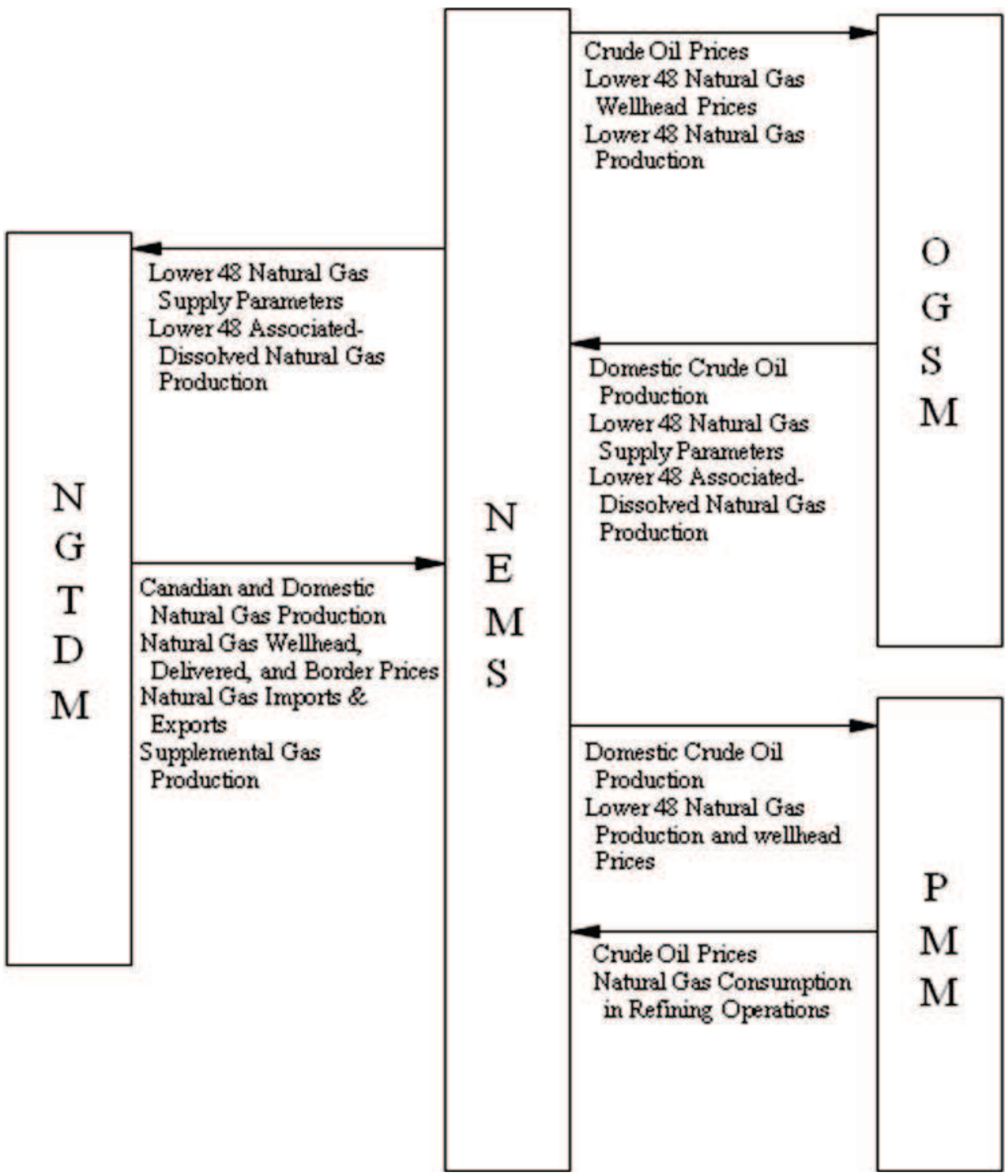
Within the NEMS system, the NGTDM provides the interface for natural gas between the Oil and Gas Supply Module (OGSM) and the demand modules in NEMS, including the Electricity Market Module (EMM). Since the other modules provide little, if any, information on markets outside of the United States, the NGTDM uses supply curves for liquefied natural gas (LNG) imports based on output results from EIA's separate International Natural Gas Model (INGM) and includes a simple representation of natural gas markets in Canada and Mexico in order to project LNG and pipeline import levels into the United States. The NGTDM estimates the price and flow of dry natural gas supplied internationally from the contiguous U.S. border[8] or

[7]A more detailed description of the NEMS system, including the convergence algorithm used, can be found in "Integrating Module of the National Energy Modeling System: Model Documentation 2010." DOE/EIA-M057(2010), May 2010 or "The National Energy Modeling System: An Overview 2009," DOE/EIA-0581(2009), October 2009.

[8]Natural gas exports are also accounted for within the model.

domestically from the wellhead (and indirectly from natural gas processing plants) to the domestic end-user. In so doing, the NGTDM models the markets for the transmission (pipeline companies) and distribution (local distribution companies) of natural gas in the contiguous United States.[9] The primary data flows between the NGTDM and the other oil and gas modules in NEMS, the Petroleum Market Module (PMM) and the OGSM are depicted in **Figure 2-1**.

Figure 2-1. Primary Data Flows between Oil and Gas Modules of NEMS



[9]Because of the distinct separation in the natural gas market between Alaska, Hawaii, and the contiguous United States, natural gas consumption in, and the associated supplies from, Alaska and Hawaii are modeled separately from the contiguous United States within the NGTDM.

In each NEMS iteration, the demand modules in NEMS provide the level of natural gas that would be consumed at the burner-tip in each region by the represented sector at the delivered price set by the NGTDM in the previous NEMS iteration. At the beginning of each forecast year during a model run, the OGSM provides an expected annual level of natural gas produced at the wellhead in each region represented, given the oil and gas wellhead prices from the previous forecast year. (Some supply sources (e.g., Canada) are modeled directly in the NGTDM.) The NGTDM uses this information to build "short-term" (annual or seasonal) supply and demand curves to approximate the supply or demand response to price. Given these short-term demand and supply curves, the NGTDM solves for the delivered, wellhead, and border prices that represent a natural gas market equilibrium, while accounting for the costs and market for transmission and distribution services (including its physical and regulatory constraints).[10] These solution prices, and associated production levels, are in turn passed to the OGSM and the demand modules, including the EMM, as primary input variables for the next NEMS iteration and/or forecast year. Most of the calculations within OGSM are performed only once each NEMS iteration, after the NEMS has converged to an equilibrium solution. Information from OGSM is passed as needed to the NGTDM to solve for the following forecast year.

The NGTDM is composed of three primary components or submodules: the Interstate Transmission Submodule (ITS), the Pipeline Tariff Submodule (PTS), and the Distributor Tariff Submodule (DTS). The ITS is the central module of the NGTDM, since it is used to derive network flows and prices of natural gas in conjunction with a peak[11] and off-peak natural gas market equilibrium. Conceptually the ITS is a simplified representation of the natural gas transmission and distribution system, structured as a network composed of nodes and arcs. The other two primary components serve as satellite submodules to the ITS, providing parameters which define the tariffs to be charged along each of the interregional, intraregional, intrastate, and distribution segments. Data are also passed back to these satellite submodules from the ITS. Other parameters for defining the natural gas market (such as supply and demand curves) are derived based on information passed primarily from other NEMS modules. However in some cases, supply (e.g., synthetic gas production) and demand components (e.g., pipeline fuel) are modeled exclusively in the NGTDM.

The NGTDM is called once each NEMS iteration, but all submodules are not run for every call. The PTS is executed only once for each forecast year, on the first iteration for each year. The ITS and the DTS are executed once every NEMS iteration. The calling sequence of and the interaction among the NGTDM modules is as follows for each forecast year executed in NEMS:

First Iteration:

a. The PTS determines the revenue requirements associated with interregional / interstate pipeline company transportation and storage services, using a cost based approach, and uses this information and cost of expansion estimates as a basis in establishing fixed rates and volume dependent tariff curves (variable rates) for pipeline and storage usage.

[10] Parameters are provided by OGSM for the construction of supply curves for domestic non-associated natural gas production. The NGTDM establishes a supply curve for conventional Western Canada. The use of demand curves in the NGTDM is an option; the model can also respond to fixed consumption levels.

[11] The peak period covers the period from December through March; the off-peak period covers the remaining months.

b. The ITS establishes supply levels (e.g., for supplemental supplies) and supply curves for production and LNG imports based on information from other modules.

Each Iteration:

a. The DTS sets markups for intrastate transmission and for distribution services using econometric relationships based on historical data, largely driven by changes in consumption levels.

b. The ITS processes consumption levels from NEMS demand modules as required, (e.g., annual consumption levels are disaggregated into peak and off-peak levels) before determining a market equilibrium solution across the two-period NGTDM network.

c. The ITS employs an iterative process to determine a market equilibrium solution which balances the supply and demand for natural gas across a U.S./Canada network, thereby setting prices throughout the system and production and import levels. This operation is performed simultaneously for both the peak and off-peak periods.

Last Iteration:

a. In the process of establishing a network/market equilibrium, the ITS also determines the associated pipeline and storage capacity expansion requirements. These expansion levels are passed to the PTS and are used in the revenue requirements calculation for the next forecast year. One of the inputs to the NGTDM is "planned" pipeline and storage expansions. These are based on reported pending and commenced construction projects and analysts' judgment as to the likelihood of the project's completion. For the first two forecast years, the model does not allow builds beyond these planned expansion levels.

b. Other outputs from NGTDM are passed to report writing routines.

For the historical years (1990 through 2009), a modified version of the above process is followed to calibrate the model to history. Most, but not all, of the model components are known for the historical years. In a few cases, historical levels are available annually, but not for the peak and off-peak periods (e.g., the interstate flow of natural gas and regional wellhead prices). The primary unknowns are pipeline and storage tariffs and market hub prices. When prices are translated from the supply nodes, through the network to the end-user (or city gate) in the historical years, the resulting prices are compared against published values for city gate prices. These differentials (benchmark factors) are carried through and applied during the forecast years as a calibration mechanism. In the most recent historical year (2009) even fewer historical values are known; and the process is adjusted accordingly.

The primary outputs from the NGTDM, which are used as input in other NEMS modules, result from establishing a natural gas market equilibrium solution: delivered prices, wellhead and border crossing prices, non-associated natural gas production, and Canadian and LNG import levels. In addition, the NGTDM provides a forecast of lease and plant fuel consumption, pipeline fuel use, as well as pipeline and distributor tariffs, pipeline and storage capacity expansion, and interregional natural gas flows.

Natural Gas Demand Representation

Natural gas produced within the United States is consumed in lease and plant operations, delivered to consumers, exported internationally, or consumed as pipeline fuel. The consumption of gas as lease, plant, and pipeline fuel is determined within the NGTDM. Gas used in well, field, and lease operations and in natural gas processing plants is set equal to a historically observed percentage of dry gas production.[12] Pipeline fuel use depends on the amount of gas flowing through each region, as described in Chapter 4. The representation in the NGTDM of gas delivered to consumers is described below.

Classification of Natural Gas Consumers

Natural gas that is delivered to consumers is represented within the NEMS at the Census Division level and by five primary end-use sectors: residential, commercial, industrial, transportation, and electric generation.[13] These demands are further distinguished by customer class (core or non-core), reflecting the type of natural gas transmission and distribution service that is assumed to be predominately purchased. A "core" customer is expected to generally require guaranteed or firm service, particularly during peak days/periods during the year. A "non-core" customer is expected to require a lower quality of transmission services (non-firm service) and therefore, consume gas under a less certain and/or less continuous basis. While customers are distinguished by customer class for the purpose of assigning different delivered prices, the NGTDM does not explicitly distinguish firm versus non-firm transmission service. Currently in NEMS, all customers in the transportation, residential, and commercial sectors are classified as core.[14] Within the industrial sector the non-core segment includes the industrial boiler market and refineries; the core makes up the rest. The electric generating units defining each of the two customer classes modeled are as follows: (1) core − gas steam units or gas combined cycle units, (2) non-core − dual-fired turbine units, gas turbine units, or dual-fired steam plants (consuming both natural gas and residual fuel oil).[15]

For any given NEMS iteration and forecast year, the demand modules in NEMS determine the level of natural gas consumption for each region and customer class given the delivered price for the same region, class, and sector, as calculated by the NGTDM in the previous NEMS iteration. Within the NGTDM, each of these consumption levels (and its associated price) is used in

[12]The regional factors used in calculating lease and plant fuel consumption (PCTLP) are initially based on historical averages (1996 through 2009) and held constant throughout the forecast period. However, a model option allows for these factors to be scaled in the first one or two forecast years so that the resulting national lease and plant fuel consumption will match the annual published values presented in the latest available *Short-Term Energy Outlook* (STEO), DOE/EIA-0202), (Appendix E, STQLPIN). The adjustment attributable to benchmarking to STEO (if selected as an option) is phased out by the year STPHAS_YR (Appendix E). For *AEO2011* these factors were phased out by 2014. A similar adjustment is performed on the factors used in calculating pipeline fuel consumption using STEO values from STQGPTR (Appendix E).

[13]Natural gas burned in the transportation sector is defined as compressed natural gas or liquefied natural gas that is burned in natural gas vehicles; and the electric generation sector includes all electric power generators whose primary business is to sell electricity, or electricity and heat, to the public, including combined heat and power plants, small power producers, and exempt wholesale generators.

[14]The NEMS is structurally able to classify a segment of these sectors as non-core, but currently sets the non-core consumption at zero for the residential, commercial, and transportation sectors.

[15]Currently natural gas prices for the core and non-core segments of the electric generation sector are set to the same average value.

conjunction with an assumed price elasticity as a basis for building an annual demand curve. [The price elasticities are set to zero if fixed consumption levels are to be used.] These curves are used within the NGTDM to minimize the required number of NEMS iterations by approximating the demand response to a different price. In so doing, the price where the implied market equilibrium would be realized can be approximated. Each of these market equilibrium prices is passed to the appropriate demand module during the next NEMS iteration to determine the consumption level that the module would actually forecast at this price. Once the NEMS converges, the difference between the actual consumption, as determined by the NEMS demand modules, and the approximated consumption levels in the NGTDM are insignificant.

For all but the electric sector, the NGTDM disaggregates the annual Census division regional consumption levels into the regional and seasonal representation that the NGTDM requires. The regional representation for the electric generation sector differs from the other NEMS sectors as described below.

Regional/Seasonal Representations of Demand

Natural gas consumption levels by all non-electric[16] sectors are provided by the NEMS demand modules for the nine Census divisions, the primary integrating regions represented in the NEMS. Alaska and Hawaii are included within the Pacific Census Division. The EMM represents the electricity generation process for 13 electricity supply regions, the nine North American Electric Reliability Council (NERC) Regions and four selected NERC Subregions (**Figure 2-2**). Within the EMM, the electric generators' consumption of natural gas is disaggregated into subregions that can be aggregated into Census Divisions or into the regions used in the NGTDM.

With the few following exceptions, the regional detail provided at a Census division level is adequate to build a simple network representative of the contiguous U.S. natural gas pipeline system. First, Alaska is not connected to the rest of the Nation by pipeline and is therefore treated separately from the contiguous Pacific Division in the NGTDM. Second, Florida receives its gas from a distinctly different route than the rest of the South Atlantic Division and is therefore isolated. A similar statement applies to Arizona and New Mexico relative to the Mountain Division. Finally, California is split off from the contiguous Pacific Division because of its relative size coupled with its unique energy related regulations. The resulting 12 primary regions represented in the NGTDM are referred to as the "NGTDM Regions" (as shown in **Figure 1-2**).

The regions represented in the EMM do not always align with State borders and generally do not share common borders with the Census divisions or NGTDM regions. Therefore, demand in the electric generation sector is represented in the NGTDM at a seventeen subregional (NGTDM/EMM) level which allows for a reasonable regional mapping between the EMM and the NGTDM regions (**Figure 2-3**). The seventeenth region is Alaska. Within the EMM, the disaggregation into subregions is based on the relative geographic location (and natural gas-fired generation capacity) of the current and proposed electricity generation plants within each region.

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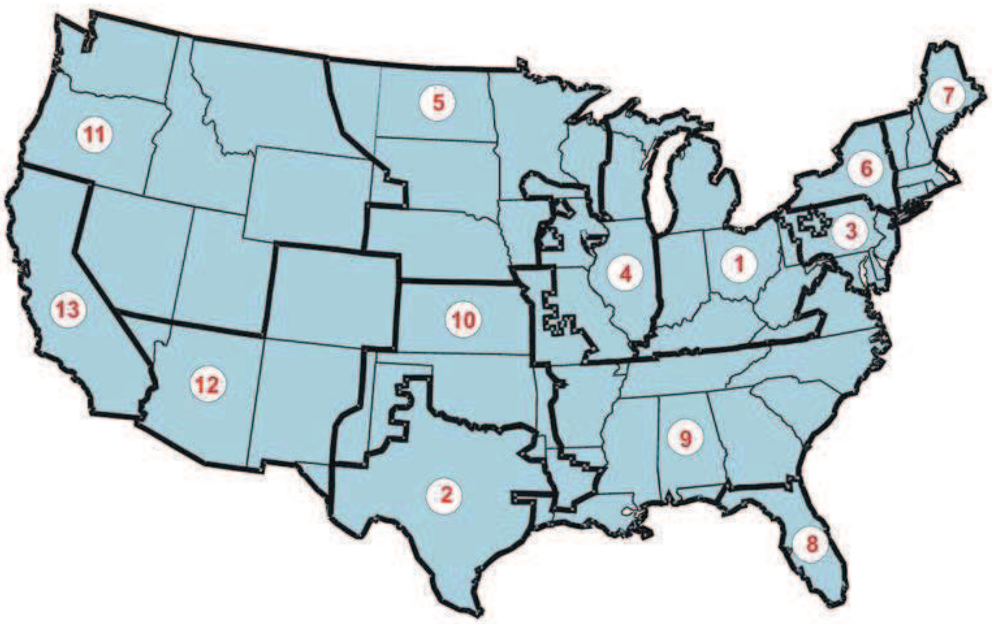
[16]The term "non-electric" sectors refer to sectors (other than commercial and industrial combined heat and power generators) that do not produce electricity using natural gas (i.e., the residential, commercial, industrial, and transportation demand sectors).

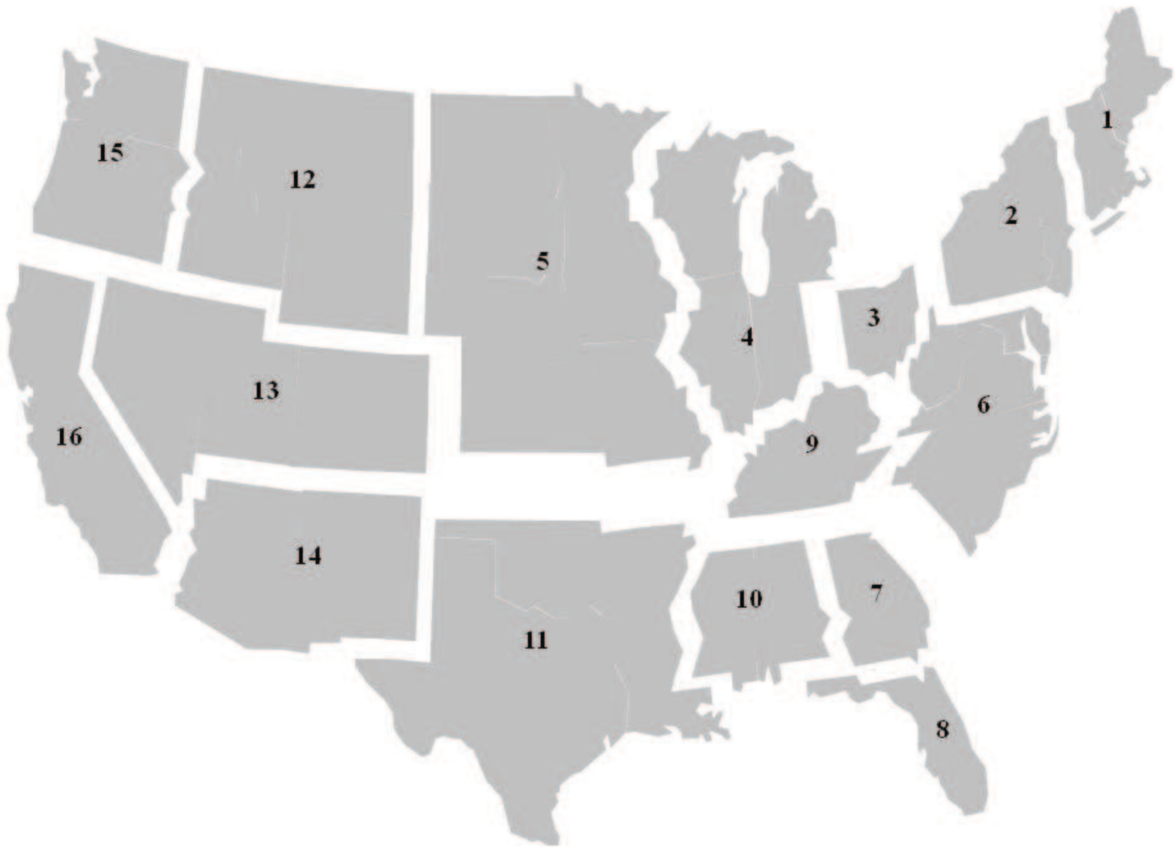
Figure 2-2. Electricity Market Module (EMM) Regions



Annual consumption levels for each of the non-electric sectors are disaggregated from the nine Census divisions to the two seasonal periods and the twelve NGTDM regions by applying average historical shares (2001 to 2009) that are held constant throughout the forecast (census − NG_CENSHR, seasons − PKSHR_DMD). For the Pacific Division, natural gas consumption estimates for Alaska are first subtracted to establish a consumption level for just the contiguous Pacific Division before the historical share is applied. The consumption of gas in Hawaii was considered to be negligible and is not handled separately. Within the NGTDM, a relatively simple series of equations (described later in the chapter) was included for approximating the consumption of natural gas by each non-electric sector in Alaska. These estimates, combined with the levels provided by the EMM for consumption by electric generators in Alaska, are used in the calculation of the production of natural gas in Alaska.

Unlike the non-electric sectors, the factors (core − PKSHR_UDMD_F, non-core − PKSHR_UDMD_I) for disaggregating the annual electric generator sector consumption levels (for each NGTDM/EMM region and customer type − core and non-core) into seasons are adjusted over the forecast period. Initially average historical shares (1994 to 2009, except New England − 1997 to 2009) are established as base level shares (core − BASN_PKSHR_UF,

Figure 2-3. NGTDM/EMM Regions



non-core − BASN_PKSHR_UI). The peak period shares are increased each year of the forecast by 0.5 percent (with a corresponding decrease in the off-peak shares) not to exceed 32 percent of the year.[17]

Natural Gas Demand Curves

While the primary analysis of energy demand takes place in the NEMS demand modules, the NGTDM itself directly incorporates price responsive demand curves to speed the overall convergence of NEMS and to improve the quality of the results obtained when the NGTDM is run as a stand-alone model. The NGTDM may also be executed to determine delivered prices for fixed consumption levels (represented by setting the price elasticity of demand in the demand curve equation to zero). The intent is to capture relatively minor movements in consumption levels from the provided base levels in response to price changes, not to accurately mimic the expected response of the NEMS demand modules. The form of the demand curves for the firm transmission service type for each non-electric sector and region is:

[17]The peak period covers 33 percent of the year.

$$NGDMD\_CRVF_{s,r} = BASQTY\_F_{s,r} * (PR / BASPR\_F_{s,r})^{NONU\_ELAS\_F_s} \quad (1)$$

where,

$BASPR\_F_{s,r}$	=	delivered price to core sector s in NGTDM region r in the previous NEMS iteration (1987 dollars per Mcf)
$BASQTY\_F_{s,r}$	=	natural gas quantity which the NEMS demand modules indicate would be consumed at price BASPR_F by core sector s in NGTDM region r (Bcf)
$NONU\_ELAS\_F_s$	=	short-term price elasticity of demand for core sector s (set to zero for *AEO2011* or to represent fixed consumption levels)
PR	=	delivered price at which demand is to be evaluated (1987 dollars per Mcf)
$NGDMD\_CRVF_{s,r}$	=	estimate of the natural gas which would be consumed by core sector s in region r at the price PR (Bcf)
s	=	core sector (1-residential, 2-commercial, 3-industrial, 4-transportation)

The form of the demand curve for the non-electric interruptible transmission service type is identical, with the following variables substituted: NGDMD_CRVI, BASPR_I, BASQTY_I, and NONU_ELAS_I (all set to zero for *AEO2011*). For the electric generation sector the form is identical as well, except there is no sector index and the regions represent the 16 NGTDM/EMM lower 48 regions, not the 12 NGTDM regions. The corresponding set of variables for the core and non-core electric generator demand curves are [NGUDMD_CRVF, BASUPR_F, BASUQTY_F, UTIL_ELAS_F] and [NGUDMD_CRVI, BASUPR_I, BASUQTY_I, UTIL_ELAS_I], respectively. For the *AEO2011* all of the electric generator demand curve elasticities were set to zero.

Domestic Natural Gas Supply Interface and Representation

The primary categories of natural gas supply represented in the NGTDM are non-associated and associated-dissolved gas from onshore and offshore U.S. regions; pipeline imports from Mexico; Eastern, Western (conventional and unconventional), and Arctic Canada production; LNG imports; natural gas production in Alaska (including that which is transported through Canada via pipeline[18]); synthetic natural gas produced from coal and from liquid hydrocarbons; and other supplemental supplies. Outside of Alaska (which is discussed in a later section) the only supply categories from this list that are allowed to vary within the NGTDM in response to a change in the current year's natural gas price are the non-associated gas from onshore and offshore U.S. regions, conventional gas from the Western Canada region, and LNG imports.[19]

[18] Several different options have been proposed for bringing stranded natural gas in Alaska to market (i.e., by pipeline, as LNG, and as liquids). Previously, the LNG option was deemed the least likely and is not considered in this version of the model, but will be reassessed in the future. The Petroleum Market Module forecasts the potential conversion of Alaska natural gas into liquids. The NGTDM allows for the building of a generic pipeline from Alaska into Alberta, although not at the same time as a MacKenzie Valley pipeline. The pipeline is assumed to have first access to the currently proved reserves in Alaska which are assumed to be producible at a relatively low cost given their association with oil production.

[19] Liquefied natural gas imports are set based on the price in the previous NEMS iteration and are effectively "fixed" when the NGTDM determines a natural gas market equilibrium solution; whereas the other two categories are determined as a part of the

The supply levels for the remaining categories are fixed at the beginning of each forecast year (i.e., before market clearing prices are determined), with the exception of associated-dissolved gas (determined in OGSM).[20] With the exception of LNG, the NGTDM applies average historical relationships to convert annual "fixed" supply levels to peak and off-peak values. These factors are held constant throughout the forecast period.

Within the OGSM, natural gas supply activities are modeled for 12 U.S. supply regions (6 onshore, 3 offshore, and 3 Alaskan geographic areas). The six onshore OGSM regions within the contiguous United States, shown in **Figure 2-4**, do not generally share common borders with the NGTDM regions. The NGTDM represents onshore supply for the 17 regions resulting from overlapping the OGSM and NGTDM regions (**Figure 2-5**). A separate component of the NGTDM models the foreign sources of gas that are transported via pipeline from Canada and Mexico. Seven Canadian and three Mexican border crossings demarcate the foreign pipeline interface in the NGTDM. Potential LNG imports are represented at each of the coastal NGTDM regions; however, import volumes will only be projected based on where existing or exogenously set additional regasification capacity exists (e.g., if a facility is under construction or deemed highly likely to be constructed).[21]

"Variable" Dry Natural Gas Production Supply Curve

The two "variable" (or price responsive) natural gas supply categories represented in the model are domestic non-associated production and total production from the Western Canadian Sedimentary Basin (WCSB). Non-associated natural gas is largely defined as gas that is produced from gas wells, and is assumed to vary in response to a change in the natural gas price. Associated-dissolved gas is defined as gas that is produced from oil wells and can be classified as a byproduct in the oil production process. Each domestic supply curve is defined through its associated parameters as being net of lease and plant fuel consumption (i.e., the amount of dry gas available for market after any necessary processing and before being transported via pipeline). For both of these categories, the supply curve represents annual production levels. The methodology for translating this annual form into a seasonal representation is presented in Chapter 4.

The supply curve for regional non-associated lower 48 natural gas production and for WCSB production is built from a price/quantity (P/Q) pair, where quantity is the "expected" production (XQBASE) or the base production level as defined by the product of reserves times the "expected" production-to-reserves ratio (as set in the OGSM) and price is the projected wellhead price (XPBASE, presented below) for the expected production. The basic assumption behind the curve is that the realized market price will increase from the base price if the current year's production levels exceed the expected production; and the opposite will occur if current production is less In addition, it is assumed that the relative price response will likely be greater for a marginal increase in production above the expected production, compared to below. To

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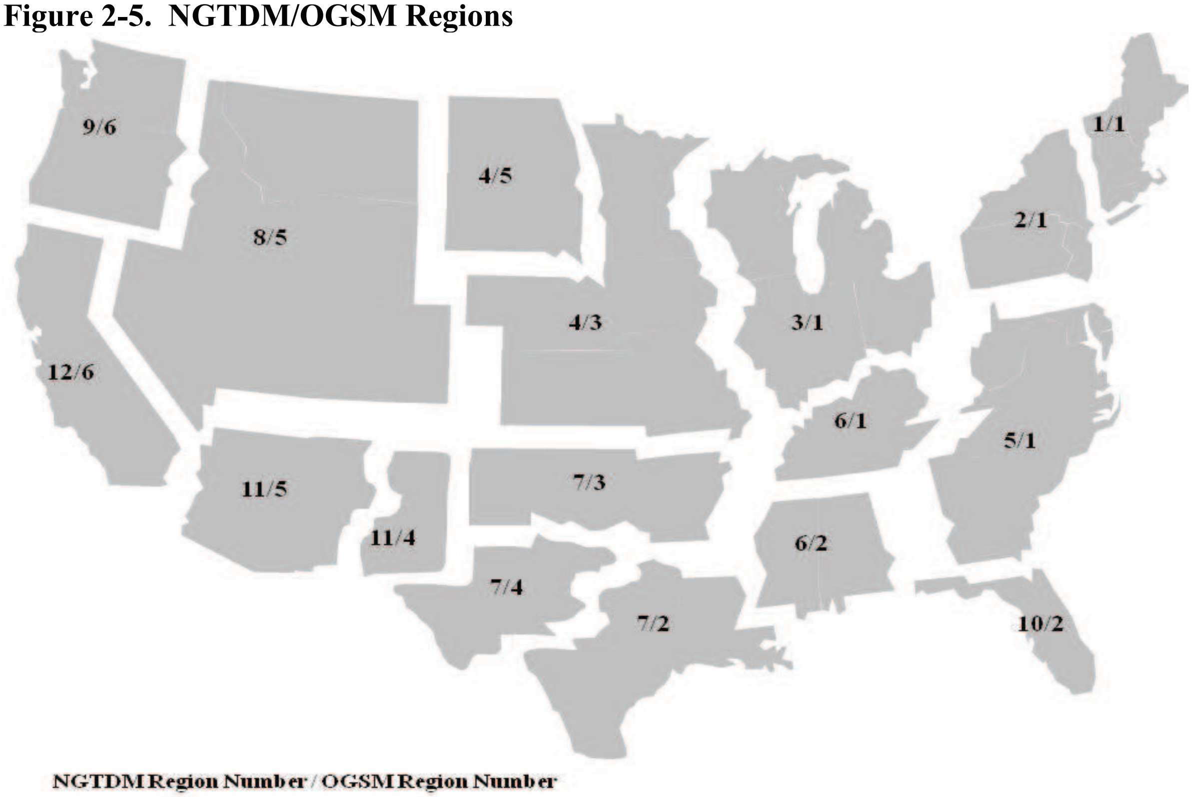
market equilibrium process in the NGTDM.

[20]For programming convenience natural gas produced with oil shales (OGSHALENG) is also added to this category.

[21]Structurally an LNG regasification terminal in the Bahamas would be represented as entering into Florida and be reported as pipeline imports, although modeled as LNG imports. No regasification terminals are considered for Alaska or Hawaii.

Figure 2-4. Oil and Gas Supply Module (OGSM) Regions

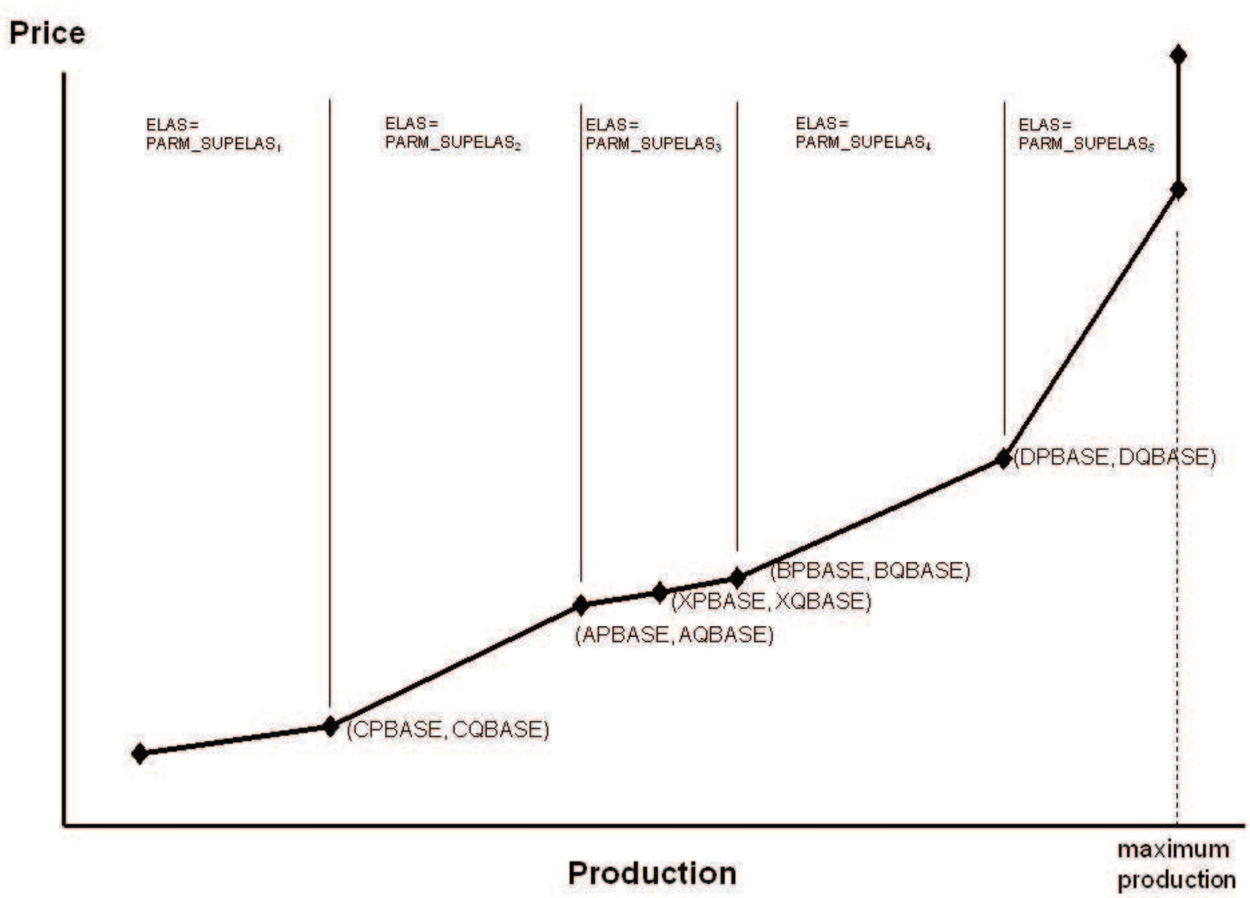
Figure 2-5. NGTDM/OGSM Regions



represent these assumptions, five segments of the curve are defined from the base point. The middle segment is centered around the base point, extends plus or minus a percent (PARM_SUPCRV3, Appendix E) from the base quantity, and if activated, is generally set nearly horizontal (i.e., there is little price response to a quantity change). The next two segments, on either side of the middle, extend more vertically (with a positive slope), and reach plus or minus a percent (PARM_SUPCRV5, Appendix E) beyond the end of the middle segment. The remaining two segments extend the curve above and below even further for the case with relatively large annual production changes, and can be assigned the same or different slopes from their adjacent segments. The slope of the upper segment(s) is generally set greater than or equal to that of the lower segment(s). An illustrative presentation of the supply curve is provided in **Figure 2-6**. The general structure for all five segments of the supply curve, in terms of defining price (NGSUP_PR) as a function of the quantity or production level (QVAR), is:

$$NGSUP\_PR = PBASE * (((\frac{1}{ELAS}) * (\frac{QVAR - QBASE}{QBASE})) + 1) \qquad (2)$$

Figure 2-6. Generic Supply Curve



A more familiar form of this equation is the definition of elasticity (ξ) as: $\xi = (\Delta Q/Q_o) / (\Delta P/P_o)$, where Δ symbolizes "the change in" and Q_o and P_o represent a base level price/quantity pair.

Each of the five segments is assigned different values for the variables ELAS, PBASE, and QBASE:

Lowest segment:

$$\begin{aligned}\text{PBASE} = \text{CPBASE} = \text{APBASE} * (1 - \\ (\text{PARM\_SUPCRV5}/\text{PARM\_SUPELAS2})\end{aligned} \tag{3}$$

$$\text{QBASE} = \text{CQBASE} = \text{AQBASE} * (1 - \text{PARM\_SUPCRV5}) \tag{4}$$

$$\text{ELAS} = \text{PARM\_SUPELAS1} = 0.40 \tag{5}$$

Lower segment:

$$\begin{aligned}\text{PBASE} = \text{APBASE} = \text{XPBASE} * \\ (1 - (\text{PARM\_SUPCRV3}/\text{PARM\_SUPELAS3}))\end{aligned} \tag{6}$$

$$\text{QBASE} = \text{AQBASE} = \text{XQBASE} * (1 - \text{PARM\_SUPCRV3}) \tag{7}$$

$$\text{ELAS} = \text{PARM\_SUPELAS2} = 0.35 \tag{8}$$

Middle segment:
(in historical years)

$$\text{PBASE} = \text{XPBASE} = \text{historical wellhead price} \tag{9}$$

$$\text{QBASE} = \text{XQBASE} = \text{QSUP}_s/(1 - \text{PERCNT}_n) \tag{10}$$

(in forecast years)

$$\text{PBASE} = \text{XPBASE} = \text{ZWPRLAG}_s \tag{11}$$

$$\text{QBASE} = \text{XQBASE} = \text{ZOGRESNG}_s * \text{ZOGPRRNG}_s \tag{12}$$

$$\text{ELAS} = \text{PARM\_SUPELAS3} = 1.00 \tag{13}$$

Upper segment:

$$\begin{aligned}\text{PBASE} = \text{BPBASE} = \text{XPBASE} * \\ (1 + (\text{PARM\_SUPCRV3}/\text{PARM\_SUPELAS3}))\end{aligned} \tag{14}$$

$$\text{QBASE} = \text{BQBASE} = \text{XQBASE} * (1 + \text{PARM\_SUPCRV3}) \tag{15}$$

$$\text{ELAS} = \text{PARM\_SUPELAS4} = 0.25 \tag{16}$$

Uppermost segment:

$$PBASE = DPBASE = BPBASE * (1 + (PARM\_SUPCRV5/PARM\_SUPELAS4)) \tag{17}$$

$$QBASE = DQBASE = BQBASE * (1 + PARM\_SUPCRV5) \tag{18}$$

$$ELAS = PARM\_SUPELAS5 = 0.20 \tag{19}$$

where,

NGSUP_PR	=	Wellhead price (1987$/Mcf)
QVAR	=	Production, including lease & plant (Bcf)
XPBASE	=	Base wellhead price on the supply curve (1987$/Mcf)
XQBASE	=	Base wellhead production on the supply curve (Bcf)
PBASE	=	Base wellhead price on a supply curve segment (1987$/Mcf)
QBASE	=	Base wellhead production on a supply curve segment (Bcf)
AQBASE, BQBASE, CQBASE, DQBASE	=	Production levels defining the supply curve in Figure 2-6 (Bcf)
APBASE, BPBASE, CPBASE, DPBASE	=	Price levels defining the supply curve in Figure 2-6 (Bcf)
ELAS	=	Elasticity (percent change in quantity over percent change in price) (analyst judgment)
PARM_SUPCRV3	=	(defined in preceding paragraph)
PARM_SUPCRV5	=	(defined in preceding paragraph)
PARM_SUPELAS#	=	Elasticity (percentage change in quantity over percentage change in price) on different segments (#) of supply curve
$ZWPRLAG_s$	=	Lagged (last year's) wellhead price for supply source s (1987/Mcf)
$ZOGRESNG_s$	=	Natural gas proved reserves for supply source s at the beginning of the year (Bcf)
$ZOGPRRNG_s$	=	Natural gas production to reserves ratio for supply sources (fraction)
$PERCNT_n$	=	Percent lease and plant
s	=	supply source
n	=	region/node
t	=	year

The parameters above will be set depending on the location of QVAR relative to the base quantity (XQBASE) (i.e., on which segment of the curve that QVAR falls). In the above equation, the QVAR variable includes lease and plant fuel consumption. Since the ITM domestic production quantity (VALUE) represents supply levels net of lease and plant, this value must be adjusted once it is sent to the supply curve function, and before it can be evaluated, to generate a corresponding supply price. The adjustment equation is:

$$QVAR = (VALUE - FIXSUP) / (1.0 - PERCNT_n)$$

$$[\text{where,}\quad FIXSUP = \quad ZOGCCAPPRD_s * (1.0 - PERCNT_n)\ ]$$

where,

QVAR	=	Production, including lease and plant consumption
VALUE	=	Production, net of lease and plant consumption

$PERCNT_n$ = Percent lease and plant consumption in region/node n (set to PCTLP, set to zero for Canada)
$ZOGCCAPPRD_s$ = Coalbed gas production related to the Climate Change Action Plan (from OGSM)[22]
FIXSUP = ZOGCCAPPRD net of lease and plant consumption
s = NGTDM/OGSM supply region
n = region/node

Associated-Dissolved Natural Gas Production

Associated-dissolved natural gas refers to the natural gas that occurs in crude oil reservoirs either as free gas (associated) or as gas in solution with crude oil (dissolved). The production of associated-dissolved natural gas is tied directly with the production (and price) of crude oil. The OGSM projects the level of associated-dissolved natural gas production and the results are passed to the NGTDM for each iteration and forecast year of the NEMS. Within the NGTDM, associated-dissolved natural gas production is considered "fixed" for a given forecast year and is split into peak and off-peak values based on average (1994-2009) historical shares of total (including non-associated) peak production in the year (PKSHR_PROD).

Supplemental Gas Sources

Existing sources for synthetically produced pipeline-quality, natural gas and other supplemental supplies are assumed to continue to produce at historical levels. While the NGTDM has an algorithm (see Appendix H) to project potential new coal-to-gas plants and their gas production, the annual production of synthetic natural gas from coal at the existing plant is exogenously specified (Appendix E, SNGCOAL), independent of the price of natural gas in the current forecast year. The *AEO2011* forecast assumes that the sole existing plant (the Great Plains Coal Gasification Plant in North Dakota) will continue to operate at recent historical levels indefinitely. Regional forecast values for other supplemental supplies (SNGOTH) are set at historical averages (2003 to 2008) and held constant over the forecast period. Synthetic natural gas is no longer produced from liquid hydrocarbons in the continental United States; although small amounts were produced in Illinois in some historical years. This production level (SNGLIQ) is set to zero for the forecast. The small amount produced in Hawaii is accounted for in the output reports (set to the historical average from 1997 to 2008). If the option is set for the first two forecast years of the model to be calibrated to the *Short Term Energy Outlook (STEO)* forecast, then these three categories of supplemental gas are similarly scaled so that their sum will equal the national annual forecast for total supplemental supplies published in the *STEO* (Appendix E, STOGPRSUP). To guarantee a smooth transition, the scaling factor in the last STEO year can be progressively phased out over the first STPHAS_YR (Appendix E) forecast years of the NGTDM. Regional peak and off-peak supply levels for the three supplemental gas supplies are generated by applying the same average (1990-2009) historical share (PKSHR_SUPLM) of national supplemental supplies in the peak period.

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[22]This special production category is not included in the reserves and production-to-reserve ratios calculated in the OGSM, so it was necessary to account for it separately when relevant. It is no longer relevant and is set to zero.

Natural Gas Imports and Exports Interface and Representation

The NGTDM sets the parameters for projecting gas imported through LNG facilities, the parameters and forecast values associated with the Canada gas market, and the projected values for imports from and exports to Mexico.

Canada

A node for east and west Canada is included in the NGTDM equilibration network, as well as seven border crossings. The model includes a representation/accounting of the U.S. border crossing pipeline capacity, east and west seasonal storage transfers, east and west consumption, east and west LNG imports (described in a later section), eastern production, conventional/tight sands production in the west, and coalbed/shale production. The ultimate determination of the import volumes into the United States occurs in the equilibration process of the NGTDM.

Base level consumption of natural gas in Eastern and Western Canada (Appendix E, CN_DMD), including gas used in lease, plant, and pipeline operations, is set exogenously,[23] and ultimately split into seasonal periods using PKSHR_CDMD (Appendix E). The projected level of oil produced from oil sands is also set exogenously to the NGTDM (based on the same source) and varies depending on the world oil price case. Starting in a recent historical year (Appendix E, YDCL_GASREQ), the natural gas required to support the oil sands production is set at an assumed ratio (Appendix E, INIT_GASREQ) of the oil sands production. Over the projection period this ratio is assumed to decline with technological improvements and as other fuel options become viable. The applied ratio in year t is set by multiplying the initially assumed rate by $(t-YDCL\_GASREQ+1)^{DECL\_GASREQ}$, where DECL_GASREQ is assumed based on anecdotal information (Appendix E). The oil sands related gas consumption under reference case world oil prices is subtracted from the base level total consumption and the remaining volumes are adjusted slightly based on differences in the world oil price in the model run versus the world oil price used in setting the base level consumption, using an assumed elasticity (Appendix E, CONNOL_ELAS). Finally, total consumption is set to this adjusted value plus the calculated gas consumed for oil sands production under the world oil price case selected. Oil sands production is assumed to just occur in Western Canada.

Currently, the NGTDM exogenously sets a forecast of the physical capacity of natural gas pipelines crossing at seven border points from Canada into the United States (excluding any expansion related to the building of an Alaska pipeline). This option can also be used within the model, if border crossing capacity is set endogenously, to establish a minimum pipeline build level (Appendix E, ACTPCAP and PLANPCAP). The model allows for an endogenous setting of annual Canadian pipeline expansion at each Canada/U.S. border crossing point based on the annual growth rate of consumption in the U.S. market it predominately serves. The resulting physical capacity limit is then multiplied by a set of exogenously specified maximum utilization rates for each seasonal period to establish maximum effective capacity limits for these pipelines (Appendix E, PKUTZ and OPUTZ). “Effective capacity” is defined as the maximum seasonal,

[23]se values were based on projections taken from the *International Energy Outlook 2010*.

physically sustainable, capacity of a pipeline times the assumed maximum utilization rate. It should be noted that some of the natural gas on these lines passes through the United States only temporarily before reentering Canada, and therefore is not classified as imports.[24] If a decision is made to construct a pipeline from Alaska (or the MacKenzie Delta) to Alberta, the import pipeline capacity added from the time the decision is made until the pipeline is in service is tracked. This amount is subtracted from the size of the pipeline to Alberta to arrive at an approximation for the amount of additional import capacity that will be needed to bring the Alaska or MacKenzie[25] gas to the United States. This total volume is apportioned to the pipeline capacity at the western import border crossings according to their relative size at the time.

Conventional Western Canada

The vast majority of natural gas produced in Canada currently is from the WCSB. Therefore, a different approach was used in modeling supplies from this region. The model consists of a series of estimated and reserves accounting equations for forecasting conventional (including from tight formations)[26] wells drilled, reserves added, reserve levels, and expected production-to-reserve ratios in the WCSB. Drilling activity, measured as the number of successful natural gas wells drilled, is estimated directly as a function of various market drivers rather than as a function of expected profitability. No distinction is made between wells for exploration and development. Next, an econometrically specified finding rate is applied to the successful wells to determine reserve additions; a reserves accounting procedure yields reserve estimates (beginning of year reserves). Finally an estimated extraction rate determines production potential [production-to-reserves ratio (PRR)].

Wells Determination

The total number of successful conventional natural gas wells drilled in Western Canada each year is forecasted econometrically as a function of the Canadian natural gas wellhead price, remaining undiscovered resources, last year's production-to-reserve ratio, and a proxy term for the drilling cost per well, as follows:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{SUCWELL}_t = {} & \exp(-1.85639) * \text{CN\_PRC00}_t^{1.09939} * \text{URRCAN}_t^{1.57373} \\ & * \text{CST\_PRXYLAG}^{-0.86063} * \exp(33.6237 * \text{CURPRRCAN}_{t\text{-}1}) \end{aligned} \tag{20}$$

where,

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[24]A significant amount of natural gas flows into Minnesota from Canada on an annual basis only to be routed back to Canada through Michigan. The levels of gas in this category are specified exogenously (Appendix E, FLOW_THRU_IN) and split into peak and off-peak levels based on average (1990-2009 historically based shares for general Canadian imports (PKSHR_ICAN).

[25]All of the gas from the MacKenzie Delta is not necessarily targeted for the U.S. market directly. Although it is anticipated that the additional supply in the Canadian system will reduce prices and increase the demand for Canadian gas in the United States. The methodology for representing natural gas production in the MacKenzie Delta and the associated pipeline is described in the section titled "Alaskan Natural Gas Routine."

[26]Since current data tend to combine statistics for drilling and production from conventional sources and that from tight gas formations, the model does not distinguish the two at present. The conventional resource estimate was increased by 1.5 percent per year as a rough estimate of the future contribution from resource appreciation and from tight formations until more reliable estimates can be generated. For the rest of the discussion on Canada, the use of the term "conventional" should be assumed to include gas from tight formations.

$SUCWELL_t$	=	total conventional successful gas wells completed in Western Canada in year t
CN_PRC00_t	=	average Western Canada wellhead price per Mcf of natural gas in 2000 US dollars in year t
$URRCAN_t$	=	remaining conventional undiscovered recoverable gas resources in the beginning of year t in Western Canada in (Bcf), specified below
CST_PRXYLAG	=	proxy term to reflect the change in drilling costs per well, projected into the future based on projections for the average lower 48 drilling costs the previous forecast year
CURPRRCAN	=	expected production-to-reserve ratio from the previous forecast year, specified below

Parameter values and details about the estimation of this equation can be found in Table F11 of Appendix F. The number of wells is restricted to increase by no more than 30 percent annually.

Reserve Additions

The reserve additions algorithm calculates units of gas added to Western Canadian Sedimentary Basin proved reserves. The methodology for conversion of gas resources into proved reserves is a critically important aspect of supply modeling. The actual process through which gas becomes proved reserves is a highly complex one. This section presents a methodology that is representative of the major phases that occur; although, by necessity, it is a simplification from a highly complex reality.

Gas reserve additions are calculated using a finding rate equation. Typical finding rate equations relate reserves added to 1) wells or feet drilled in such a way that reserve additions per well decline as more wells are drilled, and/or 2) remaining resources in such a way that reserve additions per well decline as remaining resources deplete. The reason for this is, all else being equal, the larger prospects typically are drilled first. Consequently, the finding rate can be expected to decline as a region matures, although the rate of decline and the functional forms are a subject of considerable debate. In previous versions of the model the finding rate (reserves added per well) was assumption based, while the current version is econometrically estimated using the following:

$$FRCAN_t = \exp\{(1-0.428588)*-25.3204\}*URRCAN_t^{2.13897}* \\ FRLAG^{0.428588}*URRCAN_{t-1}^{--0.428588*2.13897}] \qquad (21)$$

where,

$FRCAN_t$	=	finding rate in year t (Bcf per well)
FRLAG	=	finding rate in year t-1 (Bcf per well)
$URRCAN_t$	=	remaining conventional gas recoverable resources in year t in Western Canada in (Bcf)

Parameter values and details about the estimation of this equation can be found in Table F12 of Appendix F. Remaining conventional plus tight gas recoverable resources are initialized in 2004 and set each year thereafter as follows:

$$URRCAN_t = RESBASE * (1 + RESTECH)^T - CUMRCAN \tag{22}$$

where,

RESBASE	=	initial recoverable resources in 2004 (set at 92,800 Bcf) [27]
RESTECH	=	assumed rate of increase, primarily due to the contribution from tight gas formations, but also attributable to technological improvement (1.5 percent or 0.015)
$CUMRCAN_t$	=	cumulative reserves added since initial year of 2004 in Bcf
T	=	the forecast year (t) minus the base year of 2004.

Total reserve additions in period t are given by:

$$RESADCAN_t = FRCAN_t * SUCWELL_t \tag{23}$$

where,

$RESADCAN_t$	=	reserve additions in year t, in BCF
$FRCAN_{t-1}$	=	finding rate in the previous year, in BCF per well
$SUCWELL_t$	=	successful gas wells drilled in year t

Total end-of-year proved reserves for each period equal proved reserves from the previous period plus new reserve additions less production.

$$RESBOYCAN_{t+1} = CURRESCAN_t + RESADCAN_t - OGPRDCAN_t \tag{24}$$

where,

$RESBOYCAN_{t+1}$	=	beginning of year reserves for year t+1, in BCF
$CURRESCAN_t$	=	beginning of year reserves for t, in BCF
$RESADCAN_t$	=	reserve additions in year t, in BCF
$OGPRDCAN_t$	=	production in year t, in BCF
t	=	forecast year

When rapid and slow technological progress cases are run, the forecasted values for the number of successful wells and for the expected production-to-reserve ratio for new wells are adjusted accordingly.

Gas Production

Production is commonly modeled using a production-to-reserves ratio. A major advantage to this approach is its transparency. Additionally, the performance of this function in the aggregate is

[27] Source: National Energy Board, "Canada's Conventional Natural Gas Resources: A Status Report," Table 1.1A, April 2004.

consistent with its application on the micro level. The production-to-reserves ratio, as the relative measure of reserves drawdown, represents the rate of extraction, given any stock of reserves.

Conventional gas production in the WCSB in year t is determined in the NGTDM through a market equilibrium mechanism using a supply curve based on an expected production level provided by the OGSM. The realized extraction is likely to be different. The expected or normal operating level of production is set as the product of the beginning-of-year reserves (RESBOYCAN) and an expected extraction rate under normal operating conditions. This expected production-to-reserve ratio is estimated as follows:

$$PRRATCAN_t = \frac{e^{-72.1364+0.117911*\ln SUCWELL_t+0.041469*\ln FRCAN_t+0.03437*RLYR}}{1+e^{-72.1364+0.117911*\ln SUCWEL_t+0.041469*\ln FRCAN_t+0.03437*RLYR}} * \left(\frac{PRRATCAN_{t-1}}{1-PRRATCAN_{t-1}}\right)^{0.916835} * e^{-0.916835*(-72.1364+0.117911*\ln SUCWELL_{t-1}+0.041469*\ln FRCAN_{t-1}+0.03437*(RLYR-1))} \quad (25)$$

where,

$PRRATCAN_t$	=	expected production-to-reserve natural gas ratio in Western Canada for conventional and tight gas
$FRCAN_t$	=	finding rate in year t, in BCF per well
$SUCWELL_t$	=	successful gas wells drilled in year t
RLYR	=	calendar year

Parameter values and details about the estimation of this equation can be found in Table F13 of Appendix F. The resulting production-to-reserve ratio is limited, so as not to increase or decrease more than 5 percent from one year to the next and to stay within the range of 0.7 to 0.12.

The potential or expected production level is used within the NGTDM to build a supply curve for conventional and tight natural gas production in Western Canada. The form of this supply curve is effectively the same as the one used to represent non-associated natural gas production in lower 48 regions. This curve is described later in this chapter, with the exceptions related to Canada noted. A primary difference is that the supply curve for the lower 48 States represents non-associated natural gas production net of lease and plant fuel consumption; whereas the Western Canada supply curve represents total conventional and tight natural gas production inclusive of lease and plant fuel consumption.

Canada Shale and Coalbed

Natural gas produced from other unconventional sources (coal beds and shale) in Western Canada (PRD2) is based on an assumed production profile, with the area under the curve equal to the assumed ultimate recovery (CUR_ULTRES). The production level is initially specified in terms of the forecast year and is set using one functional form before reaching its peak production level and a second functional form after reaching its peak production level. Before reaching peak production, the production levels are assumed to follow a quadratic form, where the level of production is zero in the first year (LSTYR0) and reaches its peak level (PKPRD) in the peak year (PKIYR). The area under the assumed production function equals the assumed technically recoverable resource level (CUR_ULTRES) times the assumed percentage (PERRES) produced before hitting the peak level. After peak production the production path is assumed to decline linearly to the last year (LSTYR) when production is again zero. The two curves meet in the peak year (PKIYR) when both have a value equal to the peak production level (PKPRD). The actual production volumes are adjusted to reflect assumed technological improvement and by a factor that depends on the difference between an assumed price trajectory and the actual price projected in the model. The specifics follow:

Before Peak Production

Assumptions:

production function

$$\mathrm{PRD2} = \mathrm{PARMA}*(\mathrm{PRDIYR} - \mathrm{PKIYR})^2 + \mathrm{PARMB} \tag{26}$$

area under the production function

$$\mathrm{CUR\_ULTRES} * \mathrm{PERRES}$$

$$\int_{\mathrm{LSTYR0}}^{\mathrm{PKIYR}} [\mathrm{PARMA} * (\mathrm{PRDIYR} - \mathrm{PKIYR})^2 + \mathrm{PARMB}]\, d\mathrm{PRDIYR} \tag{27}$$

production in year LSTYR0:

$$0 = \mathrm{PARMA}*(\mathrm{LSTYR0} - \mathrm{PKIYR})^2 + \mathrm{PARMB} \tag{28}$$

production in peak year when PRDIYR = PKIYR

$$\mathrm{PKPRD} = \mathrm{PARMA}*(\mathrm{PKIYR} - \mathrm{PKIYR})^2 + \mathrm{PARMB} = \mathrm{PARMB} \tag{29}$$

Derived from above:

$$\mathrm{PARMA} = \frac{-3}{2} * \frac{\mathrm{CUR\_ULTRES} * \mathrm{PERRES}}{(\mathrm{PKIYR} - \mathrm{LSTYRO})^3} \tag{30}$$

$$\mathrm{PARMB} = -\,\mathrm{PARMA}*(\mathrm{LSTYRO} - \mathrm{PKIYR})^2 \tag{31}$$

After Peak Production

Assumptions:

production function

$$\mathrm{PRD2} = (\mathrm{PARMC}*\mathrm{PRDIYR}) + \mathrm{PARMD} \tag{32}$$

area under the production function

$$\mathrm{CUR\_ULTRES}*(1 - \mathrm{PERRES}) = \int_{\mathrm{PKIYR}}^{\mathrm{LSTYR}} [(\mathrm{PARMC}*\mathrm{PRDIYR}) + \mathrm{PARMD}]\, d\mathrm{PRDIYR} \tag{33}$$

production in peak year when PRDIYR = PKIYR

$$PKPRD = PARMB = (PARMC^* PKIYR) + PARMD \tag{34}$$

production in last year LSTYR

$$0 = (PARMC^*LSTYR) + PARMD \tag{35}$$

Derived from above:

$$PARMC = \frac{-PARMB^2}{2^*CUR\_ULTRES^*(1 - PERRES)} \tag{36}$$

$$LSTYR = \frac{2^*CUR\_ULTRES^*(1 - PERRES)}{PARMB} + PKIYR \tag{37}$$

$$PARMD = -PARMC^*LSTYR \tag{38}$$

given,

$$CUR\_ULTRES = ULTRES^*(1 + RESTECH)^{(MODYR - RESBASE)} {}^*(1 + RESADJ) \tag{39}$$

and,

PRD2	=	Unadjusted Canada unconventional gas production (Bcf)
PKPRD	=	Peak production level in year PKIYR
CUR_ULTRES	=	Estimate of ultimate recovery of natural gas from unconventional Canada sources in the current forecast year (Bcf)
ULTRES	=	Estimate of ultimate recovery of natural gas from unconventional Canada sources in the year RESBASE (8,000 Bcf for coalbed in 2008 and 153,000 Bcf for shale in 2011, based on assumed resource levels used in EIA's International Natural Gas Model for the *International Energy Outlook 2010*.
RESBASE	=	Year associated with CUR_ULTRES
RESTECH	=	Technology factor to increase resource estimate over time (1.0)
MODYR	=	Current forecast year
RESADJ	=	Scenario specific resource adjustment factor (default value of 0.0)
PERRES	=	Percent of ultimate resource produced before the peak year of production (0.50, fraction)
PKIYR	=	Assumed peak year of production (2045)
LSTYR0	=	Last year of zero production (2004)
PRDIYR	=	Implied year of production along cumulative production path after price adjustment

The actual production is set by taking the unadjusted unconventional gas production (PRD2) and multiplying it by a price adjustment factor, as well as a technology factor. The price adjustment factor (PRCADJ) is based on the degree to which the actual price in the previous forecast year compares against a prespecified expected price path (exprc), represented by the functional form: exprc = (2.0 + [0.08*(MODYR-2008)]. The price adjustment factor is set to the price in the previous forecast year divided by the expected price, all raised to the 0.1 power. Technology is assumed to progressively increase production by 1 percent per year (TECHGRW) more than it would have been otherwise (e.g., in the fifth forecast year production is increased by 5 percent above what it would have been otherwise). [28] Once the production is established for a given forecast year, the value of PRDIYR is adjusted to reflect the actual production in the previous year and incremented by 1 for the next forecast year.

The remaining forecast elements used in representing the Canada gas market are set exogenously in the NGTDM. When required, such annual forecasts are split into peak and off-peak values using historically based or assumed peak shares that are held constant throughout the forecast. For example, the level of natural gas exports (Appendix E, CANEXP) are currently set exogenously to NEMS, are distinguished by seven Canada/U.S. border crossings, and are split between peak and off-peak periods by applying average (1992 to 2009, Appendix E, PKSHR_ECAN) historical shares to the assumed annual levels. While most Canadian import levels into the U.S. are set endogenously, the flow from Eastern Canada into the East North Central region is secondary to the flow going in the opposite direction and is therefore set exogenously (Appendix E, Q23TO3). "Fixed" supply values for the entire Eastern Canada region are set exogenously (Appendix E, CN_FIXSUP)[29] and split into peak and off-peak periods using PKSHR_PROD (Appendix E).

Mexico

The Mexico model is largely based on exogenously specified assumptions about consumption and production growth rates and LNG import levels. For the most part, natural gas imports from Mexico are set exogenously for each of the three border crossing points with the United States, with the exception of any gas that is imported into Baja, Mexico, in liquid form only to be exported to the United States. Exports to Mexico from the United States are established before the NGTDM equilibrates and represents the required level to balance the assumed consumption in (and exports from) Mexico against domestic production and LNG imports. The supply levels are also largely assumption based, but are set to vary to a degree with changes in the expected wellhead price in the United States. Peak and off-peak values for imports from and exports to Mexico are based on average historical shares (1994 or 1991 to 2009, PKSHR_IMEX and PKSHR_EMEX, respectively).

Mexican gas trade is a complex issue, as a range of non-economic factors will influence, if not determine, future flows of gas between the United States and Mexico. Uncertainty surrounding Mexican/U.S. trade is great enough that not only is the magnitude of flow for any future year in doubt, but also the direction of net flows. Despite the uncertainty and the significant influence of non-economic factors that influence Mexican gas trade with the United States, a methodology to anticipate the path of future Mexican imports from, and exports to, the United States has been incorporated into the NGTDM. This outlook is generated using assumptions regarding regional supply from indigenous production and/or liquefied natural gas (LNG) and regional/sectoral demand growth for natural gas in Mexico.

[28] If a rapid or slow technology case is being run, this value is increased or decreased accordingly.
[29] Eastern Canada is expected to continue to provide only a small share of the total production in Canada and is almost exclusively offshore.

Assumptions for the growth rate of consumption (Appendix E, PEMEX_GFAC, IND_GFAC, ELE_GFAC, RC_GFAC) were based on the projections from the *International Energy Outlook 2010*. Assumptions about base level domestic production (PRD_GFAC) are based in part on the same source and analyst judgment. The production growth rate is adjusted using an additive factor based on the degree to which the average lower 48 wellhead price varies from a set base price, as follows:

$$\text{PRC\_FAC} = MIN\left\{\left(\frac{OGWPRNG}{3.66}\right)^{0.03125} - 1, \quad 0.05\right\} \tag{40}$$

where,

PRC_FAC	=	Factor to add to assumed base level production growth rate (PRD_GFAC)
OGWPRNG	=	Lower 48 average natural gas wellhead price in the current forecast year (1987$/Mcf)
3.66	=	Fixed base price, approximately equal to the average lower 48 natural gas wellhead price over the projection period based on *AEO2010* reference case results (1987$/Mcf), [set in the code and converted at $6.14 (2008$/Mcf)]
0.03125	=	An assumed parameter
0.05	=	Assumed minimum price factor

The volumes of LNG imported into Mexico for use in the country are initially set exogenously (Appendix E, MEXLNG). However, these values are scaled back if the projected total volumes available to North America (see below) are not sufficient to accommodate these levels. LNG imports into Baja destined for the U.S. are set endogenously with the LNG import volumes for the rest of North America, as discussed below. Finally, any excess supply in Mexico is assumed to be available for export to the United States, and any shortfall is assumed to be met by imports from the United States. [30]

Liquefied Natural Gas

LNG imports are set at the beginning of each NEMS iteration within the NGTDM by evaluating seasonal supply curves, based on outputs from EIA's International Natural Gas Model (INGM), at associated regasification tailgate prices set in the previous NEMS iteration. LNG exports from the lower 48 States are assumed to be zero for the forecast period. [31] LNG exports to Japan from Alaska are set exogenously by OGSM through Spring of 2013 when the Kenai Peninsula LNG plant's export license will expire. The NGTDM does not assume or project additional LNG exports from Alaska.[32] LNG import levels are established for each region, and period (peak and

[30]A minimum import level from Mexico is set exogenously (DEXP_FRMEX, Appendix E), as well as a maximum decline from historical levels for exports to Mexico (DFAC_TOMEX, Appendix E).

[31]The capability to project LNG exports in the model was not included in the *AEO2011* analysis largely due to resource constraints, which continue to be tight. While a very preliminary analysis was done using the International Natural Gas Model that showed the economic viability of a liquefaction project in the Gulf of Mexico to be questionable under preliminary reference case conditions, a more thorough analysis is warranted.

[32]TransCanada and ExxonMobil filed an open season plan for an Alaska Pipeline Project which includes an option for shipping

off-peak) The basic process is as follows for each NEMS iteration (except for the first step): 1) at the beginning of each forecast year set up LNG supply curves for eastern and western North America for each period (peak and off-peak), 2) using the supply curves and the quantity-weighted average regasification tailgate price from the previous NEMS iteration, determine the amount of LNG available for import into North America, 3) subtract the volumes that are exogenously set and dedicated to the Mexico market (unless they exceed the total), and 4) allocate the remaining amount to the associated LNG terminals using a share based on the regasification capacity, the volumes imported last year, and the relative prices.

The LNG import supply curves are developed off of a base price/quantity pair (Appendix E, LNGPPT, LNGQPT) from a reference case run of the INGM, using the same, or very similar, world oil price assumptions. The quantities equal the sum of the LNG imports into east or west North America in the associated period; and the prices equal the quantity-weighted average tailgate price at the regasification terminals. The mathematical specification of the curve is exactly like the one used for domestic production described earlier in this chapter, except the assumed elasticities are represented with different variables and have different values.[33] This representation represents a first cut at integrating the information from INGM in the domestic projections.[34] The formulation for these LNG supply curves will likely be revised in future NEMS to better capture the market dynamics as represented in the INGM.

Once the North American LNG import volumes are established, the exogenously specified LNG imports into Mexico are subtracted,[35] along with the sum of any assumed minimum level (Appendix E, LNGMIN) for each of the representative terminals in the U.S., Canada, and Baja, Mexico (as shown in **Table 2-1**). The remainder (TOTQ) is shared out to the terminals and then added to the terminal's assumed minimum import level to arrive at the final LNG import level by terminal and season. The shares are initially set as follows and then normalized to total to 1.0:

$$LSHR_{n,r} = \left\{ \frac{QLNGLAG_{n,r} - (LNGMIN_r * SH_{r,n})}{TOTQ_{n,c}} * PERQ + \frac{LNGCAP_r - LNGMIN_r}{TOTCAP_c} * (1 - PERQ) \right\} * \left\{ \frac{PLNG_{n,r}}{AVGPR_{n,c}} \right\}^{BETA} \quad (41)$$

where,

$LSHR_{n,r}$	=	Initial share (before normalization) of LNG imports going to terminal r in period n from the east or west coast, fraction
$TOTQ_{n,c}$	=	The level of LNG imports in the east or west coast to be shared out for a period n to the associated U.S. regasification regions

gas to Valdez for export as LNG. Previous EIA analysis indicated that the option for a pipeline to the lower 48 States is likely to provide a greater netback to the producers and is therefore a more viable option. This analysis and model assumption will be reviewed in the future.

[33]For LNG the variables are called PARM_LNGxx, instead of PARM_SUPxx and are also traceable using Appendix E.

[34]As first implemented, the resulting LNG import volumes were somewhat erratic, so a five-year moving average was applied to the quantity inputs to smooth out the trajectory and more closely approximate a trend line.

[35]If the total available LNG import levels exceed the assumed LNG imports into Mexico, the volumes into Mexico are adjusted accordingly, not to be set below assumed minimums (Appendix E, MEXLNGMIN).

$QLNGLAG_{n,r}$ = LNG import level last year (Bcf)
$LNGMIN_r$ = Minimum annual LNG import level (Bcf) (Appendix E)
$SH_{r,n}$ = Fraction of LNG imported in period n last year
$LNGCAP_r$ = Beginning of year LNG sendout capacity[36] (Bcf) (Appendix E)
$TOTCAP_c$ = Total LNG sendout capacity on the east or west coast (Bcf)
PERQ = Assumed parameter (0.5)
$PLNG_{n,r}$ = Regasification tailgate price (1987$/Mcf)
$AVGPR_{n,r}$ = Average regasification tailgate price on the east or west coast (1987$/Mcf)
BETA = Assumed parameter (1.2)
r = Regasification terminal number (See Table 2-1)
n = Network or period (peak or off-peak)
c = East or west coast

Table 2-1. LNG Regasification Regions

Number	Regasification Terminal/Region
1	Everett, MA
2	Cove Point, MD
3	Elba Island, GA
4	Lake Charles, LA
5	New England
6	Middle Atlantic
7	South Atlantic
8	Florida/Bahamas

Number	Regasification Regions
9	Alabama/Mississippi
10	Louisiana/Texas
11	California
12	Washington/Oregon
13	Eastern Canada
14	Western Canada
15	Baja into the U.S.
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Source: Office of Integrated Analysis and Forecasting, U.S. Energy Information Administration

Alaska Natural Gas Routine

The NEMS demand modules provide a forecast of natural gas consumption for the total Pacific Census Division, which includes Alaska. Currently natural gas that is produced in Alaska cannot be transported to the lower 48 States via pipeline. Therefore, the production and consumption of natural gas in Alaska is handled separately within the NGTDM from the contiguous States. Annual estimates of contiguous Pacific Division consumption levels are derived within the NGTDM by first estimating Alaska natural gas consumption for all sectors, and then subtracting these from the core market consumption levels in the Pacific Division provided by the NEMS demand modules. The use of natural gas in compressed natural gas vehicles in Alaska is assumed to be negligible or nonexistent. The Electricity Market Module provides a value for

[36]Send-out capacity is the maximum annual volume of gas that can be delivered by a regasification facility into the pipeline.

natural gas consumption in Alaska by electric generators. The series of equations for specifying the consumption of gas by Alaska residential and commercial customers follows:

$$AK\_RN_y = \exp\{-2.677 + (0.888 * \ln(AK\_RN_{y-1})) - (0.185 * \ln(AK\_RN_{y-2})) + (0.626 * \ln(AK\_POP_y))\} \quad (42)$$

$$AK\_CN_y = 0.932946 + (0.937471 * AK\_CN_{y-1}) \quad (43)$$

$$(res):\ AKQTY\_F_{s=1,y} = \{e^{(6.983794*(1-0.364042))} * (AKQTY\_F_{s=1,y-1} * 1000)^{0.364042} * * AK\_RN_y^{(0.601932*(1-0.364042))}\} / 1000. \quad (44)$$

$$(com):AKQTY\_F_{s=2.y} = \{e^{(9.425307*(1-0.736334))} * (AKQTY\_F_{s=2,y-1} * 1000)^{0.736334} * AK\_CN_y^{0.205020} * (AK\_CN_{y-1} * 1000)^{(-0.736334*0.205020)}\}/1000. \quad (45)$$

where,

$AKQTY\_F_{s=1}$ = consumption of natural gas by residential (s=1) customers in Alaska in year y (MMcf, converted to Bcf, Table F1, Appendix F1)
$AKQTY\_F_{s=2}$ = consumption of natural gas by commercial (s=2) customers in Alaska in the current forecast year y (MMcf, converted to Bcf, Table F1, Appendix F1)
AK_RN = number of residential customers in year y (thousands, Table F1, Appendix F)
AK_CN_y = number of commercial customers in year y (thousands, Table F2, Appendix F)
AK_POP = exogenously specified projection of the population in Alaska (thousands, Appendix E)

Gas consumption by Alaska industrial customers is set exogenously, as follows:

$$(ind):\ AKQTY\_F_{s=3,y} = AK\_QIND\_S_y \quad (46)$$

where,

$AKQTY\_F_{s=3,y}$ = consumption of natural gas by industrial customers in year y (s=3), (Bcf)
AK_QIND_S = consumption of natural gas by industrial customers in southern Alaska (Bcf), the sum of consumption at the Agrium fertilizer plant (assumed to close in 2007, Appendix E) and at the Kenai LNG liquefaction facility (assumed to close in 2013, Appendix E)
s = sector
y = year

The production of gas in Alaska is basically set equal to the sum of the volumes consumed and transported out of Alaska, so depends on: 1) whether a pipeline is constructed from Alaska to

Alberta, 2) whether a gas-to-liquids plant is built in Alaska, and 3) consumption in and exports from Alaska. The production of gas related to the Alaska pipeline equals the volumes delivered to Alberta (which depend on assumptions about the pipeline capacity) plus what is consumed for related lease, plant, and pipeline operations (calculated as delivered volume divided by 1 minus the percent used for lease, plant, and pipeline operations). If the Petroleum Market Module (PMM) determines that a gas-to-liquids facility will be built in Alaska, then the natural gas consumed in the process (AKGTL_NGCNS, set in the PMM) is added to production in the north, along with the associated lease and plant fuel consumed. The production volumes related to the pipeline and the GTL plant are summed together ($N.AK_2$ below). Other production in North Alaska that is not related to the pipeline or GTL is largely lease and plant fuel associated with the crude oil extraction processes; whereas gas is produced in the south to satisfy consumption and export requirements. The quantity of lease and plant fuel not related to the pipeline or GTL in Alaska ($N.AK_1$ below) is assigned separately, includes lease and plant fuel used in the north and south, and is added to the other production ($N.AK_2$ below) to arrive at total North Alaska production. The details follow:

$$\begin{aligned}(\mathrm{S.AK}):\ \mathrm{AK\_PROD}_{r=1} = {} & \mathrm{AK\_CONS\_S} + \mathrm{EXPJAP} + \mathrm{QALK\_LAP\_S} + \\ & \mathrm{QALK\_PIP\_S} - \mathrm{AK\_DISCR}\end{aligned} \tag{47}$$

$$\begin{aligned}(\mathrm{N.AK_1}):\ \mathrm{AK\_PROD}_{r=2} = \mathrm{QALK\_LAP\_N} = {} & (0.0943884 * \mathrm{QALK\_LAP\_NLAG} \\ & + (0.038873 * \textstyle\sum_{s=1}^{3} \mathrm{oOGPRCOAK}_{s,y})\end{aligned} \tag{48}$$

$$\begin{aligned}(\mathrm{N.AK_2}):\ \mathrm{AK\_PROD}_{r=3} = {} & \frac{\mathrm{QAK\_ALB}_y}{1. - \mathrm{AK\_PCTLSE}_{r=3} - \mathrm{AK\_PCTPLT}_{r=3} - \mathrm{AK\_PCTPIP}_{r=3}} + \\ & \mathrm{AKGTL\_NGCNS}_t + \mathrm{AKGTL\_LAP}\end{aligned} \tag{49}$$

where,

$$\mathrm{AK\_CONS\_S} = \sum_{s=1}^{4} (\mathrm{AKQTY\_F}_s + \mathrm{AKQTY\_I}_s) \tag{50}$$

$$\mathrm{QALK\_LAP\_S} = 0.0 \qquad \text{(total is assigned to the North)} \tag{51}$$

$$\mathrm{QALK\_PIP\_S} = (\mathrm{AK\_CONS\_S} + \mathrm{EXPJAP}) * \mathrm{AK\_PCTPIP}_2 \tag{52}$$

$$\mathrm{AKGTL\_LAP} = \mathrm{oAKGTL\_NGCNS}_t * (\mathrm{AK\_PCTLSE}_3 + \mathrm{AK\_PCTPLT}_3) \tag{53}$$

where,

AK_PROD_r	=	dry gas production in Alaska (Bcf)
AK_CONS_S	=	total gas delivered to customers in South Alaska (Bcf)
$AKQTY\_F_s$	=	total gas delivered to core customers in Alaska in sector s (Bcf)
$AKQTY\_I_s$	=	total gas delivered to non-core customers in Alaska in sector s (Bcf)

EXPJAP = quantity of gas liquefied and exported to Japan (from OGSM in Bcf)

QALK_LAP_N = quantity of gas consumed in Alaska for lease and plant operations, excluding that related to the Alaska pipeline and GTL (Bcf)

QALK_LAP_NLAG = quantity of gas consumed for lease and plant operations in the previous year, excluding that related to the pipeline and GTL (Bcf)

$oOGPRCOAK_{s,y}$ = crude oil production in Alaska by sector

$QALK\_PIP_r$ = quantity of gas consumed as pipeline fuel (Bcf)

AK_DISCR = discrepancy, the average (2006-2008) historically based difference in reported supply levels and consumption levels in Alaska (Bcf)

QAK_ALB_t = gas produced on North Slope entering Alberta via pipeline (Bcf)

AK_PCTLSE_r = (for r=1) not used, (for r=2) lease and plant consumption as a percent of gas consumption, (for r=3) lease consumption as a percent of gas production (fraction, Appendix E)

AK_PCTPLT_r = (for r=1 and r=2) not used, (for r=3) plant fuel as a percent of gas production (fraction, Appendix E)

AK_PCTPIP_r = (for r=1) not used, (for r=2) pipeline fuel as a percent of gas consumption, (for r=3) pipeline fuel as a percent of gas production (fraction, Appendix E)

$AKGTL\_NGCNS_t$ = natural gas consumed in a gas-to-liquids plant in the North Slope (from PMM in Bcf)

AKGTL_LAP = lease and plant consumption associated with the gas for a gas-to-liquids plant (Bcf)

s = sectors (1=residential, 2=commercial, 3=industrial, 4=transportation, 5=electric generators)

r = region (1 = south, 2 = north not associated with a pipeline to Alberta or gas-to-liquids process, 3 = north associated with a pipeline to Alberta and/or a gas-to-liquids plant

Lease, plant, and pipeline fuel consumption are calculated as follows. For south Alaska, the calculation of pipeline fuel (QALK_PIP_S) and lease and plant fuel (QALK_LAP_S) are shown above. For the Alaska pipeline, all three components are set to the associated production times the percentage of lease (AK_PCTLSE_3), plant (AK_PCTPLT_3), or pipeline fuel (AK_PCTPIP_3). For the gas-to-liquids process, lease and plant fuel (AKGTL_LAP) is calculated as shown above and pipeline fuel is considered negligible. For the rest of north Alaska, pipeline fuel consumption is assumed to be negligible, while lease and plant fuel not associated with the pipeline or GTL (QALK_LAP_N) is set based on an estimated equation shown previously (Table F10, Appendix F).

Estimates for natural gas wellhead and delivered prices in Alaska are estimated in the NGTDM for proper accounting, but have a very limited impact on the NEMS system. The average Alaska wellhead price (AK_WPRC) over the North and South regions (not accounting for the impact if a pipeline ultimately is connected to Alberta) is set using the following estimated equation:

$$AK\_WPRC_1 = WPRLAG^{0.934077} * oIT\_WOP_{y,1}^{(0.280960*(1-0.934077))} \quad (54)$$

where,

AK_WPRC_1 = natural gas wellhead price in Alaska, presuming no pipeline to Alberta (1987\$/Mcf) (Table F1, Appendix F)

WPRLAG = AK_WPRC in the previous forecast year (\$/Mcf)

$oIT\_WOP_{y,1}$ = world oil price (1987\$ per barrel)

The price for natural gas associated with a pipeline to Alberta is exogenously specified ($FR\_PMINWPR_1$, Appendix E) and does not vary by forecast year. The average wellhead price for the State is calculated as the quantity-weighted average of AK_WPRC and $FR\_PMINWPR_1$. Delivered prices in Alaska are set equal to the wellhead price (AK_WPRC) resulting from the equation above plus a fixed, exogenously specified markup (Appendix E -- AK_RM, AK_CM, AK_IN, AK_EM).

Within the model, the commencement of construction of the Alaska to Alberta pipeline is restricted to the years beyond an earliest start date (FR_PMINYR, Appendix E) and can only occur if a pipeline from the MacKenzie Delta to Alberta is not under construction. The same is true for the MacKenzie Delta pipeline relative to construction of the Alaska pipeline. Otherwise, the structural representation of the MacKenzie Delta pipeline is nearly identical to that of the Alaska pipeline, with different numerical values for model parameters. Therefore, the following description applies to both pipelines. Within the model the same variable names are used to specify the supporting data for the two pipelines, with an index of 1 for Alaska and an index of 2 for the MacKenzie Delta pipeline.

The decision to build a pipeline is triggered if the estimated cost to supply the gas to the lower 48 States is lower than an average of the lower 48 average wellhead price over the planning period of FR_PPLNYR (Appendix E) years.[37] Construction is assumed to take FR_PCNSYR (Appendix E) years. Initial pipeline capacity is assumed to accommodate a throughput delivered to Alberta of FR_PVOL (Appendix E). The first year of operation, the volume is assumed to be half of its ultimate throughput. If the trigger price exceeds the minimum price by FR_PADDTAR (Appendix E) after the initial pipeline is built, then the capacity will be expanded the following year by a fraction (FR_PEXPFAC, Appendix E) of the original capacity.

The expected cost to move the gas to the lower 48 is set as the sum of the wellhead price,[38] the charge for treating the gas, and the fuel costs (FR_PMINWPR, Appendix E), plus the pipeline tariff for moving the gas to Alberta and an assumed differential between the price in Alberta and the average lower 48 wellhead price (ALB_TO_L48, Appendix E). A risk premium is also included to largely reflect the expected initial price drop as a result of the introduction of the pipeline, as well as some of the uncertainties in the necessary capital outlays and in the ultimate

[37]The prices are weighted, with a greater emphasis on the prices in the recent past. An additional check is made that the estimated cost is lower than the lower 48 price in the last two years of the planning period and lower than a weighted average of the expected prices in the three years after the planning period, during the construction period.

[38]The required wellhead price in the MacKenzie Delta is progressively adjusted in response to changes in the U.S. national average drilling cost per well projections and across the forecast horizon in a higher or lower technology case, such that by the last year (2035) the price is higher or lower than the price in the reference case by a fraction equal to 0.25 times the technology factor adjustment rate (e.g., 0.50 for *AEO2011*).

selling price (FR_PRISK, Appendix E).[39] The cost-of-service based calculation for the pipeline tariff (NGFRPIPE_TAR) to move gas from each production source to Alberta is presented at the end of Chapter 6.

[39]If there is an annual decline in the average lower 48 wellhead price over the planning period for the Alaska pipeline, an additional adjustment is made to the expected cost (although it is not a cost item), equivalent to half of the drop in price averaged over the planning period, to account for the additional concern created by declining prices.

3. Overview of Solution Methodology

The previous chapter described the function of the NGTDM within the NEMS and the transformation and representation of supply and demand elements within the NGTDM. This chapter will present an overview of the NGTDM model structure and of the methodologies used to represent the natural gas transmission and distribution industries. First, a detailed description of the network used in the NGTDM to represent the U.S. natural gas pipeline system is presented. Next, a general description of the interrelationships between the submodules within the NGTDM is presented, along with an overview of the solution methodology used by each submodule.

NGTDM Regions and the Pipeline Flow Network

General Description of the NGTDM Network

In the NGTDM, a transmission and distribution network (**Figure 3-1**) simulates the interregional flow of gas in the contiguous United States and Canada in either the peak (December through March) or off-peak (April through November) period. This network is a simplified representation of the physical natural gas pipeline system and establishes the possible interregional transfers to move gas from supply sources to end-users. Each NGTDM region contains one transshipment node, a junction point representing flows coming into and out of the region. Nodes have also been defined at the Canadian and Mexican borders, as well as in eastern and western Canada. Arcs connecting the transshipment nodes are defined to represent flows between these nodes; and thus, to represent interregional flows. Each of these interregional arcs represents an aggregation of pipelines that are capable of moving gas from one region into another region. Bidirectional flows are allowed in cases where the aggregation includes some pipelines flowing one direction and other pipelines flowing in the opposite direction.[40] Bidirectional flows can also be the result of directional flow shifts within a single pipeline system due to seasonal variations in flows. Arcs leading from or to international borders generally[41] represent imports or exports. The arcs which are designated as "secondary" in **Figure 3-1** generally represent relatively low flow volumes and are handled somewhat differently and separately from those designated as "primary."

Flows are further represented by establishing arcs from the transshipment node to each demand sector/subregion represented in the NGTDM region. Demand in a particular NGTDM region can only be satisfied by gas flowing from that same region's transshipment node. Similarly, arcs are also established from supply points into transshipment nodes. The supply from each NGTDM/OGSM region is directly available to only one transshipment node, through which it must first pass if it is to be made available to the interstate market (at an adjoining transshipment

[40]Historically, one out of each pair of bidirectional arcs in Figure 3-1 represents a relatively small amount of gas flow during the year. These arcs are referred to as "the bidirectional arcs" and are identified as the secondary arcs in Figure 3-1, excluding 3 to 15, 5 to 10, 15 to E. Canada, 20 to 7, 21 to 11, 22 to 12, and Alaska to W. Canada. The flows along these arcs are initially set at the last historical level and are only increased (proportionately) when a known (or likely) planned capacity expansion occurs.

[41]Some natural gas flows across the Canadian border into the United States, only to flow back across the border without changing ownership or truly being imported. In addition, any natural gas that might flow from Alaska to the lower 48 states would cross the Canadian/U.S. border, but not be considered as an import.

node). During a peak period, one of the supply sources feeding into each transshipment node represents net storage withdrawals in the region during the peak period. Conversely during the off-peak period, one of the demand nodes represents net storage injections in the region during the off-peak period.

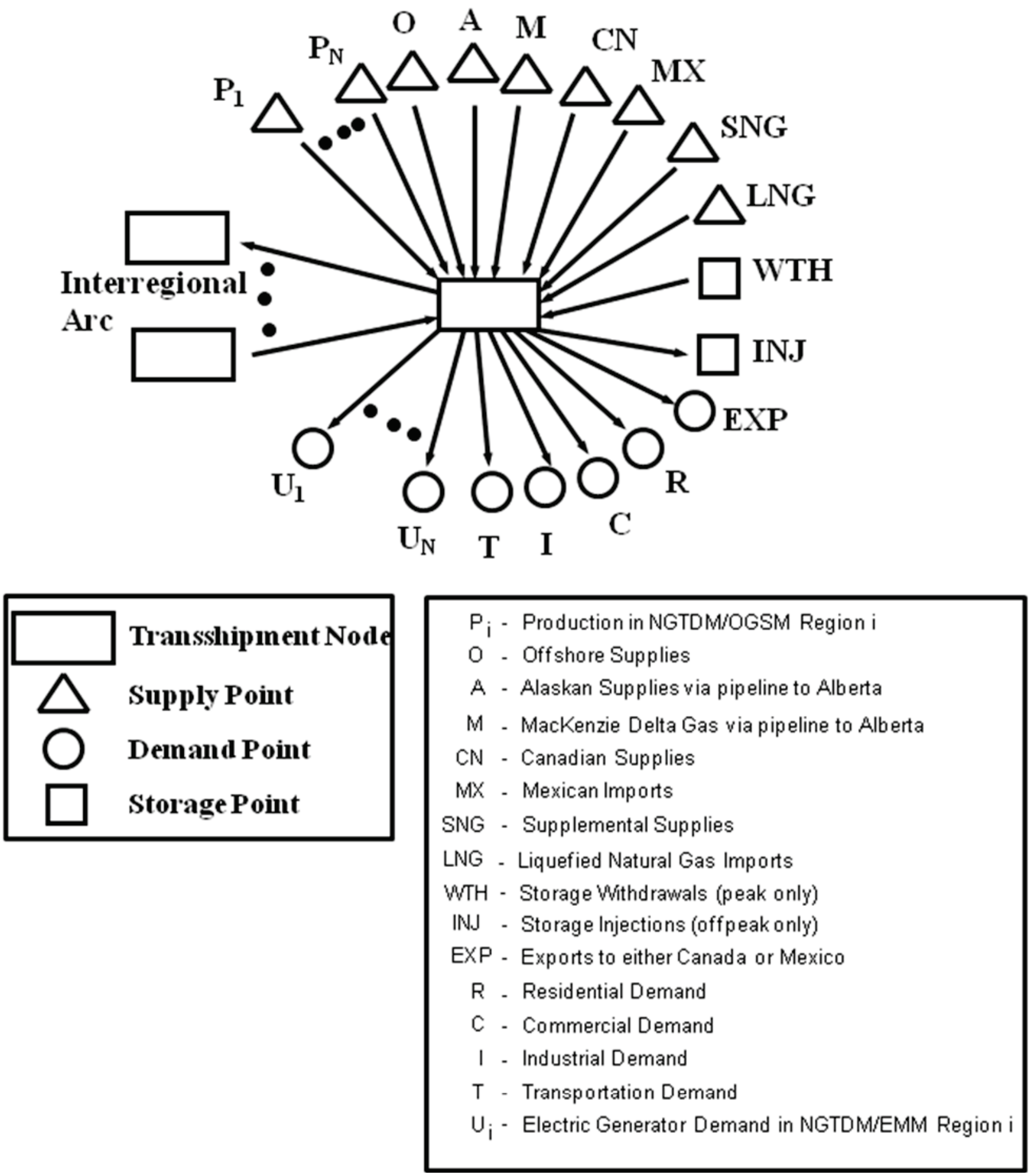
Figure 3-1. Natural Gas Transmission and Distribution Module Network

Figure 3-2 shows an illustration of all possible flows into and out of a transshipment node. Each transshipment node has one or more arcs to represent flows from or to other transshipment nodes. The transshipment node also has an arc representing flow to each end-use sector in the region (residential, commercial, industrial, electric generators, and transportation), including separate arcs to each electric generator subregion.[42] Exports and (in the off-peak period) net storage injections are also represented as flow out of a transshipment node. Each transshipment node can have one or more arcs flowing in from each supply source represented within the region. These supply points represent U.S. or Canadian onshore or U.S. offshore production,

[42]Conceptually within the model, the flow of gas to each end-use sector passes through a common city gate point before reaching the end-user.

liquefied natural gas imports, gas produced in Alaska and transported via pipeline, Mexican imports, (in the peak period) net storage withdrawals in the region, or supplemental gas supplies.

Figure 3-2. Transshipment Node



Two items accounted for but not presented in **Figure 3-2** are discrepancies or balancing items (i.e., average historically observed differences between independently reported natural gas supply and disposition levels (DISCR for the United States, CN_DISCR for Canada) and backstop supplies.[43]

Many of the types of supply listed above are relatively low in volume and are set independently of current prices and before the NGTDM determines a market equilibrium solution. As a result, these sources of supply are handled differently within the model. Structurally within the model only the price responsive sources of supply (i.e., onshore and offshore lower 48 U.S. production, Western Canadian Sedimentary Basin (WCSB) production, and storage withdrawals) are explicitly represented with supply nodes and connecting arcs to the transshipment nodes when the NGTDM is determining a market equilibrium solution.

Once the types of end-use destinations and supply sources into and out of each transshipment node are defined, a general network structure is created. Each transshipment node does not necessarily have all supply source types flowing in, or all demand source types flowing out. For instance, some transshipment nodes will have liquefied natural gas available while others will not. The specific end-use sectors and supply types specified for each transshipment node in the network are listed in **Table 3-1**. This table also provides the mapping of Electricity Market Module regions and Oil and Gas Supply Module regions to NGTDM regions (**Figure 2-3** and **Figure 2-5** in Chapter 2). The transshipment node numbers in the U.S. align with the NGTDM regions in **Figure 3-1**. Transshipment nodes 13 through 19 are pass-through nodes for the border crossings on the Canada/U.S. border, going from east to west.

As described earlier, the NGTDM determines the flow and price of natural gas in both a peak and off-peak period. The basic network structure separately represents the flow of gas during the two periods within the Interstate Transmission Submodule. Conceptually this can be thought of as two parallel networks, with three areas of overlap. First, pipeline expansion is determined only in the peak period network (with the exception of pipelines going into Florida from the East South Central Division). These levels are then used as constraints for pipeline flow in the off-peak period. Second, net withdrawals from storage in the peak period establish the net amount of natural gas that will be injected in the off-peak period, within a given forecast year. Similarly, the price of gas withdrawn in the peak period is the sum of the price of the gas when it was injected in the off-peak, plus an established storage tariff. Third, the supply curves provided by the Oil and Gas Supply Module are specified on an annual basis. Although, these curves are used to approximate peak and off-peak supply curves, the model is constrained to solve on the annual supply curve (i.e., when the annual curve is evaluated at the quantity-weighted average annual wellhead price, the resulting quantity should equal the sum of the production in the peak and off-peak periods). The details of how this is accomplished are provided in Chapter 4.

[43]Backstop supplies are allowed when the flow out of a transshipment node exceeds the maximum flow into a transshipment node. A high price is assigned to this supply source and it is generally expected not to be required (or desired). Chapter 4 provides a more detailed description of the setting and use of backstop supplies in the NGTDM.

Table 3-1. Demand and Supply Types at Each Transshipment Node in the Network

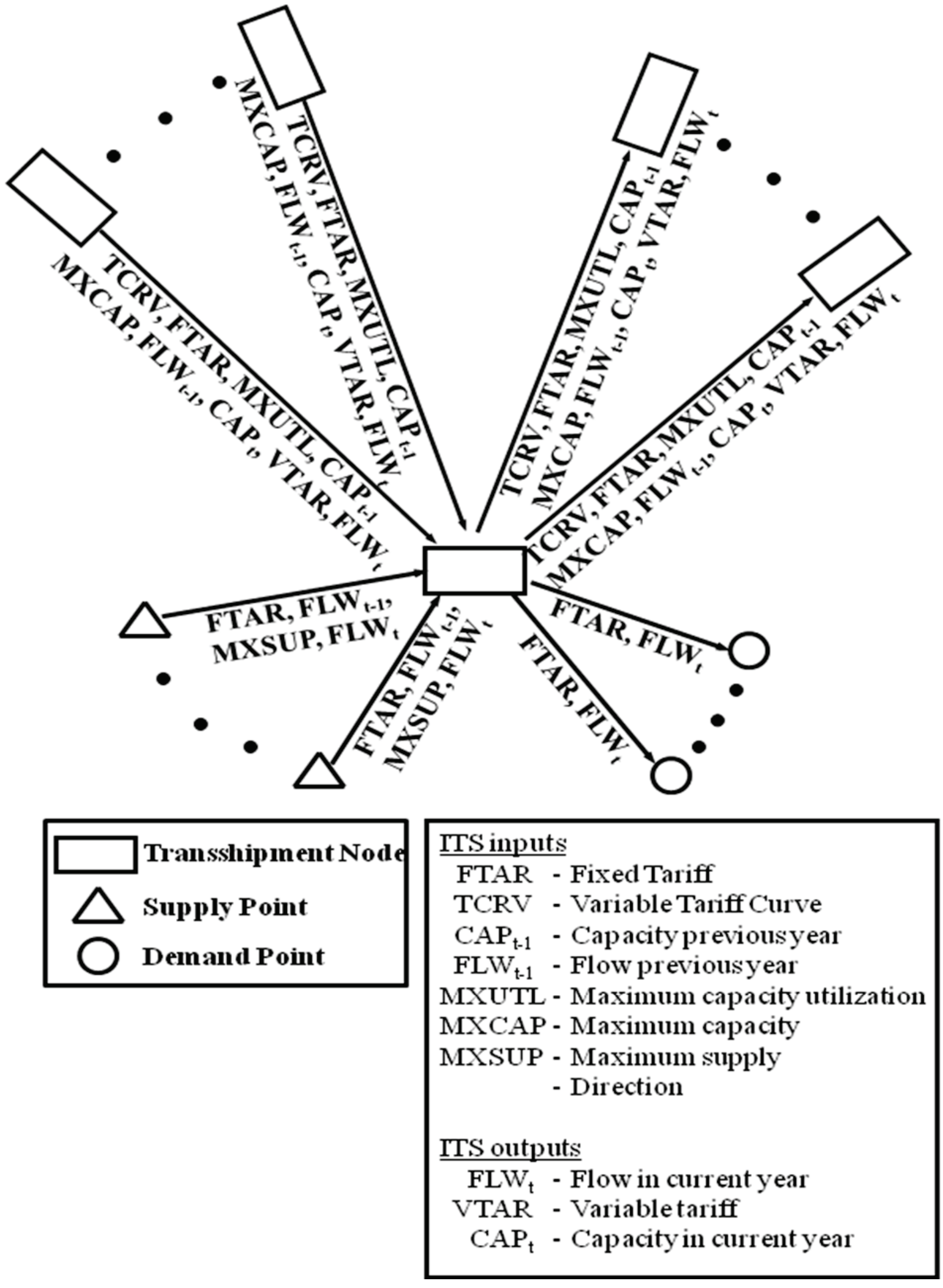
Transshipment Node	Demand Types	Supply Types
1	R, C, I, T, U(1)	P(1/1), LNG Everett Mass., LNG generic, SNG
2	R, C, I, T, U(2), INJ	P(2/1), WTH, LNG generic, SNG
3	R, C, I, T, U(3), U(4), INJ	P(3/1), WTH, SNG
4	R, C, I, T, U(5), INJ	P(4/3), P(4/5), SNG, WTH, LNG generic
5	R, C, I, T, U(6), U(7), INJ	P(5/1), LNG Cove Pt Maryland, LNG Elba Island Georgia, Atlantic Offshore, WTH, LNG generic, SNG
6	R, C, I, T, U(9), U(10), INJ	P(6/1), P(6/2), WTH, LNG generic, SNG
7	R, C, I, T, U(11), INJ	P(7/2), P(7/3), P(7/4), LNG Lake Charles Louisiana, Offshore Louisiana, Gulf of Mexico, WTH, LNG generic, SNG
8	R, C, I, T, U(12), U(13), INJ	P(8/5), WTH, SNG
9	R, C, I, T, U(15), INJ	P(9/6), WTH, LNG generic, SNG
10	R, C, I, T, U(6), U(8), INJ	P(10/2), WTH, SNG
11	R, C, I, T, U(14), INJ	P(11/4), P(11/5), WTH, SNG
12	R, C, I, T, U(16), INJ	P(12/6), Pacific Offshore, WTH, LNG generic, SNG
13 – 19	--	--
20	Mexican Exports (TX)	Mexican Imports (TX)
21	Mexican Exports (AZ/NM)	Mexican Imports (AZ/NM)
22	Mexican Exports (CA)	Mexican Imports (CA)
23	Eastern Canadian consumption, INJ	Eastern Canadian supply, WTH
24	Western Canadian consumption, INJ	Western Canadian supply, WTH, Alaskan Supply via a pipeline, MacKenzie Valley gas via a pipeline
P(x/y) – production in region defined in Figure 2-5 for NGTDM region x and OGSM region y U(z) – electric generator consumption in region z, defined in Figure 2-3		

Specifications of a Network Arc

Each arc of the network has associated variable inputs and outputs. The variables that define an interregional arc in the Interstate Transmission Submodule (ITS) are the pipeline direction, available capacity from the previous forecast year, the "fixed" tariffs and/or tariff curve, the flow on the arc from the previous year, the maximum capacity level, and the maximum utilization of the capacity (**Figure 3-3**). While a model solution is determined (i.e., the quantity of the natural gas flow along each interregional arc is determined), the "variable" or quantity dependent tariff and the required capacity to support the flow are also determined in the process.

For the peak period, the maximum capacity build levels are set to a factor above the 1990 levels. The factor is set high enough so that this constraint is rarely, if ever, binding. However, the structure could be used to limit growth along a particular path. In the off-peak period the maximum capacity levels are set to the capacity level determined in the peak period. The maximum utilization rate along each arc is used to capture the impact that varying demand loads over a season have on the utilization along an arc.

Figure 3-3. Variables Defined and Determined for Network Arc



For the peak period, the maximum utilization rate is calculated based on an estimate of the ratio of January-to-peak period consumption requirements. For the off-peak the maximum utilization rates are set exogenously (HOPUTZ, Appendix E). Capacity and flow levels from the previous forecast year are used as input to the solution algorithm for the current forecast year. In some cases, capacity that is newly available in the current forecast year will be exogenously set (PLANPCAP, Appendix E) as "planned" (i.e., highly probable that it will be built by the given forecast year based on project announcements). Any additional capacity beyond the planned level is determined during the solution process and is checked against maximum capacity levels and adjusted accordingly. Each of the interregional arcs has an associated "fixed" and "variable" tariff, to represent usage and reservation fees, respectively. The variable tariff is established by applying the flow level along the arc to the associated tariff supply curve, established by the Pipeline Tariff Submodule. During the solution process in the Interstate Transmission Submodule, the resulting tariff in the peak or off-peak period is added to the price at the source node to arrive at a price for the gas along the interregional arc right before it reaches its destination node. Through an iterative process, the relative values of these prices for all of the arcs entering a node are used as the basis for reevaluating the flow along each of these arcs.[44]

For the arcs from the transshipment nodes to the final delivery points, the variables defined are tariffs and flows (or consumption). The tariffs here represent the sum of several charges or adjustments, including interstate pipeline tariffs in the region, intrastate pipeline tariffs, and distributor markups. Associated with each of these arcs is the flow along the arc, which is equal to the amount of natural gas consumed by the represented sector. For arcs from supply points to transshipment nodes, the input variables are the production levels from the previous forecast year, a tariff, and the maximum limit on supplies or production. In this case the tariffs theoretically represent gathering charges, but are currently assumed to be zero.[45] Maximum supply levels are set at a percentage above a baseline or "expected" production level (described in Chapter 4). Although capacity limits can be set for the arcs to and from end-use sectors and supply points, respectively, the current version of the module does not impose such limits on the flows along these arcs.

Note that any of the above variables may have a value of zero, if appropriate. For instance, some pipeline arcs may be defined in the network that currently have zero capacity, yet where new capacity is expected in the future. On the other hand, some arcs such as those to end-use sectors are defined with infinite pipeline capacity because the model does not forecast limits on the flow of gas from transshipment nodes to end users.

Overview of the NGTDM Submodules and Their Interrelationships

The NEMS generates an annual forecast of the outlook for U.S. energy markets for the years 1990 through 2030. For the historical years, many of the modules in NEMS do not execute, but

[44]During the off-peak period in a previous version of the module, only the usage fee was used as a basis for determining the relative flow along the arcs entering a node. However, the total tariff was ultimately used when setting delivered prices.

[45]Ultimately the gathering charges are reflected in the delivered prices when the model is benchmarked to historically reported city gate prices.

simply assign historically published values to the model's output variables. The NGTDM similarly assigns historical values to most of the known module outputs for these years. However, some of the required outputs from the module are not known (e.g., the flow of natural gas between regions on a seasonal basis). Therefore, the model is run in a modified form to fill in such unknown, but required values. Through this process historical values are generated for the unknown parameters that are consistent with the known historically based values (e.g., the unknown seasonal interregional flows sum to the known annual totals).

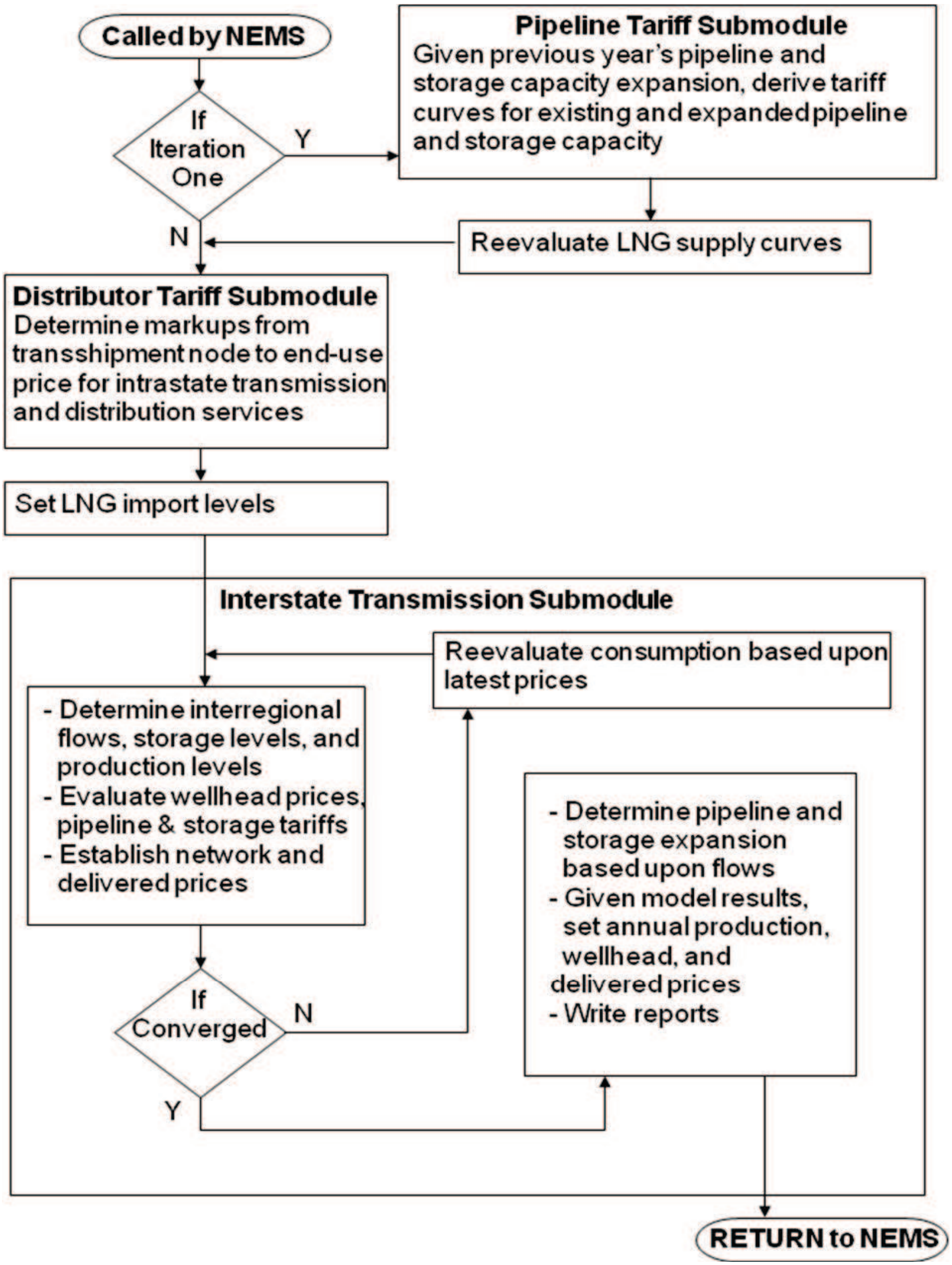
Although the NGTDM is executed for each iteration of each forecast year solved by the NEMS, it is not necessary that all of the individual components of the module be executed for all iterations. Of the NGTDM's three components or submodules, the Pipeline Tariff Submodule is executed only once per forecast year since the submodule's input values do not change from one iteration of NEMS to the next. However, the Interstate Transmission Submodule and the Distributor Tariff Submodule are executed during every iteration for each forecast year because their input values can change by iteration. Within the Interstate Transmission Submodule an iterative process is used. The basic solution algorithm is repeated multiple times until the resulting wellhead prices and production levels from one iteration are within a user-specified tolerance of the resulting values from the previous iteration, and equilibrium is reached. A process diagram of the NGTDM is provided in **Figure 3-4**, with the general calling sequence.

The Interstate Transmission Submodule is the primary submodule of the NGTDM. One of its functions is to forecast interregional pipeline and underground storage expansions and produce annual pipeline load profiles based on seasonal loads. Using this information from the previous forecast year and other data, the Pipeline Tariff Submodule uses an accounting process to derive revenue requirements for the current forecast year. This submodule builds pipeline and storage tariff curves based on these revenue requirements for use in the Interstate Transmission Submodule. These curves extend beyond the level of the current year's capacity and provide a means for assessing whether the demand for additional capacity, based on a higher tariff, is sufficient to warrant expansion of the capacity. The Distributor Tariff Submodule provides distributor tariffs for use in the Interstate Transmission Submodule. The Distributor Tariff Submodule must be called in each iteration because some of the distributor tariffs are based on consumption levels that may change from iteration to iteration. Finally, using the information provided by these other NGTDM submodules and other NEMS modules, the Interstate Transmission Submodule solves for natural gas prices and quantities that reflect a market equilibrium for the current forecast year. A brief summary of each of the NGTDM submodules follows.

Interstate Transmission Submodule

The Interstate Transmission Submodule (ITS) is the main integrating module of the NGTDM. One of its major functions is to simulate the natural gas price determination process. The ITS brings together the major economic factors that influence regional natural gas trade on a seasonal basis in the United States, the balancing of the demand for and the domestic supply of natural gas, including competition from imported natural gas. These are examined in combination with the relative prices associated with moving the gas from the producer to the end-user where and

Figure 3-4. NGTDM Process Diagram



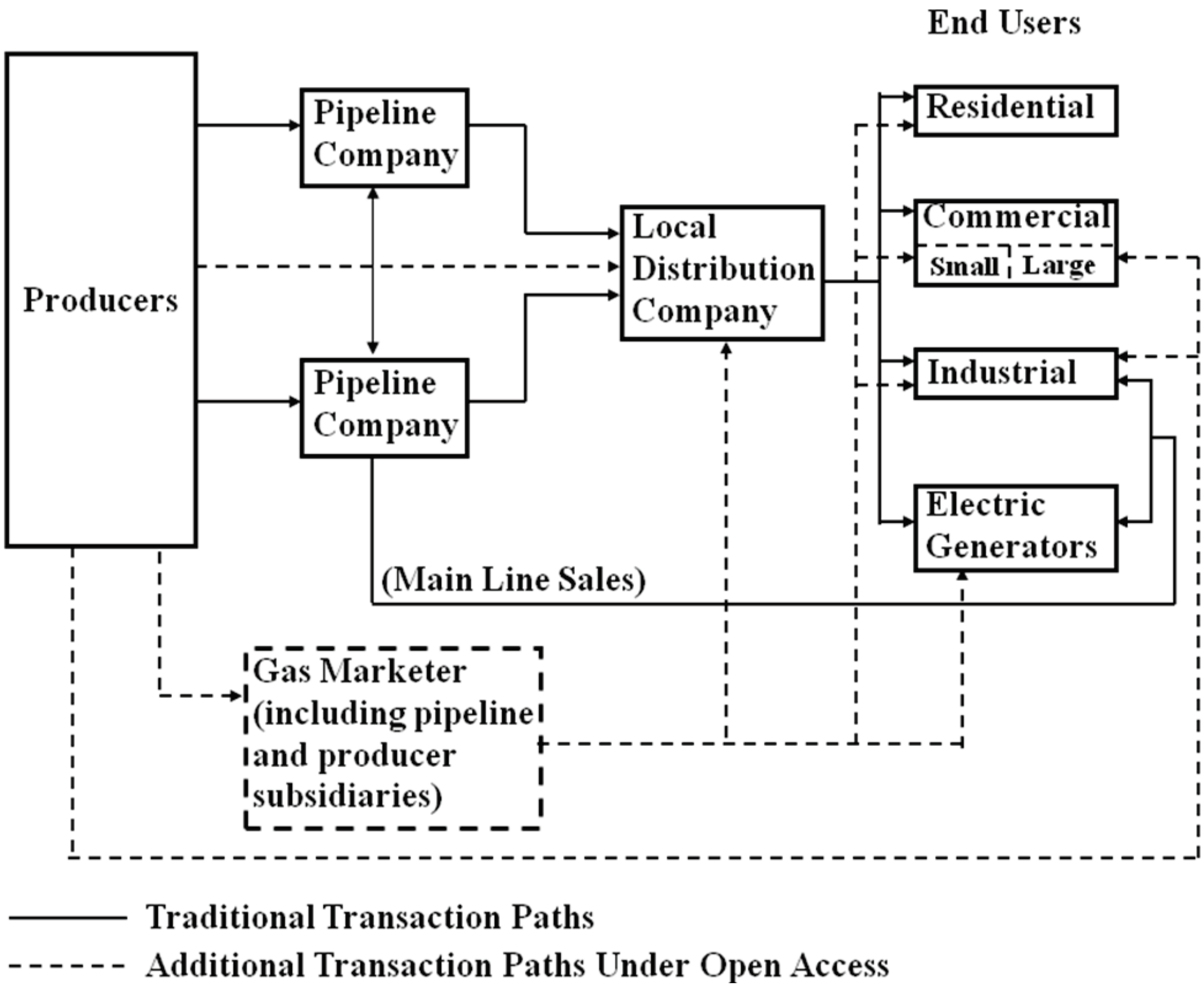
when (peak versus off-peak) it is needed. In the process, the ITS models the decision-making process for expanding pipeline and/or seasonal storage capacity in the U.S. gas market, determining the amount of pipeline and storage capacity to be added between or within regions in the NGTDM. Storage serves as the primary link between the two seasonal periods represented.

The ITS employs an iterative heuristic algorithm to establish a market equilibrium solution. Given the consumption levels from other NEMS modules, the basic process followed by the ITS involves first establishing the backward flow of natural gas in each period from the consumers, through the network, to the producers, based primarily on the relative prices offered for the gas (from the previous ITS iteration). This process is performed for the peak period first since the net withdrawals from storage during the peak period will establish the net injections during the off-peak period. Second, using the model's supply curves, wellhead prices are set corresponding to the desired production volumes. Also, using the pipeline and storage tariff curves from the Pipeline Tariff Submodule, pipeline and storage tariffs are set corresponding to the associated flow of gas, as determined in the first step. These prices are then translated from the producers, back through the network, to the city gate and the end-users, by adding the appropriate tariffs along the way. A regional storage tariff is added to the price of gas injected into storage in the off-peak to arrive at the price of the gas when withdrawn in the peak period. Delivered prices are derived for residential, commercial, electric generation, and transportation customers, as well as for both the core and non-core industrial sectors, using the distributor tariffs provided by the Distributor Tariff Submodule. At this point consumption levels can be reevaluated given the resulting set of delivered prices. Either way, the process is repeated until the solution has converged.

In the end, the ITS derives average seasonal (and ultimately annual) natural gas prices (wellhead, city gate, and delivered), and the associated production and flows, that reflect an interregional market equilibrium among the competing participants in the market. In the process of determining interregional flows and storage injections/withdrawals, the ITS also forecasts pipeline and storage capacity additions. In the calculations for the next forecast year, the Pipeline Tariff Submodule will adjust the requirements to account for the associated expansion costs. Other primary outputs of the module include lease, plant, and pipeline fuel use, Canadian import levels, and net storage withdrawals in the peak period.

The historical evolution of the price determination process simulated by the ITS is depicted schematically in **Figure 3-5**. At one point, the marketing chain was very straightforward, with end-users and local distribution companies contracting with pipeline companies, and the pipeline companies in turn contracting with producers. Prices typically reflected average costs of providing service plus some regulator-specified rate of return. Although this approach is still used as a basis for setting pipeline tariffs, more pricing flexibility has been introduced, particularly in the interstate pipeline industry and more recently by local distributors. Pipeline companies are also offering a range of services under competitive and market-based pricing arrangements. Additionally, newer players—for example marketers of spot gas and brokers for pipeline capacity—have entered the market, creating new links connecting suppliers with end-users. The marketing links are expected to become increasingly complex in the future.

Figure 3-5. Principal Buyer/Seller Transaction Paths for Natural Gas Marketing



The level of competition for pipeline services (generally a function of the number of pipelines having access to a customer and the amount of capacity available) drives the prices for interruptible transmission service and is having an effect on firm service prices. Currently, there are significant differences across regions in pipeline capacity utilization.[46] These regional differences are evolving as new pipeline capacity has been and is being constructed to relieve capacity constraints in the Northeast, to expand markets in the Midwest and the Southeast, and to move more gas out of the Rocky Mountain region and the Gulf of Mexico. As capacity changes take place, prices of services should adjust accordingly to reflect new market conditions.

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[46]Further information can be found on the U.S. Energy Information Administration web page under "Pipeline Capacity and Usage" www.eia.doe.gov/pub/oil_gas/natural_gas/analysis_publications/ngpipeline/index.html.

Federal and State initiatives are reducing barriers to market entry and are encouraging the development of more competitive markets for pipeline and distribution services. Mechanisms used to make the transmission sector more competitive include the widespread capacity releasing programs, market-based rates, and the formation of market centers with deregulated upstream pipeline services. The ITS is not designed to model any specific type of program, but to simulate the overall impact of the movement towards market based pricing of transmission services.

Pipeline Tariff Submodule

The primary purpose of the Pipeline Tariff Submodule (PTS) is to provide volume dependent curves for computing tariffs for interstate transportation and storage services within the Interstate Transmission Submodule. These curves extend beyond current capacity levels and relate incremental pipeline or storage capacity expansion to corresponding estimated rates. The underlying basis for each tariff curve in the model is a forecast of the associated regulated revenue requirement. An accounting system is used to track costs and compute revenue requirements associated with both reservation and usage fees under a current typical regulated rate design. Other than an assortment of macroeconomic indicators, the primary input to the PTS from other modules/submodules in NEMS is the level of pipeline and storage capacity expansions in the previous forecast year. Once an expansion is projected to occur, the submodule calculates the resulting impact on the revenue requirement. The PTS currently assumes rolled-in (or average), not incremental rates for new capacity (i.e., the cost of any additional capacity is lumped in with the remaining costs of existing capacity when deriving a single tariff for all the customers along a pipeline segment).

Transportation revenue requirements (and associated tariff curves) are established for interregional arcs defined by the NGTDM network. These network tariff curves reflect an aggregation of the revenue requirements for individual pipeline companies represented by the network arc. Storage tariff curves are defined at regional NGTDM network nodes, and similarly reflect an aggregation of individual company storage revenue requirements. Note that these services are unbundled and do not include the price of gas, except for the cushion gas used to maintain minimum gas pressure. Furthermore, the submodule cannot address competition for pipeline or storage services along an aggregate arc or within an aggregate region, respectively. It should also be noted that the PTS deals only with the interstate market, and thus does not capture the impacts of State-specific regulations for intrastate pipelines. Intrastate transportation charges are accounted for within the Distributor Tariff Submodule.

Pipeline tariffs for transportation and storage services represent a more significant portion of the price of gas to industrial and electric generator end-users than to other sectors. Consumers of natural gas are grouped generally into two categories: (1) those that need firm or guaranteed service because gas is their only fuel option or because they are willing to pay for security of supply, and (2) those that do not need guaranteed service because they can either periodically terminate operations or use fuels other than natural gas. The first group of customers (core customers) is assumed to purchase firm transportation services, while the latter group (non-core customers) is assumed to purchase non-firm service (e.g., interruptible service, released capacity). Pipeline companies guarantee to their core customers that they will provide peak day service up to the maximum capacity specified under their contracts even though these customers may not actually request transport of gas on any given day. In return for this service guarantee, these customers pay monthly reservation fees (or demand charges). These reservation fees are paid in addition to charges for transportation service based on the quantity of gas actually transported (usage fees or commodity charges). The pipeline tariff curves generated by the PTS are used within the ITS when determining the relative cost of purchasing and moving gas from one source versus another in the peak and off-peak seasons. They are also used when setting the price of gas along the NGTDM network and ultimately to the end-users.

The actual rates or tariffs that pipelines are allowed to charge are largely regulated by the Federal Energy Regulatory Commission (FERC). FERC's ratemaking traditionally allows (but does not necessarily guarantee) a pipeline company to recover its costs, including what the regulators consider a fair rate of return on capital. Furthermore, FERC not only has jurisdiction over how cost components are allocated to reservation and usage categories, but also how reservation and usage costs are allocated across the various classes of transmission (or storage) services offered (e.g., firm versus non-firm service). Previous versions of the NGTDM (and therefore the PTS) included representations of natural gas moved (or stored) using firm and non-firm service. However, in an effort to simplify the module, this distinction has been removed in favor of moving from an annual to a seasonal model. The impact of the distinction of firm versus non-firm service on core and non-core delivered prices is indirectly captured in the markup established in the Distributor Tariff Submodule. More recent initiatives by FERC have allowed for more flexible processes for setting rates when a service provider can adequately demonstrate that it does not possess significant market power. The use of volume dependent tariff curves partially serves to capture the impact of alternate rate setting mechanisms. Additionally, various rate making policy options discussed by FERC would allow peak-season rates to rise substantially above the 100-percent load factor rate (also known as the full cost-of-service rate). In capacity-constrained markets, the basis differential between markets connected via the constrained pipeline route will generally be above the full cost of service pipeline rates. The NGTDM's ultimate purpose is to project market prices; it uses cost-of-service rates as a means in the process of establishing market prices.

Distributor Tariff Submodule

The primary purpose of the Distributor Tariff Submodule (DTS) is to determine the price markup from the regional market hub to the end-user. For most customers, this consists of (1) distributor markups charged by local distribution companies for the distribution of natural gas from the city gate to the end user and (2) markups charged by intrastate pipeline companies for intrastate transportation services. Intrastate pipeline tariffs are specified exogenously to the model and are currently set to zero (INTRAST_TAR, Appendix E). However, these tariffs are accounted for in the module indirectly. For most industrial and electric generator customers, gas is not purchased through a local distribution company, so they are not specifically charged a distributor tariff. In this case, the "distributor tariff" represents the difference between the average price paid by local distribution companies at the city gate and the price paid by the average industrial or electric generator customer. Distributor tariffs are distinguished within the DTS by sector (residential, commercial, industrial, transportation, and electric generator), region (NGTDM/EMM regions for electric generators and NGTDM regions for the rest), seasons (peak or off-peak), and as appropriate by service type or class (core or non-core).

Distribution markups represent a significant portion of the price of gas to residential, commercial, and transportation customers, and less so to the industrial and electric generation sectors. Each sector has different distribution service requirements, and frequently different transportation needs. For example, the core customers in the model (residential, transportation, commercial and some industrial and electric generator customers) are assumed to require guaranteed on-demand (firm) service because natural gas is largely their only fuel option. In contrast, large portions of the industrial and electric generator sectors may not rely solely on guaranteed service because they can either periodically terminate operations or switch to other fuels. These customers are referred to as non-core. They can elect to receive some gas supplies through a lower priority (and lower cost) interruptible transportation service. While not specifically represented in the model, during periods of peak demand, services to these sectors can be interrupted in order to meet the natural gas requirements of core customers. In addition, these customers frequently select to bypass the local distribution company pipelines and hook up directly to interstate or intrastate pipelines.

The rates that local distribution companies and intrastate carriers are allowed to charge are regulated by State authorities. State ratemaking traditionally allows (but does not necessarily guarantee) local distribution companies and intrastate carriers to recover their costs, including what the regulators consider a fair return on capital. These rates are derived from the cost of providing service to the end-use customer. The State authority determines which expenses can be passed through to customers and establishes an allowed rate of return. These measures provide the basis for distinguishing rate differences among customer classes and type of service by allocating costs to these classes and services based on a rate design. The DTS does not project distributor tariffs through a rate base calculation as is done in the PTS, partially due to limits on data availability.[47] In most cases, projected distributor tariffs in the model depend initially on base year values, which are established by subtracting historical city gate prices from historical delivered prices, and generally reflect an average over recent historical years.

Distributor tariffs for all but the transportation sector are set using econometrically estimated equations.[48] Transportation sector markups, representing sales for natural gas vehicles, are set separately for fleet and personal vehicles and account for distribution to delivery stations, retail markups, and federal and state motor fuels taxes. In addition, the NGTDM assesses the potential construction of infrastructure to support fueling compressed natural gas vehicles.

[47] In theory these cost components could be compiled from rate filings to state Public Utility Commissions; however, such an extensive data collection effort is beyond the available resources.

[48] An econometric approach was used largely as a result of data limitations. EIA data surveys do not collect the cost components required to derive revenue requirements and cost-of-service for local distribution companies and intrastate carriers. These cost components can be compiled from rate filings to Public Utility Commissions; however, an extensive data collection effort is beyond the scope of NEMS at this time.

4. Interstate Transmission Submodule Solution Methodology

As a key component of the NGTDM, the Interstate Transmission Submodule (ITS) determines the market equilibrium between supply and demand of natural gas within the North American pipeline system. This translates into finding the price such that the quantity of gas that consumers would desire to purchase equals the quantity that producers would be willing to sell, accounting for the transmission and distribution costs, pipeline fuel use, capacity expansion costs and limitations, and mass balances. To accomplish this, two seasonal periods were represented within the module--a peak and an off-peak period. The network structures within each period consist of an identical system of pipelines, and are connected through common supply sources and storage nodes. Thus, two interconnected networks (peak and off-peak) serve as the framework for processing key inputs and balancing the market to generate the desired outputs. A heuristic approach is used to systematically move through the two networks solving for production levels, network flows, pipeline and storage capacity requirements,[49] supply and citygate prices, and ultimately delivered prices until mass balance and convergence are achieved. (The methodology used for calculating distributor tariffs is presented in Chapter 5.) Primary input requirements include seasonal consumption levels, capacity expansion cost curves, annual natural gas supply levels and/or curves, a representation of pipeline and storage tariffs, as well as values for pipeline and storage starting capacities, and network flows and prices from the previous year. Some of the inputs are provided by other NEMS modules, some are exogenously defined and provided in input files, and others are generated by the module in previous years or iterations and used as starting values. Wellhead, import, and delivered prices, supply quantities, and resulting flow patterns are obtained as output from the ITS and sent to other NGTDM submodules or other NEMS modules after some processing. Network characteristics, input requirements, and the heuristic process are presented more fully below.

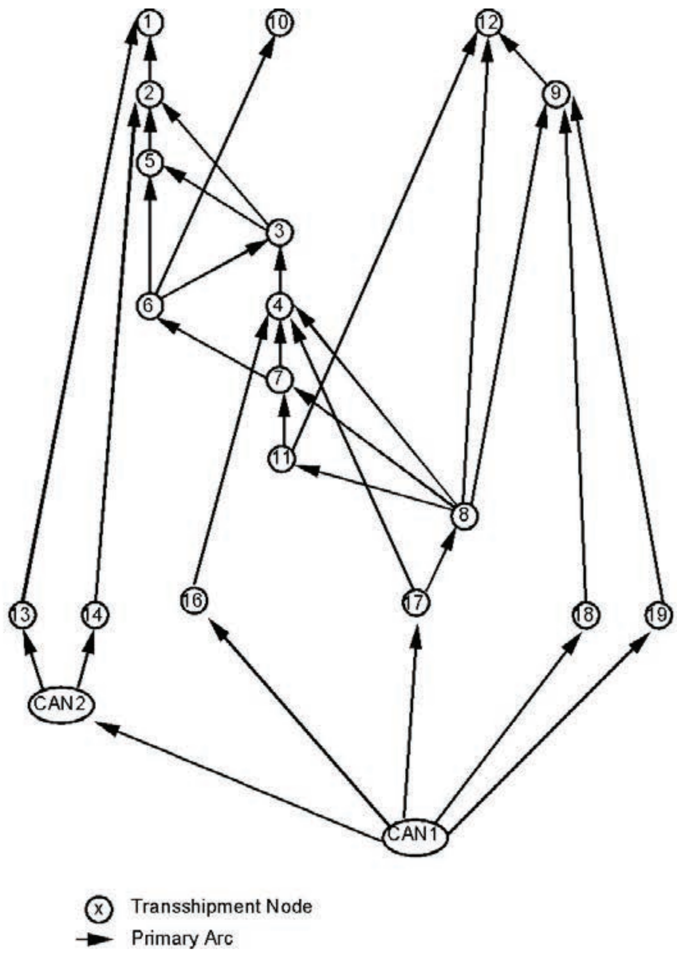
Network Characteristics in the ITS

As described in an earlier chapter, the NGTDM network consists of 12 NGTDM regions (or transshipment nodes) in the lower 48 states, three Mexican border crossing nodes, seven Canadian border crossing nodes, and two Canadian supply/demand regions. Interregional arcs connecting the nodes represent an aggregation of pipelines that are capable of moving gas from one region (or transshipment node) into another. These arcs have been classified as either primary flow arcs or secondary flow arcs. The primary flow arcs (see **Figure 3-1**) represent major flow corridors for the transmission of natural gas. Secondary arcs represent either flow in the opposite direction from the primary flow (historically about 3 percent of the total flow) or relatively low flow volumes that are set exogenously or outside the ITS equilibration routine (e.g. Mexican imports and exports). In the ITS, this North American natural gas pipeline flow network has been restructured into a hierarchical, acyclic network representing just the primary flow of natural gas (**Figure 4-1**). The representation of flows along secondary arcs is described in the Solution Process section below. A hierarchical, acyclic network structure allows for the

[49]In reality, capacity expansion decisions are made based on expectations of future demand requirements, allowing for regulatory approvals and construction lead times. In the model, additional capacity is available immediately, once it is determined that it is needed. The implicit assumption is that decision makers exercised perfect foresight and that planning and construction for the pipeline actually started before the pipeline came online.

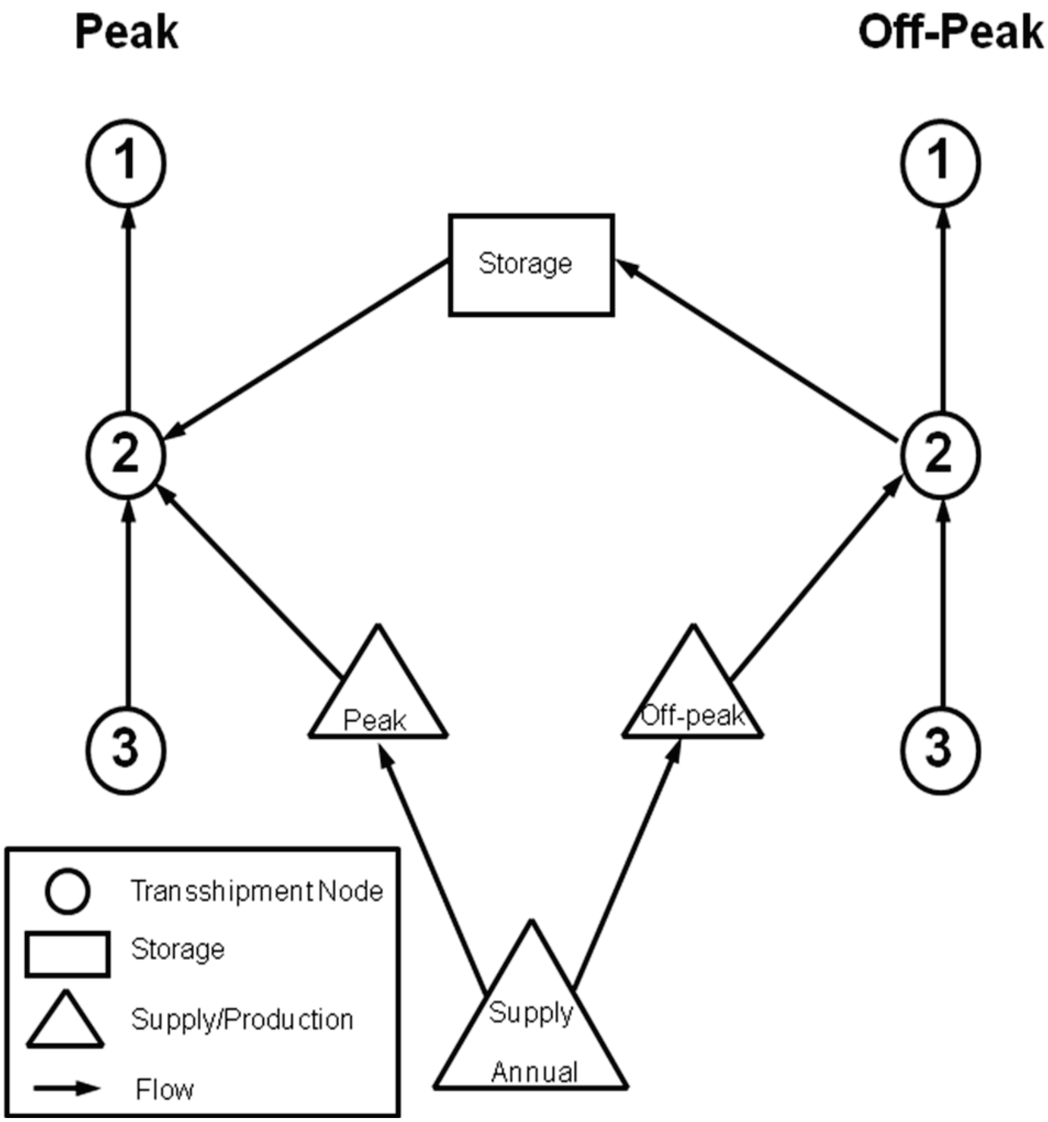
systematic representation of the flow of natural gas (and its associated prices) from the supply sources, represented towards the bottom of the network, up through the network to the end-use consumer at the upper end of the network.

Figure 4-1. Network "Tree" of Hierarchical, Acyclic Network of Primary Arcs



In the ITS, two interconnected acyclic networks are used to represent natural gas flow to end-use markets during the peak period (PK) and flow to end-use markets during the off-peak period (OP). These networks are connected regionally through common supply sources and storage nodes (**Figure 4-2**). Storage within the module only represents the transfer of natural gas produced in the off-peak period to meet the higher demands in the peak period. Therefore, net storage injections are included only in the off-peak period, while net storage withdrawals occur only in the peak period. Within a given forecast year, the withdrawal level from storage in the peak period establishes the level of gas injected in the off-peak period. Annual supply sources provide natural gas to both networks based on the combined network production requirements and corresponding annual supply availability in each region.

Figure 4-2. Simplified Example of Supply and Storage Links Across Networks



Input Requirements of the ITS

The following is a list of the key inputs required during ITS processing:

- Seasonal end-use consumption or demand curves for each NGTDM region and Canada
- Seasonal imports (except Canada) and exports by border crossing
- Canadian import capacities by border crossing
- Total natural gas production in eastern Canada and unconventional production in western Canada, by season.
- Natural gas flow by pipeline from Alaska to Alberta.
- Natural gas flow by pipeline from the MacKenzie Delta to Alberta.

- Regional supply curve parameters for U.S. nonassociated and western Canadian conventional natural gas supply[50]
- Seasonal supply quantities for U.S. associated-dissolved gas, synthetic gas, and other supplemental supplies by NGTDM region
- Seasonal network flow patterns from the previous year, by arc (including flows from storage, variable supply sources, and pipeline arcs)
- Seasonal network prices from the previous year, by arc (including flows from storage, variable supply sources, and pipeline arcs)
- Pipeline capacities, by arc
- Seasonal maximum pipeline utilizations, by arc
- Seasonal pipeline (and storage) tariffs representing variable costs or usage fees, by arc (and region)
- Pipeline capacity expansion/tariff curves for the peak network, by arc
- Storage capacity expansion/tariff curves for the peak network, by region
- Seasonal distributor tariffs by sector and region

Many of the inputs are provided by other NEMS submodules, some are defined from data within the ITS, and others are ITS model results from operation in the previous year. For example, supply curve parameters for lower 48 nonassociated onshore and offshore natural gas production and lower 48 associated-dissolved gas production are provided by the Oil and Gas Supply Module (OGSM). In contrast, Canadian data are set within the NGTDM as direct input to the ITS. U.S. end-use consumption levels are provided by NEMS demand modules; pipeline and storage capacity expansion/tariff curve parameters are provided by the Pipeline Tariff Submodule (PTS, see chapter 6); and seasonal distributor tariffs are defined by the Distributor Tariff Submodule (DTS, see Chapter 5). Seasonal network flow patterns and prices are determined within the ITS. They are initially set based on historical data, and then from model results in the previous model year.

Because the ITS is a seasonal model, most of the input requirements are on a seasonal level. In most cases, however, the information provided is not represented in the form defined above and needs to be processed into the required form. For example, regional end-use consumption levels are initially defined by sector on an annual basis. The ITS disaggregates each of these sector-specific quantities into a seasonal peak and off-peak representation, and then aggregates across sectors within each season to set a total consumption level. Also, regional fixed supplies and some of the import/export levels represent annual values. A simple methodology has been developed to disaggregate the annual information into peak and off-peak quantities using item-specific peak sharing factors (e.g., PKSHR_ECAN, PKSHR_EMEX, PKSHR_ICAN, PKSHR_IMEX, PKSHR_SUPLM, PKSHR_ILNG, and PKSHR_YR). For more detail on these inputs see Chapter 2. A similar method is used to approximate the consumption and supply in the peak month of each period. This information is used to verify that sufficient sustained[51] capacity is available for the peak day in each period; and if not, it is used as a basis for adding

[50]These supply sources are referred to as the "variable" supplies because they are allowed to change in response to price changes during the ITS solution process. A few of the "fixed" supplies are adjusted each NEMS iteration, generally in response to price, but are held constant within the ITS solution process.

[51]"Sustained" capacity refers to levels that can operationally be sustained throughout the year, as opposed to "peak" capacity which can be realized at high pressures and would not generally be maintained other than at peak demand periods.

additional capacity. The assumption reflected in the model is that, if there is sufficient sustained capacity to handle the peak month, line packing[52] and propane injection can be used to accommodate a peak day in this month.

Heuristic Process

The basic process used to determine supply and delivered prices in the ITS involves starting from the top of the hierarchical, acyclic network or "tree" (as shown in **Figure 4-1**) with end-use consumption levels, systematically moving down each network (in the opposite direction from the primary flow of gas) to define seasonal flows along network arcs that will satisfy the consumption, evaluating wellhead prices for the desired production levels, and then moving up each network (in the direction of the primary flow of gas) to define transmission, node, storage, and delivered prices.

While progressively moving down the peak or off-peak network, net regional demands are assigned for each node on each network. Net regional demands are defined as the sum of consumption in the region plus the gas that is exiting the region to satisfy consumption elsewhere, net of fixed[53] supplies in the region. The consumption categories represented in net regional demands include end-use consumption in the region, exports, pipeline fuel consumption, secondary and primary flows out of the region, and for the off-peak period, net injections into regional storage facilities. Regional fixed supplies include imports (except conventional gas from Western Canada), secondary flows into the region, and the regions associated-dissolved production, supplemental supplies, and other fixed supplies. The net regional demands at a node will be satisfied by the gas flowing along the primary arcs into the node, the local "variable" supply flowing into the node, and for the peak period, the gas withdrawn from the regional storage facilities on a net basis.

Starting with the node(s) at the top of the network tree (i.e., nodes 1, 10, and 12 in **Figure 4-1**), the model uses a sharing algorithm to determine the percent of the represented region's net demand that is satisfied by each arc going into the node. The resulting shares are used to define flows along each arc (supply, storage, and interregional pipeline) into the region (or node). The interregional flows then become additional consumption requirements (i.e., primary flows out of a region) at the corresponding source node (region). If the arc going into the original node is from a supply or storage[54] source, then the flow represents the production or storage withdrawal level, respectively. The sharing algorithm is systematically applied (going down the network tree) to each regional node until flows have been defined for all arcs along a network, such that consumption in each region is satisfied.

Once flows are established for each network (and pipeline tariffs are set by applying the flow levels to the pipeline tariff curves), resulting production levels for the variable supplies are used to determine regional wellhead prices and, ultimately, storage, node, and delivered prices. By

[52]Line packing is a means of storing gas within a pipeline for a short period of time by compressing the gas.
[53]Fixed supplies are those supply sources that are not allowed to vary in response to changes in the natural gas price during the ITS solution process.
[54]For the peak period networks only.

systematically moving up each network tree, regional wellhead prices are used with pipeline tariffs, while adjusting for price impacts from pipeline fuel consumption, to calculate regional node prices for each season. Next, intraregional and intrastate markups are added to the regional/seasonal node prices, followed by the addition of corresponding seasonal, sectoral distributor tariffs, to generate delivered prices. Seasonal prices are then converted to annual delivered prices using quantity-weighted averaging. To speed overall NEMS convergence,[55] the delivered prices can be applied to representative demand curves to approximate the demand response to a change in the price and to generate a new set of consumption levels. This process of going up and down the network tree is repeated until convergence is reached.

The order in which the networks are solved differs depending on whether movement is down or up the network tree. When proceeding down the network trees, the peak network flows are established first, followed by the off-peak network flows. This order has been established for two reasons. First, capacity expansion is decided based on peak flow requirements.[56] This in turn is used to define the upper limits on flows along arcs in the off-peak network. Second, net storage injections (represented as consumption) in the off-peak season cannot be defined until net storage withdrawals (represented as supplies) in the peak season are established. When going up the network trees, prices are determined for the off-peak network first, followed by the peak network. This order has been established mainly because the price of fuel withdrawn from storage in the peak season is based on the cost of fuel injected into storage in the off-peak season plus a storage tariff.

If net demands exceed available supplies on a network in a region, then a backstop supply is made available at a higher price than other local supply. The higher price is passed up the network tree to discourage (or decrease) demands from being met via this supply route. Thus, network flows respond by shifting away from the backstop region until backstop supply is no longer needed.

Movement down and up each network tree (defined as a cycle) continues within a NEMS iteration until the ITS converges. Convergence is achieved when the regional seasonal supply prices determined during the current cycle down the network tree are within a designated minimum percentage tolerance from the supply prices established the previous cycle down the network tree. In addition, the absolute change in production between cycles within supply regions with relatively small production levels are checked in establishing convergence. In addition, the presence of backstop will prevent convergence from being declared. Once convergence is achieved, only one last movement up each network tree is required to define final regional/seasonal node and delivered prices. If convergence is not achieved, then a set of "relaxed" supply prices is determined by weighting regional production results from both the current and the previous cycle down the network tree, and obtaining corresponding new annual and seasonal supply prices from the supply curves in each region based on these "relaxed" production levels. The concept of "relaxation" is a means of speeding convergence by solving

[55]At various times, NEMS has not readily converged and various approaches have been taken to improve the process. If the NGTDM can anticipate the potential demand response to a price change from one iteration to the next, and accordingly moderate the price change, the NEMS will theoretically converge to an equilibrium solution in less iterations.

[56]Pipeline capacity into region 10 (Florida) is allowed to expand in either the peak or off-peak period because the region experiences its peak usage of natural gas in what is generally the off-peak period for consumption in the rest of the country.

for quantities (or prices) in the current iteration based on a weighted-average of the prices (or quantities) from the previous two iterations, rather than just using the previous iteration's values.[57]

The following subsections describe many of these procedures in greater detail, including: net node demands, pipeline fuel consumption, sharing algorithm, wellhead prices, tariffs, arc, node, and storage prices, backstop, convergence, and delivered and import prices. A simple flow diagram of the overall process is presented in **Figure 4-3**.

Net Node Demands

Seasonal net demands at a node are defined as total seasonal demands in the region, net of seasonal fixed supplies entering the region. Regional demands consist of primary flows exiting the region (including net storage injections in the off-peak), pipeline fuel consumption, end-use consumption, discrepancies (or historical balancing item), Canadian consumption, exports, and other secondary flows exiting the region. Fixed supplies include associated-dissolved gas, Alaskan gas supplies to Alberta, synthetic natural gas, other supplemental supplies, LNG imports, fixed Canadian supplies (including MacKenzie Delta gas), and other secondary flows entering the region. Seasonal net node demands are represented by the following equations:

Peak:

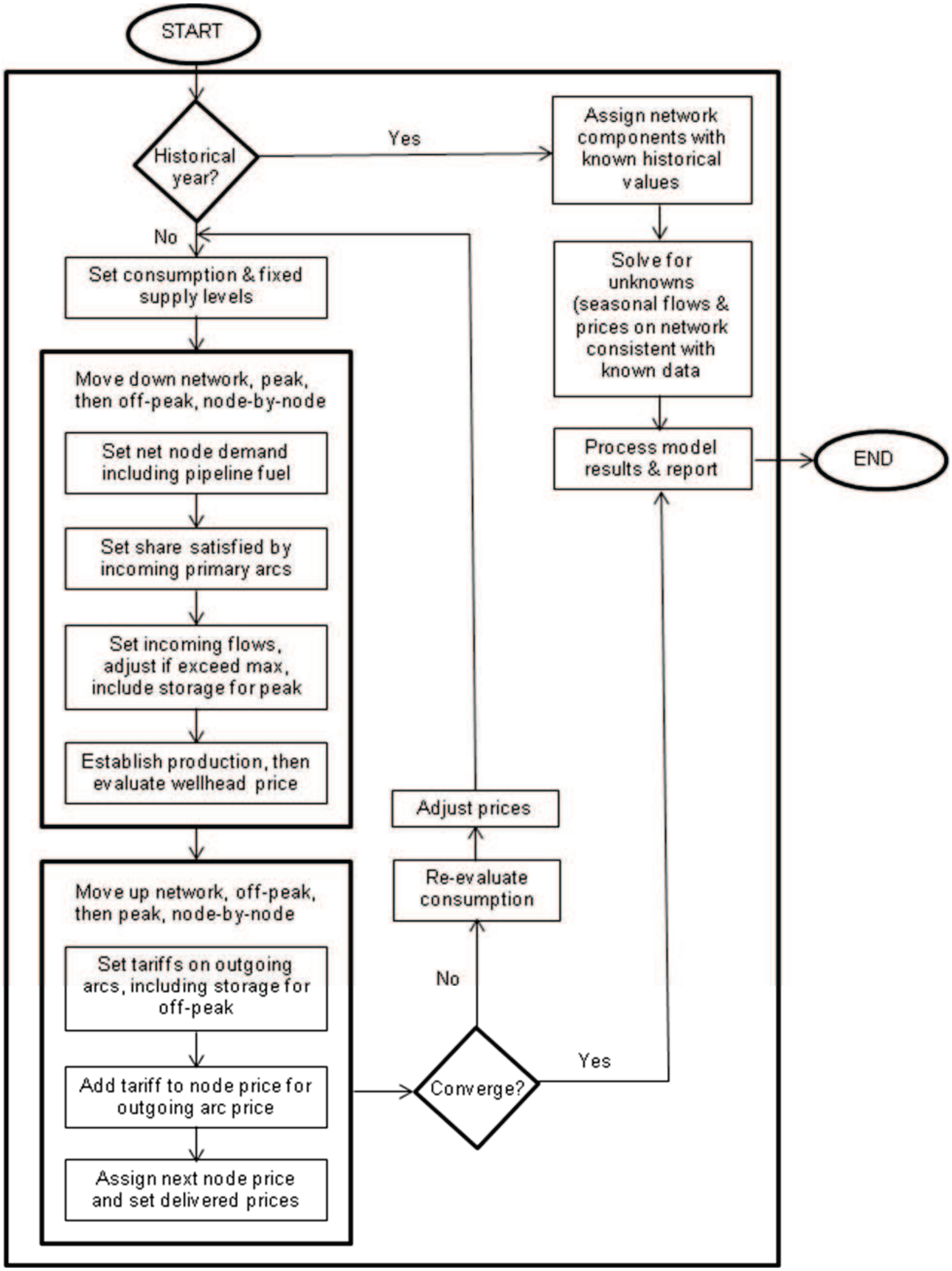
$$\begin{aligned} NODE\_DMD_{PK,r} = {} & PFUEL_{PK,r} + FLOW_{PK,a} + NODE\_CDMD_{PK,r} \\ & \sum_{nonu} (PKSHR\_DMD_{nonu,r} * (ZNGQTY\_F_{nonu,r} + ZNGQTY\_I_{nonu,r})) + \\ & \sum_{jutil \subset r} (PKSHR\_UDMD_{jutil} * (ZNGUQTY\_F_{jutil} + ZNGUQTY\_I_{jutil}) \end{aligned} \tag{55}$$

$$\begin{aligned} NODE\_CDMD_{PK,r} = {} & YEAR\_CDMD_{PK,r} - (PKSHR\_PROD_s * ZADGPRD_s) - \\ & (PKSHR\_ILNG * OGQNGIMP_{L,t}) \end{aligned} \tag{56}$$

$$\begin{aligned} YEAR\_CDMD_{PK,r} = {} & DISCR_{PK,r,t} + CN\_DISCR_{PK,cn} \\ & ((PKSHR\_CDMD) * CN\_DMD_{cn,r}) + \\ & (PK1 * SAFLOW_{a,t}) - (PK2 * SAFLOW_{a',t}) - \\ & (PKSHR\_YR * QAK\_ALB_t) - (PKSHR\_SUPLM * ZTOTSUP_r) - \\ & (PKSHR\_PROD_s * CN\_FIXSUP_{cn,t}) \end{aligned} \tag{57}$$

[57]The model typically solves within 3 to 6 cycles.

Figure 4-3. Interstate Transmission Submodule System



Off-Peak:

$$NODE\_DMD_{OP,r} = PFUEL_{OP,r} + FLOW_{OP,a} + FLOW_{PK,st} + NODE\_CDMD_{OP,r} + \sum_{nonu}((1 - PKSHR\_DMD_{nonu,r}) * (ZNGQTY\_F_{nonu,r} + ZNGQTY\_I_{nonu,r})) + \sum_{jutil \subset r}((1 - PKSHR\_UDMD_{jutil}) * (ZNGUQTY\_F_{jutil} + ZNGUQTY\_I_{jutil})) + \quad (58)$$

$$NODE\_CDMD_{OP,r} = YEAR\_CDMD_{OP,r} - ((1 - PKSHR\_PROD_s) * ZADGPRD_s) - ((1 - PKSHR\_ILNG) * OGQNGIMP_{L,t}) \quad (59)$$

$$YEAR\_CDMD_{OP,r} = DISCR_{OP,r,t} + CN\_DISCR_{OP,cn} + ((1 - PKSHR\_CDMD) * CN\_DMD_{cn,r}) + ((1 - PK1) * SAFLOW_{a,t}) - ((1 - PK2) * SAFLOW_{a',t}) - ((1 - PKSHR\_YR) * QAK\_ALB_t) - ((1 - PKSHR\_SUPLM) * ZTOTSUP_r) - ((1 - PKSHR\_PROD_s) * CN\_FIXSUP_{cn,t}) \quad (60)$$

where,

$NODE\_DMD_{n,r}$	=	net node demands in region r, for network n (Bcf)
$NODE\_CDMD_{n,r}$	=	net node demands remaining constant each NEMS iteration in region r, for network n (Bcf)
$YEAR\_CDMD_{n,r}$	=	net node demands remaining constant within a forecast year in region r, for network n (Bcf)
$PFUEL_{n,r}$	=	Pipeline fuel consumption in region r, for network n (Bcf)
$FLOW_{n,a}$	=	Seasonal flow on network n, along arc a [out of region r] (Bcf)
$ZNGQTY\_F_{nonu,r}$	=	Core demands in region r, by nonelectric sectors nonu (Bcf)
$ZNGQTY\_I_{nonu,r}$	=	Noncore demands in region r, by nonelectric sectors nonu(Bcf)
$ZNGUQTY\_F_{jutil}$	=	Core utility demands in NGTDM/EMM subregion jutil [subset of region r] (Bcf)
$ZNGUQTY\_I_{jutil}$	=	Noncore utility demands in NGTDM/EMM subregion jutil [subset of region r] (Bcf)
$ZADGPRD_s$	=	Onshore and offshore associated-dissolved gas production in supply subregion s (Bcf)
$DISCR_{n,r,t}$	=	Lower 48 discrepancy in region r, for network n, in forecast year t (Bcf)[58]

[58]Projected lower 48 discrepancies are primarily based on the average historical level from 1990 to 2009. Discrepancies are adjusted in the STEO years to account for STEO discrepancy (Appendix E, STDISCR) and annual net storage withdrawal

$CN\_DISCR_{n,cn}$ = Canada discrepancy in Canadian region cn, for network n (Bcf)
$CN\_DMD_{cn,t}$ = Canada demand in Canadian region cn, in forecast year t (Bcf, Appendix E)
$SAFLOW_{a,t}$ = Secondary flows out of region r, along arc a [includes Canadian and Mexican exports, Canadian gas that flows through the U.S., and lower 48 bidirectional flows] (Bcf)
$SAFLOW_{a',t}$ = Secondary flows into region r, along arc a' [includes Mexican imports, Canadian imports into the East North Central Census Division, Canadian gas that flows through the U.S., and lower 48 bidirectional flows] (Bcf)
QAK_ALB_t = Natural gas flow from Alaska into Alberta via pipeline (Bcf)
$ZTOTSUP_r$ = Total supply from SNG liquids, SNG coal, and other supplemental in forecast year t (Bcf)
$OGQNGIMP_{L,t}$ = LNG imports from LNG region L, in forecast year t (Bcf)
$CN\_FIXSUP_{cn,t}$ = Fixed supply from Canadian region cn, in forecast year t (Bcf, Appendix E)
PK1, PK2 = Fraction of either in-flow or out-flow volumes corresponding to peak season (composed of PKSHR_ECAN, PKSHR_EMEX, PKSHR_ICAN, PKSHR_IMEX, or PKSHR_YR)
$PKSHR\_DMD_{nonu,r}$ = Average (2001-2009) fraction of annual consumption in each nonelectric sector in region r corresponding to the peak season
$PKSHR\_UDMD_{jutil}$ = Average (1994-2009, except New England 1997-2009) fraction of annual consumption in the electric generator sector in region r corresponding to the peak season
$PKSHR\_PROD_s$ = Average (1994-2009) fraction of annual production in supply region s corresponding to the peak season (fraction, Appendix E)
PKSHR_CDMD = Fraction of annual Canadian demand corresponding to the peak season (fraction, Appendix E)
PKSHR_YR = Fraction of the year represented by the peak season
PKSHR_SUPLM = Average (1990-2009) fraction of supplemental supply corresponding to the peak season
PKSHR_ILNG = Fraction of LNG imports corresponding to the peak season
PKSHR_ECAN = Fraction of Canadian exports transferred in peak season
PKSHR_ICAN = Fraction of Canadian imports transferred in peak season
PKSHR_EMEX = Fraction of Mexican exports transferred in peak season
PKSHR_IMEX = Fraction of Mexican imports transferred in peak season
r = region/node
n = network (peak or off-peak)
PK,OP = Peak and off-peak network, respectively
nonu = Nonelectric sector ID: residential, commercial, industrial, transportation
jutil = Utility sector subregion ID in region r
a,a' = Arc ID for arc entering (a') or exiting (a) region r

(Appendix E, NNETWITH) forecasts, and differences between NEMS and STEO total consumption levels Appendix E, STENDCON). These adjustments are phased out over a user-specified number of years (Appendix E, STPHAS_YR).

s = Supply subregion ID into region r (1-21)
cn = Canadian supply subregion ID in region r (1-2)
L = LNG import region ID into region r (1-12)
st = Arc ID corresponding to storage supply into region r
t = Current forecast year

Pipeline Fuel Use and Intraregional Flows

Pipeline fuel consumption represents the natural gas consumed by compressors to transmit gas along pipelines within a region. In the ITS, pipeline fuel consumption is modeled as a regional demand component. It is estimated for each region on each network using a historically based factor, corresponding net demands, and a multiplicative scaling factor. The scaling factor is used to calibrate the results to equal the most recent national *Short-Term Energy Outlook (STEO)* forecast[59] for pipeline fuel consumption (Appendix E, STQGPTR), net of pipeline fuel consumption in Alaska (QALK_PIP), and is phased out by a user-specified year (Appendix E, STPHAS_YR). The following equation applies:

$$PFUEL_{n,r} = PFUEL\_FAC_{n,r} * NODE\_DMD_{n,r} * SCALE\_PF \tag{61}$$

where,

$PFUEL_{n,r}$ = Pipeline fuel consumption in region r, for network n (Bcf)
$PFUEL\_FAC_{n,r}$ = Average (2004-2009) historical pipeline fuel factor in region r, for network n (calculated historically for each region as equal PFUEL/NODE_DMD)
$NODE\_DMD_{n,r}$ = Net demands (excluding pipeline fuel) in region r, for network n (Bcf)
SCALE_PF = STEO benchmark factor for pipeline fuel consumption
n = network (peak and off-peak)
r = region/node

After pipeline fuel consumption is calculated for each node on the network, the regional/seasonal value is added to net demand at the respective node. Flows into a node ($FLOW_{n,a}$) are then defined using net demands and a sharing algorithm (described below). The regional pipeline fuel quantity (net of intraregional pipeline fuel consumption) [60] is distributed over the pipeline arcs entering the region. This is accomplished by sharing the net pipeline fuel quantity over all of the interregional pipeline arcs entering the region, based on their relative levels of natural gas flow:

[59]EIA produces a separate quarterly forecast for primary national energy statistics over the next several years. For certain forecast items, the NEMS is calibrated to produce an equivalent (within 2 to 5 percent) result for these years. For *AEO2011*, the years calibrated to *STEO* results were 2010 and 2011.

[60]Currently, intraregional pipeline fuel consumption (INTRA_PFUEL) is set equal to the regional pipeline fuel consumption level (PFUEL); therefore, pipeline fuel consumption along an arc (ARC_PFUEL) is set to zero. The original design was to allocate pipeline fuel according to flow levels on arcs and within a region. It was later determined that assigning all of the pipeline fuel to a region would simplify benchmarking the results to the STEO and would not change the later calculation of the price impacts of pipeline fuel use.

$$ARC\_PFUEL_{n,a} = (PFUEL_{n,r} - INTRA\_PFUEL_{n,r}) * \frac{FLOW_{n,a}}{TFLOW} \quad (62)$$

where,

$ARC\_PFUEL_{n,a}$	=	Pipeline fuel consumption along arc a (into region r), for network n (Bcf)
$PFUEL_{n,r}$	=	Pipeline fuel consumption in region r, for network n (Bcf)
$INTRA\_PFUEL_{n,r}$	=	Intraregional pipeline fuel consumption in region r, for network n (Bcf)
$FLOW_{n,a}$	=	Interregional pipeline flow along arc a (into region r), for network n (Bcf)
TFLOW	=	Total interregional pipeline flow [into region r] (Bcf)
n	=	network (peak and off-peak)
r	=	region/node
a	=	arc

Pipeline fuel consumption along an interregional arc and within a region on an intrastate pipeline will have an impact on pipeline tariffs and node prices. This will be discussed later in the Arc, Node, and Storage Prices subsection.

The flows of natural gas on the interstate pipeline system within each NGTDM region (as opposed to between two NGTDM regions) are established for the purpose of setting the associated revenue requirements and tariffs. The charge for moving gas within a region (INTRAREG_TAR), but on the interstate pipeline system, is taken into account when setting city gate prices, described below. The algorithm for setting intraregional flows is similar to the method used for setting pipeline fuel consumption. For each region in the historical years, a factor is calculated reflective of the relationship between the net node demand and the intraregional flow. This factor is applied to the net node demand in each forecast year to approximate the associated intraregional flow. Pipeline fuel consumption is excluded from the net node demand for this calculation, as follows:

Calculation of intraregional flow factor based on data for an historical year:

$$FLO\_FAC_{n,r} = INTRA\_FLO_{n,r} \;/\; (NODE\_DMD_{n,r} - PFUEL_{n,r}) \quad (63)$$

Forecast of intraregional flow:

$$INTRA\_FLO_{n,r} = FLO\_FAC_{n,r} * (NODE\_DMD_{n,r} - PFUEL_{n,r}) \quad (64)$$

where,

$INTRA\_FLO_{n,a}$	=	Intraregional, interstate pipeline flow within region r, for network n (Bcf)
$PFUEL_{n,r}$	=	Pipeline fuel consumption in region r, for network n (Bcf)
$NODE\_DMD_{n,r}$	=	Net demands (with pipeline fuel) in region r, for network n (Bcf)

$FLO\_FAC_{n,r}$ = Average (1990 - 2009) historical relationship between net node demand and intraregional flow
n = network (peak and off-peak)
r = region/node

Historical annual intraregional flows are set for the peak and off-peak periods based on the peak and off-peak share of net node demand in each region.

Sharing Algorithm, Flows, and Capacity Expansion

Moving systematically downward from node to node through the acyclic network, the sharing algorithm is allocates net demands ($NODE\_DMD_{n,r}$) across all arcs feeding into the node. These "inflow" arcs carry flows from local supply sources, storage (net withdrawals during peak period only), or other regions (interregional arcs). If any of the resulting flows exceed their corresponding maximum levels,[61] then the excess flows are reallocated to the unconstrained arcs, and new shares are calculated accordingly. At each node within a network, the sharing algorithm determines the percent of net demand ($SHR_{n,a,t}$) that is satisfied by each of the arcs entering the region.

The sharing algorithm (shown below) dictates that the share ($SHR_{n,a,t}$) of demand for one arc into a node is a function of the share defined in the previous model year[62] and the ratio of the price on the one arc relative to the average of the prices on all of the arcs into the node, as defined the previous cycle up the network tree. These prices ($ARC\_SHRPR_{n,a}$) represents the unit cost associated with an arc going into a node, and is defined as the sum of the unit cost at the source node ($NODE\_SHRPR_{n,r}$) *and* the tariff charge along the arc ($ARC\_SHRFEE_{n,a}$). (A description of how these components are developed is presented later.) The variable γ is an assumed parameter that is always positive. This parameter can be used to prevent (or control) broad shifts in flow patterns from one forecast year to the next. Larger values of γ increase the sensitivity of $SHR_{n,a,t}$ to relative prices; a very large value of γ would result in behavior equivalent to cost minimization. The algorithm is presented below:

$$SHR_{n,a,t} = \frac{ARC\_SHRPR_{n,a}^{-\gamma}}{\dfrac{\sum_{b} ARC\_SHRPR_{n,b}^{-\gamma}}{N}} * SHR_{n,a,t-1} \tag{65}$$

where,

$SHR_{n,a,t}$, $SHR_{n,a,t-1}$ = The fraction of demand represented along inflow arc a on network n, in year t (or year t-1) [Note: The value for year t-1 has a lower limit set to 0.01]

[61]Maximum flows include potential pipeline or storage capacity additions, and maximum production levels.

[62]When planned pipeline capacity is added at the beginning of a forecast year, the value of SHR_{t-1} is adjusted to reflect a percent usage (PCTADJSHR, Appendix E) of the new capacity. This adjustment is based on the assumption that last year's share would have been higher if not constrained by the existing capacity levels.

$ARC\_SHRPR_{n,a \text{ or } b}$ = The last price calculated for natural gas from inflow arc a (or b) on network n [i.e., from the previous cycle while moving up the network] (87$/Mcf)
N = Total number of arcs into a node
γ = Coefficient defining degree of influence of relative prices (represented as GAMMAFAC, Appendix E)
t = forecast year
n = network (peak or off-peak)
a = arc into a region
r = region/node
b = set of arcs into a region

[Note: The resulting shares ($SHR_{n,a,t}$) along arcs going into a node are then normalized to ensure that they add to one.]

Seasonal flows are generated for each arc using the resulting shares and net node demands, as follows:

$$FLOW_{n,a} = SHR_{n,a,t} * NODE\_DMD_{n,r} \tag{66}$$

where,

$FLOW_{n,a}$ = Interregional flow (into region r) along arc a, for network n (Bcf)
$SHR_{n,a,t}$ = The fraction of demand represented along inflow arc a on network n, in year t
$NODE\_DMD_{n,r}$ = Net node demands in region r, for network n (Bcf)
n = network (peak or off-peak)
a = arc into a region
r = region/node

These flows must not exceed the maximum flow limits ($MAXFLO_{n,a}$) defined for each arc on each network. The algorithm used to define maximum flows may differ depending on the type of arc (storage, pipeline, supply, Canadian imports) and the network being referenced. For example, maximum flows for all *peak* network arcs are a function of the maximum permissible annual capacity levels ($MAXPCAP_{PK,a}$) and peak utilization factors. However, maximum *pipeline* flows along the *off-peak* network arcs are a function of the annual capacity defined by peak flows and off-peak utilization factors. Thus, maximum flows along the off-peak network depend on whether or not capacity was added during the peak period. Also, maximum flows from *supply* sources in the off-peak network are limited by maximum annual capacity levels and off-peak utilization. (Note: *storage* arcs do not enter nodes on the off-peak network; therefore, maximum flows are not defined there.) The following equations define maximum flow limits and maximum annual capacity limits:

Maximum peak flows (note: for storage arcs, PKSHR_YR=1):

$$MAXFLO_{PK,a} = MAXPCAP_{PK,a} * (PKSHR\_YR * PKUTZ_a) \tag{67}$$

with $MAXPCAP_{PK,a}$ defined by type as follows:

for *Supply*[63]:

$$MAXPCAP_{PK,a} = ZOGRESNG_s * ZOGPRRNG_s * MAXPRRFAC * (1 - (PCTLP_r * SCALE\_LP_t)) \quad (68)$$

for *Pipeline*:

$$MAXPCAP_{PK,a} = PTMAXPCAP_{i,j} \quad (69)$$

for *Storage*:

$$MAXPCAP_{PK,a} = PTMAXPSTR_{st} \quad (70)$$

for *Canadian imports*:

$$MAXPCAP_{PK,a} = CURPCAP_{a,t} \quad (71)$$

Maximum off-peak pipeline flows:

$$MAXFLO_{OP,a} = MAXPCAP_{OP,a} * ((1 - PKSHR\_YR) * OPUTZ_a) \quad (72)$$

with $MAXPCAP_{OP,a}$ is defined as follows for

either *current capacity:*

$$MAXPCAP_{OP,a} = CURPCAP_{a,t} \quad (73)$$

or *current capacity* plus *capacity additions*,

$$MAXPCAP_{OP,a} = CURPCAP_{a,t} + ((1 + XBLD) * (\frac{FLOW_{PK,a}}{PKSHR\_YR * PKUTZ_a} - CURPCAP_{a,t})) \quad (74)$$

or, for *pipeline arc entering region 10 (Florida), peak maximum capacity*,

$$MAXPCAP_{OP,a} = MAXPCAP_{PK,a} \quad (75)$$

[63]In historical years, historical production values are used in place of the product of ZOGRESNG and ZOGPRRNG.

Maximum off-peak flows from supply sources:

$$MAXFLO_{OP,a} = MAXPCAP_{PK,a} * ((1 - PKSHR\_YR) * OPUTZ_a) \quad (76)$$

where,

$MAXFLO_{n,a}$	=	Maximum flow on arc a, in network n [PK-peak or OP-off-peak] (Bcf)
$MAXPCAP_{n,a}$	=	Maximum annual physical capacity along arc a for network n (Bcf)
$CURPCAP_{a,t}$	=	Current annual physical capacity along arc a in year t (Bcf)
$ZOGRESNG_s$	=	Natural gas reserve levels for supply source s [defined by OGSM] (Bcf)
$ZOGPRRNG_s$	=	Expected natural gas production-to-reserves ratio for supply source s [defined by OGSM] (fraction)
MAXPRRFAC	=	Factor to set maximum production-to-reserves ratio [MAXPRRCAN for Canada] (Appendix E)
$PCTLP_t$	=	Average (1996-2009) fraction of production consumed as lease and plant fuel in forecast year t
$SCALE\_LP_t$	=	Scale factor for STEO year percent lease and plant consumption for forecast year t to force regional lease and plant consumption forecast to total to STEO forecast.
$PTMAXPCAP_{i,j}$	=	Maximum pipeline capacity along arc defined by source node i and destination node j [defined by PTS] (Bcf)
$PTMAXPSTR_{st}$	=	Maximum storage capacity for storage source st [defined by PTS] (Bcf)
$FLOW_{PK,a}$	=	Flow along arc a for the peak network (Bcf)
PKSHR_YR	=	Fraction of the year represented by peak season
$PKUTZ_a$	=	Pipeline utilization along arc a for the peak season (fraction, Appendix E)
$OPUTZ_a$	=	Pipeline utilization along arc a for the off-peak season (fraction, Appendix E)
XBLD	=	Percent increase over capacity builds to account for weather (fraction, Appendix E)
a	=	arc
t	=	forecast year
n	=	network (peak or off-peak)
PK, OP	=	peak and off-peak network, respectively
s,st	=	supply or storage source
i,j	=	regional source (i) and destination (j) link on arc a

If the model has been restricted from building capacity through a specified forecast year (Appendix E, NOBLDYR), then the maximum pipeline and storage flow for either network will be based only on current capacity and utilization for that year.

If the flows defined by the sharing algorithm above exceed these maximum levels, then the excess flow is reallocated along adjacent arcs that have excess capacity. This is achieved by determining the flow distribution of the qualifying adjacent arcs, and distributing the excess flow according to this distribution. These adjacent arcs are checked again for excess flow; if excess flow is found, the reallocation process is performed again on all arcs with space remaining. This applies to supply and pipeline arcs on all networks, as well as storage withdrawal arcs on the peak network. To handle the event where insufficient space or supply is available on all inflowing arcs to meet demand, a backstop supply ($BKSTOP_{n,r}$) is available at an incremental price ($RBKSTOP\_PADJ_{n,r}$). The intent is to dissuade use of the particular route, or to potentially lower demands. Backstop pricing will be defined in another section below.

With the exception of import and export arcs,[64] the resulting interregional flows defined by the sharing algorithm for the peak network are used to determine if *pipeline* capacity expansion should occur. Similarly, the resulting storage withdrawal quantities in the peak season define the *storage* capacity expansion levels. Thus, initially capacity expansion is represented by the difference between new capacity levels ($ACTPCAP_a$) and current capacity ($CURPCAP_{a,t}$, previous model year capacity plus planned additions). In the module, these initial new capacity levels are defined as follows:

Storage:

$$ACTPCAP_a = \frac{FLOW_{PK,a}}{PKUTZ_a} \tag{77}$$

Pipeline:

$$ACTPCAP_a = MAXPCAP_{OP,a} \tag{78}$$

Pipeline arc entering region 10 (Florida):

$$ACTPCAP_a = \text{MAX between } \frac{FLOW_{PK,a}}{PKSHR\_YR * PKUTZ_a} \text{ and } \frac{FLOW_{OP,a}}{(1 - PKSHR\_YR) * OPUTZ_a} \tag{79}$$

where,

$ACTPCAP_a$	=	Annual physical capacity along an arc a (Bcf)
$MAXPCAP_{OP,a}$	=	Maximum annual physical capacity along pipeline arc a for network n [see equation above] (Bcf)
$FLOW_{n,a}$	=	Flow along arc a on network n (Bcf)
$PKUTZ_a$	=	Maximum peak utilization of capacity along arc a (fraction, Appendix E)
$OPUTZ_a$	=	Maximum off-peak utilization of capacity along arc a (fraction, Appendix E)
PKSHR_YR	=	Fraction of the year represented by the peak season
a	=	pipeline and storage arc
n	=	network (peak or off-peak)

[64] For *AEO2011* capacity expansion on Canadian import arcs were set exogenously (PLANPCAP, Appendix E).

PK = peak season
OP = off-peak season

A second check and potential adjustment are made to these capacity levels to insure that capacity is sufficient to handle estimated flow in the peak month of each period.[65] Since capacity is defined as sustained capacity, it is assumed that the peak month flows should be in accordance with the maximum capacity requirements of the system, short of line packing, propane injections, and planning for the potential of above average temperature months.[66] Peak month consumption and supply levels are set at an assumed fraction of the corresponding period levels. Based on historical relationships, an initial guess is made at the fraction of each period's net storage withdrawals removed during the peak month. With this information, peak month flows are set at the same time flows are set for each period, while coming down the network tree, and following a similar process. At each node a net monthly demand is set equal to the sum of the monthly flows going out of the node, plus the monthly consumption at the node, minus the monthly supply and net storage withdrawals. The period shares are then used to set initial monthly flows, as follows:

$$MTHFLW_{n,a} = MTH\_NETNOD_{n,r} * \frac{SHR_{n,a,t}}{\sum_{c} SHR_{n,c,t}} \tag{80}$$

where,

$MTHFLW_{n,a}$ = Monthly flow along pipeline arc a (Bcf)
$MTH\_NETNOD_{n,r}$ = Monthly net demand at node r (Bcf)
$SHR_{n,a,t}$ = Fraction of demand represented along inflow arc a
c = set of arcs into a region representing pipeline arcs
n = network (peak or off-peak)
a = arc into a region
r = region/node
t = forecast year

These monthly flows are then compared against a monthly capacity estimate for each pipeline arc and reallocated to the other available arcs if capacity is exceeded, using a method similar to what is done when flows for a period exceed maximum capacity. These adjusted monthly flows are used later in defining the net node demand for nodes lower in the network tree. Monthly capacity is estimated by starting with the previously set ACTPCAP for the pipeline arc divided by the number of months in the year, to arrive at an initial monthly capacity estimate (MTH_CAP). This number is increased if the total of the monthly capacity entering a node exceeds the monthly net node demand, as follows:

$$MTH\_CAPADD_{n,a} = MTH\_TCAPADD_{n} * \frac{INIT\_CAPADD_{n,a}}{\sum_{c} INIT\_CAPADD_{n,c}} \tag{81}$$

[65]Currently this is only done in the model for the peak period of the year.
[66]To represent that the pipeline system is built to accommodate consumption levels outside the normal range due to colder than normal temperatures, the net monthly demand levels are increased by an assumed percentage (XBLD, Appendix E).

where,

$MTH\_CAPADD_{n,a}$ = Additional added monthly capacity to accommodate monthly flow estimates (Bcf)

$MTH\_TCAPADD_{n}$ = Total initial monthly capacity entering a node minus monthly net node demand (Bcf), if value is negative then it is set to zero

$INIT\_CAPADD_{n,a}$ = MTHFLWa - MTH_CAPa, if value is negative then it is set to zero (Bcf)

n = network (peak or off-peak)

a = arc into a region

c = set of arcs into a region representing pipeline arcs

The additional added monthly capacity is multiplied by the number of months in the year and added to the originally estimated pipeline capacity levels for each arc (ACTPCAP). Finally, if the net node demand is not close to zero at the lowest node on the network tree (node number 24 in western Canada), then monthly storage levels are adjusted proportionally throughout the network to balance the system for the next time quantities are brought down the network tree.

Wellhead and Henry Hub Prices

Ultimately, all of the network-specific consumption levels are transferred down the network trees and into supply nodes, where corresponding supply prices are calculated. The Oil and Gas Supply Module (OGSM) provides only annual price/quantity supply curve parameters for each supply subregion. Because this alone will not provide a wellhead price differential between seasons, a special methodology has been developed to approximate seasonal prices that are consistent with the annual supply curve. First, in effect the quantity axis of the annual supply curve is scaled to correspond to seasonal volumes (based on the period's share of the year); and the resulting curves are used to approximate seasonal prices. (Operationally within the model this is done by converting seasonal production values to annual equivalents and applying these volumes to the annual supply curve to arrive at seasonal prices.) Finally, the resulting seasonal prices are scaled to ensure that the quantity-weighted average annual wellhead price equals the price obtained from the annual supply curve when evaluated using total annual production. To obtain seasonal wellhead prices, the following methodology is used. Taking one supply region at a time, the model estimates equivalent annual production levels (ANNSUP) for each season.

Peak:

$$ANNSUP = \frac{NODE\_QSUP_{PK,s}}{PKSHR\_YR} \tag{82}$$

Off-peak:

$$ANNSUP = \frac{NODE\_QSUP_{OP,s}}{(1 - PKSHR\_YR)} \tag{83}$$

where,

ANNSUP = Equivalent annual production level (Bcf)

$NODE\_QSUP_{n,s}$ = Seasonal (n=PK-peak or OP-off-peak) production level for supply region s (Bcf)

PKSHR_YR = Fraction of year represented by peak season
PK = peak season
OP = off-peak season
s = supply region

Next, estimated seasonal prices ($SPSUP_n$) are obtained using these equivalent annual production levels and the annual supply curve function. These initial seasonal prices are then averaged, using quantity weights, to generate an equivalent *average* annual supply price ($SPAVG_s$). An *actual* annual price ($PSUP_s$) is also generated, by evaluating the price on the annual supply function for a quantity equal to the sum of the seasonal production levels. The *average* annual supply price is then compared to the *actual* price. The corresponding ratio (FSF) is used to adjust the estimated seasonal prices to generate final seasonal supply prices ($NODE\_PSUP_{n,s}$) for a region.

For a *supply source* s,

$$FSF = \frac{PSUP_s}{SPAVG_s} \tag{84}$$

and,

$$NODE\_PSUP_{n,s} = SPSUP_n * FSF \tag{85}$$

where,

FSF = Scaling factor for seasonal prices
$PSUP_s$ = Annual supply price from the annual supply curve for supply region s (87$/Mcf)
$SPAVG_s$ = Quantity-weighted average annual supply price using peak and off-peak prices and production levels for supply region s (87$/Mcf)
$NODE\_PSUP_{n,s}$ = Adjusted seasonal supply prices for supply region s (87$/Mcf)
$SPSUP_n$ = Estimated seasonal supply prices [for supply region s] (87$/Mcf)
n = network (peak or off-peak)
s = supply source

During the STEO years (2010 and 2011 for *AEO2011*), national average wellhead prices (lower 48 only) generated by the model are compared to the national STEO wellhead price forecast to generate a benchmark factor ($SCALE\_WPR_t$). This factor is used to adjust the regional (annual and seasonal) lower 48 wellhead prices to equal STEO results. This benchmark factor is only applied for the STEO years. The benchmark factor is applied as follows:

Annual:

$$PSUP_s = PSUP_s * SCALE\_WPR_t \tag{86}$$

Seasonal:

$$NODE\_PSUP_{n,s} = NODE\_PSUP_{n,s} * SCALE\_WPR_t \tag{87}$$

where,

$PSUP_s$ = Annual supply price from the annual supply curve for supply region s (87$/Mcf)
$NODE\_PSUP_{n,s}$ = Adjusted seasonal supply prices for supply region s (87$/Mcf)
$SCALE\_WPR_t$ = STEO benchmark factor for wellhead price in year t
n = network (peak or off-peak)
s = supply source
t = forecast year

A similar adjustment is made for the Canadian supply price, with an additional multiplicative factor applied (STSCAL_CAN, Appendix E) which is set to align Canadian import levels with STEO results.

While the NGTDM does not explicitly represent the Henry Hub within its modeling structure, the module reports a projected value for reporting purposes. The price at the Henry Hub is set using an econometrically estimated equation as a function of the lower 48 average natural gas wellhead price, as follows:

$$oOGHHPRNG_t = 1.00439 * e^{0.090246} * oOGWPRNG_{s=13,t}^{1.00119} \tag{88}$$

where,

$oOGHHPRNG_t$ = Natural gas price at the Henry Hub (87$/MMBtu)
$oOGWPRNG_{s,t}$ = Average natural gas wellhead price for supply region 13, representing the lower 48 average (87$/Mcf)
s = supply source/region
t = forecast year

Details about the generation of this estimated equation and associated parameters are provided in **Table F9**, Appendix F.

Arc Fees (Tariffs)

Fees (or tariffs) along arcs are used in conjunction with supply, storage, and node prices to determine competing arc prices that, in turn, are used to determine network flows, transshipment node prices, and delivered prices. Arc fees exist in the form of pipeline tariffs, storage fees, and gathering charges. Pipeline tariffs are transportation rates along interregional arcs, and reflect the average rate charged over all of the pipelines represented along an arc. Storage fees represent the charges applied for storing, injecting, and withdrawing natural gas that is injected in the off-peak period for use in the peak period, and are applied along arcs connecting the storage sites to the peak network. Gathering charges are applied to the arcs going from the supply points to the transshipment nodes.

Pipeline and storage tariffs consist of both a fixed (volume independent) term and a variable (volume dependent) term. For pipelines the fixed term ($ARC\_FIXTAR_{n,a,t}$) is set in the PTS at the beginning of each forecast year to represent pipeline usage fees and does not vary in response to changes in flow in the current year. For storage, the fixed term establishes a minimum and is set to $0.001 per Mcf. The variable term is obtained from tariff/capacity curves provided by two PTS functions and represents reservation fees for pipelines and all charges for storage. These two functions are NGPIPE_VARTAR and X1NGSTR_VARTAR. When determining network flows a different set of tariffs ($ARC_SHRFEE_{n,a}$) are used than are used when setting delivered prices ($ARC_ENDFEE_{n,a}$).

In the peak period ARC_SHRFEE equals ARC_ENDFEE and the total tariff (reservation plus usage fee). In the off-peak period, ARC_ENDFEE represents the total tariff as well, but ARC_SHRFEE represents the fee that drives the flow decision. In previous AEOs this was set to just the usage fee. The assumption behind this structure was that delivered prices will ultimately reflect reservation charges, but that during the off-peak period in particular, decisions regarding the purchase and transport of gas are made largely independently of where pipeline is reserved and the associated fees. For *AEO2011* the ARC_SHRFEE was set similarly to ARC_ENDFEE because the usage fees seemed to be underestimating off-peak market prices. (This decision will be reexamined in the future.) During the peak period, the gas is more likely to flow along routes where pipeline is reserved; therefore the flow decision is more greatly influenced by the relative reservation fees.[67] The following arc tariff equations apply:

Pipeline:

$$\begin{aligned} ARC\_ENDFEE_{n,a} &= ARC\_FIXTAR_{n,a,t} + NGPIPE\_VARTAR(n,a,i,j,FLOW_{n,a}) \\ ARC\_SHRFEE_{n,a} &= ARC\_FIXTAR_{n,a,t} + NGPIPE\_VARTAR(n,a,i,j,FLOW_{n,a}) \end{aligned} \tag{89}$$

Storage:

$$\begin{aligned} ARC\_SHRFEE_{n,a} &= ARC\_FIXTAR_{n,a,t} + X1NGSTR\_VARTAR(st,FLOW_{n,a}) \\ ARC\_ENDFEE_{n,a} &= ARC\_FIXTAR_{n,a,t} + X1NGSTR\_VARTAR(st,FLOW_{n,a}) \end{aligned} \tag{90}$$

where,

$ARC\_SHRFEE_{n,a}$	=	Total arc fees along arc a for network n [used with sharing algorithm] (87$/Mcf)
$ARC\_ENDFEE_{n,a}$	=	Total arc fees along arc a for network n [used with delivered pricing] (87$/Mcf)
$ARC\_FIXTAR_{n,a,t}$	=	Fixed (or usage) fees along an arc a for a network n in time t (87$/Mcf)
NGPIPE_VARTAR	=	PTS function to define pipeline tariffs representing reservation fees for specified arc at given flow level
X1NGSTR_VARTAR	=	PTS function to define storage fees at specified storage region for given storage level

[67]Reservation fees are frequently considered "sunk" costs and are not expected to influence short-term purchasing decisions as much, but still must ultimately be paid by the end-user. Therefore within the ITS, the arc prices used in determining flows can have tariff components defined differently than their counterparts (arc and node prices) ultimately used to establish delivered prices.

$FLOW_{n,a}$ = Flow of natural gas on the arc in the given period
n = network (peak or off-peak)
a = arc
i, j = from transshipment node i to transshipment node j

A methodology for defining gathering charges has not been developed but may be developed in a separate effort at a later date.[68] In order to accommodate this, the supply arc indices in the variable $ARC\_FIXTAR_{n,a}$ have been reserved for this information (currently set to 0). Since the historical wellhead price represents a first-purchase price, the cost of gathering is frequently already included and no further charge should be added.

Arc, Node, and Storage Prices

Prices at the transshipment nodes (or node prices) represent intermediate prices that are used to determine regional delivered prices. Node prices (along with tariffs) are also used to help make model decisions, primarily within the flow-sharing algorithm. In both cases it is not required (as described above) to set delivered or arc prices using the same price components or methods used to define prices needed to establish flows along the networks (e.g., in setting $ARC\_SHRPR_{n,a}$ in the share equation). Thus, *process-specific* node prices ($NODE\_ENDPR_{n,r}$ and $NODE\_SHRPR_{n,r}$) are generated using *process-specific* arc prices ($ARC\_ENDPR_{n,a}$ and $ARC\_SHRPR_{n,a}$) which, in turn, are generated using *process-specific* arc fees/tariffs ($ARC\_ENDFEE_{n,a}$ and $ARC\_SHRFEE_{n,a}$).

The following equations define the methodology used to calculate arc prices. Arc prices are first defined as the average node price at the source node plus the arc fee (pipeline tariff, storage fee, or gathering charge). Next, the arc prices along pipeline arcs are adjusted to account for the cost of pipeline fuel consumption. These equations are as follows:

$$\begin{aligned} ARC\_SHRPR_{n,a} &= NODE\_SHRPR_{n,rs} + ARC\_SHRFEE_{n,a} \\ ARC\_ENDPR_{n,a} &= NODE\_ENDPR_{n,rs} + ARC\_ENDFEE_{n,a} \end{aligned} \tag{91}$$

with the adjustment accomplished through the assignment statements:

$$\begin{aligned} ARC\_SHRPR_{n,a} &= \frac{(ARC\_SHRPR_{n,a} * FLOW_{n,a})}{(FLOW_{n,a} - ARC\_PFUEL_{n,a})} \\ ARC\_ENDPR_{n,a} &= \frac{(ARC\_ENDPR_{n,a} * FLOW_{n,a})}{(FLOW_{n,a} - ARC\_PFUEL_{n,a})} \end{aligned} \tag{92}$$

[68]In a previous version of the NGTDM, "gathering" charges were used to benchmark the regional wellhead prices to historical values. It is possible that they may be used (at least in part) to fulfill the same purpose in the ITS. In the past an effort was made, with little success, to derive representative gathering charges. Currently, the gathering charge portion of the tariff along the supply arcs is assumed to be zero.

where,

$ARC\_SHRPR_{n,a}$ = Price calculated for natural gas along inflow arc a for network n [used with sharing algorithm] (87$/Mcf)

$ARC\_ENDPR_{n,a}$ = Price calculated for natural gas along inflow arc a for network n [used with delivered pricing] (87$/Mcf)

$NODE\_SHRPR_{n,r}$ = Node price for region i on network n [used with sharing algorithm] (87$/Mcf)

$NODE\_ENDPR_{n,r}$ = Node price for region i on network n [used with delivered pricing] (87$/Mcf

$ARC\_SHRFEE_{n,a}$ = Tariff along inflow arc a for network n [used with sharing algorithm] (87$/Mcf)

$ARC\_ENDFEE_{n,a}$ = Tariff along inflow arc a for network n [used with delivered pricing] (87$/Mcf)

$ARC\_PFUEL_{n,a}$ = Pipeline fuel consumption along arc a, for network n (Bcf)

$FLOW_{n,a}$ = Network n flow along arc a (Bcf)

n = network (peak or off-peak)

a = arc

rs = region corresponding to source link on arc a

Although each type of node price may be calculated differently (e.g., average prices for delivered price calculation, marginal prices for flow sharing calculation, or some combination of these for each), the current model uses the quantity-weighted averaging approach to establish node prices for both the delivered pricing and flow sharing algorithm pricing. Prices from all arcs entering a node are included in the average. Node prices then are adjusted to account for intraregional pipeline fuel consumption. The following equations apply:

$$NODE\_SHRPR_{n,rd} = \frac{\Sigma_a\,(ARC\_SHRPR_{n,a} * FLOW_{n,a})}{\Sigma_a\,(FLOW_{n,a} - ARC\_PFUEL_{n,a})}$$

$$NODE\_ENDPR_{n,rd} = \frac{\Sigma_a\,(ARC\_ENDPR_{n,a} * FLOW_{n,a})}{\Sigma_a\,(FLOW_{n,a} - ARC\_PFUEL_{n,a})} \qquad (93)$$

and,

$$NODE\_SHRPR_{n,rd} = \frac{(NODE\_SHRPR_{n,rd} * NODE\_DMD_{n,rd})}{(NODE\_DMD_{n,rd} - INTRA\_PFUEL_{n,rd})}$$

$$NODE\_ENDPR_{n,rd} = \frac{(NODE\_ENDPR_{n,rd} * NODE\_DMD_{n,rd})}{(NODE\_DMD_{n,rd} - INTRA\_PFUEL_{n,rd})} \qquad (94)$$

where,

$NODE\_SHRPR_{n,r}$	=	Node price for region r on network n [used with flow sharing algorithm] (87$/Mcf)
$NODE\_ENDPR_{n,r}$	=	Node price for region r on network n [used with delivered pricing] (87$/Mcf)
$ARC\_SHRPR_{n,a}$	=	Price calculated for natural gas along inflow arc a for network n [used with flow sharing algorithm] (87$/Mcf)
$ARC\_ENDPR_{n,a}$	=	Price calculated for natural gas along inflow arc a for network n [used with delivered pricing] (87$/Mcf)
$FLOW_{n,a}$	=	Network n flow along arc a (Bcf)
$ARC\_PFUEL_{n,a}$	=	Pipeline fuel consumed along the pipeline arc a, network n (Bcf)
$INTRA\_PFUEL_{n,r}$	=	Intraregional pipeline fuel consumption in region r, network n (Bcf)
$NODE\_DMD_{n,r}$	=	Net node demands (w/ pipeline fuel) in region r, network n (Bcf)
n	=	network (peak or off-peak)
a	=	arc
rd	=	region r destination link along arc a

Once node prices are established for the off-peak network, the cost of the gas injected into storage can be modeled. Thus, for every region where storage is available, the storage node price is set equal to the off-peak regional node price. This applies for both the delivered pricing and the flow sharing algorithm pricing:

$$NODE\_SHRPR_{PK,i} = NODE\_SHRPR_{OP,r}$$

$$NODE\_ENDPR_{PK,i} = NODE\_ENDPR_{OP,r} \qquad (95)$$

where,

$NODE\_SHRPR_{PK,i}$	=	Price at node i [used with flow sharing algorithm] (87$/Mcf)
$NODE\_SHRPR_{OP,r}$	=	Price at node r in off-peak network [used with flow sharing algorithm] (87$/Mcf)
$NODE\_ENDPR_{PK,ii}$	=	Price at node i [used with delivered pricing] (87$/Mcf)
$NODE\_ENDPR_{OP,r}$	=	Price at node r in off-peak network [used with delivered pricing] (87$/Mcf)
PK, OP	=	peak and off-peak network, respectively
i	=	node ID for storage
r	=	region ID where storage exists

Backstop Price Adjustment

Backstop supply[69] is activated when seasonal net demand within a region exceeds total available supply for that region. When backstop occurs, the corresponding *share* node price ($NODE\_SHRPR_{n,r}$) is adjusted upward in an effort to reduce the demand for gas from this

[69]Backstop supply can be thought of as a high-priced alternative supply when no other options are available. Within the model, it also plays an operational role in sending a price signal when equilibrating the network that additional supplies are unavailable along a particular path in the network.

source. If this initial price adjustment ($BKSTOP\_PADJ_{n,r}$) is not sufficient to eliminate backstop, on the next cycle down the network tree, an additional adjustment ($RBKSTOP\_PADJ_{n,r}$) is added to the original adjustment, creating a cumulative price adjustment. This process continues until the backstop quantity is reduced to zero, or until the maximum number of ITS cycles has been completed. If backstop is eliminated, then the cumulative price adjustment level is maintained, as long as backstop does not resurface, and until ITS convergence is achieved. Maintaining a backstop adjustment is necessary because complete removal of this high-price signal would cause demand for this source to increase again, and backstop would return. However, if the need for backstop supply recurs following a cycle which did not need backstop supply, then the price adjustment ($BKSTOP\_PADJ_{n,r}$) factor is reduced by one-half and added to the cumulative adjustment variable, with the process continuing as described above. The objective is to eliminate the need for backstop supply while keeping the associated price at a minimum. The node prices are adjusted as follows:

$$\mathrm{NODE\_SHRPR}_{n,r} = \mathrm{NODE\_SHRPR}_{n,r} + \mathrm{RBKSTOP\_PADJ}_{n,r} \tag{96}$$

$$\mathrm{RBKSTOP\_PADJ}_{n,r} = \mathrm{RBKSTOP\_PADJ}_{n,r} + \mathrm{BKSTOP\_PADJ}_{n,r} \tag{97}$$

where,

$NODE\_SHRPR_{n,r}$	=	Node price for region r on network n [used with flow sharing algorithm] (87$/Mcf)
$RBKSTOP\_PADJ_{n,r}$	=	Cumulative price adjustment due to backstop (87$/Mcf)
$BKSTOP\_PADJ_{n,r}$	=	Incremental backstop price adjustment (87$/Mcf)
n	=	network (peak or off-peak)
r	=	region

Currently, this cumulative backstop adjustment ($RBKSTOP\_PADJ_{n,r}$) is maintained for each NEMS iteration and set to zero only on the first NEMS iteration of each model year. Also, it is not used to adjust the NODE_ENDPR because it is an adjustment for making flow allocation decisions, not for pricing gas for the end-user.

ITS Convergence

The ITS is considered to have converged when the regional/seasonal wellhead prices are within a defined percentage tolerance (PSUP_DELTA) of the prices set during the last ITS cycle and, for those supply regions with relatively small production levels (QSUP_SMALL), production is within a defined tolerance (QSUP_DELTA) of the production set during the last ITS cycle. If convergence does not occur, then a new wellhead price is determined based on a user-specified weighting of the seasonal production levels determined during the current cycle and during the previous cycle down the network. The the new production levels are defined as follows:

$$\begin{aligned}\mathrm{NODE\_QSUP}_{n,s} = {} & (\mathrm{QSUP\_WT} * \mathrm{NODE\_QSUP}_{n,s}) + \\ & ((1 - \mathrm{QSUP\_WT}) * \mathrm{NODE\_QSUPPREV}_{n,s})\end{aligned} \tag{98}$$

where,

$NODE\_QSUP_{n,s}$ = Production level at supply source s on network n for current ITS cycle (Bcf)
$NODE\_QSUPPREV_{n,s}$ = Production level at supply source s on network n for previous ITS cycle (Bcf)
$QSUP\_WT$ = Weighting applied to production level for current ITS cycle (Appendix E)
n = network (peak or off-peak)
s = supply source

Seasonal prices ($NODE\_PSUP_{n,s}$) for these quantities are then determined using the same methodology defined above for obtaining wellhead prices.

End-Use Sector Prices

The NGTDM provides regional end-use or delivered prices for the Electricity Market Module (electric generation sector) and the other NEMS demand modules (nonelectric sectors). For the nonelectric sectors (residential, commercial, industrial, and transportation), prices are established at the NGTDM region and then averaged (when necessary) using quantity-weights to obtain prices at the Census Division level. For the electric generation sector, prices are provided on a seasonal basis and are determined for core and noncore services at two different regional levels: the Census Division level and the NGTDM/EMM level (Chapter 2, **Figure 2-3**).

The first step toward generating these delivered prices is to translate regional, seasonal node prices into corresponding city gate prices ($CGPR_{n,r}$). To accomplish this, seasonal intraregional and intrastate tariffs are added to corresponding regional end-use node prices (NODE_ENDPR). This sum is then adjusted using a city gate benchmark factor ($CGBENCH_{n,r}$) which represents the average difference between historical city gate prices and model results for the historical years of the model. These equations are defined below:

$$\begin{aligned} CGPR_{n,r} = {} & NODE\_ENDPR_{n,r} + INTRAREG\_TAR_{n,r} + \\ & INTRAST\_TAR_{r} + CGBENCH_{n,r} \end{aligned} \tag{99}$$

such that:

$$CGBENCH_{n,r} = avg(HCG\_BENCH_{n,r,HISYR}) = avg(HCGPR_{n,r,HISYR} - CGPR_{n,r}) \tag{100}$$

where,

$CGPR_{n,r}$ = City gate price in region r on network n in each HISYR (87$/Mcf)
$NODE\_ENDPR_{n,r}$ = Node price for region r on network n (87$/Mcf)
$INTRAREG\_TAR_{n,r}$ = Intraregional tariff for region r on network n (87$/Mcf)
$INTRAST\_TAR_{r}$ = Intrastate tariff in region r (87$/Mcf)
$CGBENCH_{n,r}$ = City gate benchmark factor for region r on network n (87$/Mcf)
$HCG\_BENCH_{n,r,HISYR}$ = City gate benchmark factors for region r on network n in historical years HISYR (87$/Mcf)

$HCGPR_{n,r,HISYR}$ = Historical city gate price in region r on network n in historical year HISYR (87$/Mcf)
n = network (peak and off-peak)
r = region (lower 48 only)
HISYR = historical year, over which average is taken (2004-2008, excluding the outlier year of 2006)
avg = straight average of indicated value over indicated historical years of the model.

The intraregional tariffs are the sum of a usage fee (INTRAREG_FIXTAR), provided by the Pipeline Tariff Submodule, and a reservation fee that is set using the same function NGPIPE_VARTAR that is used in setting interregional tariffs and was described previously. The benchmark factor represents an adjustment to calibrate city gate prices to historical values.

Seasonal distributor tariffs are then added to the city gate prices to get seasonal, sectoral delivered prices by the NGTDM regions for nonelectric sectors and by the NGTDM/EMM subregions for the electric generation sector. The prices for residential, commercial, and electric generation sectors (core and noncore) are then adjusted using STEO benchmark factors ($SCALE\_FPR_{sec,t}$, $SCALE\_IPR_{sec,t}$)[70] to calibrate the results to equal the corresponding national STEO delivered prices. Each seasonal sector price is then averaged to get an annual, sectoral delivered price for each representative region. The following equations apply.

Nonelectric Sectors (except core transportation):

$$NGPR\_SF_{n,sec,r} = CGPR_{n,r} + DTAR\_SF_{n,sec,r} + SCALE\_FPR_{sec,t}$$

$$NGPR\_SI_{n,sec,r} = CGPR_{n,r} + DTAR\_SI_{n,sec,r} + SCALE\_IPR_{sec,t} \tag{101}$$

$$NGPR\_F_{sec,r} = NGPR\_SF_{PK,sec,r} * PKSHR\_DMD_{sec,r} + NGPR\_SF_{OP,sec,r} * (1. - PKSHR\_DMD_{sec,r})$$

$$NGPR\_I_{sec,r} = NGPR\_SI_{PK,sec,r} * PKSHR\_DMD_{sec,r} + NGPR\_SI_{OP,sec,r} * (1. - PKSHR\_DMD_{sec,r}) \tag{102}$$

where,

$NGPR\_SF_{n,sec,r}$ = Seasonal (n) core nonelectric sector (sec) price in region r (87$/Mcf)
$NGPR\_SI_{n,sec,r}$ = Seasonal (n) noncore nonelectric sector (sec) price in region r (87$/Mcf)
$NGPR\_F_{sec,r}$ = Annual core nonelectric sector (sec) price in region r (87$/Mcf)
$NGPR\_I_{sec,r}$ = Annual noncore nonelectric sector (sec) price in region r (87$/Mcf)

[70]The STEO scale factors are linearly phased out over a user-specified number of years (Appendix E, STPHAS_YR) after the last STEO year. STEO benchmarking is not done for the industrial price, because of differences in the definition of the price in the STEO versus the price in the AEO, nor for the transportation sector since the STEO does not include a comparable value.

$CGPR_{n,r}$ = City gate price in region r on network n (87$/Mcf)
$DTAR\_SF_{n.sec,r}$ = Seasonal (n) distributor tariff to core nonelectric sector (sec) in region r (87$/Mcf)
$DTAR\_SI_{n.\,sec,r}$ = Seasonal (n) distributor tariff to noncore nonelectric sector (sec) in region r (87$/Mcf)
$PKSHR\_DMD_{sec,r}$ = Average (2001-2009) fraction of annual consumption for nonelectric sector in peak season for region r
$SCALE\_FPR_{sec,t}$ = STEO benchmark factor for core delivered prices for sector sec, in year t (87$/Mcf)
$SCALE\_IPR_{sec,t}$ = STEO benchmark factor for noncore delivered prices for sector sec, in year t (87$/Mcf)
n = network (peak or off-peak)
sec = nonelectric sector
r = region (lower 48 only)

Electric Generation Sector:

$$NGUPR\_SF_{n,j} = CGPR_{n,r} + UDTAR\_SF_{n,j} + SCALE\_FPR_{sec,t}$$

$$NGUPR\_SI_{n,j} = CGPR_{n,r} + UDTAR\_SI_{n,j} + SCALE\_IPR_{sec,t} \tag{103}$$

$$NGUPR\_F_j = NGUPR\_SF_{PK,j} * PKSHR\_UDMD_j + NGUPR\_SF_{OP,j} * (1.- PKSHR\_UDMD_j)$$

$$NGUPR\_I_j = NGUPR\_SI_{PK,j} * PKSHR\_UDMD_j + NGUPR\_SI_{OP,j} * (1.- PKSHR\_UDMD_j) \tag{104}$$

where,

$NGUPR\_SF_{n,j}$ = Seasonal (n) core utility sector price in region j (87$/Mcf)
$NGUPR\_SI_{n,j}$ = Seasonal (n) noncore utility sector price in region j (87$/Mcf)
$NGUPR\_F_j$ = Annual core utility sector price in region j (87$/Mcf)
$NGUPR\_I_j$ = Annual noncore utility sector price in region j (87$/Mcf)
$CGPR_{n,r}$ = City gate price in region r on network n (87$/Mcf)
$UDTAR\_SF_{n,j}$ = Seasonal (n) distributor tariff to core utility sector in region j (87$/Mcf)
$UDTAR\_SI_{n,j}$ = Seasonal (n) distributor tariff to noncore utility sector in region j (87$/Mcf)
$PKSHR\_UDMD_j$ = Average (1994-2009, except for New England 1997-2009) fraction of annual consumption for the electric generator sector in peak season, for region j
$SCALE\_FPR_{sec,t}$ = STEO benchmark factor for core delivered prices for sector sec, in year t (87$/Mcf)
$SCALE\_IPR_{sec,t}$ = STEO benchmark factor for noncore delivered prices for sector sec, in year t (87$/Mcf)

n = network (peak PK or off-peak OP)
sec = utility sector (electric generation only)
r = region (lower 48 only)
j = NGTDM/EMM subregion

For *AEO2011*, the natural gas price that was finally sent to the Electricity Market Module for both core and noncore customers was the quantity-weighted average of the core and noncore prices derived from the above equations. This was done to alleviate some difficulties within the Electricity Market Module as selections were being made between different types of natural gas generation equipment.

Core Transportation Sector:

A somewhat different methodology is used to determine natural gas delivered prices for the core (F) transportation sector. The core transportation sector consists of a personal vehicles component and a fleet vehicles component. Like the other nonelectric sectors, seasonal distributor tariffs are added to the regional city gate prices to determine seasonal delivered prices for both components. Annual core prices are then established for each component in a region by averaging the corresponding seasonal prices, as follows:

$$\begin{aligned} NGPR\_TRPV\_SF_{n,r} &= CGPR_{n,r} + DTAR\_TRPV\_SF_{n,r} + SCALE\_FPR_{sec,t} \\ NGPR\_TRFV\_SF_{n,r} &= CGPR_{n,r} + DTAR\_TRFV\_SF_{n,r} + SCALE\_FPR_{sec,t} \end{aligned} \quad (105)$$

$$\begin{aligned} NGPR\_TRPV\_F_{r} &= NGPR\_TRPV\_SF_{PK,r} * PKSHR\_DMD_{sec,r} + \\ &\quad NGPR\_TRPV\_SF_{OP,r} * (1. - PKSHR\_DMD_{sec,r}) \\ NGPR\_TRFV\_F_{r} &= NGPR\_TRFV\_SF_{PK,r} * PKSHR\_DMD_{sec,r} + \\ &\quad NGPR\_TRFV\_SF_{OP,r} * (1. - PKSHR\_DMD_{sec,r}) \end{aligned} \quad (106)$$

where,

$NGPR\_TRPV\_SF_{n,r}$ = Seasonal (n) price of natural gas used by personal vehicles (core) in region r (87$/Mcf)
$NGPR\_TRFV\_SF_{n,r}$ = Seasonal (n) price of natural gas used by fleet vehicles (core) in region r (87$/Mcf)
$DTAR\_TRPV\_SF_{n,r}$ = Seasonal (n) distributor tariff to core transportation (personal vehicles) sector in region r (87$/Mcf)
$DTAR\_TRFV\_SF_{n,r}$ = Seasonal (n) distributor tariff to core transportation (fleet vehicles) sector in region r (87$/Mcf)
$CGPR_{n,r}$ = City gate price in region r on network n (87$/Mcf)
$NGPR\_TRPV\_F_{r}$ = Annual price of natural gas used by personal vehicles (core) in region r (87$/Mcf)
$NGPR\_TRFV\_F_{r}$ = Annual price of natural gas used by fleet vehicles (core) in region r (87$/Mcf)

$PKSHR\_DMD_{sec,r}$	=	Fraction of annual consumption for the transportation sector (sec=4) in the peak season for region r (set to PKSHR_YR)
$SCALE\_FPR_{sec,t}$	=	STEO benchmark factor for core delivered prices for sector sec, in year t (set to 0 for transportation sector), (87$/Mcf)
n	=	network (peak PK or off-peak OP)
sec	=	transportation sector =4
r	=	region (lower 48 only)

Once the personal vehicles price for natural gas is established, the two core component prices are averaged (using quantity weights) to produce an annual core price for each region ($NGPR\_F_{sec=4,r}$). Seasonal core prices are also determined by quantity-weighted averaging of the two seasonal components ($NGPR\_SF_{n,sec=4,r}$).

Regional delivered prices can be used within the ITS cycle to approximate a demand response. The submodule can then be resolved with adjusted consumption levels in an effort to speed NEMS convergence. Finally, once the ITS has converged, regional prices are averaged using quantity weights to compute Census Division prices, which are sent to the corresponding NEMS modules.

Import Prices

The price associated with Canadian imports at each of the module's border crossing points is established during the ITS convergence process. Each of these border-crossing points is represented by a node in the network. The import price for a given season and border crossing is therefore equal to the price at the associated node. For reporting purposes, these node prices are averaged using quantity weights to derive an average annual Canadian import price. The prices for imports at the three Mexican border crossings are set to the average wellhead price in the nearest NGTDM region plus a markup (or markdown) that is based on the difference between similar import and wellhead prices historically. The structure for setting LNG import prices is similar to setting Mexican import prices, although regional city gate prices are used instead of wellhead prices. For the facilities for which historical prices are not available (i.e., generic new facilities), an assumption was made about the difference between the regional city gate price and the LNG import price (LNGDIFF, Appendix E).

5. Distributor Tariff Submodule Solution Methodology

This chapter discusses the solution methodology for the Distributor Tariff Submodule (DTS) of the Natural Gas Transmission and Distribution Module (NGTDM). Within each region, the DTS develops seasonal, market-specific distributor tariffs (or city gate to end-use markups) that are applied to projected seasonal city gate prices to derive end-use or delivered prices. Since most industrial and electric generator customers do not purchase their gas through local distribution companies, their "distributor tariff" represents the difference between the average price paid by local distribution companies at the city gate and the average price paid by the industrial or electric generator customer.[71] Distributor tariffs are defined for both core and noncore markets within the industrial and electric generator sectors, while residential, commercial, and transportation sectors have distributor tariffs defined only for the core market, since noncore customer consumption in these sectors is assumed to be insignificant and set to zero. The core transportation sector is composed of two categories of compressed natural gas (CNG) consumers (fleet vehicles and personal vehicles); therefore, separate distributor tariffs are developed for each of these two categories.

For the residential, commercial, industrial, and electric generation sectors distributor tariffs are based on econometrically estimated equations and are driven in part by sectoral consumption levels.[72] This general approach was taken since data are not reasonably obtainable to develop a detailed cost-based accounting methodology similar to the approach used for interstate pipeline tariffs in the Pipeline Tariff Submodule. Distribution charges for CNG in vehicles are set to the sum of historical tariffs for delivering natural gas to refueling stations, federal and state motor fuels taxes and credits, and estimates of dispensing charges. The specific methodologies used to calculate each sector's distributor tariffs are discussed in the remainder of this chapter.

Residential and Commercial Sectors

Residential and commercial distributor tariffs are projected using econometrically estimated equations. The primary explanatory variables are floorspace and commercial natural gas consumption per floorspace for the commercial tariff, and number of households and natural gas consumption per household for the residential sector tariff. In both cases distributor tariffs are estimated separately for the peak and off-peak periods, as follows:

[71] It is not unusual for these "markups" to be negative.

[72] Historical distributor tariffs for a sector in a particular region/season can be estimated by taking the difference between the average sectoral delivered price and the average city gate price in the region/season (Appendix E, HCGPR).

Residential peak

$$\text{DTAR\_SF}_{s=1,r,n=1} = e^{\text{PRSREGPK19}_{r,n=1}} * \text{NUMRS}_{r,t}^{0.162972} * \left(\frac{\text{BASQTY\_SF}_{s=1,r,n=1} + \text{BASQTY\_SI}_{s=1,r,n=1}}{\text{NUMRS}_{r,t}}\right)^{-0.607267} * \tag{107}$$

$$\text{DTAR\_SFPREV}_{s=1,r,n=1}^{0.231296} * e^{(-0.231296*\text{PRSREGPK19}_{r,n=1})} * \text{NUMRS}_{r,t-1}^{-0.231296*0.162972} * \left(\frac{\text{BASQTY\_SFPREV}_{s=1,r,n=1} + \text{BASQTY\_SIPREV}_{s=1,r,n=1}}{\text{NUMRS}_{r,t-1}}\right)^{(-0.231296*-0.607267)}$$

Residential off-peak

$$\text{DTAR\_SF}_{s=1,r,n=2} = e^{\text{PRSREGPK19}_{r,n=2}} * \text{NUMRS}_{r,t}^{0.282301} * \left(\frac{\text{BASQTY\_SF}_{s=1,r,n=2} + \text{BASQTY\_SI}_{s=1,r,n=2}}{\text{NUMRS}_{r,t}}\right)^{-0.814968} * \tag{108}$$

$$\text{DTAR\_SFPREV}_{s=1,r,n=2}^{0.231296} * e^{(-0.202612*\text{PRSREGPK19}_{r,n=2})} * \text{NUMRS}_{r,t-1}^{-0.202612*0.282301} * \left(\frac{\text{BASQTY\_SFPREV}_{s=1,r,n=2} + \text{BASQTY\_SIPREV}_{s=1,r,n=2}}{\text{NUMRS}_{r,t-1}}\right)^{(-0.202612*-0.814968)}$$

Commercial peak

$$\text{DTAR\_SF}_{s=2,r,n=2} = e^{\text{PCMREGPK13}_{r,n=1}} * \text{FLRSPC12}_{r,t}^{0.218189} * \left(\frac{\text{BASQTY\_SF}_{s=2,r,n=1} + \text{BASQTY\_SI}_{s=2,r,n=1}}{\text{FLRSPC12}_{r,t}}\right)^{-0.217322} * \tag{109}$$

$$\text{DTAR\_SFPREV}_{s=2,r,n=1}^{0.284608} * e^{(-0.284608*\text{PCMREGPK13}_{r,n=1})} * \text{FLRSPC12}_{r,t-1}^{-0.284608*0.218189} \left(\frac{\text{BASQTY\_SFPREV}_{s=2,r,n=1} + \text{BASQTY\_SIPREV}_{s=2,r,n=1}}{\text{FLRSPC12}_{r,t-1}}\right)^{(-0.284608*-0.217322)}$$

Commercial off-peak

$$
\begin{aligned}
DTAR\_SF_{s=2,r,n=2} = {} & e^{PCMREGPK13_{r,n=2}} * FLRSPC12_{r,t}^{0.530831} * \\
& \left(\frac{BASQTY\_SF_{s=2,r,n=2} + BASQTY\_SI_{s=2,r,n=2}}{FLRSPC12_{r,t}}\right)^{-0.613588} * \\
& DTAR\_SFPREV_{s=2,r,n=2}^{0.166956} * e^{(-0.166956*PCMREGPK13_{r,n=2})} * FLRSPC12_{r,t-1}^{-0.166956*0.530831} \\
& \left(\frac{BASQTY\_SFPREV_{s=2,r,n=2} + BASQTY\_SIPREV_{s=2,r,n=2}}{FLRSPC12_{r,t-1}}\right)^{(-0.166956*-0.613588)}
\end{aligned}
\qquad (110)
$$

where,

$$NUMRS_{r,t} = oRSGASCUST_{cd,t} * RECS\_ALIGN_{r} * NUM\_REGSHR_{r} \qquad (111)$$

and,

$$FLRSPC12_{r,t} = (MC\_COMMFLSP_{1,cd,t} - MC\_COMMFLSP_{8,cd,t}) * SHARE_{r} \qquad (112)$$

where,

$DTAR\_SF_{s,r,n}$ = core distributor tariff in current forecast year for sector s, region r, and network n (1987$/Mcf)

$DTAR\_SFPREV_{s,r,n}$ = core distributor tariff in previous forecast year (1987$/Mcf). [For first forecast year set at the 2008 historical value.]

$BASQTY\_SF_{s,r,n}$ = sector (s) level firm gas consumption for region r, and network n (Bcf)

$BASQTY\_SI_{s,r,n}$ = sector (s) level nonfirm gas consumption for region r, and network n (Bcf) (assumed at 0 for residential and commercial)

$BASQTY\_SFPREV_{s,r,n}$ = sector (s) level gas consumption for region r, and network n in previous year (Bcf) (assumed at 0 for residential and commercial)

$BASQTY\_SIPREV_{s,r,n}$ = sector (s) level nonfirm gas consumption for region r, and network n in previous year (Bcf)

NUMRS = number of residential customers in year t

$PRSREGPK19_{r,n}$ = residential, regional, period specific, constant term (Table F6, Appendix F)

$PCMREGPK13_{r,n}$ = commercial, regional, peak specific, constant term (Table F7, Appendix F)

$oRSGASCUST_{cd,t-1}$ = number of residential gas customers by census division in the previous forecast year (from NEMS residential demand module)

$RECS\_ALIGN_{r}$ = factor to align residential customer count data from EIA's 2005 Residential Consumption Survey (RECS), the data on which oRSGASCUST is based, with similar data from the EIA's Natural Gas Annual, the data on which the DTAR_SF estimation is based.

NUM_REGSHR_{r} = share of residential customers in NGTDM region r relative to the number in the larger or equal sized associated census division, set to values in last historical year, 2008. (fraction, Appendix E)

$FLRSPC12_r$ = commercial floorspace by NGTDM region (total net of for manufacturing) (billion square feet)
$MC\_COMMFLSP_{1,cd,t}$ = commercial floorspace by Census Division (total, including manufacturing)
$MC\_COMMFLSP_{8,cd,t}$ = commercial floorspace by Census Division (manufacturing)
$SHARE_r$ = assumed fraction of the associated census division's commercial floorspace within each of the 12 NGTDM regions based on population data (1.0, 1.0, 1.0, 1.0, 0.66, 1.0, 1.0, 0.59, 0.24, 0.34, 0.41, 0.75)
s = sector (=1 for residential, =2 for commercial)
cd = census division
r = region (12 NGTDM regions)
n = network (=1 for peak, =2 for off-peak)
t = forecast year (e.g., 2010)

Parameter values and details about the estimation of these equations can be found in Tables F6 and F7 of Appendix F.

Industrial Sector

For the industrial sector, a single distributor tariff (i.e., no distinction between core and noncore) is estimated for each season and region as a function of the industrial consumption level in that season and region. Next, core seasonal tariffs are set by assuming a differential between the core price and the estimated distributor tariff for the season and region, based on historical estimates. The noncore price is set to insure that the quantity-weighted average of the core and noncore price in a season and region will equal the originally estimated tariff for that season and region. Historical prices for the industrial sector are estimated based on the data that are available from the Manufacturing Energy Consumption Survey (MECS) (Table F5, Appendix F). The industrial prices within EIA's Natural Gas Annual only represent industrial customers who purchase gas through their local distribution company, a small percentage of the total; whereas the prices in the MECS represent a much larger percentage of the total industrial sector. The equation for the single seasonal/regional industrial distributor tariff follows:

$$\begin{aligned} TAR = {} & 0.199135 + PINREG15_r + PIN\_REGPK15_{r,n} + \\ & (-0.000317443 * QCUR_n) + (0.423561 * TARLAG_n) \\ & - 0.423561 * [0.199135 + PIN\_REG15_r + PIN\_REGPK15_{r,n} + \\ & (-0.000317443 * QLAG_n)] \end{aligned} \tag{113}$$

The core and noncore distributor tariffs are set using:

$$DTAR\_SF_{s=3,r,n} = TAR + FDIFF_{cr} \tag{114}$$

$$DTAR\_SI_{s=3.r,.n} = \frac{(TAR * QCUR_n) - (DTAR\_SF_{s=3,r,n} * BASQTY\_SF_{s=3,r,n})}{BASQTY\_SI_{s=3,r,n}} \tag{115}$$

where,

TAR	=	seasonal distributor tariff for industrial sector in region r (87$/Mcf)
$TARLAG_n$	=	seasonal distributor tariff for the industrial sector (s=3) in region r in the previous forecast year (87$/Mcf)
$FDIFF_{cr}$	=	historical average difference between core and average industrial price (1987$/Mcf, Appendix E)
PIN_REG15_r	=	estimated constant term (Table F4, Appendix F)
$PIN\_REGPK15_{r,n}$	=	estimated coefficient, set to zero for the off-peak period and for any region where the coefficient is not statistically significant
$DTAR\_SF_{n,s,r}$	=	seasonal distributor tariff for the core industrial sector (s=3) in region r (87$/Mcf)
$DTAR\_SI_{n,s,r}$	=	seasonal distributor tariff for the noncore industrial sector (s=3) in region r (87$/Mcf)
$DTAR\_SFPREV_{n,s,r}$	=	seasonal distributor tariff for the core industrial sector (s=3) in region r (87$/Mcf) in the previous forecast year [In the first forecast year set to the estimated average historical value from 2006 to 2009 [Table F5, Appendix F] (87$/Mcf)]
$BASQTY\_SF_{n,s=3,r}$	=	seasonal core natural gas consumption for industrial sector(s=3) in the current forecast year (Bcf)
$BASQTY\_SI_{n,s=3,r}$	=	seasonal noncore natural gas consumption for industrial sector (s=3) in the current forecast year (Bcf)
$QCUR_n$	=	sum of BASQTY_SF and BASQTY_SI for industrial in a particular season and region
$QLAG_n$	=	sum of BASQTY_SFPREV and BASQTY_SIPREV for industrial in a particular season and region, the value of QCUR in the last forecast year
s	=	end-use sector index (s=3 for industrial sector)
n	=	network (peak or off-peak)
r	=	NGTDM region
cr	=	the census region associated with the NGTDM region

Parameter values and details about the estimation of these two equations can be found in Table F4 and F5, Appendix F.

Electric Generation Sector

Distributor tariffs for the electric generation sector do not represent a charge imposed by a local distribution company; rather they represent the difference between the average city gate price in each NGTDM region and the natural gas price paid on average by electric generators in each NGTDM/EMM region, and are often negative. A single markup or tariff (i.e., no distinction between core and noncore) is projected for each season and region using econometrically estimated equations, as was done for the industrial sector. However, the current version of the model (as used for *AEO2011*) assigns this same value to both the core and noncore segments.[73] The estimated equations for the distributor tariffs for electric generators are a function of natural gas consumption by the sector relative to consumption by the other sectors. The greater the electric consumption share, the greater the price difference between the electric sector and the average, as they will need to reserve more space on the pipeline system. The specific equations follow:

$$\begin{aligned} UDTAR\_SF_{n,j} = {} & (-0.153777 + 0.0299295) + PELREG31_{n,j} + \\ & (0.000000704 * qelec_{n,j}) + (0.281378 * UDTAR\_SFPREV_{n,j}) \\ & - 0.281378 * [(-0.153777 + 0.0299295) + PELREG31_{n,j} + \\ & (0.000000704 * qeleclag_{n,j})] \end{aligned} \tag{116}$$

where,

$$qelec_{n,j} = (BASUQTY\_SF_{n,j} + BASUQTY\_SI_{n,j}) * 1000 \tag{117}$$

$$qeleclag_{n,j} = (BASUQTY\_SFPREV_{n,j} + BASUQTY\_SIPREV_{n,j}) * 1000 \tag{118}$$

$UDTAR\_SI_{n,j}$ = $UDTAR\_SF_{n,j}$ for all n and j,

where,

- $UDTAR\_SF_{n,j}$ = seasonal core electric generation sector distributor tariff, current forecast year (\$/Mcf)
- $UDTAR\_SI_{n,j}$ = seasonal noncore electric generation sector distributor tariff, current forecast year (\$/Mcf)
- $UDTAR\_SFPREV_{n,j}$ = seasonal core electric generation sector distributor tariff, previous forecast year (\$/Mcf)
- $BASUQTY\_SF_{n,j}$ = core electric generator gas consumption, current forecast year (Bcf)
- $BASUQTY\_SI_{n,j}$ = noncore electric generator gas consumption, current forecast year (Bcf)
- $BASUQTY\_SFPREV_{n,j}$ = core electric generator gas consumption in previous forecast year (Bcf)
- $BASUQTY\_SIPREV_{n,j}$ = noncore electric generator gas consumption in previous forecast year (Bcf)
- $PELREG31_{n=1,j}$ = $PELREG31_j$ in code, regional constant terms for peak period (Table F8, Appendix F)
- $PELREG31_{n=2,j}$ = $PELREG32_j$ in code, regional constant terms for off-peak period (Table F8, Appendix F)
- n = network (peak=1 or off-peak=2)
- j = NGTDM/EMM region (see chapter 2)

[73] This distinction was eliminated several years ago because of operational concerns in the Electricity Market Module. In addition, there are some remaining issues concerning the historical data necessary to generate separate price series for the two segments.

Parameter values and details about the estimation of these two equations can be found in Table F8, Appendix F.

Transportation Sector

Consumers of compressed natural gas (CNG) have been classified into two end-use categories within the core transportation sector: fleet vehicles and personal vehicles (i.e., CNG sold at retail). A distributor tariff is set for both categories to capture 1) the cost of the natural gas delivered to the dispensing station above the city gate price, 2) the per-unit cost or charge for dispensing the gas, and 3) federal and state motor fuels taxes and credits.

For both categories, the distribution charge for the CNG delivered to the station is based on the historical difference between the price reported for the transportation sector in EIA's *Natural Gas Annual* (which should reflect this delivered price) and the city gate price. Similarly federal and state motor fuels taxes are assumed to be the same for both categories and held constant in nominal dollars.[74] The Highway Bill of 2005 raised the motor fuels tax for CNG.[75] The model adjusts the distribution costs accordingly. A potential difference in the pricing for the two categories is the assumed per-unit dispensing charge. Currently the refueling options available for personal natural gas vehicles are largely limited to the same refueling facilities used by fleet vehicles. Therefore, the assumption in the model is that the dispensing charge will be similar for fleet and personal vehicles ($RETAIL\_COST_2$) unless there is a step increase in the number of retail stations selling natural gas in response to an expected increase in the number of personal vehicles. In such a case, an additional markup is added to the natural gas price to personal vehicles to account for the profit of the builder (RET_MARK), as described below. The distributor tariffs for CNG vehicles are set as follows:

$$\begin{aligned} DTAR\_TRFV\_SF_{n,r} = \{ & HDTAR\_SF_{n,s=4,r,EHISYR} \\ & * (1 - TRN\_DECL)^{YR-DECL}\} + RETAIL\_COST_2 \\ & + \frac{(STAX_r + FTAX)}{MC\_PCWGDP_t / MC\_PCWGDP_{87}} \end{aligned} \tag{119}$$

$$\begin{aligned} DTAR\_TRPV\_SF_{n,r} = \{ & HDTAR\_SF_{n,s=4,r,EHISYR} \\ & * (1 - TRN\_DECL)^{YR-DECL}\} + RETAIL\_COST_2 \\ & + CNG\_RETAIL\_MARKUP_r + \frac{(STAX_r + FTAX)}{MC\_PCWGDP_t / MC\_PCWGDP_{87}} \end{aligned} \tag{120}$$

where,

[74]Motor vehicle fuel taxes are assumed constant in current year dollars throughout the forecast to reflect current laws. Within the model these taxes are specified in 1987 dollars.

[75]The Safe, Accountable, Flexible, Efficient Transportation Equity Act: A Legacy for Users (SAFETEA-LU), Section 1113. The bill also allowed for an excise tax credit of $0.50 per gasoline gallon equivalent to be paid to the seller of the CNG through September of 2009. The model assumes that the subsidy will be passed through to consumers.

$DTAR\_TRFV\_SF_{n,r}$ = distributor tariff for the fleet vehicle transportation sector (87$/Mcf)
$DTAR\_TRPV\_SF_{n,r}$ = distributor tariff for the personal vehicle transportation sector (87$/Mcf)
$HDTAR\_SF_{n,s,r,EHISYR}$ = historical (2009) distributor tariff for the transportation sector to deliver the CNG to the station[76] (87$/ Mcf)
TRN_DECL = fleet vehicle distributor decline rate, set to zero for *AEO2011* (fraction, Appendix E)
YR_DECL = difference between the current year and the last historical year over which the decline rate is applied
$RETAIL\_COST_2$ = assumed additional charge related to providing the dispensing service to customers, at a fleet refueling station (87$/Mcf, Appendix E)
$CNG\_RETAIL\_MARKUP_r$= markup for natural gas sold at retail stations (described below)
$STAX_r$ = State motor vehicle fuel tax for CNG (current year $/Mcf, Appendix E)
FTAX = Federal motor vehicle fuel tax minus federal excise motor fuel credit for CNG (current year $/Mcf, Appendix E)
MC_PCWGDP_t = GDP conversion from current year dollars to 87 dollars [from the NEMS macroeconomic module]
n = network (peak or off-peak)
s = end-use sector index (s=4 for transportation sector)
r = NGTDM region
EHISYR = index defining last year that historical data are available
t = forecast year

A new algorithm was developed for *AEO2010* which projects whether construction of CNG fueling stations is economically viable in any of the NGTDM regions and, if so, sets the added charge that will result. In addition, the model provides the NEMS Transportation Sector Module with a projection of the fraction of retail refueling stations that sell natural gas. This is a key driver in the transportation module for projecting the number of compressed natural gas vehicles purchased and the resulting consumption level. While demand for CNG for personal vehicles is increased when fueling infrastructure is built, at the same time the viability of fueling infrastructure depends on sufficient demand to support it. A reduced form of the NEMS Transportation Sector Module was created for use in the NGTDM to estimate the increase in demand for CNG due to infrastructure construction, in order to project the revenue from a infrastructure building project, and then to assess its viability.

The basic algorithm involves 1) assuming a set increase in the number of stations selling CNG, 2) assuming CNG will be priced at a discount to the price of motor gasoline once it starts penetrating, 3) estimating the expected demand for CNG given the increased supply availability and price, 4) calculating the expected revenue per station that will cover capital expenditures

[76]EIA published, annual, State level data are used to set regional historical end-use prices for CNG vehicles. Since monthly data are not available for this sector, seasonal differentials for the industrial sector are applied to annual CNG data to approximate seasonal CNG prices.

(i.e., discounting for taxes, gas purchase costs, and other operating costs), 5) checking the revenue against infrastructure costs to determine viability, and 6) if viable, assuming the infrastructure will be added and the retail price changed accordingly.

The algorithm starts by testing the effects of building a large number of CNG stations (i.e., primarily by offering CNG at existing gasoline stations). The increase in availability that is tested is assumed to be a proportion of the number of gasoline stations in the region, as follows:

$$TOTPUMPS = NSTAT_r * (MAX\_CNG\_BUILD + CNGAVAIL_{t-1}) \quad (121)$$

where,

TOTPUMPS	=	the number of retail stations selling CNG in the region
$NSTAT_r$	=	the number of gasoline stations in the region at the beginning of the projection period (Appendix E)
$CNGAVAIL_{t-1}$	=	fraction of total retail refueling stations selling CNG last year
MAX_CNG_BUILD	=	assumed fraction of stations that can add CNG refueling this year (Appendix E).
r	=	census division
t	=	year

The assumed regional retail markup to cover capital costs if CNG infrastructure is built is set as follows:

$$TEST\_MARKUP_r = \text{minimum}\{5.0, MAX\_CNGMARKUP\} \quad (122)$$

where,

$$MAX\_CNGMARKUP_r = 0.75 * \{PMGTR_{r,t-1} - (PGFTRPV_{r,t-1} - CNG\_RETAIL\_MARKUP_r)\} \quad (123)$$

where,

$TEST\_MARKUP_r$	=	assumed regional retail markup (87$/MMBtu)
$MAX\_CNG\_MARKUP_r$	=	assumed maximum markup that can be added to base line cost of dispensing CNG to cover capital expenditures (87$/MMBtu) [Note: base line costs include taxes and fuel and basic operating costs]
$PMGTR_r$	=	retail price of motor gasoline (87$/MMBtu)
PMGFTRPV	=	retail price of CNG (87$/MMBtu)
$CNG\_RETAIL\_MARKUP_r$	=	retail CNG markup above base line costs added last year (87$/MMBtu)
0.75	=	assumed economic rent that can be captured relative to the difference between the retail price of motor gasoline and the retail price of CNG (fraction)
5.0	=	assumed minimum retail CNG markup (87$/MMBtu)

For each model year and region, the present value of projected revenue is determined with the following equation:

$$REVENUE = \sum_{n=1}^{CNG\_HRZ} \frac{TEST\_MARKUP_r * DEMAND * 1000000}{TOTPUMPS * (1 + CNG\_WACC)^n} \quad (124)$$

where,

REVENUE	=	the net revenue per station (above the basic operating expenses) after infrastructure is added in the region (1987 dollars)
CNG_HRZ	=	the time horizon for the revenue calculation, corresponding to the number of years over which the capital investment is assumed to need to be recovered (Appendix E)
$TEST\_MARKUP_r$	=	assumed regional retail markup above baseline costs (87$/MMBtu)
DEMAND	=	estimated consumption of CNG by personal vehicles if the infrastructure is added and the implied retail price is charged (trillion BTU), described at the end of this section
TOTPUMPS	=	the number of retail stations selling CNG in the region
CNG_WACC	=	assumed weighted average cost of capital for financing the added CNG infrastructure (Appendix E)

The model compares the present value of the projected revenue per station from an infrastructure build to the assumed cost of a station (CNG_BUILDCOST, Appendix E) to make the decision of whether stations are built or not. The cost of a station reflects the estimated cost of building a single pumping location in an existing retrial refueling station, considering the tax value of depreciation and a payback number of years (CNG_HRZ, Appendix E) and an assumed weighted average cost of capital (CNG_WACC, Appendix E). If the revenue is sufficient in a region then the availability of CNG stations in that region are increased and the retail markup is set to the markup that was tested. The equations for new retail markup and availability when stations have been built are given in the following:

$$CNGAVAIL_{r,t} = CNGAVAIL_{r,t-1} + MAX\_CNG\_BUILD \quad (125)$$

$$RET\_MARK_r = TEST\_MARKUP \quad (126)$$

where,

$CNGAVAIL_{r,t}$	=	fraction of regional retail refueling stations selling CNG
MAX_CNG_BUILD	=	incremental fraction of retail refueling stations selling CNG with added infrastructure in the year
RET_MARK_r	=	CNG retail markup above baseline costs (87$/MMBtu)
TEST_MARKUP	=	assumed CNG retail markup above baseline costs, based on the difference between baseline CNG costs and motor gasoline prices (87$/MMBtu)
r	=	Census Division
t	=	year

These variables stay at last year's values if no stations have been built. The retail markup by NGTDM region (CNG_RETAIL_MARKUP), as used in the transportation sector distributor tariff equation, is set by assigning the retail markup (RET_MARK) from the associated Census Division.

The demand response for CNG use in personal vehicles was estimated by doing multiple runs of the Transportation Sector Module. The key variable that was varied was the availability of CNG refueling stations. Test runs were made over a range of availability values for nine different cases. The cases were defined with three different motor gasoline to CNG price differentials (a maximum, a minimum, and the average between the two) in combination with three different CNG vehicle purchase subsidies ($0, $20,000, $40,000 in 2009 dollars per vehicle).[77] For each of the resulting nine sets of runs the CNG demand response in the Pacific Census Division was estimated as a function of station availability in a log-linear form with a constant term. The demand response in the Pacific Division was estimated by linearly interpolating between the points in the resulting three dimensional grid for a given availability (fraction of stations offering CNG), price differential between CNG and motor gasoline, and allowed subsidy for purchasing a CNG vehicle. The estimated consumption levels in the other Census Divisions were set by scaling the Pacific Division consumption based on size (as measured by total transportation energy demand) relative to the Pacific Division.

[77]Based on current laws and regulations in the *AEO2011* Reference Case, the subsidy is set to $0. A nonzero subsidy option was included for potential scenario analyses.

6. Pipeline Tariff Submodule Solution Methodology

The Pipeline Tariff Submodule (PTS) sets rates charged for storage services and interstate pipeline transportation. The rates developed are based on actual costs for transportation and storage services. These cost-based rates are used as a basis for developing tariff curves for the Interstate Transmission Submodule (ITS). The PTS tariff calculation is divided into two phases: an historical year initialization phase and a forecast year update phase. Each of these two phases includes the following steps: (1) determine the various components, in nominal dollars, of the total cost-of-service, (2) classify these components as fixed and variable costs based on the rate design (for transportation), (3) allocate these fixed and variable costs to rate components (reservation and usage costs) based on the rate design (for transportation), and (4) for transportation: compute rates for services during peak and off-peak time periods; for storage: compute annual regional tariffs. For the historical year phase, the cost of service is developed from historical financial data on 28 major U.S. interstate pipeline companies; while for the forecast year update phase the costs are estimated using a set of econometric equations and an accounting algorithm. The pipeline tariff calculations are described first, followed by the storage tariff calculations, and finally a description of the calculation of the tariffs for moving gas by pipeline from Alaska and from the MacKenzie Delta to Alberta. A general overview of the methodology for deriving rates is presented in the following box. The PTS system diagram is presented in **Figure 6-1**.

The purpose of the historical year initialization phase is to provide an initial set of transportation revenue requirements and tariffs. The last historical year for the PTS is currently 2006, which need not align with the last historical year for the rest of the NGTDM. Ultimately the ITS requires pipeline and storage tariffs; whether they are based on historical or projected financial data is mechanically irrelevant. The historical year information is developed from existing pipeline company transportation data. The historical year initialization process draws heavily on three databases: (1) a pipeline financial database (1990-2006) of 28 major interstate natural gas pipelines developed by Foster Associates,[83] (2) "a competitive profile of natural gas services" database developed by Foster Associates,[84] and (3) a pipeline capacity database developed by the former Office of Oil and Gas, EIA.[85] The first database represents the existing physical U.S. interstate pipeline and storage system, which includes production processing, gathering, transmission, storage, and other. The physical system is at a more disaggregate level than the NGTDM network. This database provides detailed company-level financial, cost, and rate base parameters. It contains information on capital structure, rate base, and revenue requirements by major line item of the cost of service for the historical years of the model. The second Foster database contains

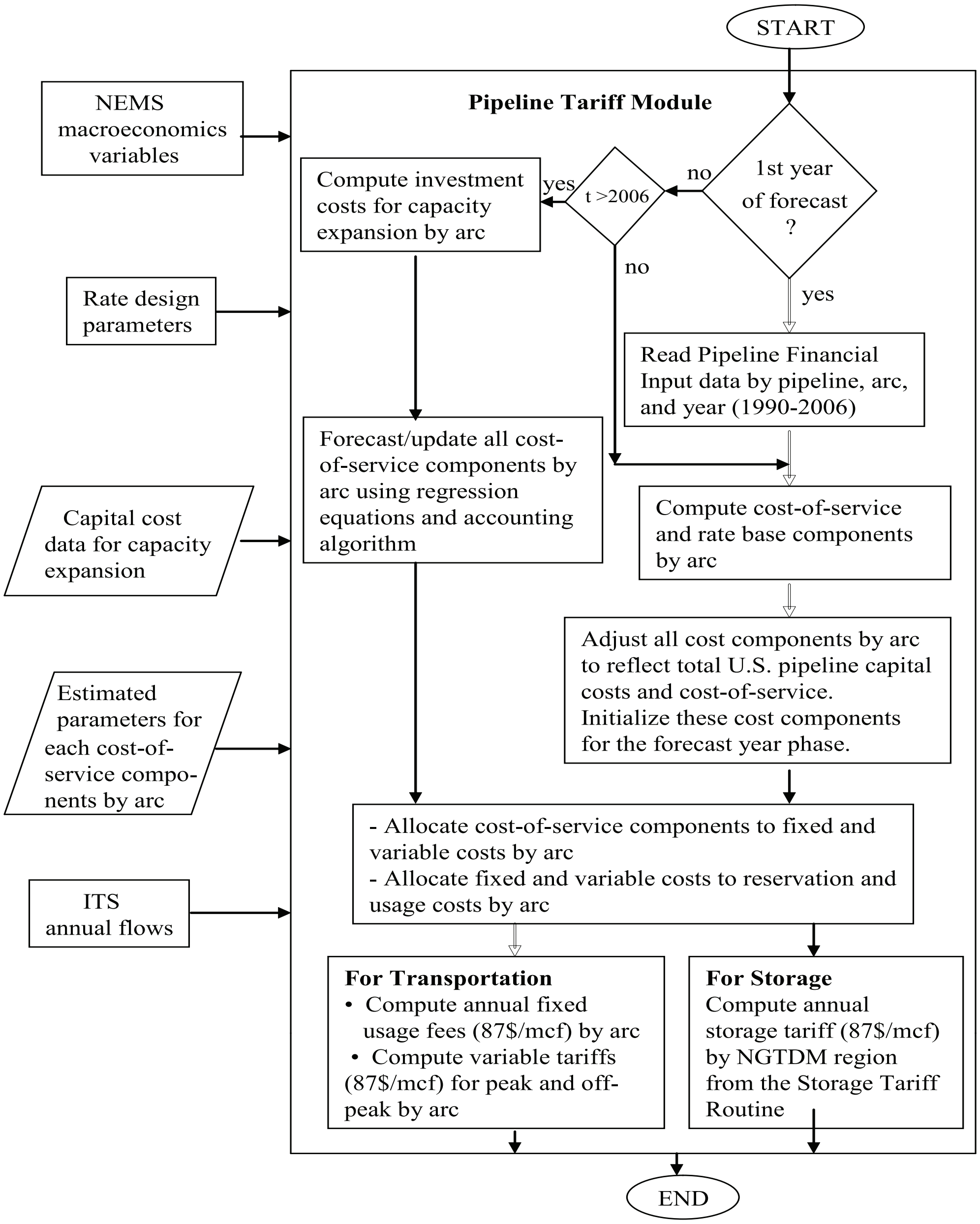
[83]Foster Financial Reports, 28 Major Interstate Natural Gas Pipelines, 2000, 2004 and 2007 Editions, Foster Associates, Inc., Bethesda, Maryland. The primary sources of data for these reports are FERC Form 2 and the monthly FERC Form 11 pipeline company filings. These reports can be purchased from Foster Associates.

[84]Competitive Profile of Natural Gas Services, Individual Pipelines, December 1997, Foster Associates, Inc., Bethesda, Maryland. Volumes III and IV of this report contain detailed information on the major interstate pipelines, including a pipeline system map, capacity, rates, gas plant accounts, rate base, capitalization, cost of service, etc. This report can be purchased from Foster Associates.

[85]A spreadsheet compiled by James Tobin of the Office of Oil and Gas containing historical and proposed state-to-state pipeline construction project costs, mileage, capacity levels and additions by year from 1996 to 2011, by pipeline company (data as of August 16, 2007).

detailed data on gross and net plant in service and depreciation, depletion, and amortization for individual plants (production processing and gathering plants, gas storage plants, gas transmission plants, and other plants) and is used to compute sharing factors by pipeline company and year to single out financial cost data for transmission plants from the "total plants" data in the first database.

Figure 6-1. Pipeline Tariff Submodule System Diagram



The third database contains information on pipeline financial construction projects by pipeline company, state-to-state transfer, and year (1996-2011). This database is used to determine factors to allocate the pipeline company financial data to the NGTDM interstate pipeline arcs based on capacity level in each historical year. These three databases are pre-processed offline to generate the pipeline transmission financial data by pipeline company, NGTDM interstate arc, and historical year (1990-2006) used as input into the PTS.

PTS Process for Deriving Rates

For Each Pipeline Arc

- Read historical financial database for 28 major interstate natural gas pipelines by pipeline company, arc, and historical year (1990-2006).

- Derive the total pipeline cost of service (TCOS)
  - Historical years
  - Aggregate pipeline TCOS items to network arcs
    - Adjust TCOS components to reflect all U.S. pipelines based on annual “Pipeline Economics” special reports in the Oil & Gas Journal
  - Forecast years
    - Include capital costs for capacity expansion
    - Estimate TCOS components from forecasting equations and accounting algorithm

- Allocate total cost of service to fixed and variable costs based on rate design

- Allocate costs to rate components (reservation and usage costs) based on rate design

- Compute rates for services for peak and off-peak time periods

For Each Storage Region:

- Derive the total storage cost of service (STCOS)

  - Historical years: read regional financial data for 33 storage facilities by node (NGTDM region) and historical year (1990-1998)
  - Forecast years:
    - Estimate STCOS components from forecasting equations and accounting algorithm
    - Adjust STCOS to reflect total U.S. storage facilities based on annual storage capacity data reported by EIA

- Compute annual regional storage rates for services

Historical Year Initialization Phase

The following section discusses two separate processes that occur during the historical year initialization phase: (1) the computation and initialization of the cost-of-service components, and (2) the computation of rates for services. The computation of historical year cost-of-service components and rates for services involves four distinct procedures as outlined in the above box and discussed below. Rates are calculated in nominal dollars and then converted to real dollars for use in the ITS.

Computation and Initialization of Pipeline Cost-of-Service Components

In the historical year initialization phase of the PTS, rates are computed using the following process: (Step 1) derivation and initialization of the total cost-of-service components, (Step 2) classification of cost-of-service components as fixed and variable costs, (Step 3) allocation of fixed and variable costs to rate components (reservation and usage costs) based on rate design, and (Step 4) computation of rates at the arc level for transportation services.

Step 1: Derivation and Initialization of the Total Cost-of-Service Components

The total cost-of-service for existing capacity on an arc consists of a just and reasonable return on the rate base plus total normal operating expenses. Derivations of return on rate base and total normal operating expenses are presented in the following subsections. The total cost of service is computed as follows:

$$TCOS_{a,t} = TRRB_{a,t} + TNOE_{a,t} \tag{127}$$

where,

$TCOS_{a,t}$ = total cost-of-service (dollars)
$TRRB_{a,t}$ = total return on rate base (dollars)
$TNOE_{a,t}$ = total normal operating expenses (dollars)
a = arc
t = historical year

Just and Reasonable Return. In order to compute the return portion of the cost-of-service at the arc level, the determination of capital structure and adjusted rate base is necessary. Capital structure is important because it determines the cost of capital to the pipeline companies associated with a network arc. The weighted average cost of capital is applied to the rate base to determine the return component of the cost-of-service, as follows:

$$TRRB_{a,t} = WAROR_{a,t} * APRB_{a,t} \tag{128}$$

where,

$TRRB_{a,t}$ = total return on rate base after taxes (dollars)
$WAROR_{a,t}$ = weighted-average after-tax return on capital (fraction)
$APRB_{a,t}$ = adjusted pipeline rate base (dollars)
a = arc
t = historical year

In addition, the return on rate base $TRRB_{a,t}$ is broken out into the three components as shown below.

$$PFEN_{a,t} = \sum_p [(PFES_{a,p,t} / TOTCAP_{a,p,t}) * PFER_{a,p,t} * APRB_{a,p,t}] \tag{129}$$

$$CMEN_{a,t} = \sum_p [(CMES_{a,p,t} / TOTCAP_{a,p,t}) * CMER_{a,p,t} * APRB_{a,p,t}] \tag{130}$$

$$LTDN_{a,t} = \sum_p [(LTDS_{a,p,t} / TOTCAP_{a,p,t}) * LTDR_{a,p,t} * APRB_{a,p,t}] \tag{131}$$

such that,

$$TRRB_{a,t} = (PFEN_{a,t} + CMEN_{a,t} + LTDN_{a,t}) \tag{132}$$

where,

$PFEN_{a,t}$	=	total return on preferred stock (dollars)
$PFES_{a,p,t}$	=	value of preferred stock (dollars)
$TOTCAP_{a,p,t}$	=	total capitalization (dollars)
$PFER_{a,p,t}$	=	coupon rate for preferred stock (fraction) [read as D_PFER]
$APRB_{a,p,t}$	=	adjusted pipeline rate base (dollars) [read as D_APRB]
$CMEN_{a,t}$	=	total return on common stock equity (dollars)
$CMES_{a,p,t}$	=	value of common stock equity (dollars)
$CMER_{a,p,t}$	=	common equity rate of return (fraction) [read as D_CMER]
$LTDN_{a,t}$	=	total return on long-term debt (dollars)
$LTDS_{a,p,t}$	=	value of long-term debt (dollars)
$LTDR_{a,p,t}$	=	long-term debt rate (fraction) [read as D_LTDR]
p	=	pipeline company
a	=	arc
t	=	historical year

Note that the first terms (fractions) in parentheses on the right hand side of equations 129 to 131 represent the capital structure ratios for each pipeline company associated with a network arc. These fractions are computed exogenously and read in along with the rates of return and the adjusted rate base. The total returns on preferred stock, common equity, and long-term debt at the arc level are computed immediately after all the input variables are read in. The capital structure ratios are exogenously determined as follows:

$$GPFESTR_{a,p,t} = PFES_{a,p,t} / TOTCAP_{a,p,t} \tag{133}$$

$$GCMESTR_{a,p,t} = CMES_{a,p,t} / TOTCAP_{a,p,t} \tag{134}$$

$$GLTDSTR_{a,p,t} = LTDS_{a,p,t} / TOTCAP_{a,p,t} \tag{135}$$

where,

$GPFESTR_{a,p,t}$	=	capital structure ratio for preferred stock for existing pipeline (fraction) [read as D_GPFES]

$GCMESTR_{a,p,t}$ = capital structure ratio for common equity for existing pipeline (fraction) [read as D_GCMES]
$GLTDSTR_{a,p,t}$ = capital structure ratio for long-term debt for existing pipeline (fraction) [read as D_GLTDS]
$PFES_{a,p,t}$ = value of preferred stock (dollars)
$CMES_{a,p,t}$ = value of common stock (dollars)
$LTDS_{a,p,t}$ = value of long-term debt (dollars)
$TOTCAP_{a,p,t}$ = total capitalization (dollars), equal to the sum of value of preferred stock, common stock equity, and long-term debt
p = pipeline company
a = arc
t = historical year

In the financial database, the estimated capital (capitalization) for each interstate pipeline is by definition equal to its adjusted rate base. Hence, the estimated capital $TOTCAP_{a,p,t}$ defined in the above equations is equal to the adjusted rate base $APRB_{a,p,t}$.

$$TOTCAP_{a,p,t} = APRB_{a,p,t} \tag{136}$$

where,

$TOTCAP_{a,p,t}$ = total capitalization (dollars)
$APRB_{a,p,t}$ = adjusted rate base (dollars)
a = arc
p = pipeline company
t = historical year

Substituting the adjusted rate base $APRB_{a,t}$ for the estimated capital $TOTCAP_{a,t}$ in equations 133 to 135, the values of preferred stock, common stock, and long-term debt by pipeline and arc can be computed by applying the capital structure ratios to the adjusted rate base, as follows:

$$\begin{aligned} PFES_{a,p,t} &= GPFESTR_{a,p,t} * APRB_{a,p,t} \\ CMES_{a,p,t} &= GCMESTR_{a,p,t} * APRB_{a,p,t} \\ LTDS_{a,p,t} &= GLTDSTR_{a,p,t} * APRB_{a,p,t} \\ GPFESTR_{a,p,t} &+ GCMESTR_{a,p,t} + GLTDSTR_{a,p,t} = 1.0 \end{aligned} \tag{137}$$

where,

$PFES_{a,p,t}$ = value of preferred stock in nominal dollars
$CMES_{a,p,t}$ = value of common equity in nominal dollars
$LTDS_{a,p,t}$ = long-term debt in nominal dollars
$GPFESTR_{a,p,t}$ = capital structure ratio for preferred stock for existing pipeline (fraction)
$GCMESTR_{a,p,t}$ = capital structure ratio of common stock for existing pipeline (fraction)
$GLTDSTR_{a,p,t}$ = capital structure ratio of long term debt for existing pipeline (fraction)

$APRB_{a,p,t}$ = adjusted rate base (dollars)
p = pipeline
a = arc
t = forecast year

The cost of capital at the arc level ($WAROR_{a,t}$) is computed as the weighted average cost of capital for preferred stock, common stock equity, and long-term debt for all pipeline companies associated with that arc, as follows:

$$WAROR_{a,t} = \sum_p [(PFES_{a,p,t} * PFER_{a,p,t} + CMES_{a,p,t} * CMER_{a,p,t} + LTDS_{a,p,t} * LTDR_{a,p,t})] / APRB_{a,t} \tag{138}$$

$$APRB_{a,t} = PFES_{a,t} + CMES_{a,t} + LTDS_{a,t} \tag{139}$$

where,

$WAROR_{a,t}$ = weighted-average after-tax return on capital (fraction)
$PFES_{a,p,t}$ = value of preferred stock (dollars)
$PFER_{a,p,t}$ = preferred stock rate (fraction)
$CMES_{a,p,t}$ = value of common stock equity (dollars)
$CMER_{a,p,t}$ = common equity rate of return (fraction)
$LTDS_{a,p,t}$ = value of long-term debt (dollars)
$LTDR_{a,p,t}$ = long-term debt rate (fraction)
$APRB_{a,p,t}$ = adjusted rate base (dollars)
p = pipeline
a = arc
t = historical year

The adjusted rate base by pipeline and arc is computed as the sum of net plant in service and total cash working capital (which includes plant held for future use, materials and supplies, and other working capital) minus accumulated deferred income taxes. This rate base is computed offline and read in by the PTS. The computation is as follows:

$$APRB_{a,p,t} = NPIS_{a,p,t} + CWC_{a,p,t} - ADIT_{a,p,t} \tag{140}$$

where,

$APRB_{a,p,t}$ = adjusted rate base (dollars)
$NPIS_{a,p,t}$ = net capital cost of plant in service (dollars) [read as D_NPIS]
$CWC_{a,p,t}$ = total cash working capital (dollars) [read as D_CWC]
$ADIT_{a,p,t}$ = accumulated deferred income taxes (dollars) [read as D_ADIT]
p = pipeline company
a = arc
t = historical year

The net plant in service by pipeline and arc is the original capital cost of plant in service minus the accumulated depreciation. It is computed offline and then read in by the PTS. The computation is as follows:

$$NPIS_{a,p,t} = GPIS_{a,p,t} - ADDA_{a,p,t} \tag{141}$$

where,

$NPIS_{a,p,t}$ = net capital cost of plant in service (dollars)
$GPIS_{a,p,t}$ = original capital cost of plant in service (dollars) [read as D_GPIS]
$ADDA_{a,p,t}$ = accumulated depreciation, depletion, and amortization (dollars) [read as D_ADDA]
p = pipeline company
a = arc
t = historical year

The adjusted rate base at the arc level is computed as follows:

$$\begin{aligned} APRB_{a,,t} &= \sum_p APRB_{a,p,t} = \sum_p (NPIS_{a,p,t} + CWC_{a,p,t} - ADIT_{a,p,t}) \\ &= (NPIS_{a,t} + CWC_{a,t} - ADIT_{a,t}) \end{aligned} \tag{142}$$

with,

$$\begin{aligned} NPIS_{a,,t} &= \sum_p (GPIS_{a,p,t} - ADDA_{a,p,t}) \\ &= (GPIS_{a,t} - ADDA_{a,t}) \end{aligned} \tag{143}$$

where,

$APRB_{a,p,t}$ = adjusted rate base (dollars) at the arc level
$NPIS_{a,p,t}$ = net capital cost of plant in service (dollars) at the arc level
$CWC_{a,t}$ = total cash working capital (dollars) at the arc level
$ADIT_{a,t}$ = accumulated deferred income taxes (dollars) at the arc level
$GPIS_{a,p,t}$ = original capital cost of plant in service (dollars) at the arc level
$ADDA_{a,t}$ = accumulated depreciation, depletion, and amortization (dollars) at the arc level
p = pipeline company
a = arc
t = historical year

Total Normal Operating Expenses. Total normal operating expense line items include depreciation, taxes, and total operating and maintenance expenses. Total operating and maintenance expenses include administrative and general expenses, customer expenses, and other operating and maintenance expenses. In the PTS, taxes are disaggregated further into Federal, State, and other taxes and deferred income taxes. The equation for total normal operating expenses at the arc level is given as follows:

$$TNOE_{a,t} = \sum_p (DDA_{a,p,t} + TOTAX_{a,p,t} + TOM_{a,p,t}) \tag{144}$$

where,

$TNOE_{a,t}$ = total normal operating expenses (dollars)
$DDA_{a,p,t}$ = depreciation, depletion, and amortization costs (dollars) [read as D_DDA]

$TOTAX_{a,p,t}$ = total Federal and State income tax liability (dollars)
$TOM_{a,p,t}$ = total operating and maintenance expense (dollars) [read as D_TOM]
p = pipeline
a = arc
t = historical year

Depreciation, depletion, and amortization costs, and total operating and maintenance expense are available directly from the financial database. The equations to compute these costs at the arc level are as follows:

$$DDA_{a,t} = \sum_{p} DDA_{a,p,t} \tag{145}$$

$$TOM_{a,t} = \sum_{p} TOM_{a,p,t} \tag{146}$$

Total taxes at the arc level are computed as the sum of Federal and State income taxes, other taxes, and deferred income taxes, as follows:

$$TOTAX_{a,t} = \sum_{p} (FSIT_{a,p,t} + OTTAX_{a,p,t} + DIT_{a,p,t}) \tag{147}$$

$$FSIT_{a,t} = \sum_{p} FSIT_{a,p,t} = \sum_{p} (FIT_{a,p,t} + SIT_{a,p,t}) \tag{148}$$

where,

$TOTAX_{a,t}$ = total Federal and State income tax liability (dollars)
$FSIT_{a,p,t}$ = Federal and State income tax (dollars)
$OTTAX_{a,p,t}$ = all other taxes assessed by Federal, State, or local governments except income taxes and deferred income tax (dollars) [read as D_OTTAX]
$DIT_{a,p,t}$ = deferred income taxes (dollars) [read as D_DIT]
$FIT_{a,p,t}$ = Federal income tax (dollars)
$SIT_{a,p,t}$ = State income tax (dollars)
p = pipeline company
a = arc
t = historical year

Federal income taxes are derived from returns to common stock equity and preferred stock (after-tax profit) and the Federal tax rate. The after-tax profit at the arc level is determined as follows:

$$ATP_{a,t} = \sum_{p} (PFER_{a,p,t} * PFES_{a,p,t} + CMER_{a,p,t} * CMES_{a,p,t}) \tag{149}$$

where,

$ATP_{a,t}$ = after-tax profit (dollars) at the arc level
$PFER_{a,p,t}$ = preferred stock rate (fraction)
$PFES_{a,p,t}$ = value of preferred stock (dollars)

$CMER_{a,p,t}$ = common equity rate of return (fraction)
$CMES_{a,p,t}$ = value of common stock equity (dollars)
a = arc
t = historical year

and the Federal income taxes at the arc level are,

$$FIT_{a,t} = \frac{FRATE * ATP_{a,t}}{(1. - FRATE)} \tag{150}$$

where,

$FIT_{a,t}$ = Federal income tax (dollars) at the arc level
FRATE = Federal income tax rate (fraction) (Appendix E)
$ATP_{a,t}$ = after-tax profit (dollars)

State income taxes are computed by multiplying the sum of taxable profit and the associated Federal income tax by a weighted-average State tax rate associated with each pipeline company. The weighted-average State tax rate is based on peak service volumes in each State delivered by the pipeline company. State income taxes at the arc level are computed as follows:

$$SIT_{a,t} = SRATE * (FIT_{a,t} + ATP_{a,t}) \tag{151}$$

where,

$SIT_{a,t}$ = State income tax (dollars) at the arc level
SRATE = average State income tax rate (fraction) (Appendix E)
$FIT_{a,t}$ = Federal income tax (dollars) at the arc level
$ATP_{a,t}$ = after-tax profits (dollars) at the arc level

Thus, total taxes at the arc level can be expressed by the following equation:

$$TOTAX_{a,t} = (FSIT_{a,t} + OTTAX_{a,t} + DIT_{a,t}) \tag{152}$$

where,

$TOTAX_{a,t}$ = total Federal and State income tax liability (dollars) at the arc level
$FSIT_{a,t}$ = Federal and State income tax (dollars) at the arc level
$OTTAX_{a,t}$ = all other taxes assessed by Federal, State, or local governments except income taxes and deferred income taxes (dollars), at the arc level
$DIT_{a,t}$ = deferred income taxes (dollars) at the arc level
a = arc
t = historical year

All other taxes and deferred income taxes at the arc level are expressed as follows:

$$OTTAX_{a,t} = \sum_{p} OTTAX_{a,p,t} \tag{153}$$

$$DIT_{a,t} = \sum_{p} DIT_{a,p,t} \tag{154}$$

Adjustment from 28 major pipelines to total U.S. Note that all cost-of-service and rate base components computed so far are based on the financial database of 28 major interstate pipelines. According to the U.S. natural gas pipeline construction and financial reports filed with the FERC and published in the Oil and Gas Journal,[86] there were more than 100 interstate natural gas pipelines operating in the United States in 2006. The total annual gross plant in service and operating revenues for all these pipelines are much higher than those for the 28 major interstate pipelines in the financial database. All the cost-of-service and rate base components at the arc level computed in the above sections are scaled up as follows: For the capital costs and adjusted rate base components,

$$\begin{aligned}
GPIS_{a,t} &= GPIS_{a,t} * HFAC_GPIS_t \\
ADDA_{a,t} &= ADDA_{a,t} * HFAC_GPIS_t \\
NPIS_{a,t} &= NPIS_{a,t} * HFAC_GPIS_t \\
CWC_{a,t} &= CWC_{a,t} * HFAC_GPIS_t \\
ADIT_{a,t} &= ADIT_{a,t} * HFAC_GPIS_t \\
APRB_{a,t} &= APRB_{a,t} * HFAC_GPIS_t
\end{aligned} \tag{155}$$

For the cost-of-service components,

$$\begin{aligned}
PFEN_{a,t} &= PFEN_{a,t} * HFAC_REV_t \\
CMEN_{a,t} &= CMEN_{a,t} * HFAC_REV_t \\
LTDN_{a,t} &= LTDN_{a,t} * HFAC_REV_t \\
DDA_{a,t} &= DDA_{a,t} * HFAC_REV_t \\
FSIT_{a,t} &= FSIT_{a,t} * HFAC_REV_t \\
OTTAX_{a,t} &= OTTAX_{a,t} * HFAC_REV_t \\
DIT_{a,t} &= DIT_{a,t} * HFAC_REV_t \\
TOM_{a,t} &= TOM_{a,t} * HFAC_REV_t
\end{aligned} \tag{156}$$

where,

$GPIS_{a,t}$	=	original capital cost of plant in service (dollars)
$HFAC\_GPIS_t$	=	adjustment factor for capital costs to total U.S. (Appendix E)
$ADDA_{a,t}$	=	accumulated depreciation, depletion, and amortization (dollars)
$NPIS_{a,t}$	=	net capital cost of plant in service (dollars)
$CWC_{a,t}$	=	total cash working capital (dollars)
$ADIT_{a,t}$	=	accumulated deferred income taxes (dollars)
$APRB_{a,t}$	=	adjusted pipeline rate base (dollars)
$PFEN_{a,t}$	=	total return on preferred stock (dollars)

[86] *Pipeline Economics*, Oil and Gas Journal, 1994, 1995, 1997, 1999, 2001, 2002, 2003, 2004, 2005, 2006.

$HFAC\_REV_t$ = adjustment factor for operation revenues to total U.S. (Appendix E)
$CMEN_{a,t}$ = total return on common stock equity (dollars)
$LTDN_{a,t}$ = total return on long-term debt (dollars)
$DDA_{a,t}$ = depreciation, depletion, and amortization costs (dollars)
$FSIT_{a,t}$ = Federal and State income tax (dollars)
$OTTAX_{a,t}$ = all other taxes assessed by Federal, State, or local governments except income taxes and deferred income taxes (dollars)
$DIT_{a,t}$ = deferred income taxes (dollars)
$TOM_{a,t}$ = total operations and maintenance expense (dollars)
a = arc
t = historical year

Except for the Federal and State income taxes and returns on capital, all the cost-of-service and rate base components computed at the arc level above are also used as initial values in the forecast year update phase that starts in 2007.

Step 2: Classification of Cost-of-Service Line Items as Fixed and Variable Costs

The PTS breaks each line item of the cost of service (computed in Step 1) into fixed and variable costs. Fixed costs are independent of storage/transportation usage, while variable costs are a function of usage. Fixed and variable costs are computed by multiplying each line item of the cost of service by the percentage of the cost that is fixed and the percentage of the cost that is variable. The classification of fixed and variable costs is defined by the user as part of the scenario specification. The classification of line item cost Ri to fixed and variable cost is determined as follows:

$$R_{i,f} = ALL_f * R_i / 100 \qquad (157)$$

$$R_{i,v} = ALL_v * R_i / 100 \qquad (158)$$

where,

$R_{i,f}$ = fixed cost portion of line item Ri (dollars)
ALL_f = percentage of line item Ri representing fixed cost
R_i = total cost of line item i (dollars)
$R_{i,v}$ = variable cost portion of line item Ri (dollars)
ALL_v = percentage of line item Ri representing variable cost
i = line item index
f,v = fixed or variable
100 = ALLf + ALLv

An example of this procedure is illustrated in **Table 6-1**.

The resulting fixed and variable costs at the arc level are obtained by summing all line items for each cost category from the above equations, as follows:

$$FC_a = \sum_i R_{i,f} \tag{159}$$

$$VC_a = \sum_i R_{i,v} \tag{160}$$

where,

FC_a = total fixed cost (dollars) at the arc level
VC_a = total variable cost (dollars) at the arc level
a = arc

Table 6-1. Illustration of Fixed and Variable Cost Classification

Cost of Service Line Item	Total (dollars)	Cost Allocation Factors (percent) Fixed	Variable	Cost Component (dollars) Fixed	Variable
Total Return					
Preferred Stock	1,000	100	0	1,000	0
Common Stock	30,000	100	0	30,000	0
Long-Term Debt	29,000	100	0	29,000	0
Normal Operating Expenses					
Depreciation	30,000	100	0	30,000	0
Taxes					
Federal Tax	25,000	100	0	25,000	0
State Tax	5,000	100	0	5,000	0
Other Tax	1,000	100	0	1,000	0
Deferred Income Taxes	1,000	100	0	1,000	0
	105,000	60	40	63,000	42,000
Total Operations & Maintenance					
Total Cost-of-Service	227,000			185,000	42,000

Step 3: Allocation of Fixed and Variable Costs to Rate Components

Allocation of fixed and variable costs to rate components is conducted only for transportation services because storage service is modeled in a more simplified manner using a one-part rate. The rate design to be used within the PTS is specified by input parameters, which can be modified by the user to reflect changes in rate design over time. The PTS allocates the fixed and variable costs computed in Step 2 to rate components as specified by the rate design. For transportation service, the components of the rate consist of a reservation and a usage fee. The reservation fee is a charge assessed based on the amount of capacity reserved. It typically is a monthly fee that does not vary with throughput. The usage fee is a charge assessed for each unit of gas that moves through the system.

The actual reservation and usage fees that pipelines are allowed to charge are regulated by the Federal Energy Regulatory Commission (FERC). How costs are allocated determines the extent of differences in the rates charged for different classes of customers for different types of services. In general, if more fixed costs are allocated to usage fees, more costs are recovered based on throughput.

Costs are assigned either to the reservation fee or to the usage fee according to the rate design specified for the pipeline company. The rate design can vary among pipeline companies. Three typical rate designs are described in **Table 6-2**. The PTS provides two options for specifying the rate design. In the first option, a rate design for each pipeline company can be specified for each forecast year. This option permits different rate designs to be used for different pipeline companies while also allowing individual company rate designs to change over time. Since pipeline company data subsequently are aggregated to network arcs, the composite rate design at the arc-level is the quantity-weighted average of the pipeline company rate designs. The second option permits a global specification of the rate design, where all pipeline companies have the same rate design for a specific time period but can switch to another rate design in a different time period.

Table 6-2. Approaches to Rate Design

Modified Fixed Variable (Three-Part Rate)	**Modified Fixed Variable (Two-Part Rate)**	**Straight Fixed Variable (Two-Part Rate)**
● Two-part reservation fee. - Return on equity and related taxes are held at risk to achieving throughput targets by allocating these costs to the usage fee. Of the remaining fixed costs, 50 percent are recovered from a peak day reservation fee and 50 percent are recovered through an annual reservation fee.	● Reservation fee based on peak day requirements - all fixed costs except return on equity and related taxes recovered through this fee.	● One-part capacity reservation fee. All fixed costs are recovered through the reservation fee, which is assessed based on peak day capacity requirements.
● Variable costs allocated to the usage fee. In addition, return on equity and related taxes are also recovered through the usage fee.	● Variable costs plus return on equity and related taxes are recovered through the usage fee.	● Variable costs are recovered through the usage fee.

The allocation of fixed costs to reservation and usage fees entails multiplying each fixed cost line item of the total cost of service by the corresponding fixed cost rate design classification factor. A similar process is carried out for variable costs. This procedure is illustrated in **Tables 6-3a and 6-3b** and is generalized in the equations that follow. The classification of transportation line item costs $R_{i,f}$ and $R_{i,v}$ to reservation and usage cost is determined as follows:

$$R_{i,f,r} = ALL_{f,r} * R_{i,f} / 100 \quad (161)$$

$$R_{i,f,u} = ALL_{f,u} * R_{i,f} / 100 \quad (162)$$

$$R_{i,v,r} = ALL_{v,r} * R_{i,v} / 100 \quad (163)$$

$$R_{i,v,u} = ALL_{v,u} * R_{i,v} / 100 \quad (164)$$

Table 6-3a. Illustration of Allocation of Fixed Costs to Rate Components

Cost of Service Line Item	Total (dollars)	Allocation Factors (percent) Reservation	Usage	Cost Assigned to Rate Component (dollars) Reservation	Usage
Total Return					
Preferred Stock	1,000	100	0	0	1,000
Common Stock	30,000	100	0	0	30,000
Long-Term Debt	29,000	100	0	29,000	0
Normal Operating Expenses					
Depreciation	30,000	100	0	30,000	0
Taxes					
Federal Tax	25,000	0	100	0	25,000
State Tax	5,000	0	100	0	5,000
Other Tax	1,000	100	0	1,000	0
Deferred Income Taxes	1,000	100	0	1,000	0
Total Operations & Maintenance	63,000	100	0	63,000	0
Total Cost-of-Service	185,000			124,000	61,000

Table 6-3b. Illustration of Allocation of Variable Costs to Rate Components

Cost of Service Line Item	Total (dollars)	Allocation Factors (percent) Reservation	Usage	Cost Assigned to Rate Component (dollars) Reservation	Usage
Total Return					
Preferred Stock	0	0	100	0	0
Common Stock	0	0	100	0	0
Long-Term Debt	0	0	100	0	0
Normal Operating Expenses					
Depreciation	0	0	100	0	0
Taxes					
Federal Tax	0	0	100	0	0
State Tax	0	0	100	0	0
Other Tax	0	0	100	0	0
Deferred Income Taxes	0	0	100	0	0
Total Operations & Maintenance	42,000	0	100	0	42,000
Total Cost-of-Service	42,000			0	42,000

where,

R = line item cost (dollars)

ALL = percentage of reservation or usage line item R representing fixed or variable cost (Appendix E -- AFR, AVR, AFU=1-AFR, AVU=1-AVR)

100 = $ALL_{f,r} + ALL_{f,u}$

$100 = ALL_{v,r} + ALL_{v,u}$
i = line item number index
f = fixed cost index
v = variable cost index
r = reservation cost index
u = usage cost index

At this stage in the procedure, the line items comprising the fixed and variable cost components of the reservation and usage fees can be summed to obtain total reservation and usage components of the rates.

$$RCOST_a = \sum_i (R_{i,f,r} + R_{i,v,r}) \tag{165}$$

$$UCOST_a = \sum_i (R_{i,f,u} + R_{i,v,u}) \tag{166}$$

where,

$RCOST_a$ = total reservation cost (dollars) at the arc level
$UCOST_a$ = total usage cost (dollars) at the arc level
a = arc

After ratemaking Steps 1, 2 and 3 are completed for each arc by historical year, the rates are computed below.

Computation of Rates for Historical Years

The reservation and usage costs-of-service (RCOST and UCOST) developed above are used separately to develop two types of rates at the arc level: *variable tariffs* and *annual fixed usage fees*.

Variable Tariff Curves

Variable tariffs are proportional to reservation charges and are broken up into peak and off-peak time periods. Variable tariffs are derived directly from variable tariff curves which are developed based on reservation costs, utilization rates, annual flows, and other parameters.

In the PTS code, these variable tariff curves are defined by FUNCTION (NGPIPE_VARTAR) which is used by the ITS to compute the variable peak and off-peak tariffs by arc and by forecast year. The pipeline tariff curves are a function of peak or off-peak flow and are specified using a base point [price and quantity (PNOD, QNOD)] and an assumed price elasticity, as follows:

$$NGPIPE\_VARTAR_{a,t} = PNOD_{a,t} * (Q_{a,t} / QNOD_{a,t})^{ALPHA\_PIPE} \tag{167}$$

such that,

For peak transmission tariffs:

$$PNOD_{a,t} = \frac{RCOST_{a,t} * PKSHR\_YR}{(QNOD_{a,t} * MC\_PCWGDP_t)} \tag{168}$$

$$QNOD_{a,t} = PT\,NETFLOW_{a,t} \tag{169}$$

For off-peak transmission tariffs:

$$PNOD_{a,t} = \frac{RCOST_{a,t} * (1.0 - PKSHR\_YR)}{(QNOD_{a,t} * MC\_PCWGDP_t)} \tag{170}$$

$$QNOD_{a,t} = PT\,NETFLOW_{a,t} \tag{171}$$

where,

$NGPIPE\_VARTAR_{a,t}$	=	function to define pipeline tariffs (87$/Mcf)
$PNOD_{a,t}$	=	base point, price (87$/Mcf)
$QNOD_{a,t}$	=	base point, quantity (Bcf)
$Q_{a,t}$	=	flow along pipeline arc (Bcf), dependent variable for the function
ALPHA_PIPE	=	price elasticity for pipeline tariff curve for current capacity
$RCOST_{a,t}$	=	reservation cost-of-service (dollars)
$PTNETFLOW_{a,t}$	=	natural gas network flow (throughput, Bcf)
PKSHR_YR	=	portion of the year represented by the peak season (fraction)
MC_PCWGDP_t	=	GDP chain-type price deflator (from the Macroeconomic Activity Module)
a	=	arc
t	=	historical year

Annual Fixed Usage Fees

The annual fixed usage fees (volumetric charges) are derived directly from the usage costs, utilization rates for peak and off-peak time periods, and annual arc capacity. These fees are computed as the average fees over each historical year, as follows:

$$FIXTAR_{a,t} = UCOST_{a,t} / [(PKSHR\_YR * PTPKUTZ_{a,t} * PTCURPCAP_{a,t} + (1.0 - PKSHR\_YR) * PTOPUTZ_{a,t} * PTCURPCAP_{a,t}) * MC\_PCWGDP_t] \tag{172}$$

where,

$FIXTAR_{a,t}$	=	annual fixed usage fees for existing and new capacity (87$/Mcf)
$UCOST_{a,t}$	=	annual usage cost of service for existing and new capacity (dollars)

$PKSHR\_YR$ = portion of the year represented by the peak season (fraction)
$PTPKUTZ_{a,t}$ = peak pipeline utilization (fraction)
$PTCURPCAP_{a,t}$ = current pipeline capacity (Bcf)
$PTOPUTZ_{a,t}$ = off-peak pipeline utilization (fraction)
MC_PCWGDP_t = GDP chain-type price deflator (from the Macroeconomic Activity Module)
a = arc
t = historical year

Canadian Tariffs

In the historical year phase, Canadian tariffs are set to the historical differences between the import prices and the Western Canada Sedimentary Basin (WCSB) wellhead price.

Computation of Storage Rates

The annual storage tariff for each NGTDM region and year is defined as a function of storage flow and is specified using a base point [price and quantity (PNOD, QNOD)] and an assumed price elasticity, as follows:

$$X1NGSTR\_VARTAR_{r,t} = PNOD_{r,t} * (Q_{r,t} / QNOD_{r,t})^{ALPHA\_STR} \tag{173}$$

such that,

$$PNOD_{r,t} = \frac{STCOS_{r,t}}{(MC\_PCWGDP_t * QNOD_{r,t} * 1{,}000{,}000.)} * STRATIO_{r,t} * STCAP\_ADJ_{r,t} * ADJ\_STR \tag{174}$$

$$QNOD_{r,t} = PTCURPSTR_{r,t} * PTSTUTZ_{r,t} \tag{175}$$

where,

$X1NGSTR\_VARTAR_{r,t}$ = function to define storage tariffs (87$/Mcf)
$Q_{r,t}$ = peak period net storage withdrawals (Bcf)
$PNOD_{r,t}$ = base point, price (87$/Mcf)
$QNOD_{r,t}$ = base point, quantity (Bcf)
$ALPHA\_STR$ = price elasticity for storage tariff curve (ratio, Appendix E)

$STCOS_{r,t}$ = existing storage capacity cost of service, computed from historical cost-of-service components
MC_PCWGDP_t = GDP chain-type price deflator (from the Macroeconomic Activity Module)
$STRATIO_{r,t}$ = portion of revenue requirement obtained by moving gas from the off-peak to the peak period (fraction, Appendix E)
$STCAP\_ADJ_{r,t}$ = adjustment factor for the cost of service to total U.S. (ratio), defined as annual storage working gas capacity divided by

Foster storage working gas capacity

ADJ_STR = storage tariff curve adjustment factor (fraction, Appendix E)

$PTSTUTZ_{r,t}$ = storage utilization (fraction)

$PTCURPSTR_{r,t}$ = annual storage working gas capacity (Bcf)

r = NGTDM region

t = historical year

Forecast Year Update Phase

The purpose of the forecast year update phase is to project, for each arc and subsequent year of the forecast period, the cost-of-service components that are used to develop rates for the peak and off-peak periods. For each year, the PTS forecasts the adjusted rate base, cost of capital, return on rate base, depreciation, taxes, and operation and maintenance expenses. The forecasting relationships are discussed in detail below.

After all of the components of the cost-of-service at the arc level are forecast, the PTS proceeds to: (1) classify the components of the cost of service as fixed and variable costs, (2) allocate fixed and variable costs to rate components (reservation and usage costs) based on the rate design, and (3) compute arc-specific rates (variable and fixed tariffs) for peak and off-peak periods.

Investment Costs for Generic Pipelines

The PTS projects the capital costs to expand pipeline capacity at the arc level, as opposed to determining the costs of expansion for individual pipelines. The PTS represents arc-specific generic pipelines to generate the cost of capacity expansion by arc. Thus, the PTS tracks costs attributable to capacity added during the forecast period separately from the costs attributable to facilities in service in the historical years. The PTS estimates the capital costs associated with the level of capacity expansion forecast by the ITS in the previous forecast year based on exogenously specified estimates for the average pipeline capital costs at the arc level ($AVG\_CAPCOST_a$) associated with expanding capacity for compression, looping, and new pipeline. These average capital costs per unit of expansion (2005 dollars per Mcf) were computed based on a pipeline construction project cost database[87] compiled by the Office of Oil and Gas. These costs are adjusted for inflation from 2007 throughout the forecast period (i.e., they are held constant in real terms).

The average capital cost to expand capacity on a network arc is estimated given the level of capacity additions in year t provided by the ITS and the associated assumed average unit capital cost. This average unit capital cost represents the investment cost for a generic pipeline associated with a given arc, as follows:

$$CCOST_{a,t} = AVG\_CAPCOST_a * MC\_PCWGDP_t / MC\_PCWGDP_{2000} \qquad (176)$$

[87] A spreadsheet compiled by James Tobin of EIA's Office of Oil and Gas containing historical and proposed state-to-state pipeline construction project costs, mileage, and capacity levels and additions by year from 1996 to 2011, by pipeline company (data as of August 16, 2007).

where,

$CCOST_{a,t}$ = average pipeline capital cost per unit of expanded capacity (nominal dollars per Mcf)
$AVG\_CAPCOST_a$ = average pipeline capital cost per unit of expanded capacity in 2000 dollars per Mcf (Appendix E, AVGCOST)
MC_PCWGDP_t = GDP chain-type price deflator (from the Macroeconomic Activity Module)
a = arc
t = forecast year

The new capacity expansion expenditures allowed in the rate base within a forecast year are derived from the above average unit capital cost and the amount of incremental capacity additions determined by the ITS for each arc, as follows:

$$NCAE_{a,t} = CCOST_{a,t} * CAPADD_{a,t} * 1{,}000{,}000 * (1 + PCNT\_R) \qquad (177)$$

where,

$NCAE_{a,t}$ = capital cost to expand capacity on a network arc (dollars)
$CCOST_{a,t}$ = average capital cost per unit of expansion (dollars per Mcf)
$CAPADD_{a,t}$ = capacity additions for an arc as determined in the ITS (Bcf/yr)
PCNT_R = assumed average percentage (fraction) for pipeline replacement costs (Appendix E)
t = forecast year

To account for additional costs due to pipeline replacements, the PTS increases the capital costs to expand capacity by a small percentage (PCNT_R). Once the capital cost of new plant in service is computed by arc in year t, this amount is used in an accounting algorithm for the computation of gross plant in service for new capacity expansion, along with its depreciation, depletion, and amortization. These will in turn be used in the computation of updated cost-of-service components for the existing and new capacity for an arc.

Forecasting Cost-of-Service [88]

The primary purpose in forecasting cost-of-service is to capture major changes in the composition of the revenue requirements and major changes in cost trends through the forecast period. These changes may be caused by capacity expansion or maintenance and life extension of nearly depreciated plants, as well as by changes in the cost and availability of capital.

The projection of the cost-of-service is approached from the viewpoint of a long-run marginal cost analysis for gas pipeline systems. This differs from the determination of cost-of-service for the purpose of a rate case. Costs that are viewed as fixed for the purposes of a rate case actually vary in the long-run with one or more external measures of size or activity levels in the industry. For example, capital investments for replacement and refurbishment of existing facilities are a long-run marginal cost of the pipeline system. Once in place,

[88] All cost components in the forecast equations in this section are in nominal dollars, unless explicitly stated otherwise.

however, the capital investments are viewed as fixed costs for the purposes of rate cases. The same is true of operations and maintenance expenses that, except for short-run variable costs such as fuel, are most commonly classified as fixed costs in rate cases. For example, customer expenses logically vary over time based on the number of customers served and the cost of serving each customer. The unit cost of serving each customer, itself, depends on changes in the rate base and individual cost-of-service components, the extent and/or complexity of service provided to each customer, and the efficiency of the technology level employed in providing the service.

The long-run marginal cost approach generally projects total costs as the product of unit cost for the activity multiplied by the incidence of the activity. Unit costs are projected from cost-of-service components combined with time trends describing changes in level of service, complexity, or technology. The level of activity is projected in terms of variables external to the PTS (e.g., annual throughput) that are both logically and empirically related to the incurrence of costs. Implementation of the long-run marginal cost approach involves forecasting relationships developed through empirical studies of historical change in pipeline costs, accounting algorithms, exogenous assumptions, and inputs from other NEMS modules. These forecasting algorithms may be classified into three distinct areas, as follows:

- The projection of adjusted rate base and cost of capital for the combined existing and new capacity.
- The projection of components of the revenue requirements.
- The computation of variable and fixed rates for peak and off-peak periods.

The empirically derived forecasting algorithms discussed below are determined for each network arc.

Projection of Adjusted Rate Base and Cost of Capital

The approach for projecting adjusted rate base and cost of capital at the arc level is summarized in **Table 6-4**. Long-run marginal capital costs of pipeline companies reflect changes in the AA utility bond index rate. Once projected, the adjusted rate base is translated into capital-related components of the revenue requirements based on projections of the cost of capital, total operating and maintenance expenses, and algorithms for depreciation and tax effects.

The projected adjusted rate base for the combined existing and new pipelines at the arc level in year t is computed as the amount of gross plant in service in year t minus previous year's accumulated depreciation, depletion, and amortization plus total cash working capital minus accumulated deferred income taxes in year t.

$$APRB_{a,t} = GPIS_{a,t} - ADDA_{a,t-1} + CWC_{a,t} - ADIT_{a,t} \qquad (178)$$

where,

$APRB_{a,t}$ = adjusted rate base in dollars
$GPIS_{a,t}$ = total capital cost of plant in service (gross plant in service) in dollars

Table 6-4. Approach to Projection of Rate Base and Capital Costs

Projection Component	Approach
1. Adjusted Rate Base	
a. Gross plant in service in year t	
I. Capital cost of existing plant in service	Gross plant in service in the last historical year (2006)
II. Capacity expansion costs for new capacity	Accounting algorithm [equation 180]
b. Accumulated Depreciation, Depletion & Amortization	Accounting algorithm [equations 186, 187, 189] and empirically estimated for existing capacity [equation 188]
c. Cash and other working capital	User defined option for the combined existing and new capacity [equation 190]
d. Accumulated deferred income taxes	Empirically estimated for the combined existing and new capacity [equation 141]
f. Depreciation, depletion, and amortization	Existing Capacity: empirically estimated [equation 188] New Capacity: accounting algorithm [equation 189]
2. Cost of Capital	
a. Long-term debt rate	Projected AA utility bond yields adjusted by historical average deviation constant for long-term debt rate
b. Preferred equity rate	Projected AA utility bond yields adjusted by historical average deviation constant for preferred equity rate
c. Common equity return	Projected AA utility bond yields adjusted by historical average deviation constant for common equity return
3. Capital Structure	Held constant at average historical values

$ADDA_{a,t}$ = accumulated depreciation, depletion, and amortization in dollars
$CWC_{a,t}$ = total cash working capital including other cash working capital in dollars
$ADIT_{a,t}$ = accumulated deferred income taxes in dollars
a = arc
t = forecast year

All the variables in the above equation represent the aggregate variables for all interstate pipelines associated with an arc. The aggregate variables on the right hand side of the adjusted rate base equation are forecast by the equations below. First, total (existing and new) gross plant in service in the forecast year is determined as the sum of existing gross plant in service and new capacity expansion expenditures added to existing gross plant in service. New capacity expansion can be compression, looping, and new pipelines. For simplification, the replacement, refurbishment, retirement, and cost associated with new facilities for complying with Order 636 are not accounted for in projecting total gross plant in service in year t. Total gross plant in service for a network arc is forecast as follows:

$$GPIS_{a,t} = GPIS\_E_{a,t} + GPIS\_N_{a,t} \tag{179}$$

where,

$GPIS_{a,t}$ = total capital cost of plant in service (gross plant in service) in dollars
$GPIS\_E_{a,t}$ = gross plant in service in the last historical year (2006)
$GPIS\_N_{a,t}$ = capital cost of new plant in service in dollars
a = arc
t = forecast year

In the above equation, the capital cost of existing plant in service ($GPIS\_E_{a,t}$) reflects the amount of gross plant in service in the last historical year (2006). The capital cost of new plant in service ($GPIS\_N_{a,t}$) in year t is computed as the accumulated new capacity expansion expenditures from 2007 to year t and is determined by the following equation:

$$GPIS\_N_{a,t} = \sum_{s=2004}^{t} NCAE_{a,s} \tag{180}$$

where,

$GPIS\_N_{a,t}$ = gross plant in service for new capacity expansion in dollars
$NCAE_{a,s}$ = new capacity expansion expenditures occurring in year s after 2006 (in dollars) [equation 177]
s = the year new expansion occurred
a = arc
t = forecast year

Next, net plant in service in year t is determined as the difference between total capital cost of plant in service (gross plant in service) in year t and previous year's accumulated depreciation, depletion, and amortization.

$$NPIS_{a,t} = GPIS_{a,t} - ADDA_{a,t-1} \tag{181}$$

where,

$NPIS_{a,t}$ = total net plant in service in dollars
$GPIS_{a,t}$ = total capital cost of plant in service (gross plant in service) in dollars
$ADDA_{a,t}$ = accumulated depreciation, depletion, and amortization in dollars
a = arc
t = forecast year

Accumulated depreciation, depletion, and amortization for the combined existing and new capacity in year t is determined by the following equation:

$$ADDA_{a,t} = ADDA\_E_{a,t} + ADDA\_N_{a,t} \tag{182}$$

where,

$ADDA_{a,t}$ = accumulated depreciation, depletion, and amortization in dollars
$ADDA\_E_{a,t}$ = accumulated depreciation, depletion, and amortization for existing capacity in dollars
$ADDA\_N_{a,t}$ = accumulated depreciation, depletion, and amortization for new capacity in dollars
a = arc
t = forecast year

With this and the relationship between the capital costs of existing and new plants in service from equation 179, total net plant in service ($NPIS_{a,t}$) is set equal to the sum of net plant in service for existing pipelines and new capacity expansions, as follows:

$$NPIS_{a,t} = NPIS\_E_{a,t} + NPIS\_N_{a,t} \quad (183)$$

$$NPIS\_E_{a,t} = GPIS\_E_{a,t} - ADDA\_E_{a,t-1} \quad (184)$$

$$NPIS\_N_{a,t} = GPIS\_N_{a,t} - ADDA\_N_{a,t-1} \quad (185)$$

where,

$NPIS_{a,t}$ = total net plant in service in dollars
$NPIS\_E_{a,t}$ = net plant in service for existing capacity in dollars
$NPIS\_N_{a,t}$ = net plant in service for new capacity in dollars
$GPIS\_E_{a,t}$ = gross plant in service in the last historical year (2006)
$ADDA\_E_{a,t}$ = accumulated depreciation, depletion, and amortization for existing capacity in dollars
$ADDA\_N_{a,t}$ = accumulated depreciation, depletion, and amortization for new capacity in dollars
GPIS_N = gross plant in service for new capacity in dollars
a = arc
t = forecast year

Accumulated depreciation, depletion, and amortization for a network arc in year t is determined as the sum of previous year's accumulated depreciation, depletion, and amortization and current year's depreciation, depletion, and amortization.

$$ADDA_{a,t} = ADDA_{a,t-1} + DDA_{a,t} \quad (186)$$

where,

$ADDA_{a,t}$ = accumulated depreciation, depletion, and amortization in dollars
$DDA_{a,t}$ = annual depreciation, depletion, and amortization costs in dollars
a = arc
t = forecast year

Annual depreciation, depletion, and amortization for a network arc in year t equal the sum of depreciation, depletion, and amortization for the combined existing and new capacity associated with the arc.

$$DDA_{a,t} = DDA\_E_{a,t} + DDA\_N_{a,t} \tag{187}$$

where,

$DDA_{a,t}$ = annual depreciation, depletion, and amortization in dollars
$DDA\_E_{a,t}$ = depreciation, depletion, and amortization costs for existing capacity in dollars
$DDA\_N_{a,t}$ = depreciation, depletion, and amortization costs for new capacity in dollars
a = arc
t = forecast year

A regression equation is used to determine the annual depreciation, depletion, and amortization for existing capacity associated with an arc, while an accounting algorithm is used for new capacity. For existing capacity, this expense is forecast as follows:

$$DDA\_E_{a,t} = \beta_{0,a} + \beta_1 * NPIS\_E_{a,t-1} + \beta_2 * NEWCAP\_E_{a,t} \tag{188}$$

where,

$DDA\_E_{a,t}$ = annual depreciation, depletion, and amortization costs for existing capacity in nominal dollars
$\beta_{0,a}$ = DDA_C_a, constant term estimated by arc (Appendix F, Table F3.3, $\beta_{0,a} = B\_ARC_{xx\_yy}$)
β_1 = DDA_NPIS, estimated coefficient for net plant in service for existing capacity (Appendix F, Table F3.3)
β_2 = DDA_NEWCAP, estimated coefficient for the change in gross plant in service for existing capacity (Appendix F, Table F3.3)
$NPIS\_E_{a,t}$ = net plant in service for existing capacity (dollars)
$NEWCAP\_E_{a,t}$ = change in gross plant in service for existing capacity between t and t-1 (dollars)
a = arc
t = forecast year

The accounting algorithm used to define the annual depreciation, depletion, and amortization for new capacity assumes straight-line depreciation over a 30-year life, as follows:

$$DDA\_N_{a,t} = GPIS\_N_{a,t} / 30 \tag{189}$$

where,

$DDA\_N_{a,t}$ = annual depreciation, depletion, and amortization for new capacity in dollars
$GPIS\_N_{a,t}$ = gross plant in service for new capacity in dollars [equation 180]
30 = 30 years of plant life
a = arc
t = forecast year

Next, total cash working capital ($CWC_{a,t}$) for the combined existing and new capacity by arc in the adjusted rate base equation consists of cash working capital, material and supplies, and other components that vary by company. Total cash working capital for pipeline transmission for existing and new capacity at the arc level is deflated using the chain weighted GDP price index with 2005 as a base. This level of cash working capital ($R\_CWC_{a,t}$) is determined using a log-linear specification with correction for serial correlation given the economies in cash management in gas transmission. The estimated equation used for R_CWC (Appendix F, Table F3) is determined as a function of total operation and maintenance expenses, as defined below:

$$R\_CWC_{a,t} = CWC\_K * e^{(\beta_{0,a}*(1-\rho)+CWC\_TOM*\log(R\_TOM_{a,t})+\rho*\log(R\_CWC_{a,t-1})-\rho*CWC\_TOM*\log(R\_TOM_{a,t-1}))} \tag{190}$$

where,

$R\_CWC_{a,t}$ = total pipeline transmission cash working capital for existing and new capacity (2005 real dollars)
$\beta_{0,a}$ = CWC_C_a, estimated arc specific constant for gas transported from node to node (Appendix F, Table F3.2, $\beta_{0,a} = B\_ARC_{xx\_yy}$)
CWC_TOM = estimated R_TOM coefficient (Appendix F, Table F3.2)
$R\_TOM_{a,t}$ = total operation and maintenance expenses in 2005 real dollars
CWC_K = correction factor estimated in stage 2 of the regression equation estimation process (Appendix F, Table F3)
ρ = autocorrelation coefficient from estimation (Appendix F, Table F3.2 -- CWC_RHO)
a = arc
t = forecast year

Last, the level of accumulated deferred income taxes for the combined existing and new capacity on a network arc in year t in the adjusted rate base equation depends on income tax regulations in effect, differences in tax and book depreciation, and the time vintage of past construction. The level of accumulated deferred income taxes for the combined existing and new capacity is derived as follows:

$$\begin{aligned} ADIT_{a,t} = \beta_{0,a} + \beta_1 * \ NEWCAP_{a,t} + \beta_2 * \ NEWCAP_{a,t} + \\ \beta_3 * \ NEWCAP_{a,t} + ADIT_{a,t-1} \end{aligned} \tag{191}$$

where,

$ADIT_{a,t}$ = accumulated deferred income taxes in dollars
$\beta_{0,a}$ = ADIT_Ca, constant term estimated by arc (Appendix F, Table F3.5, $\beta_{0,a} = B\_ARC_{xx\_yy}$)
β_1 = BNEWCAP_PRE2003, estimated coefficient on the change in gross plant in service in the pre-2003 period because of changes in tax policy in 2003 and 2004 (Appendix F, Table F3.5). It is zero otherwise.
β_2 = BNEWCAP_2003_2004, estimated coefficient on the change in gross plant in service for the years 2003/2004 because of changes in tax policy in 2003 and 2004 (Appendix F, Table F3.5). It is zero otherwise.

β_3 = BNEWCAP_POST2004, estimated coefficient on the change in gross plant in service in the post-2004 period because of changes in tax policy in 2003 and 2004 (Appendix F, Table F3.5). It is zero otherwise.

$NEWCAP_{a,t}$ = change in gross plant in service for the combined existing and new capacity between years t and t-1 (in dollars)

a = arc

t = forecast year

Cost of capital. The capital-related components of the revenue requirement at the arc level depend upon the size of the adjusted rate base and the cost of capital to the pipeline companies associated with that arc. In turn, the company level costs of capital depend upon the rates of return on debt, preferred stock and common equity, and the amounts of debt and equity in the overall capitalization. Cost of capital for a company is the weighted average after-tax rate of return (WAROR) which is a function of long-term debt, preferred stock, and common equity. The rate of return variables for preferred stock, common equity, and debt are related to forecast macroeconomic variables. For the combined existing and new capacity at the arc level, it is assumed that these rates will vary as a function of the yield on AA utility bonds (provided by the Macroeconomic Activity Module as a percent) in year t adjusted by a historical average deviation constant, as follows:

$$PFER_{a,t} = MC\_RMPUAANS_t / 100.0 + ADJ\_PFER_a \tag{192}$$

$$CMER_{a,t} = MC\_RMPUAANS_t / 100.0 + ADJ\_CMER_a \tag{193}$$

$$LTDR_{a,t} = MC\_RMPUAANS_t / 100.0 + ADJ\_LTDR_a \tag{194}$$

where,

$PFER_{a,t}$ = rate of return for preferred stock

$CMER_{a,t}$ = common equity rate of return

$LTDR_{a,t}$ = long-term debt rate

$MC\_RMPUAANS_t$ = AA utility bond index rate provided by the Macroeconomic Activity Module (MC_RMCORPPUAA, percentage)

ADJ_PFER_a = historical average deviation constant (fraction) for rate of return for preferred stock (1994-2003, over 28 major gas pipeline companies) (D_PFER/100., Appendix E)

ADJ_CMER_a = historical average deviation constant (fraction) for rate of return for common equity (1994-2003, over 28 major gas pipeline companies) (D_CMER/100., Appendix E)

ADJ_LTDR_a = historical average deviation constant (fraction) for long term debt rate (1994-2003, over 28 major gas pipeline companies) (D_LTDR/100., Appendix E)

a = arc

t = forecast year

The weighted average cost of capital in the forecast year is computed as the sum of the capital-weighted rates of return for preferred stock, common equity, and debt, as follows:

$$WAROR_{a,t} = \frac{(PFER_{a,t} * PFES_{a,t}) + (CMER_{a,t} * CMES_{a,t}) + (LTDR_{a,t} * LTDS_{a,t})}{TOTCAP_{a,t}} \quad (195)$$

$$TOTCAP_{a,t} = (PFES_{a,t} + CMES_{a,t} + LTDS_{a,t}) \quad (196)$$

where,

$WAROR_{a,t}$	=	weighted-average after-tax rate of return on capital (fraction)
$PFER_{a,t}$	=	rate or return for preferred stock (fraction)
$PFES_{a,t}$	=	value of preferred stock (dollars)
$CMER_{a,t}$	=	common equity rate of return (fraction)
$CMES_{a,t}$	=	value of common stock (dollars)
$LTDR_{a,t}$	=	long-term debt rate (fraction)
$LTDS_{a,t}$	=	value of long-term debt (dollars)
$TOTCAP_{a,t}$	=	sum of the value of long-term debt, preferred stock, and common stock equity dollars)
a	=	arc
t	=	forecast year

The above equation can be written as a function of the rates of return and capital structure ratios as follows:

$$WAROR_{a,t} = (PFER_{a,t} * GPFESTR_{a,t}) + (CMER_{a,t} * GCMESTR_{a,t}) + (LTDR_{a,t} * GLTDSTR_{a,t}) \quad (197)$$

where,

$$GPFESTR_{a,t} = PFES_{a,t} / TOTCAP_{a,t} \quad (198)$$

$$GCMESTR_{a,t} = CMES_{a,t} / TOTCAP_{a,t} \quad (199)$$

$$GLTDSTR_{a,t} = LTDS_{a,t} / TOTCAP_{a,t} \quad (200)$$

and,

$WAROR_{a,t}$	=	weighted-average after-tax rate of return on capital (fraction)
$PFER_{a,t}$	=	coupon rate for preferred stock (fraction)
$CMER_{a,t}$	=	common equity rate of return (fraction)
$LTDR_{a,t}$	=	long-term debt rate (fraction)
$GPFESTR_{a}$	=	ratio of preferred stock to estimated capital for existing and new capacity (fraction) [referred to as capital structure for preferred stock]
$GCMESTR_{a}$	=	ratio of common stock to estimated capital for existing and new capacity (fraction)[referred to as capital structure for common stock]
$GLTDSTR_{a}$	=	ratio of long term debt to estimated capital for existing and new capacity (fraction)[referred to as capital structure for long term debt]
$PFES_{a,t}$	=	value of preferred stock (dollars)
$CMES_{a,t}$	=	value of common stock (dollars)
$LTDS_{a,t}$	=	value of long-term debt (dollars)

$TOTCAP_{a,t}$ = estimated capital equal to the sum of the value of preferred stock, common stock equity, and long-term debt (dollars)
a = arc
t = forecast year

In the financial database, the estimated capital for each interstate pipeline is by definition equal to its adjusted rate base. Hence, the estimated capital ($TOTCAP_{a,t}$) defined in equation 196 is equal to the adjusted rate base ($APRB_{a,t}$) defined in equation 178:

$$TOTCAP_{a,t} = APRB_{a,t} \tag{201}$$

where,

$TOTCAP_{a,t}$ = estimated capital in dollars
$APRB_{a,t}$ = adjusted rate base in dollars
a = arc
t = forecast year

Substituting the adjusted rate base variable $APRB_{a,t}$ for the estimated capital $TOTCAP_{a,t}$ in equations 198 to 200, the values of preferred stock, common stock, and long term debt by arc can be derived as functions of the capital structure ratios and the adjusted rate base. Capital structure is the percent of total capitalization (adjusted rate base) represented by each of the three capital components: preferred equity, common equity, and long-term debt. The percentages of total capitalization due to common stock, preferred stock, and long-term debt are considered fixed throughout the forecast. Assuming that the total capitalization fractions remain the same over the forecast horizon, the values of preferred stock, common stock, and long-term debt can be derived as follows:

$$\begin{aligned} PFES_{a,t} &= GPFESTR_a * APRB_{a,t} \\ CMES_{a,t} &= GCMESTR_a * APRB_{a,t} \\ LTDS_{a,t} &= GLTDSTR_a * APRB_{a,t} \end{aligned} \tag{202}$$

where,

$PFES_{a,t}$ = value of preferred stock in nominal dollars
$CMES_{a,t}$ = value of common equity in nominal dollars
$LTDS_{a,t}$ = long-term debt in nominal dollars
$GPFESTR_a$ = ratio of preferred stock to adjusted rate base for existing and new capacity (fraction) [referred to as capital structure for preferred stock]
$GCMESTR_a$ = ratio of common stock to adjusted rate base for existing and new capacity (fraction)[referred to as capital structure for common stock]
$GLTDSTR_a$ = ratio of long term debt to adjusted rate base for existing and new capacity (fraction)[referred to as capital structure for long term debt]
$APRB_{a,t}$ = adjusted pipeline rate base (dollars)
a = arc
t = forecast year

In the forecast year update phase, the capital structures ($GPFESTR_a$, $GCMESTR_a$, and $GLTDSTR_a$) at the arc level in the above equations are held constant over the forecast period. They are defined below as the average adjusted rate base weighted capital structures over all pipelines associated with an arc and over the historical time period (1997-2006).

$$GPFESTR_a = \frac{\sum_{t=1997}^{2006} \sum_{p} (GPFESTR_{a,p,t} * APRB_{a,p,t})}{\sum_{t=1997}^{2006} \sum_{p} APRB_{a,p,t}} \tag{203}$$

$$GCMESTR_a = \frac{\sum_{t=1997}^{2006} \sum_{p} (GCMESTR_{a,p,t} * APRB_{a,p,t})}{\sum_{t=1997}^{2006} \sum_{p} APRB_{a,p,t}} \tag{204}$$

$$GLTDSTR_a = \frac{\sum_{t=1997}^{2006} \sum_{p} (GLTDSTR_{a,p,t} * APRB_{a,p,t})}{\sum_{t=1997}^{2006} \sum_{p} APRB_{a,p,t}} \tag{205}$$

where,

$GPFESTR_a$	=	historical average capital structure for preferred stock for existing and new capacity (fraction), held constant over the forecast period
$GCMESTR_a$	=	historical average capital structure for common stock for existing and new capacity (fraction), held constant over the forecast period
$GLTDSTR_a$	=	historical average capital structure for long term debt for existing and new capacity (fraction), held constant over the forecast period
$GPFESTR_{a,p,t}$	=	capital structure for preferred stock (fraction) by pipeline company in the historical years (1997-2006) (Appendix E, D_PFES)
$GCMESTR_{a,p,t}$	=	capital structure for common stock (fraction) by pipeline company in the historical years (1997-2006) (Appendix E, D_CMES)
$GLTDSTR_{a,p,t}$	=	capital structure for long term debt (fraction) by pipeline company in the historical years (1997-2006) (Appendix E,D_LTDS)
$APRB_{a,p,t}$	=	adjusted rate base (capitalization) by pipeline company in the historical years (1997-2006) (Appendix E, D_APRB)
p	=	pipeline company
a	=	arc
t	=	historical year

The weighted average cost of capital in the forecast year in equation 197 is forecast as follows:

$$WAROR_{a,t} = (PFER_{a,t} * GPFESTR_a) + (CMER_{a,t} * GCMESTR_a) + (LTDR_{a,t} * GLTDSTR_a) \tag{206}$$

where,

$WAROR_{a,t}$	=	weighted-average after-tax rate of return on capital (fraction)
$PFER_{a,t}$	=	coupon rate for preferred stock (fraction), function of AA utility bond rate [equation 192]
$CMER_{a,t}$	=	common equity rate of return (fraction), function of AA utility bond rate [equation 193]
$LTDR_{a,t}$	=	long-term debt rate (fraction), function of AA utility bond rate [equation 194]
$GPFESTR_a$	=	historical average capital structure for preferred stock for existing and new capacity (fraction), held constant over the forecast period
$GCMESTR_a$	=	historical average capital structure for common stock for existing and new capacity (fraction), held constant over the forecast period
$GLTDSTR_a$	=	historical average capital structure for long term debt for existing and new capacity (fraction), held constant over the forecast period
a	=	arc
t	=	forecast year

The weighted-average after-tax rate of return on capital ($WAROR_{a,t}$) is applied to the adjusted rate base ($APRB_{a,t}$) to project the total return on rate base (after taxes), also known as the after-tax operating income, which is a major component of the revenue requirement.

Projection of Revenue Requirement Components

The approach to the projection of revenue requirement components is summarized in **Table 6-5**. Given the rate base, rates of return, and capitalization structure projections discussed above, the revenue requirement components are relatively straightforward to project. The capital-related components include total return on rate base (after taxes); Federal and State income taxes; deferred income taxes; other taxes; and depreciation, depletion, and amortization costs. Other components include total operating and maintenance expenses, and regulatory amortization, which is small and thus assumed to be negligible in the forecast period. The total operating and maintenance expense variable includes expenses for transmission of gas for others; administrative and general expenses; and sales, customer accounts and other expenses. The total cost of service (revenue requirement) at the arc level for a forecast year is determined as follows:

$$TCOS_{a,t} = TRRB_{a,t} + DDA_{a,t} + TOTAX_{a,t} + TOM_{a,t} \tag{207}$$

where,

Table 6-5. Approach to Projection of Revenue Requirements

Projection Component	Approach
1. Capital-Related Costs	
a. Total return on rate base	Direct calculation from projected rate base and rates of return
b. Federal/State income taxes	Accounting algorithms based on tax rates
c. Deferred income taxes	Difference in the accumulated deferred income taxes between years t and t-1
2. Depreciation, Depletion, and Amortization	Estimated equation and accounting algorithm
3. Total Operating and Maintenance Expenses	Estimated equation
4. Other Taxes	Previous year's other taxes adjusted to inflation rate and growth in capacity

$TCOS_{a,t}$ = total cost-of-service or revenue requirement for existing and new capacity (dollars)
$TRRB_{a,t}$ = total return on rate base for existing and new capacity after taxes (dollars)
$DDA_{a,t}$ = depreciation, depletion, and amortization for existing and new capacity (dollars)
$TOTAX_{a,t}$ = total Federal and State income tax liability for existing and new capacity (dollars)
$TOM_{a,t}$ = total operating and maintenance expenses for existing and new capacity (dollars)
a = arc
t = forecast year

The total return on rate base for existing and new capacity is computed from the projected weighted cost of capital and estimated rate base, as follows:

$$TRRB_{a,t} = WAROR_{a,t} * APRB_{a,t} \tag{208}$$

where,

$TRRB_{a,t}$ = total return on rate base (after taxes) for existing and new capacity in dollars
$WAROR_{a,t}$ = weighted-average after-tax rate of return on capital for existing and new capacity (fraction)
$APRB_{a,t}$ = adjusted pipeline rate base for existing and new capacity in dollars
a = arc
t = forecast year

The return on rate base for existing and new capacity on an arc can be broken out into the three components:

$$PFEN_{a,t} = GPFESTR_a * PFER_{a,t} * APRB_{a,t} \quad (209)$$

$$CMEN_{a,t} = GCMESTR_a * CMER_{a,t} * APRB_{a,t} \quad (210)$$

$$LTDN_{a,t} = GLTDSTR_a * LTDR_{a,t} * APRB_{a,t} \quad (211)$$

where,

$PFEN_{a,t}$ = total return on preferred stock for existing and new capacity (dollars)
$GPFESTR_a$ = historical average capital structure for preferred stock for existing and new capacity (fraction), held constant over the forecast period
$PFER_{a,t}$ = coupon rate for preferred stock for existing and new capacity (fraction)
$APRB_{a,t}$ = adjusted rate base for existing and new capacity (dollars)
$CMEN_{a,t}$ = total return on common stock equity for existing and new capacity (dollars)
$GCMESTR_a$ = historical average capital structure for common stock for existing and new capacity (fraction), held constant over the forecast period
$CMER_{a,t}$ = common equity rate of return for existing and new capacity (fraction)
$LTDN_{a,t}$ = total return on long-term debt for existing and new capacity (dollars)
$GLTDSTR_a$ = historical average capital structure ratio for long term debt for existing and new capacity (fraction), held constant over the forecast period
$LTDR_{a,t}$ = long-term debt rate for existing and new capacity (fraction)
a = arc
t = forecast year

Next, annual depreciation, depletion, and amortization $DDA_{a,t}$ for a network arc in year t is calculated as the sum of depreciation, depletion, and amortization for the combined existing and new capacity associated with the arc. $DDA_{a,t}$ is defined earlier in equation 187.

Next, total taxes consist of Federal income taxes, State income taxes, deferred income taxes, and other taxes. Federal income taxes and State income taxes are calculated using average tax rates. The equation for total taxes is as follows:

$$TOTAX_{a,t} = FSIT_{a,t} + DIT_{a,t} + OTTAX_{a,t} \quad (212)$$

$$FSIT_{a,t} = FIT_{a,t} + SIT_{a,t} \quad (213)$$

where,

$TOTAX_{a,t}$ = total Federal and State income tax liability for existing and new capacity (dollars)
$FSIT_{a,t}$ = Federal and State income tax for existing and new capacity (dollars)
$FIT_{a,t}$ = Federal income tax for existing and new capacity (dollars)

$SIT_{a,t}$ = State income tax for existing and new capacity (dollars)
$DIT_{a,t}$ = deferred income taxes for existing and new capacity (dollars)
$OTTAX_{a,t}$ = all other Federal, State, or local taxes for existing and new capacity (dollars)
a = arc
t = forecast year

Federal income taxes are derived from returns to common stock equity and preferred stock (after-tax profit) and the Federal tax rate. The after-tax profit is determined as follows:

$$ATP_{a,t} = APRB_{a,t} * (PFER_{a,t} * GPFESTR_a + CMER_{a,t} * GCMESTR_a) \qquad (214)$$

where,

$ATP_{a,t}$ = after-tax profit for existing and new capacity (dollars)
$APRB_{a,t}$ = adjusted pipeline rate base for existing and new capacity (dollars)
$PFER_{a,t}$ = coupon rate for preferred stock for existing and new capacity (fraction)
$GPFESTR_a$ = historical average capital structure for preferred stock for existing and new capacity (fraction), held constant over the forecast period
$CMER_{a,t}$ = common equity rate of return for existing and new capacity (fraction)
$GCMESTR_a$ = historical average capital structure for common stock for existing and new capacity (fraction), held constant over the forecast period
a = arc
t = forecast year

and the Federal income taxes are:

$$FIT_{a,t} = (FRATE * ATP_{a,t} / 1. - FRATE) \qquad (215)$$

where,

$FIT_{a,t}$ = Federal income tax for existing and new capacity (dollars)
FRATE = Federal income tax rate (fraction, Appendix E)
$ATP_{a,t}$ = after-tax profit for existing and new capacity (dollars)
a = arc
t = forecast year

State income taxes are computed by multiplying the sum of taxable profit and the associated Federal income tax by a weighted-average State tax rate associated with each pipeline company. The weighted-average State tax rate is based on peak service volumes in each State served by the pipeline company. State income taxes are computed as follows:

$$SIT_{a,t} = SRATE * (FIT_{a,t} + ATP_{a,t}) \qquad (216)$$

where,

$SIT_{a,t}$ = State income tax for existing and new capacity (dollars)
SRATE = average State income tax rate (fraction, Appendix E)
$FIT_{a,t}$ = Federal income tax for existing and new capacity (dollars)
$ATP_{a,t}$ = after-tax profits for existing and new capacity (dollars)
a = arc
t = forecast year

Deferred income taxes for existing and new capacity at the arc level are the differences in the accumulated deferred income taxes between year t and year t-1.

$$DIT_{a,t} = ADIT_{a,t} - ADIT_{a,t-1} \tag{217}$$

where,

$DIT_{a,t}$ = deferred income taxes for existing and new capacity (dollars)
$ADIT_{a,t}$ = accumulated deferred income taxes for existing and new capacity (dollars)
a = arc
t = forecast year

Other taxes consist of a combination of ad valorem taxes (which grow with company revenue), property taxes (which grow in proportion to gross plant), and all other taxes (assumed constant in real terms). Other taxes in year t are determined as the previous year's other taxes adjusted for inflation and capacity expansion.

$$OTTAX_{a,t} = OTTAX_{a,t-1} * EXPFAC_{a,t} * (MC\_PCWGDP_t / MC\_PCWGDP_{t-1}) \tag{218}$$

where,

$OTTAX_{a,t}$ = all other taxes assessed by Federal, State, or local governments except income taxes for existing and new capacity (dollars)
$EXPFAC_{a,t}$ = capacity expansion factor (see below)
MC_PCWGDPt = GDP chain-type price deflator (from the Macroeconomic Activity Module)
a = arc
t = forecast year

The capacity expansion factor is expressed as follows:

$$EXPFAC_{a,t} = PTCURPCAP_{a,t} / PTCURPCAP_{a,t-1} \tag{219}$$

where,

$EXPFAC_{a,t}$ = capacity expansion factor (growth in capacity)
$PTCURPCAP_{a,t}$ = current pipeline capacity (Bcf) for existing and new capacity
a = arc
t = forecast year

Last, the total operating and maintenance costs for existing and new capacity by arc ($R\_TOM_{a,t}$) are determined using a log-linear form, given the economies of scale inherent in gas transmission. The estimated equation used for R_TOM (Appendix F, Table F3) is determined as a function of gross plant in service, $GPIS_a$, a level of accumulated depreciation relative to gross plant in service, $DEPSHR_a$, and a time trend, TECHYEAR, that proxies the state of technology, as defined below:

$$R\_TOM_{a,t} = TOM\_K * e^{(\beta_{0,a} * (1-\rho) + G2 + G3 + G4 + G5 + G6 - \rho * (G7 + G8 + G4 + G9))} \quad (220)$$

where,

$R\_TOM_{a,t}$	=	total operating and maintenance cost for existing and new capacity (2005 real dollars)
TOM_K	=	correction factor estimated in stage 2 of the regression equation estimation process (Appendix F, Table F3)
$\beta_{0,a}$	=	TOM_C, constant term estimated by arc (Appendix F, Table F3.6, $\beta_{0,a} = B\_ARC_{xx\_yy}$)
G_2	=	$\beta_1 * \log(GPIS_{a,t-1})$
G_3	=	$\beta_2 * DEPSHR_{a,t-1}$
G_4	=	$\beta_3 * 2006.0$
G_5	=	$\beta_4 * (TECHYEAR-2006.0)$
G_6	=	$\rho * \log(R\_TOM_{a,t-1})$
G_7	=	$\beta_1 * \log(GPIS_{a,t-2})$
G_8	=	$\beta_2 * DEPSHR_{a,t-2}$
G_9	=	$\beta_4 * (TECHYEAR - 1.0- 2006.0)$
log	=	natural logarithm operator
ρ	=	estimated autocorrelation coefficient (Appendix F, Table F3.6 -- TOM_RHO)
β_1	=	TOM_GPIS_1, estimated coefficient on the change in gross plant in service (Appendix F, Table F3.6)
β_2	=	TOM_DEPSHR, estimated coefficient for the accumulated depreciation of the plant relative to the GPIS (Appendix F, Table F3.6)
β_3	=	TOM_BYEAR, estimated coefficient for the time trend variable TECHYEAR (Appendix F, Table F3.6)
β_4	=	TOM_BYEAR_EIA = TOM_BYEAR, estimated future rate of decline in R_TOM due to technology improvements and efficiency gains. EIA assumes that this coefficient is the same as the coefficient for the time trend variable TECHYEAR (Appendix F, Table F3.6)
$DEPSHR_{a,t}$	=	level of the accumulated depreciation of the plant relative to the gross plant in service for existing and new capacity at the beginning of year t. This variable is a proxy for the age of the capital stock.
$GPIS_{a,t}$	=	capital cost of plant in service for existing and new capacity in dollars (not deflated)
TECHYEAR	=	MODYEAR (time trend in 4 digit Julian units, the minimum value of this variable in the sample being 1997, otherwise TECHYEAR=0 if less than 1997)
a	=	arc
t	=	forecast year

For consistency the total operating and maintenance costs are converted to nominal dollars:

$$TOM_{a,t} = R\_TOM_{a,t} * \frac{MC\_PCWGDP_t}{MC\_PCWGDP_{2000}} \tag{221}$$

where,

$TOM_{a,t}$	=	total operating and maintenance costs for existing and new capacity (nominal dollars)
$R\_TOM_{a,t}$	=	total operating and maintenance costs for existing and new capacity (2005 real dollars)
MC_PCWGDP_t	=	GDP chain-type price deflator (from the Macroeconomic Activity Module)
a	=	arc
t	=	forecast year

Once all four components ($TRRB_{a,t}$, $DDA_{a,t}$, $TOTAX_{a,t}$, $TOM_{a,t}$) of the cost-of-service $TCOST_{a,t}$ of equation 207 are computed by arc in year t, each of them will be disaggregated into fixed and variable costs which in turn will be disaggregated further into reservation and usage costs using the allocation factors for a straight fixed variable (SFV) rate design summarized in **Table 6-6**.[89] Note that the return on rate base ($TRRB_{a,t}$) has three components ($PFEN_{a,t}$, $CMEN_{a,t}$, and $LTDN_{a,t}$ [equations 209, 210, and 211]).

Disaggregation of Cost-of-Service Components into Fixed and Variable Costs

Let $Item_{i,a,t}$ be a cost-of-service component (i=cost component index, a=arc, and t=forecast year). Using the first group of rate design allocation factors ξi (**Table 6-6**), all the components of cost-of-service computed in the above section can be split into fixed and variable costs, and then summed over the cost categories to determine fixed and variable costs-of-service as follows:

$$FC_{a,t} = \sum_i (\xi_i * Item_{i,a,t}) \tag{222}$$

$$VC_{a,t} = \sum_i [(1.0 - \xi_i) * Item_{i,a,t}] \tag{223}$$

$$TCOS_{a,t} = FC_{a,t} + VC_{a,t} \tag{224}$$

where,

$TCOS_{a,t}$	=	total cost-of-service for existing and new capacity (dollars)
$FC_{a,t}$	=	fixed cost for existing and new capacity (dollars)
$VC_{a,t}$	=	variable cost for existing and new capacity (dollars)
$Item_{i,a,t}$	=	cost-of-service component index at the arc level
ξ_i	=	first group of allocation factors (ratios) to disaggregate the cost-of-service components into fixed and variable costs

[89] The allocation factors of SFV rate design are given in percent in this table for illustration purposes. They are converted into ratios immediately after they are read in from the input file by dividing by 100.

Table 6-6. Percentage Allocation Factors for a Straight Fixed Variable (SFV) Rate Design

Cost-of-service Items (percentage) [$Item_{i,a,t}$, i=cost component index, a=arc, t=year]	**Break up cost-of-service items into fixed and variable costs**		**Break up fixed cost items into reservation and usage costs**		**Break up variable cost items into reservation and usage costs**	
$Item_{i,a,t}$	**$FC_{i,a,t}$**	**$VC_{i,a,t}$**	**$RFC_{i,a,t}$**	**$UFC_{i,a,t}$**	**$RVC_{i,a,t}$**	**$UVC_{i,a,t}$**
Cost Allocation Factors	ξ_i	**100 -** ξ_i	λ_i	**100 -** λ_i	μ_i	**100-**μ_i
After-tax Operating Income						
Return on Preferred Stocks	100	0	100	0	0	100
Return on Common Stocks	100	0	100	0	0	100
Return on Long-Term Debt	100	0	100	0	0	100
Normal Operating Expenses						
Depreciation	100	0	100	0	0	100
Income Taxes	100	0	100	0	0	100
Deferred Income Taxes	100	0	100	0	0	100
Other Taxes	100	0	100	0	0	100
Total O&M	60	40	100	0	0	100

ξ_i = first group of allocation factors (ratios) to disaggregate the cost-of-service components into fixed and variable costs
i = subscript to designate a cost-of-service component (i=1 for PFEN, i=2 for CMEN, i=3 for LTDN, i=4 for DDA, i=5 for FSIT, i=6 for DIT, i=7 for OTTAX, and i=8 for TOM)
a = arc
t = forecast year

Disaggregation of Fixed and Variable Costs into Reservation and Usage Costs

Each type of cost-of-service component (fixed or variable) in the above equations can be further disaggregated into reservation and usage costs using the second and third groups of rate design allocation factors λi and μi (**Table 6-6**), as follows:

$$RFC_{a,t} = \sum_i (\lambda_i * \xi_i * Item_{i,a,t}) \tag{225}$$

$$UFC_{a,t} = \sum_i [(1.0 - \lambda_i) * \xi_i * Item_{i,a,t}] \tag{226}$$

$$RVC_{a,t} = \sum_i [\mu_i * (1.0 - \xi_i) * Item_{i,a,t}] \tag{227}$$

$$UVC_{a,t} = \sum_i [(1.0 - \mu_i) * (1.0 - \xi_i) * Item_{i,a,t}] \quad (228)$$

$$TCOS_{a,t} = RFC_{a,t} + UFC_{a,t} + RVC_{a,t} + UVC_{a,t} \quad (229)$$

where,

$TCOS_{a,t}$	=	total cost-of-service for existing and new capacity (dollars)
$RFC_{a,t}$	=	fixed reservation cost for existing and new capacity (dollars)
$UFC_{a,t}$	=	fixed usage cost for existing and new capacity (dollars)
$RVC_{a,t}$	=	variable reservation cost for existing and new capacity (dollars)
$UVC_{a,t}$	=	variable usage cost for existing and new capacity (dollars)
$Item_{i,a,t}$	=	cost-of-service component index at the arc level
ξ_i	=	first group of allocation factors to disaggregate cost-of-service components into fixed and variable costs
λ_i	=	second group of allocation factors to disaggregate fixed costs into reservation and usage costs
μ_i	=	third group of allocation factors to disaggregate variable costs into reservation and usage costs
i	=	subscript to designate a cost-of-service component (i=1 for PFEN, i=2 for CMEN, i=3 for LTDN, i=4 for DDA, i=5 for FSIT, i=6 for DIT, i=7 for OTTAX, and i=8 for TOM)
a	=	arc
t	=	forecast year

The summation of fixed and variable reservation costs (RFC and RVC) yields the total reservation cost (RCOST). This can be disaggregated further into peak and off-peak reservation costs, which are used to develop variable tariffs for peak and off-peak time periods. The summation of fixed and variable usage costs (UFC and UVC), which yields the total usage cost (UCOST), is used to compute the annual average fixed usage fees. Both types of rates are developed in the next section. The equations for the reservation and usage costs can be expressed as follows:

$$RCOST_{a,t} = (RFC_{a,t} + RVC_{a,t}) \quad (230)$$

$$UCOST_{a,t} = (UFC_{a,t} + UVC_{a,t}) \quad (231)$$

where,

$RCOST_{a,t}$	=	reservation cost for existing and new capacity (dollars)
$UCOST_{a,t}$	=	annual usage cost for existing and new capacity (dollars)
$RFC_{a,t}$	=	fixed reservation cost for existing and new capacity (dollars)
$UFC_{a,t}$	=	fixed usage cost for existing and new capacity (dollars)
$RVC_{a,t}$	=	variable reservation cost for existing and new capacity (dollars)
$UVC_{a,t}$	=	variable usage cost for existing and new capacity (dollars)
a	=	arc
t	=	forecast period

As **Table 6-6** indicates, all the fixed costs are included in the reservation costs and all the variable costs are included in the usage costs.

Computation of Rates for Forecast Years

The reservation and usage costs-of-service RCOST and UCOST determined above are used separately to develop two types of rates at the arc level: variable tariffs and annual fixed usage fees. The determination of both rates is described below.

Variable Tariff Curves

Variable tariffs are proportional to reservation charges and are broken up into peak and off-peak time periods. Variable tariffs are derived directly from variable tariff curves which are developed based on reservation costs, utilization rates, annual flows, and other curve parameters.

In the PTS code, these variable curves are defined by a FUNCTION (NGPIPE_VARTAR) which is called by the ITS to compute the variable tariffs for peak and off-peak by arc and by forecast year. In this pipeline function, the tariff curves are segmented such that tariffs associated with *current capacity* and *capacity expansion* are represented by separate but similar equations. A uniform functional form is used to define these tariff curves for both the *current capacity* and *capacity expansion segments* of the tariff curves. It is defined as a function of a base point [price and quantity (PNOD, QNOD)] using different *process-specific* parameters, peak or off-peak flow, and a price elasticity. This functional form is presented below:

current capacity segment:

$$NGPIPE\_VARTAR_{a,t} = PNOD_{a,t} * (Q_{a,t} / QNOD_{a,t})^{ALPHA\_PIPE} \tag{232}$$

capacity expansion segment:

$$NGPIPE\_VARTAR_{a,t} = PNOD_{a,t} * (Q_{a,t} / QNOD_{a,t})^{ALPHA2\_PIPE} \tag{233}$$

such that,

for peak transmission tariffs:

$$PNOD_{a,t} = \frac{RCOST_{a,t} * PKSHR\_YR}{(QNOD_{a,t} * MC\_PCWGDP_t)} \tag{234}$$

$$QNOD_{a,t} = PT\ NETFLOW_{a,t} \tag{235}$$

for off-peak transmission tariffs:

$$PNOD_{a,t} = \frac{RCOST_{a,t} * (1.0 - PKSHR\_YR)}{(QNOD_{a,t} * MC\_PCWGDP_t)} \tag{236}$$

$$QNOD_{a,t} = PTNETFLOW_{a,t} \tag{237}$$

where,

$NGPIPE\_VARTAR_{a,t}$	=	function to define pipeline tariffs (87$/Mcf)
$PNOD_{a,t}$	=	base point, price (87$/Mcf)
$QNOD_{a,t}$	=	base point, quantity (Bcf)
$Q_{a,t}$	=	flow along pipeline arc (Bcf)
ALPHA_PIPE	=	price elasticity for pipeline tariff curve for current capacity (Appendix E)
ALPHA2_PIPE	=	price elasticity for pipeline tariff curve for capacity expansion segment (Appendix E)
$RCOST_{a,t}$	=	reservation cost-of-service (million dollars)
$PTNETFLOW_{a,t}$	=	natural gas network flow (throughput, Bcf)
PKSHR_YR	=	portion of the year represented by the peak season (fraction)
MC_PCWGDP_t	=	GDP chain-type price deflator (from the Macroeconomic Activity Module)
a	=	arc
t	=	forecast year

Annual Fixed Usage Fees

The annual fixed usage fees (volumetric charges) are derived directly from the usage costs, peak and off-peak utilization rates, and annual arc capacity. These fees are computed as the average fees over each forecast year, as follows:

$$\begin{aligned} FIXTAR_{a,t} = UCOST_{a,t} / [(&PKSHR\_YR * PTPKUTZ_{a,t} * PTCURPCAP_{a,t} + \\ &(1.0 - PKSHR\_YR) * PTOPUTZ_{a,t} * PTCURPCAP_{a,t}) * MC\_PCWGDP_t] \end{aligned} \tag{238}$$

where,

$FIXTAR_{a,t}$	=	annual fixed usage fees for existing and new capacity (87$/Mcf)
$UCOST_{a,t}$	=	annual usage cost for existing and new capacity (million dollars)
PKSHR_YR	=	portion of the year represented by the peak season (fraction)
$PTPKUTZ_{a,t}$	=	peak pipeline utilization (fraction)
$PTCURPCAP_{a,t}$	=	current pipeline capacity (Bcf)
$PTOPUTZ_{a,t}$	=	off-peak pipeline utilization (fraction)
MC_PCWGDP_t	=	GDP chain-type price deflator (from the Macroeconomic Activity Module)
a	=	arc
t	=	forecast year

As can be seen from the allocation factors in **Table 6-6**, usage costs (UCOST) are less than 10 percent of reservation costs (RCOST). Therefore, annual fixed usage fees which are proportional to usage costs are expected to be less than 10 percent of the variable tariffs. In general, these fixed fees are within the range of 5 percent of the variable tariffs which are charged to firm customers.

Canadian Fixed and Variable Tariffs

Fixed and variables tariffs along Canadian import arcs are defined using input data. Fixed tariffs are obtained directly from the data (Appendix E, $ARC\_FIXTAR_{n,a,t}$), while variables tariffs are calculated in the FUNCTION subroutine (NGPIPE_VARTAR) and are based on pipeline utilization and a maximum expected tariff, CNMAXTAR. If the pipeline utilization along a Canadian arc for any time period (peak or off-peak) is less than 50 percent, then the pipeline tariff is set to a low level (70 percent of CNMAXTAR). If the Canadian pipeline utilization is between 50 and 90 percent, then the pipeline tariff is set to a level between 70 and 80 percent of CNMAXTAR. The sliding scale is determined using the corresponding utilization factor, as follows:

$$\begin{aligned} NGPIPE\_VARTAR_{a,t} = {} & CNMAXTAR - [CNMAXTAR * (1.0 - 0.9) * 2.0] - \\ & [CNMAXTAR * (0.9 - CANUTIL_{a,t}) * 0.25] \end{aligned} \tag{239}$$

If the Canadian pipeline utilization is greater than 90 percent, then the pipeline tariff is set to between 80 and 100 percent of CNMAXTAR. This is accomplished again using Canadian pipeline utilization, as follows:

$$\begin{aligned} NGPIPE\_VARTAR_{a,t} = {} & CNMAXTAR - \\ & [CNMAXTAR * (1.0 - CANUTIL_{a,t}) * 2.0] \end{aligned} \tag{240}$$

where,

$$CANUTIL_{a,t} = \frac{Q_{a,t}}{QNOD_{a,t}} \tag{241}$$

for peak period:

$$QNOD_{a,t} = PTCURPCAP_{a,t} * PKSHR\_YR * PTPKUTZ_{a,t} \tag{242}$$

for off-peak period:

$$QNOD_{a,t} = PTCURPCAP_{a,t} * (1.0 - PKSHR\_YR) * PTOPUTZ_{a,t} \tag{243}$$

and,

$NGPIPE\_VARTAR_{a,t}$	=	function to define pipeline tariffs (87$/Mcf)
CNMAXTAR	=	maximum effective tariff (87$/Mcf, ARC_VARTAR, Appendix E)

$CANUTIL_{a,t}$ = pipeline utilization (fraction)
$QNOD_{a,t}$ = base point, quantity (Bcf)
$Q_{a,t}$ = flow along pipeline arc (Bcf)
PKSHR_YR = portion of the year represented by the peak season (fraction)
$PTPKUTZ_{a,t}$ = peak pipeline utilization (fraction)
$PTCURPCAP_{a,t}$ = current pipeline capacity (Bcf)
$PTOPUTZ_{a,t}$ = off-peak pipeline utilization (fraction)
a = arc
t = forecast year

For the eastern and western Canadian storage regions, the "variable" tariff is set to zero and only the assumed "fixed" tariff (Appendix E, ARC_FIXTAR) is applied.

Storage Tariff Routine Methodology

Background

This section describes the methodology used to assign a storage tariff for each of the 12 NGTDM regions. All variables and equations presented below are used for the forecast time period (1999-2030). If the time period t is less than 1999, the associated variables are set to the initial values read in from the input file (Foster's storage financial database[90] by region and year, 1990-1998).

This section starts with the presentation of the natural gas storage cost-of-service equation by region. The equation sums four components to be forecast: after-tax[91] total return on rate base (operating income); total taxes; depreciation, depletion, and amortization; and total operating and maintenance expenses. Once these four components are computed, the regional storage cost of service is projected and, with the associated effective storage capacity provided by the ITS, a storage tariff curve can be established (as described at the end of this section).

Cost-of-Service by Storage Region

The cost-of-service (or revenue requirement) for existing and new storage capacity in an NGTDM region can be written as follows:

$$STCOS_{r,t} = STBTOI_{r,t} + STDDA_{r,t} + STTOTAX_{r,t} + STTOM_{r,t} \qquad (244)$$

where,

$STCOS_{r,t}$ = total cost-of-service or revenue requirement for existing and new capacity (dollars)

[90] Natural Gas Storage Financial Data, compiled by Foster Associates, Inc., Bethesda, Maryland for EIA under purchase order #01-99EI36663 in December of 1999. This data set includes financial information on 33 major storage companies. The primary source of the data is FERC Form 2 (or Form 2A for the smaller pipelines). These data can be purchased from Foster Associates.

[91] 'After-tax' in this section refers to 'after taxes have been taken out.'

$STBTOI_{r,t}$ = total return on rate base for existing and new capacity (after-tax operating income) (dollars)
$STDDA_{r,t}$ = depreciation, depletion, and amortization for existing and new capacity (dollars)
$STTOTAX_{r,t}$ = total Federal and State income tax liability for existing and new capacity (dollars)
$STTOM_{r,t}$ = total operating and maintenance expenses for existing and new capacity (dollars)
r = NGTDM region
t = forecast year

The storage cost-of-service by region is first computed in nominal dollars and subsequently converted to 1987$ for use in the computation of a base for regional storage tariff, PNOD (87$/Mcf). PNOD is used in the development of a regional storage tariff curve. An approach is developed to project the storage cost-of-service in nominal dollars by NGTDM region in year t and is provided in **Table 6-7**.

Table 6-7. Approach to Projection of Storage Cost-of-Service

Projection Component	Approach
1. Capital-Related Costs	
a. Total return in rate base	Direct calculation from projected rate base and rates of return
b. Federal/State income taxes	Accounting algorithms based on tax rates
c. Deferred income taxes	Difference in the accumulated deferred income taxes between years t and t-1
2. Depreciation, Depletion, and Amortization	Estimated equation and accounting algorithm
3. Total Operating and Maintenance Expenses	Estimated equation

Computation of total return on rate base (after-tax operating income), STBTOIr,t

The total return on rate base for existing and new capacity is computed from the projected weighted cost of capital and estimated rate base, as follows:

$$STBTOI_{r,t} = STWAROR_{r,t} * STAPRB_{r,t} \qquad (245)$$

where,

$STBTOI_{r,t}$ = total return on rate base (after-tax operating income) for existing and new capacity in dollars
$STWAROR_{r,t}$ = weighted-average after-tax rate of return on capital for existing and new capacity (fraction)
$STAPRB_{r,t}$ = adjusted storage rate base for existing and new capacity in dollars
r = NGTDM region
t = forecast year

The return on rate base for existing and new storage capacity in an NGTDM region can be broken out into three components as shown below.

$$STPFEN_{r,t} = STGPFESTR_r * STPFER_{r,t} * STAPRB_{r,t} \quad (246)$$

$$STCMEN_{r,t} = STGCMESTR_r * STCMER_{r,t} * STAPRB_{r,t} \quad (247)$$

$$STLTDN_{r,t} = STGLTDSTR_r * STLTDR_{r,t} * STAPRB_{r,t} \quad (248)$$

where,

$STPFEN_{r,t}$	=	total return on preferred stock for existing and new capacity (dollars)
$STPFER_{r,t}$	=	coupon rate for preferred stock for existing and new capacity (fraction)
$STGPFESTR_r$	=	historical average capital structure for preferred stock for existing and new capacity (fraction), held constant over the forecast period
$STAPRB_{r,t}$	=	adjusted rate base for existing and new capacity (dollars)
$STCMEN_{r,t}$	=	total return on common stock equity for existing and new capacity (dollars)
$STGCMESTR_r$	=	historical average capital structure for common stock for existing and new capacity (fraction), held constant over the forecast period
$STCMER_{r,t}$	=	common equity rate of return for existing and new capacity (fraction)
$STLTDN_{r,t}$	=	total return on long-term debt for existing and new capacity (dollars)
$STGLTDSTR_r$	=	historical average capital structure ratio for long term debt for existing and new capacity (fraction), held constant over the forecast period
$STLTDR_{r,t}$	=	long-term debt rate for existing and new capacity (fraction)
r	=	NGTDM region
t	=	forecast year

Note that the total return on rate base is the sum of the above equations and can be expressed as:

$$STBTOI_{r,t} = (STPFEN_{r,t} + STCMEN_{r,t} + STLTDN_{r,t}) \quad (249)$$

It can be seen from the above equations that the weighted average rate of return on capital for existing and new storage capacity, $STWAROR_{r,t}$, can be determined as follows:

$$STWAROR_{r,t} = STPFER_{r,t} * STGPFESTR_r + STCMER_{r,t} * STGCMESTR_r + STLTDR_{r,t} * STGLTDSTR_r \quad (250)$$

The historical average capital structure ratios $STGPFESTR_r$, $STGCMESTR_r$, and $STGLTDSTR_r$ in the above equation are computed as follows:

$$STGPFESTR_r = \frac{\sum_{t=1990}^{1998} STPFES_{r,t}}{\sum_{t=1990}^{1998} STAPRB_{r,t}} \quad (251)$$

$$STGCMESTR_r = \frac{\sum_{t=1990}^{1998} STCMES_{r,t}}{\sum_{t=1990}^{1998} STAPRB_{r,t}} \quad (252)$$

$$STGLTDSTR_r = \frac{\sum_{t=1990}^{1998} STLTDS_{r,t}}{\sum_{t=1990}^{1998} STAPRB_{r,t}} \quad (253)$$

where,

$STGPFESTR_r$ = historical average capital structure for preferred stock for existing and new capacity (fraction), held constant over the forecast period
$STGCMESTR_r$ = historical average capital structure for common stock for existing and new capacity (fraction), held constant over the forecast period
$STGLTDSTR_r$ = historical average capital structure ratio for long term debt for existing and new capacity (fraction), held constant over the forecast period
$STPFES_{r,t}$ = value of preferred stock for existing capacity (dollars) [read in as D_PFES]
$STCMES_{r,t}$ = value of common stock equity for existing capacity (dollars) [read in as D_CMES]
$STLTDS_{r,t}$ = value of long-term debt for existing capacity (dollars) [read in as D_LTDS]
$STAPRB_{r,t}$ = adjusted rate base for existing capacity (dollars) [read in as D_APRB]
r = NGTDM region
t = forecast year

In the STWAROR equation, the rate of return variables for preferred stock, common equity, and debt ($STPFER_{r,t}$, $STCMER_{r,t}$, and $STLTDR_{r,t}$) are related to forecast macroeconomic variables. These rates of return can be determined as a function of nominal AA utility bond index rate (provided by the Macroeconomic Module) and a regional historical average constant deviation as follows:

$$STPFER_{r,t} = MC\_RMPUAANS_t / 100.0 + ADJ\_STPFER_r \quad (254)$$

$$STCMER_{r,t} = MC\_RMPUAANS_t / 100.0 + ADJ\_STCMER_r \quad (255)$$

$$STLTDR_{r,t} = MC\_RMPUAANS_t / 100.0 + ADJ\_STLTDR_r \quad (256)$$

where,

$STPFER_{r,t}$ = rate of return for preferred stock
$STCMER_{r,t}$ = common equity rate of return
$STLTDR_{r,t}$ = long-term debt rate
$MC\_RMPUAANS_t$ = AA utility bond index rate provided by the Macroeconomic Activity Module (MC_RMCORPUAA, percentage)
ADJ_STPFER_r = historical weighted average deviation constant (fraction) for preferred stock rate of return (1990-1998)
ADJ_STCMER_r = historical weighted average deviation constant (fraction) for common equity rate of return (1990-1998)
ADJ_STLTDR_r = historical weighted average deviation constant (fraction) for long term debt rate (1990-1998)
r = NGTDM region
t = forecast year

The historical weighted average deviation constants by NGTDM region are computed as follows:

$$ADJ\_STLTDR_r = \frac{\sum_{t=1990}^{1998} \left(\frac{STLTDN_{r,t}}{STLTDS_{r,t}} - MC\_RMPUAANS_t / 100.\right) * STGPIS_{r,t}}{\sum_{t=1990}^{1998} STGPIS_{r,t}} \quad (257)$$

$$ADJ\_STPFER_r = \frac{\sum_{t=1990}^{1998} \left(\frac{STPFEN_{r,t}}{STPFES_{r,t}} - MC\_RMPUAANS_t / 100.\right) * STGPIS_{r,t}}{\sum_{t=1990}^{1998} STGPIS_{r,t}} \quad (258)$$

$$ADJ\_STCMER_r = \frac{\sum_{t=1990}^{1998} \left(\frac{STCMEN_{r,t}}{STCMES_{r,t}} - MC\_RMPUAANS_t / 100.\right) * STGPIS_{r,t}}{\sum_{t=1990}^{1998} STGPIS_{r,t}} \quad (259)$$

where,

ADJ_STLTDR_r = historical weighted average deviation constant (fraction) for long term debt rate
ADJ_STCMER_r = historical weighted average deviation constant (fraction) for common equity rate of return
ADJ_STPFER_r = historical weighted average deviation constant (fraction) for preferred stock rate of return

$STPFEN_{r,t}$ = total return on preferred stock for existing capacity (dollars) [read in as D_PFEN]
$STCMEN_{r,t}$ = total return on common stock equity for existing capacity (dollars) [read in as D_CMEN]
$STLTDN_{r,t}$ = total return on long-term debt for existing capacity (dollars) [read in as D_LTDN]
$STPFES_{r,t}$ = value of preferred stock for existing capacity (dollars) [read in as D_PFES]
$STCMES_{r}$ = value of common stock equity for existing capacity (dollars) [read in as D_CMES]
$STLTDS_{r}$ = value of long-term debt for existing capacity (dollars) [read in as D_LTDS]
$MC\_RMPUAANS_{t}$ = AA utility bond index rate provided by the Macroeconomic Activity Module (MC_RMCORPPUAA, percentage)
$STGPIS_{r,t}$ = original capital cost of plant in service (dollars) [read in as D_GPIS]
r = NGTDM region
t = forecast year

Computation of adjusted rate base, $STAPRB_{r,t}$[92]

The adjusted rate base for existing and new storage facilities in an NGTDM region has three components and can be written as follows:

$$STAPRB_{r,t} = STNPIS_{r,t} + STCWC_{r,t} - STADIT_{r,t} \tag{260}$$

where,

$STAPRB_{r,t}$ = adjusted storage rate base for existing and new capacity (dollars)
$STNPIS_{r,t}$ = net plant in service for existing and new capacity (dollars)
$STCWC_{r,t}$ = total cash working capital for existing and new capacity (dollars)
$STADIT_{r,t}$ = accumulated deferred income taxes for existing and new capacity (dollars)
r = NGTDM region
t = forecast year

The net plant in service is the level of gross plant in service minus the accumulated depreciation, depletion, and amortization. It is given by the following equation:

$$STNPIS_{r,t} = STGPIS_{r,t} - STADDA_{r,t-1} \tag{261}$$

[92]In this section, any variable ending with "_E" will signify that the variable is for the existing storage capacity as of the end of 1998, and any variable ending with "_N" will mean that the variable is for the new storage capacity added from 1999 to 2025.

where,

$STNPIS_{r,t}$ = net plant in service for existing and new capacity (dollars)
$STGPIS_{r,t}$ = gross plant in service for existing and new capacity (dollars)
$STADDA_{r,t}$ = accumulated depreciation, depletion, and amortization for existing and new capacity (dollars)
r = NGTDM region
t = forecast year

The gross and net plant-in-service variables can be written as the sum of their respective existing and new gross and net plants in service as follows:

$$STGPIS_{r,t} = STGPIS\_E_{r,t} + STGPIS\_N_{r,t} \quad (262)$$

$$STNPIS_{r,t} = STNPIS\_E_{r,t} + STNPIS\_N_{r,t} \quad (263)$$

where,

$STGPIS_{r,t}$ = gross plant in service for existing and new capacity (dollars)
$STNPIS_{r,t}$ = net plant in service for existing and new capacity (dollars)
$STGPIS\_E_{r,t}$ = gross plant in service for existing capacity (dollars)
$STGPIS\_N_{r,t}$ = gross plant in service for new capacity (dollars)
$STNPIS\_E_{r,t}$ = net plant in service for existing capacity (dollars)
$STNPIS\_N_{r,t}$ = net plant in service for new capacity (dollars)
r = NGTDM region
t = forecast year

For the same reason as above, the accumulated depreciation, depletion, and amortization for t-1 can be split into its existing and new accumulated depreciation:

$$STADDA_{r,t-1} = STADDA\_E_{r,t-1} + STADDA\_N_{r,t-1} \quad (264)$$

where,

$STADDA_{r,t}$ = accumulated depreciation, depletion, and amortization for existing and new capacity (dollars)
$STADDA\_E_{r,t}$ = accumulated depreciation, depletion, and amortization for existing capacity (dollars)
$STADDA\_N_{r,t}$ = accumulated depreciation, depletion, and amortization for new capacity (dollars)
r = NGTDM region
t = forecast year

The accumulated depreciation for the current year t is expressed as last year's accumulated depreciation plus this year's depreciation. For the separate existing and new storage capacity, their accumulated depreciation, depletion, and amortization can be expressed separately as follows:

$$STADDA\_E_{r,t} = STADDA\_E_{r,t-1} + STDDA\_E_{r,t} \quad (265)$$

$$STADDA\_N_{r,t} = STADDA\_N_{r,t-1} + STDDA\_N_{r,t} \quad (266)$$

where,

$STADDA\_E_{r,t}$ = accumulated depreciation, depletion, and amortization for existing capacity (dollars)
$STADDA\_N_{r,t}$ = accumulated depreciation, depletion, and amortization for new capacity (dollars)
$STDDA\_E_{r,t}$ = depreciation, depletion, and amortization for existing capacity (dollars)
$STDDA\_N_{r,t}$ = depreciation, depletion, and amortization for new capacity (dollars)
r = NGTDM region
t = forecast year

Total accumulated depreciation, depletion, and amortization for the combined existing and new capacity by storage region in year t is determined as the sum of previous year's accumulated depreciation, depletion, and amortization and current year's depreciation, depletion, and amortization for that total capacity.

$$STADDA_{r,t} = STADDA_{r,t-1} + STDDA_{r,t} \qquad (267)$$

where,

$STADDA_{r,t}$ = accumulated depreciation, depletion, and amortization for existing and new capacity in dollars
$STDDA_{r,t}$ = annual depreciation, depletion, and amortization for existing and new capacity in dollars
r = NGTDM region
t = forecast year

Computation of annual depreciation, depletion, and amortization, $STDDA_{r,t}$

Annual depreciation, depletion, and amortization for a storage region in year t is the sum of depreciation, depletion, and amortization for the combined existing and new capacity associated with that region.

$$STDDA_{r,t} = STDDA\_E_{r,t} + STDDA\_N_{r,t} \qquad (268)$$

where,

$STDDA_{r,t}$ = annual depreciation, depletion, and amortization for existing and new capacity in dollars
$STDDA\_E_{r,t}$ = depreciation, depletion, and amortization costs for existing capacity in dollars
$STDDA\_N_{r,t}$ = depreciation, depletion, and amortization costs for new capacity in dollars
r = NGTDM region
t = forecast year

A regression equation is used to determine the annual depreciation, depletion, and amortization for existing capacity associated with an NGTDM region, while an accounting algorithm is used for new storage capacity. For existing capacity, this depreciation expense by NGTDM region is forecast as follows:

$$STDDA\_E_{r,t} = STDDA\_CREG_r + STDDA\_NPIS * STNPIS\_E_{r,t-1} + STDDA\_NEWCAP * STNEWCAP_{r,t} \quad (269)$$

where,

$STDDA\_E_{r,t}$ = annual depreciation, depletion, and amortization costs for existing capacity in dollars
$STDDA\_CREG_r$ = constant term estimated by region (Appendix F, Table F3)
STDDA_NPIS = estimated coefficient for net plant in service for existing capacity (Appendix F, Table F3)
STDDA_NEWCAP = estimated coefficient for the change in gross plant in service for existing capacity (Appendix F, Table F3)
$STNPIS\_E_{r,t}$ = net plant in service for existing capacity (dollars)
$STNEWCAP_{r,t}$ = change in gross plant in service for existing capacity (dollars)
r = NGTDM region
t = forecast year

The accounting algorithm used to define the annual depreciation, depletion, and amortization for new capacity assumes straight-line depreciation over a 30-year life, as follows:

$$STDDA\_N_{r,t} = STGPIS\_N_{r,t} / 30 \quad (270)$$

where,

$STDDA\_N_{r,t}$ = annual depreciation, depletion, and amortization for new capacity in dollars
$STGPIS\_N_{r,t}$ = gross plant in service for new capacity in dollars
30 = 30 years of plant life
r = NGTDM region
t = forecast year

In the above equation, the capital cost of new plant in service ($STGPIS\_N_{r,t}$) in year t is computed as the accumulated new capacity expansion expenditures from 1999 to year t and is determined by the following equation:

$$STGPIS\_N_{r,t} = \sum_{s=1999}^{t} STNCAE_{r,s} \quad (271)$$

where,

$STGPIS\_N_{r,t}$ = gross plant in service for new capacity expansion in dollars
$STNCAE_{r,s}$ = new capacity expansion expenditures occurring in year s after 1998 (in dollars)
s = the year new expansion occurred
r = NGTDM region
t = forecast year

The new capacity expansion expenditures allowed in the rate base within a forecast year are derived for each NGTDM region from the amount of incremental capacity additions determined by the ITS:

$$STNCAE_{r,t} = STCCOST_{r,t} * STCAPADD_{r,t} * 1{,}000{,}000. \qquad (272)$$

where,

$STNCAE_{r,t}$	=	total capital cost to expand capacity for an NGTDM region (dollars)
$STCCOST_{r,t}$	=	capital cost per unit of natural gas storage expansion (dollars per Mcf)
$STCAPADD_{r,t}$	=	storage capacity additions as determined in the ITS (Bcf/yr)
r	=	NGTDM region
t	=	forecast year

The capital cost per unit of natural gas storage expansion in an NGTDM region ($STCCOST_{r,t}$) is computed as its 1998 unit capital cost times a function of a capacity expansion factor relative to the 1998 storage capacity. This expansion factor represents a relative change in capacity since 1998. Whenever the ITS forecasts storage capacity additions in year t in an NGTDM region, the increased capacity is computed for that region from 1998 and the unit capital cost is computed. Hence, the capital cost to expand capacity in an NGTDM region can be estimated from any amount of capacity additions in year t provided by the ITS and the associated unit capital cost. This capital cost represents the investment cost for generic storage companies associated with that region. The unit capital cost ($STCCOST_{r,t}$) is computed by the following equations:

$$STCCOST_{r,t} = STCCOST\_CREG_r * e^{(BETAREG_r * STEXPFAC98_r)} * (1.0 + STCSTFAC) \qquad (273)$$

where,

$STCCOST_{r,t}$	=	capital cost per unit of natural gas storage expansion (dollars per Mcf)
$STCCOST\_CREG_r$	=	1998 capital cost per unit of natural gas storage expansion (1998 dollars per Mcf)
$BETAREG_r$	=	expansion factor parameter (set to STCCOST_BETAREG, Appendix E)
$STEXPFAC98_r$	=	relative change in storage capacity since 1998
STCSTFAC	=	factor to set a particular storage region's expansion cost, based on an average [Appendix E]
r	=	NGTDM region
t	=	forecast year

The relative change in storage capacity is computed as follows:

$$STEXPFAC98_r = \frac{PTCURPSTR_{r,t}}{PTCURPSTR_{r,1998}} - 1.0 \qquad (274)$$

where,

$PTCURPSTR_{r,t}$ = current storage capacity (Bcf)
$PTCURPSTR_{r,1998}$ = 1998 storage capacity (Bcf)
r = NGTDM region
t = forecast year

Computation of total cash working capital, $STCWC_{r,t}$

The total cash working capital represents the level of working capital at the beginning of year t deflated using the chain weighted GDP price index with 1996 as a base year. This cash working capital variable is expressed as a non-linear function of total gas storage capacity (base gas capacity plus working gas capacity) as follows:

$$R\_STCWC_{r,t} = e^{(STCWC\_CREG_r * (1-\rho))} * DSTTCAP_{r,t-1}^{STCWC\_TOTCAP} * R\_STCWC_{r,t-1}^{\rho} * DSTTCAP_{r,t-2}^{-\rho * STCWC\_TOTCAP} \quad (275)$$

where,

$R\_STCWC_{r,t}$ = total cash working capital at the beginning of year t for existing and new capacity (1996 real dollars)
$STCWC\_CREG_r$ = constant term, estimated by region (Appendix F, Table F3)
ρ = autocorrelation coefficient from estimation (Appendix F, Table F3 — STCWC_RHO)
$DSTTCAP_{r,t}$ = total gas storage capacity (Bcf)
STCWC_TOTCAP = estimated DSTTCAP coefficient (Appendix F, Table F3)
r = NGTDM region
t = forecast year

This total cash working capital in 1996 real dollars is converted to nominal dollars to be consistent with the convention used in this submodule.

$$STCWC_{r,t} = R\_STCWC_{r,t} * \frac{MC\_PCWGDP_t}{MC\_PCWGDP_{1996}} \quad (276)$$

where,

$STCWC_{r,t}$ = total cash working capital at the beginning of year t for existing and new capacity (nominal dollars)
$R\_STCWC_{r,t}$ = total cash working capital at the beginning of year t for existing and new capacity (1996 real dollars)
MC_PCWGDP_t = GDP chain-type price deflator (from the Macroeconomic Activity Module)
r = NGTDM region
t = forecast year

Computation of accumulated deferred income taxes, $STADIT_{r,t}$

The level of accumulated deferred income taxes for the combined existing and new capacity in year t in the adjusted rate base equation is a stock (not a flow) and depends on income tax regulations in effect, differences in tax, and book depreciation. It can be expressed as a linear function of its own lagged variable and the change in the level of gross plant in service between time t and t-1. The forecasting equation can be written as follows:

$$\begin{aligned} STADIT_{r,t} = {} & STADIT\_C + (STADIT\_ADIT * STADIT_{r,t-1}) + \\ & (STADIT\_NEWCAP * NEWCAP_{r,t}) \end{aligned} \tag{277}$$

where,

$STADIT_{r,t}$	=	accumulated deferred income taxes in dollars
STADIT_C	=	constant term from estimation (Appendix F, Table F3)
STADIT_ADIT	=	estimated coefficient for lagged accumulated deferred income taxes (Appendix F, Table F3)
STADIT_NEWCAP	=	estimated coefficient for change in gross plant in service (Appendix F, Table F3)
$NEWCAP_{r,t}$	=	change in gross plant in service for the combined existing and new capacity between years t and t-1 (in dollars)
r	=	NGTDM region
t	=	forecast year

Computation of Total Taxes, $STTOTAX_{r,t}$

Total taxes consist of Federal income taxes, State income taxes, deferred income taxes, and other taxes. Federal income taxes and State income taxes are calculated using average tax rates. The equation for total taxes is as follows:

$$STTOTAX_{r,t} = STFSIT_{r,t} + STDIT_{r,t} + STOTTAX_{r,t} \tag{278}$$

$$STFSIT_{r,t} = STFIT_{r,t} + STSIT_{r,t} \tag{279}$$

where,

$STTOTAX_{r,t}$	=	total Federal and State income tax liability for existing and new capacity (dollars)
$STFSIT_{r,t}$	=	Federal and State income tax for existing and new capacity (dollars)
$STFIT_{r,t}$	=	Federal income tax for existing and new capacity (dollars)
$STSIT_{r,t}$	=	State income tax for existing and new capacity (dollars)
$STDIT_{r,t}$	=	deferred income taxes for existing and new capacity (dollars)
STOTTAX	=	all other taxes assessed by Federal, State, or local governments for existing and new capacity (dollars)
r	=	NGTDM region
t	=	forecast year

Federal income taxes are derived from returns to common stock equity and preferred stock (after-tax profit) and the Federal tax rate. The after-tax profit is the operating income excluding the total long-term debt, which is determined as follows:

$$STATP_{r,t} = STAPRB_{r,t} * (STPFER_{r,t} * STGPFESTR_r + STCMER_{r,t} * STGCMESTR_r) \quad (280)$$

$$STATP_{r,t} = (STPFEN_{r,t} + STCMEN_{r,t}) \quad (281)$$

where,

$STATP_{r,t}$ = after-tax profit for existing and new capacity (dollars)
$STAPRB_{r,t}$ = adjusted pipeline rate base for existing and new capacity (dollars)
$STPFER_{r,t}$ = coupon rate for preferred stock for existing and new capacity (fraction)
$STGPFESTR_r$ = historical average capital structure for preferred stock for existing and new capacity (fraction), held constant over the forecast period
$STCMER_{r,t}$ = common equity rate of return for existing and new capacity (fraction)
$STGCMESTR_r$ = historical average capital structure for common stock for existing and new capacity (fraction), held constant over the forecast period
$STPFEN_{r,t}$ = total return on preferred stock for existing and new capacity (dollars)
$STCMEN_{r,t}$ = total return on common stock equity for existing and new capacity (dollars)
r = NGTDM region
t = forecast year

and the Federal income taxes are

$$STFIT_{r,t} = (FRATE * STATP_{r,t}) / (1. - FRATE) \quad (282)$$

where,

$STFIT_{r,t}$ = Federal income tax for existing and new capacity (dollars)
FRATE = Federal income tax rate (fraction, Appendix E)
$STATP_{r,t}$ = after-tax profit for existing and new capacity (dollars)
r = NGTDM region
t = forecast year

State income taxes are computed by multiplying the sum of taxable profit and the associated Federal income tax by a weighted-average State tax rate associated with each NGTDM region. State income taxes are computed as follows:

$$STSIT_{r,t} = SRATE * (STFIT_{r,t} + STATP_{r,t}) \quad (283)$$

where,

$STSIT_{r,t}$ = State income tax for existing and new capacity (dollars)
SRATE = average State income tax rate (fraction, Appendix E)
$STFIT_{r,t}$ = Federal income tax for existing and new capacity (dollars)
$STATP_{r,t}$ = after-tax profits for existing and new capacity (dollars)

r = NGTDM region
t = forecast year

Deferred income taxes for existing and new capacity at the arc level are the differences in the accumulated deferred income taxes between year t and year t-1.

$$STDIT_{r,t} = STADIT_{r,t} - STADIT_{r,t-1} \tag{284}$$

where,

$STDIT_{r,t}$ = deferred income taxes for existing and new capacity (dollars)
$STADIT_{r,t}$ = accumulated deferred income taxes for existing and new capacity (dollars)
r = NGTDM region
t = forecast year

Other taxes consist of a combination of ad valorem taxes (which grow with company revenue), property taxes (which grow in proportion to gross plant), and all other taxes (assumed constant in real terms). Other taxes in year t are determined as the previous year's other taxes adjusted for inflation.

$$STOTTAX_{r,t} = STOTTAX_{r,t-1} * (MC\_PCWGDP_t / MC\_PCWGDP_{t-1}) \tag{285}$$

where,

$STOTTAX_{r,t}$ = all other taxes assessed by Federal, State, or local governments except income taxes for existing and new capacity (dollars) [read in as D_OTTAXr,t , t=1990-1998]
MC_PCWGDP_t = GDP chain-type price deflator (from the Macroeconomic Activity Module)
r = NGTDM region
t = forecast year

Computation of total operating and maintenance expenses, $STTOM_{r,t}$

The total operating and maintenance costs (including administrative costs) for existing and new capacity in an NGTDM region are determined in 1996 real dollars using a log-linear form with correction for serial correlation. The estimated equation is determined as a function of working gas storage capacity for region r at the beginning of period t. In developing the estimations, the impact of regulatory change and the differences between producing and consuming regions were analyzed.[93] Because their impacts were not supported by the data, they were not accounted for in the estimations. The final estimating equation is:

$$\begin{aligned} R\_STTOM_{r,t} = e^{(STTOM\_C*(1-\rho))} * DSTWCAP_{r,t-1}^{STTOM\_WORKCAP} * \\ R\_STTOM_{r,t-1}^{\rho} * DSTWCAP_{r,t-2}^{-\rho*STTOM\_WORKCAP} \end{aligned} \tag{286}$$

[93]The gas storage industry changed substantially when in 1994 FERC Order 636 required jurisdictional pipeline companies to operate their storage facilities on an open-access basis. The primary customers and use of storage in producing regions are significantly different from consuming regions.

where,

$R\_STTOM_{r,t}$ = total operating and maintenance cost for existing and new capacity (1996 real dollars)
STTOM_C = constant term from estimation (Appendix F, Table F3)
ρ = autocorrelation coefficient from estimation (Appendix F, Table F3 -- STTOM_RHO)
$DSTWCAP_{r,t}$ = level of gas working capacity for region r during year t
STTOM_WORKCAP = estimated DSTWCAP coefficient (Appendix F, Table F3)
r = NGTDM region
t = forecast year

Finally, the total operating and maintenance costs are converted to nominal dollars to be consistent with the convention used in this submodule.

$$STTOM_{r,t} = R\_STTOM_{r,t} * \frac{MC\_PCWGDP_t}{MC\_PCWGDP_{1996}} \tag{287}$$

where,

$STTOM_{r,t}$ = total operating and maintenance costs for existing and new capacity (nominal dollars)
$R\_STTOM_{r,t}$ = total operating and maintenance costs for existing and new capacity (1996 real dollars)
MC_PCWGDP_t = GDP chain-type price deflator (from the Macroeconomic Activity Module)
r = NGTDM region
t = forecast year

Computation of Storage Tariff

The regional storage tariff depends on the storage cost of service, current working gas capacity, utilization rate, natural gas storage activity, and other factors. The functional form is similar to the pipeline tariff curve, in that it will be built from a regional base point [price and quantity (PNOD,QNOD)]. The base regional storage tariff ($PNOD_{r,t}$) is determined as a function of the cost of service ($STCOS_{r,t}$ (equation 244)) and other factors discussed below. $QNOD_{r,t}$ is set to an effective working gas storage capacity by region, which is defined as a regional working gas capacity times its utilization rate. Hence, once the storage cost of service is computed by region, the base point can be established. Minor adjustments to the storage tariff routine will be necessary in order to obtain the desired results.

In the model, the storage cost of service used represents only a portion of the total storage cost of service, the revenue collected from the customers for withdrawing during the peak period the quantity of natural gas stored during the off-peak period. This portion is defined as a user-set percentage (STRATIO, Appendix E) representing the portion (ratio) of revenue requirement obtained by storage companies for storing gas during the off-peak and withdrawing it for the customers during the peak period. This would include charges for injections, withdrawals, and reserving capacity.

The cost of service $STCOS_{r,t}$ is computed using the Foster storage financial database which represents only the storage facilities owned by the interstate natural gas pipelines in the U.S. which have filed a Form 2 financial report with the FERC. Therefore, an adjustment to this cost of service to account for all the storage companies by region is needed. For example, at the national level, the Foster database shows the underground storage working gas capacity at 2.3 Tcf in 1998 and the EIA storage gas capacity data show much higher working gas capacity at 3.8 Tcf. Thus, the average adjustment factor to obtain the "actual" cost of service across all regions in the U.S. is 165 percent. This adjustment factor, $STCAP\_ADJ_{r,t}$, varies from region to region.

To complete the design of the storage tariff computation, two more factors need to be incorporated: the regional storage tariff curve adjustment factor and the regional efficiency factor for storage operations, which makes the storage tariff more competitive in the long-run.

Hence, the regional average storage tariff charged to customers for moving natural gas stored during the off-peak period and withdrawn during the peak period can be computed as follows:

$$PNOD_{r,t} = \frac{STCOS_{r,t}}{(MC\_PCWGDP_t * QNOD_{r,t} * 1{,}000{,}000.)} * STRATIO_{r,t} * STCAP\_ADJ_{r,t} * ADJ\_STR * (1.0 - STR\_EFF/100.)^t \tag{288}$$

where,

$$STCAP\_ADJ_{r,t} = \frac{PTCURPSTR_{r,t}}{FS\_PTCURPSTR_{r,t}} \tag{289}$$

$$QNOD_{r,t} = PTCURPSTR_{r,t} * PTSTUTZ_{r,t} \tag{290}$$

and,

$PNOD_{r,t}$	=	base point, price (87\$/Mcf)
$STCOS_{r,t}$	=	storage cost of service for existing and new capacity (dollars)
$QNOD_{r,t}$	=	base point, quantity (Bcf)
MC_PCWGDP_t	=	GDP chain-type price deflator (from the Macroeconomic Activity Module)
$STRATIO_{r,t}$	=	portion of revenue requirement obtained by moving gas from the off-peak to the peak period (fraction, Appendix E)
$STCAP\_ADJ_{r,t}$	=	adjustment factor for the cost of service to total U.S. (ratio)
ADJ_STR	=	storage tariff curve adjustment factor (fraction, Appendix E)
STR_EFF	=	efficiency factor (percent) for storage operations (Appendix E)
$PTSTUTZ_{r,t}$	=	storage utilization (fraction)
$PTCURPSTR_{r,t}$	=	current storage capacity (Bcf)

$FS\_PTCURPSTR_{r,t}$	=	Foster storage working gas capacity (Bcf) [read in as D_WCAP]
r	=	NGTDM region
t	=	forecast year

Finally, the storage tariff curve by region can be expressed as a function of a base point [price and quantity (PNOD, QNOD)], storage flow, and a price elasticity, as follows:

current capacity segment:

$$X1NGSTR\_VARTAR_{r,t} = PNOD_{r,t} * (Q_{r,t} / QNOD_{r,t})^{ALPHA\_STR} \tag{291}$$

capacity expansion segment:

$$X1NGSTR\_VARTAR_{r,t} = PNOD_{r,t} * (Q_{r,t} / QNOD_{r,t})^{ALPHA2\_STR} \tag{292}$$

where,

$X1NGSTR\_VARTAR_{r,t}$	=	function to define storage tariffs (87$/Mcf)
$PNOD_{r,t}$	=	base point, price (87$/Mcf)
$QNOD_{r,t}$	=	base point, quantity (Bcf)
$Q_{r,t}$	=	regional storage flow (Bcf)
ALPHA_STR	=	price elasticity for storage tariff curve for current capacity (Appendix E)
ALPHA2_STR	=	price elasticity for storage tariff curve for capacity expansion segment (Appendix E)
r	=	NGTDM region
t	=	forecast year

Alaska and MacKenzie Delta Pipeline Tariff Routine

A single routine (FUNCTION NGFRPIPE_TAR) estimates the potential per-unit pipeline tariff for moving natural gas from either the North Slope of Alaska or the MacKenzie Delta to the market hub in Alberta, Canada for the years beyond the specified in-service date. The tariff estimates are based on a simple cost-of-service rate base methodology, given the infrastructure's initial capital cost at the beginning of the construction period (FR_CAPITL0 in billion dollars, Appendix E), the assumed number of years for the project to be completed (FRPCNSYR, Appendix E), the associated discount rate for the project (FR_DISCRT, Appendix E), the initial capacity (a function of delivered volume FR_PVOL, Appendix E), and the number of years over which the final cost of capitalization is assumed completely amortized (INVEST_YR=15). The input values vary depending on whether the tariff being calculated is associated with a pipeline for Alaska or for MacKenzie Delta gas. The cost of service consists of the following four components: depreciation, depletion, and amortization; after-tax operating income (known as the return on rate base); total operating and maintenance expenses; and total income taxes. The computation of each of the four components in nominal dollars per Mcf is described below:

Depreciation, depletion, and amortization, FR_DDA_t

The depreciation is computed as the final cost of capitalization at the start of operations divided by the amortization period. The depreciation equation is provided below:

$$FR\_DDA_t = FR\_CAPITL1 / INVEST\_YR \tag{293}$$

where,

FR_DDA_t	=	depreciation, depletion, and amortization costs (thousand nominal dollars)
FR_CAPITL1	=	final cost of capitalization at the start of operations (thousand nominal dollars)
INVEST_YR	=	investment period allowing recovery (parameter, INVEST_YR=15)
t	=	forecast year

The structure of the final cost of capitalization, FR_CAPITL1, is computed as follows:

$$FR\_CAPITL1 = FR\_CAPIT0 / FR\_PCNSYR * [(1+r) + (1+r)^2 + ... + (1+r)^{FR\_PCNSYR}] \tag{294}$$

where,

FR_CAPITL1	=	final cost of capitalization at the start of operations (thousand nominal dollars)
FR_CAPITL0	=	initial capitalization (thousand FR_CAPYR dollars), where FR_CAPYR is the year dollars associated with this assumed capital cost (Appendix E)
FR_PCNSYR	=	number of construction years (Appendix E)
r	=	cost of debt, fraction, which is equal to the nominal 10-year Treasury bill (MC_RMTCM10Y or TNOTE, in percent) plus a debt premium in percent (debt premium set to FR_DISCRT, Appendix E)

The net plant in service is tied to the depreciation by the following formulas:

$$FR\_NPIS_t = FR\_GPIS_t - FR\_ADDA_t$$
$$FR\_ADDA_t = FR\_ADDA_{t-1} + FR\_DDA_t \tag{295}$$

where,

FR_GPIS_t	=	original capital cost of plant in service (gross plant in service) in thousand nominal dollars, set to FR_CAPITL1.
FR_NPIS_t	=	net plant in service (thousand nominal dollars)
FR_ADDA_t	=	accumulated depreciation, depletion, and amortization in thousand nominal dollars
t	=	forecast year

After-tax operating income (return on rate base), FR_TRRB_t

This after-tax operating income also known as the return on rate base is computed as the net plant in service times an annual rate of return (FR_ROR, Appendix E). The net plant in service, FR_NPIS_t, gets updated each year and is equal to the initial gross plant in service minus accumulated depreciation. Net plant in service becomes the adjusted rate base when other capital related costs such as materials and supplies, cash working capital, and accumulated deferred income taxes are equal to zero.

The return on rate base is computed as follows:

$$FR\_TRRB_t = WACC_t * FR\_NPIS_t \tag{296}$$

where,

$$\begin{aligned} WACC_t = {} & FR\_DEBTRATIO * COST\_OF\_DEBT_t + \\ & (1.0 - FR\_DEBTRATIO) * COST\_OF\_EQUITY_t \end{aligned} \tag{297}$$

and

$$COST\_OF\_DEBT_t = (TNOTE_t + FR\_DISCRT) / 100. \tag{298}$$

$$COST\_OF\_EQUITY_t = (TNOTE_t \ / 100. \tag{299}$$

where,

FR_TRRB_t	=	after-tax operating income or return on rate base (thousand nominal dollars)
$WACC_t$	=	weighted average cost of capital (fraction), nominal
FR_NPIS_t	=	net plant in service (thousand nominal dollars)
$COST\_OF\_DEBT_t$	=	cost of debt (fraction)
$COST\_OF\_EQUITY_t$	=	cost of equity (fraction)
$TNOTE_t$	=	nominal 10-year Treasury bill rate, ($MC\_RMTCM10Y_t$, percent) provided by the Macroeconomic Activity Module
FR_DISCRT	=	user-set debt premium, percent (Appendix E)
FR_ROR_PREM	=	user-set risk premium, percent (Appendix E)
t	=	forecast year

Total taxes, FR_TAXES_t

Total taxes consist of Federal and State income taxes and taxes other than income taxes. Each tax category is computed based on a percentage times net profit. These percentages are drawn from the Foster financial report's 28 major interstate natural gas pipeline companies. The percentage for income taxes (FR_TXR) is computed as the average over five years (1992-1996) of tax to net operating income ratio from the Foster report. Likewise, the percentage (FR_OTXR) for taxes other than income taxes is computed as the average over five years (1992-1996) of taxes other than income taxes to net operating income ratio from the same report. Total taxes are computed as follows:

$$FR\_TAXES_t = (FR\_TXR + FR\_OTXR) * FR\_NETPFT_t \tag{300}$$

where,

FR_TAXES_t = total taxes (thousand nominal dollars)
FR_NETPFT_t = net profit (thousand nominal dollars)
FR_TXR = 5-year average Lower 48 pipeline income tax rate, as a proxy (Appendix E)
FR_OTXR = 5-year average Lower 48 pipeline other income tax rate, as a proxy (Appendix E)
t = forecast year

Net profit, FR_NETPFT, is computed as the return on rate base (FR_TRRB_t) minus the long-term debt (FR_LTD_t), which is calculated as the return on rate base times long-term debt rate times the debt to capital structure ratio. The net profit and long-term debt equations are provided below:

$$FR\_NETPFT_t = (FR\_TRRB_t - FR\_LTD_t) \tag{301}$$

$$FR\_LTD_t = FR\_DEBTRATIO * (TNOTE_t + FR\_DISCRT) / 100.0 * FR\_NPIS_t \tag{302}$$

where,

FR_LTD_t = long-term debt (thousand nominal dollars)
FR_NPIS_t = net plant in service (thousand nominal dollars)
FR_DEBTRATIO = 5-year average Lower 48 pipeline debt structure ratio (Appendix E)
FR_NETPFT_t = net profit (thousand nominal dollars)
FR_TRRB_t = return on rate base (thousand nominal dollars)
$TNOTE_t$ = nominal 10-year Treasury bill, (MC_RMTCM10Y, percent) provided by the Macroeconomic Activity Module
FR_DISCRT = user-set debt premium, percent (Appendix E)
t = forecast year

In the above equations, the long-term debt rate is assumed equal to the 10-year Treasury bill plus a debt premium, which represents a risk premium generally charged by financial institutions. When 10-year Treasury bill rates are needed for years beyond the last forecast year (LASTYR), the variable $TNOTE_t$ becomes the average over a number of years (FR_ESTNYR, Appendix E) of the 10-year Treasury bill rates for the last forecast years.

Cost of Service, FR_COS_t

The cost of service is the sum of four cost-of-service components computed above, as follows:

$$FR\_COS_t = (FR\_TRRB_t + FR\_DDA_t + FR\_TAXES_t + FR\_TOM_{FR\_CAPYR} * (MC\_PCWGDP_t / MC\_PCWGDP_{FR\_CAPYR}) * FR\_PVOL * 1.1484 * 1000.0) \quad (303)$$

where,

FR_COS_t	=	cost of service (thousand nominal dollars)
FR_TRRB_t	=	return on rate base (thousand nominal dollars)
FR_DDA_t	=	depreciation (thousand nominal dollars)
FR_TAXES_t	=	total taxes (thousand nominal dollars)
FR_TOMFR_CAPYR	=	total operating and maintenance expenses (in nominal dollars per Mcf, set constant in real terms) (Appendix E)
MC_PCWGDP_t	=	GDP price deflator (from Macroeconomic Activity Module)
FR_PVOL	=	maximum volume delivered to Alberta in dry terms (Bcf/year)
1.1484	=	factor to convert delivered dry volume to wet gas volume entering the pipeline as a proxy for the pipeline capacity
t	=	forecast year

Hence, the annual pipeline tariff in nominal dollars is computed by dividing the above cost of service by total pipeline capacity, as follows:

$$COS_t = FR\_COS_t / (FR\_PVOL * 1.1484 * 1000.0) \quad (304)$$

where,

COS_t	=	per-unit cost of service or annual pipeline tariff (nominal dollars/Mcf)
t	=	forecast year

To convert this nominal tariff to real 1987$/Mcf, the GDP implicit price deflator variable provided by the Macroeconomic Activity Module is needed. The real tariff equation is written as follows:

$$COSR_t = COS_t / MC\_PCWGDP_t \quad (305)$$

where,

$COSR_t$	=	annual real pipeline tariff (1987 dollars/Mcf)
MC_PCWGDP_t	=	GDP price deflator (from Macroeconomic Activity Module)
t	=	forecast year

Last, the annual average tariff is computed as the average over a number of years (FR_AVGTARYR, Appendix E) of the first successive annual cost of services.

7. Model Assumptions, Inputs, and Outputs

This last chapter summarizes the model and data assumptions used by the Natural Gas Transmission and Distribution Module (NGTDM) and lists the primary data inputs to and outputs from the NGTDM.

Assumptions

This section presents a brief summary of the assumptions used within the NGTDM. Generally, there are two types of data assumptions that affect the NGTDM solution values. The first type can be derived based on historical data (past events), and the second type is based on experience and/or events that are likely to occur (expert or analyst judgment). A discussion of the rationale behind assumed values based on analyst judgment is beyond the scope of this report. Most of the FORTRAN variables related to model input assumptions, both those derived from known sources and those derived through analyst judgment, are identified in this chapter, with background information and actual values referenced in Appendix E.

The assumptions summarized in this section are mentioned in Chapters 2 through 6. They are used in NGTDM equations as starting values, coefficients, factors, shares, bounds, or user specified parameters. Six general categories of data assumptions have been defined: classification of market services, demand, transmission and distribution service pricing, pipeline tariffs and associated regulation, pipeline capacity and utilization, and supply (including imports). These assumptions, along with their variable names, are summarized below.

Market Service Classification

Nonelectric sector natural gas customers are classified as either core or noncore customers, with core customers defined as the type of customer that is expected to generally transport their gas under firm (or near firm) transportation agreements and noncore customers to generally transport their gas under non-firm (interruptible or short-term capacity release) transportation agreements. The residential, commercial, and transportation (natural gas vehicles) sectors are assumed to be core customers. The transportation sector is further subdivided into fleet and personal vehicle customers. Industrial and electric generator end users fall into both categories, with industrial boilers and refineries assumed to be noncore and all other industrial users assumed to be core, and gas steam units or gas combined cycle units assumed to be core and all other electric generators assumed to be noncore. Currently the core/noncore distinction for electric generators is not being used in the model.

Demand

The peak period is defined *(using PKOPMON)* to run from December through March, with the off-peak period filling up the remainder of the year.

The Alaskan natural gas consumption levels for residential and commercial sectors are primarily defined as a function of the number of customers *(AK_RN, AK_CM, Tables F1, F2)*, which in turn are set based on an exogenous projection of the population in Alaska *(AK_POP)*. Alaskan gas consumption is disaggregated into North and South Alaska in order to separately compute the natural gas production forecasts in these regions. Lease, plant, and pipeline fuel related to an Alaska pipeline or a gas-to-liquids facility are set at an assumed percentage of their associated gas volumes *(AK_PCTPLT, AK_PCTPIP, AK_PCTLSE)*. The remaining lease and plant fuel is assumed to be consumed in the North and set based on historical trends. The amount of gas consumed by other sectors in North Alaska is small enough to assume as zero and to allow for the setting of South Alaska volumes equal to the totals for the State. Industrial consumption in South Alaska is set to the exogenously specified sum of the level of gas consumed at the Agrium fertilizer plant and at the liquefied natural gas plant *(AK_QIND_S)*. Pipeline fuel in the South is set as a percentage *(AK_PCTPIP)* of consumption and exports. Production in the south is set to total consumption levels in the region. In the north production equals the flow along an Alaska pipeline to Alberta, any gas needed to support the production of gas-to-liquids, associated lease, plant, and pipeline fuel for these two applications, and the other calculated lease and plant fuel. The forecast for reporting discrepancy in Alaska *(AK_DISCR)* is set to an average historical value. To compute natural gas prices by end-use sector for Alaska, fixed markups derived from historical data *(AK_RM, AK_CM, AK_IN, AK_EM)* are added to the average Alaskan natural gas wellhead price over the North and South regions. The wellhead price is set using a simple estimated equation *(AK_F)*. Historically based percentages and markups are held constant throughout the forecast period.

The shares *(NG_CENSHR)* for disaggregating nonelectric Census Division demands to NGTDM regions are held constant throughout the forecast period and are based on average historical relationships *(SQRS, SQCM, SQIN, SQTR)*. Similarly, the shares for disaggregating end-use consumption levels to peak and off-peak periods are held constant throughout the forecast, and are directly *(United States -- PKSHR_DMD, PKSHR_UDMD_F, PKSHR_UDMD_I)* or partially *(Canada -- PKSHR_CDMD)* historically based. Canadian consumption levels are set exogenously *(CN_DMD)* based on another published forecast, and adjusted if the associated world oil price changes. Consumption, base level production, and domestically consumed LNG imports into Mexico are set exogenously *(PEMEX_GFAC, IND_GFAC, ELE_GFAC, RC_GFAC, PRD_GFAC, MEXLNG)*. After the base level production is adjusted based on the average U.S. wellhead price, exports to Mexico are set to balance supply and consumption. Historically based shares *(PKSHR_ECAN, PKSHR_EMEX, PKSHR_ICAN, PKSHR_IMEX, PKSHR_ILNG)* are applied to projected/historical values for natural gas exports and imports *(SEXP, SIMP, CANEXP, Q23TO3, FLO_THRU_IN,OGQNGEXP)*. These historical based shares are generated from monthly historical data *(QRS, QCM, QIN, QEU, MON_QEXP, MON_QIMP)*.

Lease and plant fuel consumption in each NGTDM region is computed as an historically derived percentage *(using SQLP)* of dry gas production *(PCTLP)* in each NGTDM/OGSM region. These percentages are held constant throughout the forecast period. Pipeline fuel use is derived using historically *(SQPF)* based factors *(PFUEL_FAC)* relating pipeline fuel use to the quantity of natural gas exiting a regional node. Values for the most recent historical year are derived from monthly-published figures *(QLP_LHIS, NQPF_TOT)*.

Pricing of Distribution Services

End-use prices for residential, commercial, industrial, transportation, and electric generation customers are derived by adding markups to the regional hub price of natural gas. Each regional end-use markup consists of an intraregional tariff *(INTRAREG_TAR)*, an intrastate tariff *(INTRAST_TAR)*, a distribution tariff *(endogenously defined)*, and a city gate benchmark factor [endogenously defined based on historical seasonal city gate prices (HCGPR)]. Historical distributor tariffs are derived for all sectors as the difference between historical city gate and end-use prices *(SPRS, SPCM, SPIN, SPEU, SPTR, PRS, PCM PIN, PEU)*.[94] Historical industrial end-use prices are derived in the module using an econometrically estimated equation (Table F5).[95] The residential, commercial, industrial, and electric generator distributor tariffs are also based on econometrically estimated equations (Tables F4, F6, F7, and F8). The distributor tariff for the personal (PV) and fleet vehicle (FV) components of the transportation sector are set using historical data, a decline rate *(TRN_DECL)*, state and federal taxes *(STAX, FTAX)*, and assumed dispensing costs/charges *(RETAIL_COST)*, and for personal vehicles at retail stations, a capital cost recovery markup *(CNG_RETAIL_MARKUP)*.

Prices for exports (and fixed volume imports) are based on historical differences between border prices *(SPIM, SPEX, MON_PIMP, MON_PEXP)* and their closest market hub price (as determined in the module when executed during the historical years).

Pipeline and Storage Tariffs and Regulation

Peak and off-peak transportation rates for interstate pipeline services (both between NGTDM regions and within a region) are calculated assuming that the costs of new pipeline capacity will be rolled into the existing rate base. Peak and off-peak market transmission service rates are based on a cost-of-service/rate-of-return calculation for current pipeline capacity times an assumed utilization rate *(PKUTZ, OPUTZ)*. To reflect recent regulatory changes related to alternative ratemaking and capacity release developments, these tariffs are discounted (based on an assumed price elasticity) as pipeline utilization rates decline.

In the computation of natural gas pipeline transportation and storage rates, the Pipeline Tariff Submodule uses a set of data assumptions based on historical data or expert judgment. These include the following:

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[94] All historical prices are converted from nominal to real 1987 dollars using a price deflator *(GDP_B87)*.

[95] Traditionally industrial prices have been derived by collecting sales data from local distribution companies. More recently, industrial customers have not relied on LDCs to purchase their gas. As a result, annually published industrial natural gas prices only represent a rather small portion of the total population. In the module, these published prices are adjusted using an econometrically estimated equation based on EIA's survey of manufacturers to derive a more representative set of industrial prices.

- Factors *(AFX, AFR, AVR)* to allocate each company's line item costs into the fixed and variable cost components of the reservation and usage fees
- Capacity reservation shares used to allocate cost of service components to portions of the pipeline network
- Average pipeline capital cost (2005 dollars) per unit of expanded capacity by arc *(AVGCOST)* used to derive total capital costs to expand pipeline capacity
- Storage capacity expansion cost parameters *(STCCOST_CREG, STCCOST_BETAREG, STCSTFAC)* used to derive total capital costs to expand regional storage capacity
- Input coefficients *(ALPHA_PIPE, ALPH2_PIPE, ALPHA_STR, ALPHA2_STR, ADJ_STR, STR_EFF)* for transportation and storage rates
- Pipeline tariff curve parameters by arc *(PKSHR_YR, PTPKUTZ, PTOPUTZ, ALPHA_PIPE, ALPHA2_PIPE)*
- Storage tariff curve parameters by region *(STRATIO, STCAP_ADJ, PTSTUTZ, ADJ_STR, STR_EFF, ALPHA_STR, ALPHA2_STR)*

In order to determine when a pipeline from either Alaska or the MacKenzie Delta to Alberta could be economic, the model estimates the tariff that would be charged on both pipelines should they be built, based on a number of assumed values. A simple cost-of-service/rate-of-return calculation is used, incorporating the following: initial capitalization *(FR_CAPITLO)*, return on debt *(FR_DISCRT)* and return on equity *(FR_ROR_PREM)* (both specified as a premium added to the 10-year Treasury bill rate), total debt as a fraction of total capital *(FR_DEBTRATIO)*, operation and maintenance expenses *(FR_TOM0)*, federal income tax rate *(FR_TXR)*, other tax rate *(FR_OTXR)*, levelized cost period *(FR_AVGTARYR)*, and depreciation period *(INVEST_YR)*. In order to establish the ultimate charge for the gas in the lower 48 States assumptions were made for the minimum wellhead price *(FR_PMINWPC)* including production, treatment, and fuel costs, as well as the average differential between Alberta and the lower 48 *(ALB_TO_L48)* and a risk premium *(FR_PRISK)* to reflect cost and market uncertainties. The market price in the lower 48 states must be maintained over a planning horizon *(FR_PPLNYR)* before construction would begin. Construction is assumed to take a set number of years *(FR_PCNSYR)* and result in a given initial capacity based on initial delivered volumes *(FR_PVOL)*. An additional expansion is assumed on the condition of an increase in the market price *(FR_PADDTAR, FR_PEXPFAC)*.

Pipeline and Storage Capacity and Utilization

Historical and planned interregional, intraregional, and Canadian pipeline capacities are assigned in the module for the historical years and the first few years *(NOBLDYR)* into the forecast *(ACTPCAP, PTACTPCAP, PLANPCAP, SPLANPCAP, PER_YROPEN, CNPER_YROPEN)*. The flow of natural gas along these pipeline corridors in the peak and off-peak periods of the historical years is set, starting with historical shares *(HPKSHR_FLOW)*, to be consistent with the annual flows *(HAFLOW, SAFLOW)* and other known seasonal network volumes (e.g., consumption, production).

A similar assignment is used for storage capacities *(PLANPCAP, ADDYR)*. The module only represents net storage withdrawals in the peak period and net storage injections in the off-peak period, which are known historically *(HNETWTH, HNETINJ, SNETWTH, NWTH_TOT, NINJ_TOT)*.

For the forecast years, the use of both pipeline and storage capacity in each seasonal period is limited by exogenously set maximum utilization rates *(PKUTZ, OPUTZ, SUTZ)*, although these are currently not active for pipelines. They were originally intended to reflect an expected variant in the load throughout a season. Adjustments are now being made within the module, during the flow sharing algorithm, to reflect the seasonal load variation.

The decision concerning the share of gas that will come from each incoming source into a region for the purpose of satisfying the regions consumption levels (and some of the consumption upstream) is based on the relative costs of the incoming sources and assumed parameters *(GAMMAFAC, MUFAC)*. During the process of deciding the flow of gas through the network, an iterative process is used that requires a set of assumed parameters for assessing and responding to nonconvergence *(PSUP_DELTA, QSUP_DELTA, QSUP_SMALL, QSUP_WT, MAXCYCLE)*.

Supply

The supply curves for domestic lower 48 nonassociated dry gas production and for conventional and tight gas production from the WCSB are based on an expected production level, the former of which is set in the OGSM. Expected production from the WCSB is set in the NGTDM using a series of three econometric equations for new successful wells drilled, quantity proved per well drilled, and expected quantity produced per current level proved, and is dependent on resource assumptions *(RESBASE, RESTECH)*. A set of parameters *(PARM_SUPCRV3, PARM_SUPCRV5, SUPCRV, PARM_SUPELAS)* defines the price change from a base or expected price as production deviates from this expected level. These supply curves are limited by minimum and maximum levels, calculated as a factor *(PARM_MINPR, MAXPRRFAC, MAXPRRCAN)* times the expected production levels. Domestic associated-dissolved gas production is provided by the Oil and Gas Supply Module. Eastern Canadian production from other than the WCSB is set exogenously *(CN_FIXSUP)*. Natural gas production in Canada from both coal beds and shale is based on assumed production withdrawal profiles from their perspective resource base totals *(ULTRES, ULTSHL)* at an assumed exogenously specified price path and is adjusted relative to how much the actual western Canadian price differs from the assumed. Production from the frontier areas in Canada (i.e., the MacKenzie Delta) is set based on the assumed size of the pipeline to transport the gas to Alberta, should the pipeline be built. Production from Alaska is a function of the consumption in Alaska and the potential capacity of a pipeline from Alaska to Alberta and/or a gas-to-liquids facility.

Imports from Mexico and Canada at each border crossing point are represented as follows: (1) Mexican imports are set exogenously *(EXP_FRMEX)* with the exception of LNG imported into Baja for U.S. markets; (2) Canadian imports are set endogenously (except for the imports into the East North Central region, *(Q23TO3)* and limited to Canadian pipeline capacities *(ACTPCAP, CNPER_YROPEN)*, which are set in the module, and expand largely in response to the introduction of Alaskan gas into the Alberta system. Total gas imports from Canada exclude the amount of gas that travels into the United States and then back into Canada *(FLO_THRU_IN)*.

Liquefied natural gas imports are represented with an east and west supply curves to North America generated based on output results from EIA's International Natural Gas Model and shared to representative regional terminals based on regasification capacity, last year's imports, and relative prices. Regasification capacity is set based on known facilities, either already constructed or highly likely to be *(LNGCAP)*.

The three supplemental production categories (synthetic production of natural gas from coal and liquids and other supplemental fuels) are represented as constant supplies within the Interstate Transmission Submodule, with the exception of any production from potential new coal-to-gas plants. Synthetic production from the existing coal plant is set exogenously *(SNGCOAL)*. Forecast values for the other two categories are held constant throughout the forecast and are set to historical values *(SNGLIQ, SUPPLM)* within the module. The algorithm for determining the potential construction of new coal-to-gas plants uses an extensive set of detailed cost figures to estimate the total investment and operating costs of a plant (including accounting for emissions costs, electricity credits, and lower costs over time due to learning) for use within a discounted cash flow calculation. If positive cash flow is estimated to occur the number of generic plants built is based on a Mansfield-Blackman market penetration algorithm. Throughout the forecast, the annual synthetic gas production levels are split into seasonal periods using an historically *(NSUPLM_TOT)* based share *(PKSHR_SUPLM)*.

The supply component uses an assortment of input values in defining historical production levels and prices (or revenues) by the regions and categories required by the module *(QOF_ALST, QOF_ALFD, QOF_LAST, QOF_LAFD, QOF_CA, ROF_CA, QOF_LA, ROF_LA, QOF_TX, ROF_TX, AL_ONSH, AL_OFST, AL_OFFD, LA_ONSH, LA_OFST, lA_OFFD , ADW, NAW, TGD, MISC_ST, MISC_GAS, MISC_OIL, SMKT_PRD, SDRY_PRD, HQSUP, HPSUP, WHP_LHIS, SPWH)*. A set of seasonal shares *(PKSHR_PROD)* have been defined based on historical values *(MONMKT_PRD)* to split production levels of supply sources that are nonvariant with price *(CN_FIXSUP and others)* into peak and off-peak categories.

Discrepancies that exist between historical supply and disposition level data are modeled at historical levels *(SBAL_ITM)* in the NGTDM and kept constant throughout the forecast years at average historical levels *(DISCR, CN_DISCR)*.

Model Inputs

The NGTDM inputs are grouped into six categories: mapping and control variables, annual historical values, monthly historical values, Alaskan and Canadian demand/supply variables, supply inputs, pipeline and storage financial and regulatory inputs, pipeline and storage capacity and utilization related inputs, end-use pricing inputs, and miscellaneous inputs. Short input data descriptions and identification of variable names that provide more detail (via Appendix E) on the sources and transformation of the input data are provided below.

Mapping and Control Variables

- Variables for mapping from States to regions *(SNUM_ID, SCH_ID, SCEN_DIV, SITM_REG, SNG_EM, SNG_OG, SIM_EX, MAP_PRDST)*
- Variables for mapping import/export borders to States and to nodes *(CAN_XMAPUS, CAN_XMAPCN, MEX_XMAP, CAN_XMAP)*
- Variables for handling and mapping arcs and nodes *(PROC_ORD,ARC_2NODE, NODE_2ARC, ARC_LOOP, SARC_2NODE, SNODE_2ARC, NODE_ANGTS, CAN_XMAPUS)*
- Variables for mapping supply regions *(NODE_SNGCOAL, MAPLNG_NG, OCSMAP, PMMMAP_NG, SUPSUB_NG, SUPSUB_OG)*
- Variables for mapping demand regions *(EMMSUB_NG, EMMSUB_EL, NGCENMAP)*

Annual Historical Values

- Offshore natural gas production and revenue data (QOF_ALST, QOF_ALFD, QOF_LAST, QOF_LAFD, QOF_CA, ROF_CA, QOF_LA, ROF_LA, QOF_TX, ROF_TX, QOF_AL, ROF_AL, QOF_MS, ROF_MS, QOF_GM, ROF_GM, PRICE_CA, PRICE_LA, PRICE_AL, PRICE_TX, GOF_LA, GOF_AL, GOF_TX, GOF_CA, AL_ONSH, AL_OFST, AL_OFFD, LA_ONSH, LA_OFST, LA_OFFD, AL_ONSH2, AL_OFST2, AL_ADJ)
- State-level supply prices *(SPIM, SPWH)*
- State/sub-state-level natural gas production and other supply/storage data *(ADW, NAW, TGD, TGW, MISC_ST, MISC_GAS, MISC_OIL, SMKT_PRD, SDRY_PRD, SIMP, SNET_WTH, SUPPLM)*
- State-level consumption levels *(SBAL_ITM, SEXP, SQPF, SQLP, SQRS, SQCM, SQIN, SQEU, SQTR)*
- State-level end-use prices *(SPEX, SPRS, SPCM, SPIN, SPEU, SPTR)*
- Miscellaneous *(GDP_B87, OGHHPRNG)*

Monthly Historical Values

- State-level natural gas production data *(MONMKT_PRD)*
- Import/export volumes and prices by source *(MON_QIMP, MON_PIMP, MON_QEXP, MON_PEXP, HQIMP)*
- Storage data *(NWTH_TOT, NINJ_TOT, HNETWTH, HNETINJ)*
- State-level consumption and prices *(CON & PRC -- QRS, QCM, QIN, QEU, PRS, PCM, PIN, PEU)*
- Electric power gas consumption and prices *(CON_ELCD, PRC_EPMCD, CON_EPMGR, PRC_EPMGR)*
- Miscellaneous monthly/seasonal data *(NQPF_TOT, NSUPLM_TOT, WHP_LHIS, QLP_LHIS, HCGPR)*

Alaskan, Canadian, & Mexican Demand/Supply Variables

- Alaskan lease, plant, and pipeline fuel parameters *(AK_PCTPLT, AK_PCTPIP, AK_PCTLSE)*
- Alaskan consumption parameters *(AK_QIND_S, AK_RN, AK_CM, AK_POP, AK_HDD, HI_RN)*
- Alaskan pricing parameters *(AK_RM, AK_CM, AK_IN, AK_EM)*
- Canadian production and end-use consumption *(CN_FIXSUP, CN_DMD, PKSHR_PROD, PKSHR_CDMD)*
- Exogenously specified Canadian import/export related volumes *(CANEXP, Q23TO3, FLO_THRU_IN)*
- Historical western Canadian production and wellhead prices *(HQSUP, HPSUP)*
- Unconventional western Canadian production parameters *(ULTRES, ULTSHL, RESBASE, PKIYR, LSTYR0, PERRES, RESTECH, TECHGRW)*
- Mexican production, LNG imports, and end-use consumption *(PEMEX_GFAC, IND_GFAC,ELE_GFAC,RC_GFAC, PRD_GFAC, MEXLNG)*

Supply Inputs

- Liquefied natural gas supply curves and pricing *(LNGCAP, PARM_LNGCRV3, PARM_LNGCRV5,PARM_LNGELAS, LNGPPT, LNGQPT, LNGMIN,PERQ, BETA,LNGTAR)*
- Supply curve parameters *(SUPCRV, PARM_MINPR, PARM_SUPCRV3, PARM_SUPCRV5, PARM_SUPELAS, MAXPRRFAC, MAXPRRNG, PARM_MINPR)*
- Synthetic natural gas projection *(SNGCOAL, SNGLIQ, NRCI_INV, NRCI_LABOR_NRCI_OPER,INFL_RT, FEDTAX_RT, STTAX_RT, INS_FAC, TAX_FAC, MAINT_FAC, OTH_FAC,BEQ_OPRAVG, BEQ_OPRHRSK, EMRP_OPRAVG, EMRP_OPRHRSK, EQUITY_OPRAVG, EQUITY_OPRHRSK, BEQ_BLDAVG, BEQ_BLDHRSK, EMRP_BLDAVG, EMRP_BLDHRSK, EQUITY_BLDAVG, EQUITY_BLDHRSK, BA_PREM, PCLADJ, CTG_CAPYR$, PRJSDECOM, CTG_BLDYRS, CTG_PRJLIFE, CTG_OSBLFAC, CTG_PCTENV, CTG_PCTCNTG, CTG_PCTLND, CTG_PCTSPECL, CTG_PCTWC, CTG_STAFF_LCFAC, CTG_OH_LCFAC, CTG_FSIYR, CTG_INCBLD, CTG_DCLCAPCST, CTG_DCLOPRCST, CTG_BASHHV, CTG_BASCOL, CTG_BCLTON, CTG_BASSIZ, CTG_BASCGS, CTG_BASCGSCO2, CTG_BASCGG, CTG_BASCGGCO2,CTG_NCL, CTG_NAM, CTG_CO2,LABORLOC, CTG_PUCAP, XBM_ISBL, XBM_LABOR, CTG_BLDX, CTG_IINDX, CTG_SINVST)*

Pipeline and Storage Financial and Regulatory Inputs

- Rate design specification *(AFX_PFEN, AFR_PFEN, AVR_PFEN, AFX_CMEN, AFR_CMEN, AVR_CMEN, AFX_LTDN, AFR_LTDN, AVR_LTDN, AFX_DDA, AFR_DDA, AVR_DDA, AFX_FSIT, AFR_FSIT, AVR_FSIT, AFX_DIT, AFR_DIT, AVR_DIT, AFX_OTTAX, AFR_OTTAX, AVR_OTTAX, AFX_TOM, AFR_TOM, AVR_TOM)*
- Pipeline rate base, cost, and volume parameters *(D_TOM, D_DDA, D_OTTAX, D_DIT, D_GPIS, D_ADDA, D_NPIS, D_CWC, D_ADIT, D_APRB, D_GPFES, D_GCMES, D_GLTDS, D_PFER, D_CMER, D_LTDR)*
- Storage rate base, cost, and volume parameters *(D_TOM, D_DDA, D_ADDA, D_OTTAX, D_FSIT, D_DIT, D_LTDN, D_PFEN, D_CMEN, D_GPIS, D_NPIS, D_CWC, D_ADIT, D_APRB, D_LTDS, D_PFES, D_CMES, D_TCAP, D_WCAP)*
- Pipeline and storage revenue requirement forecasting equation parameters *(Table F3)*
- Rate of return set for generic pipeline companies *(MC_RMPUAANS, ADJ_PFER, ADJ_CMER, ADJ_LTDR)*
- Rate of return set for existing and new storage capacity *(MC_RMPUAANS, ADJ_STPFER, ADJ_STCMER, ADJ_STLTDR)*
- Federal and State income tax rates *(FRATE, SRATE)*
- Depreciation schedule *(30 year life)*
- Pipeline capacity expansion cost parameter for capital cost equations *(AVGCOST)*
- Pipeline capacity replacement cost parameter *(PCNT_R)*
- Storage capacity expansion cost parameters for capital cost equations *(STCCOST_CREG, STCCOST_BETAREG, STCSTFAC)*
- Parameters for interstate pipeline transportation rates *(PKSHR_YR, PTPKUTZ, PTOPUTZ, ALPHA_PIPE, ALPHA2_PIPE)*
- Canadian pipeline and storage tariff parameters *(ARC_FIXTAR, ARC_VARTAR, CN_FIXSHR)*
- Parameters for storage rates *(STRATIO, STCAP_ADJ, PTSTUTZ, ADJ_STR, STR_EFF, ALPHA_STR, ALPHA2_STR)*
- Parameters for Alaska-to-Alberta and MacKenzie Delta-to-Alberta pipelines *(FR_CAPITL0, FR_CAPYR, FR_PCNSYR, FR_DISCRT, FR_PVOL, INVEST_YR,FR_ROR_PREM, FR_TOM0, FR_DEBTRATIO, FR_TXR, FR_OTXR, FR_ESTNYR, FR_AVGTARYR)*

Pipeline and Storage Capacity and Utilization Related Inputs

- Canadian natural gas pipeline capacity and planned capacity additions *(ACTPCAP, PTACTPCAP, PLANPCAP, CNPER_YROPEN)*
- Maximum peak and off-peak primary and secondary pipeline utilizations *(PKUTZ, OPUTZ, SUTZ, MAXUTZ, XBLD)*
- Interregional planned pipeline capacity additions along primary and secondary arcs (PLANPCAP, SPLANPCAP, PER_YROPEN)
- Maximum storage utilization (PKUTZ)
- Existing storage capacity and planned additions *(PLANPCAP, ADDYR)*
- Net storage withdrawals (peak) and injections (off-peak) in Canada *(HNETWTH, HNETINJ)*
- Historical flow data *(HPKSHR_FLOW, HAFLOW, SAFLOW)*
- Alaska-to-Alberta and MacKenzie Delta-to-Alberta pipeline *(FR_PMINYR, FR_PVOL, FR_PCNSYR, FR_PPLNYR, FR_PEXPFAC, FR_PADDTAR, FR_PMINWPR, FR_PRISK, FR_PDRPFAC, FR_PTREAT, FR_PFUEL)*

End-Use Pricing Inputs

- Residential, commercial, industrial, and electric generator distributor tariffs *(OPTIND, OPTCOM, OPTRES, OPTELP, OPTELO, RECS_ALIGN, NUM_REGSHR, HHDD)*
- Intrastate and intraregional tariffs *(INTRAST_TAR, INTRAREG_TAR)*
- Historical city gate prices *(HCGPR)*

- State and Federal taxes, costs to dispense, and other compressed natural gas pricing and infrastructure development parameters *(STAX, FTAX, RETAIL_COST, NSTAT, TRN_DECL, MAX_CNG_BUILD, CNG_HRZ, CNG_WACC, CNG_BUILDCOST)*

Miscellaneous

- Network processing control variables *(MAXCYCLE, NOBLDYR,ALPHAFAC, GAMMAFAC, PSUP_DELTA, QSUP_DELTA, QSUP_SMALL, QSUP_WT, PCT_FLO, SHR_OPT, PCTADJSHR)*
- Miscellaneous control variables *(PKOPMON, NGDBGRPT, SHR_OPT, NOBLDYR)*
- STEO input data *(STEOYRS, STQGPTR, STQLPIN, STOGWPRNG, STPNGRS, STPNGIN, STPNGCM, STPNGEL, STOGPRSUP, NNETWITH, STDISCR, STENDCON, STSCAL_CAN, STINPUT_SCAL, STSCAL_PFUEL, STSCAL_LPLT, STSCAL_WPR, STSCAL_DISCR, STSCAL_SUPLM, STSCAL_NETSTR, STSCAL_FPR, STSCAL_IPR, STPHAS_YR, STLNGIMP)*

Model Outputs

Once a set of solution values are determined within the NGTDM, those values required by other modules of NEMS are passed accordingly. In addition, the NGTDM module results are presented in a series of internal and external reports, as outlined below.

Outputs to NEMS Modules

The NGTDM passes its solution values to different NEMS modules as follows:

- Pipeline fuel consumption and lease and plant fuel consumption by Census Division (to NEMS PROPER and REPORTS)
- Natural gas wellhead prices by Oil and Gas Supply Module region (to NEMS REPORTS, Oil and Gas Supply Module, and Petroleum Market Module)
- Core and noncore natural gas prices by sector and Census Division (to NEMS PROPER and REPORTS, and NEMS demand modules)
- Fraction of retail fueling stations that sell compressed natural gas (to Transportation Sector Module)
- Dry natural gas production and supplemental gas supplies by Oil and Gas Supply Module region (NEMS REPORTS and Oil and Gas Supply Module)
- Peak/off-peak, core/ noncore natural gas prices to electric generators by NGTDM/Electricity Market Module region (to NEMS PROPER and REPORTS and Electricity Market Module)
- Coal consumed, electricity generated, and CO2 produced in the process of converting coal into pipeline quality synthetic gas in newly constructed plants (to Coal Market Module, Electricity Market Module, and NEMS PROPER)
- Dry natural gas production by PADD region (to Petroleum Market Module)
- Nonassociated dry natural gas production by NGTDM/Oil and Gas Supply Module region (to NEMS REPORTS and Oil and Gas Supply Module)
- Natural gas imports, exports, and associated prices by border crossing (to NEMS REPORTS)

Internal Reports

The NGTDM produces reports designed to assist in the analysis of NGTDM model results. These reports are controlled with a user-defined variable (NGDBGRPT), include the following information, and are written to the indicated output file:

- Primary peak and off-peak flows, shares, and maximum constraints going into each node (NGOBAL)
- Historical and forecast values historically based factors applied in the module (NGOBENCH)
- Intermediate results from the Distributor Tariff Submodule (NGODTM)
- Intermediate results from the Pipeline Tariff Submodule (NGOPTM)
- Convergence tracking and error message report (NGOERR)
- Aggregate/average historical values for most model elements (NGOHIST)
- Node and arc level prices and quantities along the network by cycle (NGOTREE)

External Reports

In addition to the reports described above, the NGTDM produces external reports to support recurring publications. These reports contain the following information:

- Natural gas end-use prices and consumption levels by end-use sector, type of service (core and noncore), and Census Division (and for the United States)
- Natural gas used to in a gas-to-liquids conversion process in Alaska
- Natural gas wellhead prices and production levels by NGTDM region (and the average for the lower 48 States), including a price for the Henry Hub
- Natural gas end-use and city gate prices and margins
- Natural gas import and export volumes and import prices by source or destination
- Pipeline fuel consumption by NGTDM region (and for the United States)
- Natural gas pipeline capacity (entering and exiting a region) by NGTDM region and by Census Division
- Natural gas flows (entering and exiting a region) by NGTDM region and Census Division
- Natural gas pipeline capacity between NGTDM regions
- Natural gas flows between NGTDM regions
- Natural gas underground storage and pipeline capacity by NGTDM region
- Unaccounted for natural gas[96]

[96]Unaccounted for natural gas is a balancing item between the amount of natural gas consumed and the amount supplied. It includes reporting discrepancies, net storage withdrawals (in historical years), and differences due to convergence tolerance levels.

Appendix A. NGTDM Model Abstract

Model Name: Natural Gas Transmission and Distribution Module

Acronym: NGTDM

Title: Natural Gas Transmission and Distribution Module

Purpose: The NGTDM is the component of the National Energy Modeling System (NEMS) that represents the mid-term natural gas market. The purpose of the NGTDM is to derive natural gas supply and end-use prices and flow patterns for movements of natural gas through the regional interstate network. The prices and flow patterns are derived by obtaining a market equilibrium across the three main components of the natural gas market: the supply component, the demand component, and the transmission and distribution network that links them.

Status: ACTIVE

Use: BASIC

Sponsor:

- Office of Energy Analysis
- Office of Petroleum, Gas, and Biofuels Analysis, EI-33
- Model Contact: Joe Benneche
- Telephone: (202) 586-6132

Documentation: Energy Information Administration, *Model Documentation of the Natural Gas Transmission and Distribution Module (NGTDM) of the National Energy Modeling System (NEMS)*, DOE/EIA-M062 (Washington, DC, June 2011).

Previous Documentation: Energy Information Administration, *Model Documentation of the Natural Gas Transmission and Distribution Module (NGTDM) of the National Energy Modeling System (NEMS)*, DOE/EIA-M062 (Washington, DC, June 2010).

Energy Information Administration, *Model Documentation of the Natural Gas Transmission and Distribution Module (NGTDM) of the National Energy Modeling System (NEMS)*, DOE/EIA-M062 (Washington, DC, June 2009).

Energy Information Administration, *Model Documentation of the Natural Gas Transmission and Distribution Module (NGTDM) of the National Energy Modeling System (NEMS)*, DOE/EIA-M062 (Washington, DC, January 2009).

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Energy Information Administration, *Model Documentation of the Natural Gas Transmission and Distribution Module (NGTDM) of the National Energy Modeling System (NEMS)*, DOE/EIA-M062 (Washington, DC, August 2006).

Energy Information Administration, *Model Documentation of the Natural Gas Transmission and Distribution Module (NGTDM) of the National Energy Modeling System (NEMS)*, DOE/EIA-M062 (Washington, DC, May 2005).

Energy Information Administration, *Model Documentation of the Natural Gas Transmission and Distribution Module (NGTDM) of the National Energy Modeling System (NEMS)*, DOE/EIA-M062 (Washington, DC, March 2004)

Energy Information Administration, *Model Documentation of the Natural Gas Transmission and Distribution Module (NGTDM) of the National Energy Modeling System (NEMS)*, DOE/EIA-M062 (Washington, DC, May 2003)

Energy Information Administration, *Model Documentation of the Natural Gas Transmission and Distribution Module (NGTDM) of the National Energy Modeling System (NEMS)*, DOE/EIA-M062 (Washington, DC, January 2002).

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Energy Information Administration, *Model Documentation of the Natural Gas Transmission and Distribution Model (NGTDM) of the National Energy Modeling System (NEMS)*, DOE/EIA-M062 (Washington, DC, February 1999).

Energy Information Administration, *Model Documentation of the Natural Gas Transmission and Distribution Model (NGTDM) of the National*

Energy Modeling System (NEMS), DOE/EIA-M062/1 (Washington, DC, December 1997).

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Energy Information Administration, *Model Documentation, Natural Gas Transmission and Distribution Model (NGTDM) of the National Energy Modeling System, Volume II: Model Developer's Report*, DOE/EIA-M062/2 (Washington, DC, January 1995).

Energy Information Administration, *Model Documentation of the Natural Gas Transmission and Distribution Model (NGTDM) of the National Energy Modeling System (NEMS)*, DOE/EIA-M062/1 (Washington, DC, February 1995).

Energy Information Administration, *Model Documentation of the Natural Gas Transmission and Distribution Model (NGTDM) of the National Energy Modeling System (NEMS)*, DOE/EIA-M062/1 (Washington, DC, February 1994).

Reviews Conducted:

Paul R. Carpenter, PhD, The Brattle Group. "Draft Review of Final Design Proposal Seasonal/North American Natural Gas Transmission Model." Cambridge, MA, August 15, 1996.

Paul R. Carpenter, PhD, Incentives Research, Inc. "Review of the *Component Design Report Natural Gas Annual Flow Module (AFM) for the Natural Gas Transmission and Distribution Model (NGTDM) of the National Energy Modeling System (NEMS)*." Boston, MA, Aug 25, 1992.

Paul R. Carpenter, PhD, Incentives Research, Inc. "Review of the *Component Design Report Capacity Expansion Module (CEM) for the Natural Gas Transmission and Distribution Model (NGTDM) of the National Energy Modeling System (NEMS)*." Boston, MA, Apr 30, 1993.

Paul R. Carpenter, PhD, Incentives Research, Inc. "Review of the *Component Design Report Pipeline Tariff Module (PTM) for the Natural Gas Transmission and Distribution Model (NGTDM) of the National Energy Modeling System (NEMS)*." Boston, MA, Apr 30, 1993.

Paul R. Carpenter, PhD, Incentives Research, Inc. "Review of the *Component Design Report Distributor Tariff Module (DTM) for the Natural Gas Transmission and Distribution Model (NGTDM) of the National Energy Modeling System (NEMS)*." Boston, MA, Apr 30, 1993.

Paul R. Carpenter, PhD, Incentives Research, Inc. "Final Review of the National Energy Modeling System (NEMS) Natural Gas Transmission and Distribution Model (NGTDM)." Boston, MA, Jan 4, 1995.

Archival: The NGTDM is archived as a component of the NEMS on compact disc storage compatible with the PC multiprocessor computing platform upon completion of the NEMS production runs to generate the *Annual Energy Outlook 2011*, DOE/EIA-0383(2011). The archive package can be downloaded from ftp://ftp.eia.doe.gov/pub/forecasts/aeo.

Energy System Covered: The NGTDM models the U.S. natural gas transmission and distribution network that links the suppliers (including importers) and consumers of natural gas, and in so doing determines the regional market clearing natural gas end-use and supply (including border) prices.

Coverage: Geographic: Demand regions are the 12 NGTDM regions, which are based on the nine Census Divisions with Census Division 5 split further into South Atlantic and Florida, Census Division 8 split further into Mountain and Arizona/New Mexico, and Census Division 9 split further into California and Pacific with Alaska and Hawaii handled separately. Production is represented in the lower 48 at 17 onshore and 3 offshore regions. Import/export border crossings include three at the Mexican border, seven at the Canadian border, and 12 liquefied natural gas import terminals. In a separate component, potential liquefied natural gas production and liquefaction for U.S. import is represented for 14 international ports. A simplified Canadian representation is subdivided into an eastern and western region, with potential LNG import facilities on both shores. Consumption, production, and LNG imports to serve the Mexico gas market are largely assumption based and serve to set the level of exports to Mexico from the United States.

Time Unit/Frequency: Annually through 2035, including a peak (December through March) and off-peak forecast.

Product(s): Natural gas

Economic Sector(s): Residential, commercial, industrial, electric generators and transportation

Data Input Sources:

(Non-DOE)

- The Safe, Accountable, Flexible, Efficient Transportation Equity Act: A Legacy for Users (SAFETEA-LU), Section 1113.
  —Federal vehicle natural gas (VNG) taxes

- Canadian Association of Petroleum Producers Statistical Handbook
  — Historical Canadian supply and consumption data
- Mineral Management Service.
  — Revenues and volumes for offshore production in Texas, California, and Louisiana
- Foster Pipeline and Storage Financial Cost Data
  — pipeline and storage financial data
- Data Resources Inc., U.S. Quarterly Model
  — Various macroeconomic data
- *Oil and Gas Journal*, "Pipeline Economics"
  — Pipeline annual capitalization and operating revenues
- Board of Governors of the Federal Reserve System Statistical Release, "Selected Interest Rates and Bond Prices"
  — Real average yield on 10 year U.S. government bonds
- Hart Energy Network's Motor Fuels Information Center at www.hartenergynetowrk.com/motorfuels/state/doc/glance/glnctax.htm
  — compressed natural gas vehicle taxes by state
- National Oceanic and Atmospheric Association
  — State level heating degree days
- U.S. Census
  — State level population data for heating degree day weights
- Natural Gas Week
  — Canada storage withdrawal and capacity data
- PEMEX Prospective de Gas Natural
  — Historical Mexico raw gas production by region
- Informes y Publicaciones, Anuario Estadísticas, Estadísticas Operativas, Producción de gas natural
  — Historical Mexico raw gas production by region
- Sener Prospectiva del Mercado de gas natural 2006-2015
  — Mexico LNG import projections

Data Input Sources:

(DOE) Forms and/or Publications:

- U.S. Crude Oil, Natural Gas, and Natural Gas Liquids Reserves, DOE/EIA-0216.
  — Annual estimate of gas production for associated-dissolved and nonassociated categories by State/sub-state.
- Natural Gas Annual, DOE/EIA-0131.
  — By state -- natural gas consumption by sector, dry production, imports, exports, storage injections and withdrawals, balancing item, state transfers, number of residential customers, fraction of industrial market represented by historical prices, and wellhead, city gate, and end-use prices.
  — Supplemental supplies
- Natural Gas Monthly, DOE/EIA-0130.
  — By month and state – natural gas consumption by sector, marketed production, net storage withdrawals, end-use prices by sector, city gate prices

— By month – quantity and price of imports and exports by country, wellhead prices, lease and plant consumption, pipeline consumption, supplemental supplies

- State Energy Data System (SEDS).
  — State level annual delivered natural gas prices when not available in the Natural Gas Annual.
- Electric Power Monthly, DOE/EIA-0226.
  — Monthly volume and price paid for natural gas by electric generators
- *Annual Energy Review*, DOE/EIA-0384
  — Gross domestic product and implicit price deflator
- EIA-846, "Manufacturing Energy Consumption Survey"
  — Base year average annual core industrial end-use prices
- *Short-Term Energy Outlook*, DOE/EIA-0131.
  — National natural gas projections for first two years beyond history
  — Historical natural gas prices at the Henry Hub
- Department of Energy, *Natural Gas Imports and Exports*, Office of Fossil Energy
  — Import and export volumes and prices by border location
- Department of Energy, Alternate Fuels & Advanced Vehicles Data Center, including *Alternate Fuel Price Report*, Office of Energy Efficiency and Renewable Energy
  — Sample of retail prices paid for compressed natural gas for vehicles
  — State motor fuel taxes
- EIA-191, "Underground Gas Storage Report"
  — Used in part to develop working gas storage capacity data
- EIA-457, "Residential Energy Consumption Survey"
  — Number of residential natural gas customers
- International Energy Outlook, DOE/EIA-0484.
  — Projection of natural gas consumption in Canada and Mexico.
- International Energy Annual, DOE/EIA-0484.
  — Historical natural gas data on Canada and Mexico.

Models and other:

- National Energy Modeling System (NEMS)
  — Domestic supply and demand representations are provided interactively as inputs to the NGTDM from other NEMS models
- International Natural Gas Model (INGM)
  — Provides information for setting LNG supply curves exogenously in the NGTDM

General Output Descriptions:

- Average natural gas end-use prices levels by sector and region
- Average natural gas production volumes and prices by region
- Average natural gas import and export volumes and prices by region and type
- Pipeline fuel consumption by region
- Lease and plant fuel consumption by region

- Lease and plant fuel consumption by region
- Flow of gas between regions by peak and off-peak period
- Pipeline capacity additions and utilization levels by arc
- Storage capacity additions by region

Related Models: NEMS (part of)

Model Features:

- Model Structure: Modular; three major components: the Interstate Transmission Submodule (ITS), the Pipeline Tariff Submodule (PTS), and the Distributor Tariff Submodule (DTS).
  - — ITS Integrating submodule of the NGTDM. Simulates the natural gas price determination process by bringing together all major economic and technological factors that influence regional natural gas trade in the United States. Determines natural gas production and imports, flows and prices, pipeline capacity expansion and utilization, storage capacity expansion and utilization for a simplified network representing the interstate natural gas pipeline system
  - — PTS Develops parameters for setting tariffs in the ITM for transportation and storage services provided by interstate pipeline companies
  - — DTS Develops markups for distribution services provided by LDC's and intrastate pipeline companies.

- Modeling Technique:
  - — ITS, Heuristic algorithm, operates iteratively until supply/demand convergence is realized across the network
  - — PTS, Econometric estimation and accounting algorithm
  - — DTS, Econometric estimation
  - — Canada and Mexico supplies based on a combination of estimated equations and basic assumptions.

Model Interfaces: NEMS

Computing Environment:

- Hardware Used: Personal Computer
- Operating System: UNIX simulation
- Language/Software Used: FORTRAN
- Storage Requirement: 2,700K bytes for input data storage; 1,100K bytes for source code storage; and 17,500K bytes for compiled code storage
- Estimated Run Time: Varies from NEMS iteration and from computer processor, but rarely exceeds a quarter of a second per iteration and generally is less than 5 hundredths of a second.

Status of Evaluation Efforts:

Model developer's report entitled "Natural Gas Transmission and Distribution Model, Model Developer's Report for the National Energy Modeling System," dated November 14, 1994.

Date of Last Update: January 2011.

Appendix B. References

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Carpenter, Paul R., "Review of the Gas Analysis Modeling System (GAMS), Final Report of Findings and Recommendations" (Boston: Incentives Research, Inc., August 1991).

Decision Focus Incorporate, *Generalized Equilibrium Modeling: The Methodology of the SRI-GULF Energy Model* (Palo Alto, CA, May 1977).

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Forbes, Kevin, Science Applications International Corporation, “Efficiency in the Natural Gas Industry,” Task 93-095 Deliverable under Contract No. DE-AC01-92-EI21944 for Natural Gas Analysis Branch of the Energy Information Administration, January 31, 1995.

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Gas Technology Institute, “Liquefied Natural Gas (LNG) Methodology Enhancements in NEMS,” report submitted to Energy Information Administration, March 2003.

Interstate Natural Gas Association of America (INGAA), “Availability, Economics & Production Potential of North American Unconventional Natural Gas Supplies,” November 2008, written by ICF.

National Energy Board, *Canada’s Energy Future: Scenarios for Supply and Demand to 2025*, 2003

Oil and Gas Journal, “Pipeline Economics,” published annually in various editions.

Woolridge, Jeffrey M., Introductory Econometrics: A Modern Approach, South-Western College Publishing, 2000.

Appendix C. NEMS Model Documentation Reports

The National Energy Modeling System is documented in a series of 15 model documentation reports, most of which are updated on an annual basis. Copies of these reports are available by contacting the National Energy Information Center, 202/586-8800.

Energy Information Administration, *National Energy Modeling System Integrating Module Documentation Report*, DOE/EIA-M057.

Energy Information Administration, *Model Documentation Report: Macroeconomic Activity Module of the National Energy Modeling System*.

Energy Information Administration, *Documentation of the D.R.I. Model of the U.S. Economy*.

Energy Information Administration, *National Energy Modeling System International Energy Model Documentation Report*.

Energy Information Administration, *World Oil Refining, Logistics, and Demand Model Documentation Report*.

Energy Information Administration, *Model Documentation Report: Residential Sector Demand Module of the National Energy Modeling System*.

Energy Information Administration, *Model Documentation Report: Commercial Sector Demand Module of the National Energy Modeling System*.

Energy Information Administration, *Model Documentation Report: Industrial Sector Demand Module of the National Energy Modeling System*.

Energy Information Administration, *Model Documentation Report: Transportation Sector Demand Module of the National Energy Modeling System*.

Energy Information Administration, *Documentation of the Electricity Market Module*.

Energy Information Administration, *Documentation of the Oil and Gas Supply Module*.

Energy Information Administration, *EIA Model Documentation: Petroleum Market Module of the National Energy Modeling System*.

Energy Information Administration, *Model Documentation: Coal Market Module*.

Energy Information Administration, *Model Documentation Report: Renewable Fuels Module*.

Appendix D. Model Equations

This appendix presents the mapping of each equation (by equation number) in the documentation with the subroutine in the NGTDM code where the equation is used or referenced.

Chapter 2 Equations	
EQ. #	**SUBROUTINE** (or FUNCTION *)
1	NGDMD_CRVF* (core), NGDMD_CRVI* (noncore)
2-19	NGSUP_PR*
20-25	NGOUT_CAN
26-39	NGCAN_FXADJ
40	NGOUT_MEX
41	NGSETLNG_INGM
42-54	NGTDM_DMDALK

Chapter 4 Equations	
EQ. #	**SUBROUTINE** (or FUNCTION *)
55, 58	NGSET_NODEDMD, NGDOWN_TREE
56, 59	NGSET_NODECDMD
57, 60	NGSET_YEARCDMD
61, 62	NGDOWN_TREE
63	NGSET_INTRAFLO
64	NGSET_INTRAFLO
65	NGSHR_CALC
66	NGDOWN_TREE
67	NGSET_MAXFLO*
68-71	NGSET_MAXPCAP
72-76	NGSET_MAXFLO*
77-79	NGSET_ACTPCAP
80-81	NGSHR_MTHCHK
82-85	NGSET_SUPPR
86-87	NGSTEO_BENCHWPR
88	NGSTEO_BENCHWPR
89-90	NGSET_ARCFEE

91-94	NGUP_TREE
95	NGSET_STORPR
96-97	NGUP_TREE
98	NGCHK_CONVNG
99	NGSET_SECPR
100	NGSET_BENCH, HNGSET_CGPR
101-106	NGSET_SECPR

Chapter 5 Equations

EQ. #	**SUBROUTINE** (or FUNCTION *)
107-118	NGDTM_FORECAST_DTARF
119-120	NGDTM_FORECAST_TRNF
121-126	NGTDM_CNGBUILD

Chapter 6 Equations

EQ. #	**SUBROUTINE** (or FUNCTION *)
127-132, 136-154, 203-205	NGPREAD
133-135, 155-156	NGPIPREAD
176-194, 206, 208-221	NGPSET_PLCOS_COMPONENTS
157-166, 172, 207, 222-231, 238	NGPSET_PLINE_COSTS
167-171, 232-237, 238-243	NGPIPE_VARTAR*
251-253	NGSTREAD
244-250, 254-256, 260-287	NGPSET_STCOS_COMPONENTS
257-259	NGPST_DEVCONST
173-175, 288-292	X1NGSTR_VARTAR*
195-202	(accounting relationships, not part of code)
293-205	NGFRPIPE_TAR*

Appendix E. Model Input Variable Mapped to Data Input Files

This appendix provides a list of the FORTRAN variables, and their associated input files, that are assigned values through FORTRAN READ statements in the source code of the NGTDM. Information about all of these variables and their assigned values (including sources, derivations, units, and definitions) are provided in the indicated input files of the NGTDM. The data file names and versions used for the *AEO2011* are identified below. These files are located on the EIA NEMS-F8 NT server. Electronic copies of these input files are available as part of the NEMS2011 archive package. The archive package can be downloaded from ftp://ftp.eia.doe.gov/pub/forecasts/aeo. In addition, the files are available upon request from Joe Benneche at (202) 586-6132 or Joseph.Benneche@eia.doe.gov.

ngcan.txt	V1.68	nghismn.txt	V1.30	ngptar.txt	V1.26
ngcap.txt	V1.32	nglngdat.txt	V1.79	nguser.txt	V1.150
ngdtar.txt	V1.38	ngmap.txt	V1.7		
nghisan.txt	V1.35	ngmisc.txt	V1.155		

Variable	File
ACTPCAP	NGCAN
ACTPCAP	NGCAP
ADDYR	NGCAP
ADJ_PIP	NGPTAR
ADJ_STR	NGPTAR
ADW	NGHISAN
AFR_CMEN	NGPTAR
AFR_DDA	NGPTAR
AFR_DIT	NGPTAR
AFR_FSIT	NGPTAR
AFR_LTDN	NGPTAR
AFR_OTTAX	NGPTAR
AFR_PFEN	NGPTAR
AFR_TOM	NGPTAR
AFX_CMEN	NGPTAR
AFX_DDA	NGPTAR
AFX_DIT	NGPTAR
AFX_FSIT	NGPTAR
AFX_LTDN	NGPTAR
AFX_OTTAX	NGPTAR
AFX_PFEN	NGPTAR
AFX_TOM	NGPTAR
AK_C	NGMISC
AK_CM	NGMISC
AK_CN	NGMISC
AK_D	NGMISC
AK_E	NGMISC
AK_EM	NGMISC
AK_ENDCONS_N	NGMISC
AK_F	NGMISC
AK_G	NGMISC
AK_HDD	NGMISC
AK_IN	NGMISC
AK_PCTLSE	NGMISC
AK_PCTPIP	NGMISC
AK_PCTPLT	NGMISC
AK_POP	NGMISC
AK_QIND_S	NGMISC
AK_RM	NGMISC
AK_RN	NGMISC
AKPIP1	NGMISC
AKPIP2	NGMISC
AL_ADJ	NGHISAN
AL_OFFD	NGHISAN
AL_OFST	NGHISAN
AL_OFST2	NGHISAN
AL_ONSH	NGHISAN
AL_ONSH2	NGHISAN
ALB_TO_L48	NGMISC
ALNGA	NGLNGDAT
ALNGB	NGLNGDAT
ALPHA_PIPE	NGPTAR
ALPHA_STR	NGPTAR
ALPHA2_PIPE	NGPTAR
ALPHA2_STR	NGPTAR
ALPHAFAC	NGUSER

Variable	File
ANUM	NGMAP
ARC_FIXTAR	NGCAN
ARC_VARTAR	NGCAN
AVGCOST	NGPTAR
AVR_CMEN	NGPTAR
AVR_DDA	NGPTAR
AVR_DIT	NGPTAR
AVR_FSIT	NGPTAR
AVR_LTDN	NGPTAR
AVR_OTTAX	NGPTAR
AVR_PFEN	NGPTAR
AVR_TOM	NGPTAR
BA_PREM	NGMISC
BAJA_CAP	NGMISC
BAJA_FIX	NGMISC
BAJA_LAG	NGMISC
BAJA_MAX	NGMISC
BAJA_PRC	NGMISC
BAJA_STAGE	NGMISC
BAJA_STEP	NGMISC
BEQ_BLDAVG	NGMISC
BEQ_BLDHRSK	NGMISC
BEQ_OPRAVG	NGMISC
BEQ_OPRHRSK	NGMISC
BNEWCAP_2003_2004	NGPTAR
BNEWCAP_POST2004	NGPTAR
BNEWCAP_PRE2003	NGPTAR
BPPRC	NGCAN
BPPRCGR	NGCAN
CAN_XMAPCN	NGMAP
CAN_XMAPUS	NGMAP
CANEXP	NGCAN
CM_ADJ	NGDTAR
CM_ALP	NGDTAR
CM_LNQ	NGDTAR
CM_PKALP	NGDTAR
CM_RHO	NGDTAR
CN_DMD	NGCAN
CN_FIXSHR	NGCAN
CN_FIXSUP	NGCAN
CN_OILSND	NGCAN
CN_UNPRC	NGCAN
CN_WOP	NGCAN
CNCAPSW	NGUSER
CNG_BUILDCOST	NGDTAR
CNG_HRZ	NGDTAR
CNG_MARKUP	NGDTAR
CNG_RETAIL_MARKUP	NGDTAR
CNG_WACC	NGDTAR
CNPER_YROPEN	NGCAP
CNPLANYR	NGCAN
CON	NGHISMN
CON_ELCD	NGHISMN
CON_EPMGR	NGHISMN
CONNOL_ELAS	NGCAN

Variable	File
CTG_BASCGG	NGMISC
CTG_BASCGGCO2	NGMISC
CTG_BASCGS	NGMISC
CTG_BASCGSCO2	NGMISC
CTG_BASCOL	NGMISC
CTG_BASHHV	NGMISC
CTG_BASSIZ	NGMISC
CTG_BCLTON	NGMISC
CTG_BLDX	NGMISC
CTG_BLDX	NGMISC
CTG_BLDYRS	NGMISC
CTG_CAPYR$	NGMISC
CTG_CO2	NGMISC
CTG_DCLCAPCST	NGMISC
CTG_DCLOPRCST	NGMISC
CTG_FSTYR	NGMISC
CTG_IINDX	NGMISC
CTG_INCBLD	NGMISC
CTG_INVLOC	NGMISC
CTG_NAM	NGMISC
CTG_NCL	NGMISC
CTG_OH_LCFAC	NGMISC
CTG_OSBLFAC	NGMISC
CTG_PCTCNTG	NGMISC
CTG_PCTENV	NGMISC
CTG_PCTLND	NGMISC
CTG_PCTSPECL	NGMISC
CTG_PCTWC	NGMISC
CTG_PRJLIFE	NGMISC
CTG_PUCAP	NGMISC
CTG_SINVST	NGMISC
CTG_STAFF_LCFAC	NGMISC
CWC_DISC	NGPTAR
CWC_K	NGPTAR
CWC_RHO	NGPTAR
CWC_TOM	NGPTAR
D_ADDA	NGPTAR
D_ADDA	NGPTAR
D_ADIT	NGPTAR
D_ADIT	NGPTAR
D_APRB	NGPTAR
D_APRB	NGPTAR
D_CMEN	NGPTAR
D_CMER	NGPTAR
D_CMER	NGPTAR
D_CMES	NGPTAR
D_CONST	NGPTAR
D_CONST	NGPTAR
D_CONST	NGPTAR
D_CONST	NGPTAR
D_CWC	NGPTAR
D_CWC	NGPTAR
D_DDA	NGPTAR
D_DDA	NGPTAR
D_DIT	NGPTAR
D_DIT	NGPTAR
D_FLO	NGPTAR
D_FSIT	NGPTAR
D_GCMES	NGPTAR
D_GLTDS	NGPTAR
D_GPFES	NGPTAR
D_GPIS	NGPTAR
D_GPIS	NGPTAR
D_LTDN	NGPTAR
D_LTDR	NGPTAR
D_LTDR	NGPTAR
D_LTDS	NGPTAR
DMAP	NGMAP
D_MXPKFLO	NGPTAR
D_NPIS	NGPTAR
D_NPIS	NGPTAR
D_OTTAX	NGPTAR
D_OTTAX	NGPTAR
D_PFEN	NGPTAR
D_PFER	NGPTAR
D_PFER	NGPTAR
D_PFES	NGPTAR
D_TCAP	NGPTAR
D_TOM	NGPTAR
D_TOM	NGPTAR
D_WCAP	NGPTAR
DDA_NEWCAP	NGPTAR
DDA_NPIS	NGPTAR
DECL_GASREQ	NGCAN
DEXP_FRMEX	NGMISC
DFAC_TOMEX	NGMISC
DFR	NGCAN
DFR	NGCAN
DMASP	NGCAN
DMASP	NGCAN
EL_ALP	NGDTAR
EL_CNST	NGDTAR
EL_PARM	NGDTAR
EL_RESID	NGDTAR
EL_RHO	NGDTAR
ELE_GFAC	NGMISC
EMMSUB_EL	NGMAP
EMMSUB_NG	NGMAP
EMRP_BLDAVG	NGMISC
EMRP_BLDHRSK	NGMISC
EMRP_OPRAVG	NGMISC
EMRP_OPRHRSK	NGMISC
EQUITY_BLDAVG	NGMISC
EQUITY_BLDHRSK	NGMISC
EQUITY_OPRAVG	NGMISC
EQUITY_OPRHRSK	NGMISC
EXP_A	NGPTAR
EXP_B	NGPTAR
EXP_C	NGPTAR
EXP_FRMEX	NGMISC

Variable	File	Variable	File
FDGOM	NGHISMN	HELE_SHR	NGMISC
FDIFF	NGDTAR	HFAC_GPIS	NGPTAR
FE_CCOST	NGMISC	HFAC_REV	NGPTAR
FE_EXPFAC	NGMISC	HHDD	NGDTAR
FE_FR_TOM	NGMISC	HI_RN	NGMISC
FE_PFUEL_FAC	NGMISC	HIND_SHR	NGMISC
FE_R_STTOM	NGMISC	HISTRESCAN	NGCAN
FE_R_TOM	NGMISC	HISTWELCAN	NGCAN
FE_STCCOST	NGMISC	HNETINJ	NGCAN
FE_STEXPFAC	NGMISC	HNETWTH	NGCAN
FEDTAX_RT	NGMISC	HNETWTH	NGHISMN
FIXLNGFLG	NGMAP	HPEMEX_SHR	NGMISC
FLO_THRU_IN	NGCAN	HPIMP	NGHISAN
FMASP	NGCAN	HPKSHR_FLOW	NGMISC
FMASP	NGCAN	HPKUTZ	NGCAP
FR_AVGTARYR	NGMISC	HPRC	NGHISMN
FR_BETA	NGMISC	HPSUP	NGCAN
FR_CAPITL0	NGMISC	HQIMP	NGHISAN
FR_CAPYR	NGMISC	HQSUP	NGCAN
FR_DEBTRATIO	NGMISC	HQTY	NGHISMN
FR_DISCRT	NGMISC	HRC_SHR	NGMISC
FR_ESTNYR	NGMISC	HW_ADJ	NGDTAR
FR_OTXR	NGMISC	HW_BETA0	NGDTAR
FR_PADDTAR	NGMISC	HW_BETA1	NGDTAR
FR_PCNSYR	NGMISC	HW_RHO	NGDTAR
FR_PDRPFAC	NGMISC	HYEAR	NGHISAN
FR_PEXPFAC	NGMISC	ICNBYR	NGCAN
FR_PFUEL	NGMISC	IEA_CON	NGMISC
FR_PMINWPR	NGMISC	IEA_PRD	NGMISC
FR_PMINYR	NGMISC	IMASP	NGCAN
FR_PPLNYR	NGMISC	IMASP	NGCAN
FR_PRISK	NGMISC	IMP_TOMEX	NGMISC
FR_PTREAT	NGMISC	IN_ALP	NGDTAR
FR_PVOL	NGMISC	IN_CNST	NGDTAR
FR_ROR_PREM	NGMISC	IN_DIST	NGDTAR
FR_TOM0	NGMISC	IN_LNQ	NGDTAR
FR_TXR	NGMISC	IN_PKALP	NGDTAR
FRATE	NGPTAR	IN_RHO	NGDTAR
FREE_YRS	NGDTAR	IND_GFAC	NGMISC
FRMETH	NGCAN	INFL_RT	NGMISC
FSRGN	NGMAP	INIT_GASREQ	NGCAN
FSTYR_GOM	NGHISAN	INS_FAC	NGMISC
FTAX	NGDTAR	INTRAREG_TAR	NGDTAR
FUTWTS	NGMISC	INTRAST_TAR	NGDTAR
GAMMAFAC	NGUSER	IPR	NGCAN
GDP_B87	NGMISC	IRES	NGCAN
GOF_AL	NGHISAN	IRG	NGCAN
GOF_CA	NGHISAN	IRIGA	NGCAN
GOF_LA	NGHISAN	IRIGA	NGCAN
GOF_TX	NGHISAN	JNETWTH	NGHISMN
HAFLOW	NGMISC	LA_OFFD	NGHISAN
HCG_BENCH	NGDTAR	LA_OFST	NGHISAN
HCGPR	NGHISAN	LA_ONSH	NGHISAN
HCUMSUCWEL	NGCAN	LABORLOC	NGMISC
HDYWHTLAG	NGDTAR	LEVELYRS	NGPTAR

Variable	File	Variable	File
LNG_XMAP	NGMAP	NGDBGRPT	NGUSER
LNGA	NGLNGDAT	NIND_SHR	NGMISC
LNGB	NGLNGDAT	NINJ_TOT	NGHISMN
LNGCAP	NGLNGDAT	NLNGA	NGLNGDAT
LNGCRVOPT	NGLNGDAT	NLNGB	NGLNGDAT
LNGDATA	NGMISC	NLNGPTS	NGLNGDAT
LNGDIF_GULF	NGLNGDAT	NNETWITH	NGUSER
LNGDIFF	NGMISC	NOBLDYR	NGUSER
LNGFIX	NGLNGDAT	NODE_ANGTS	NGMAP
LNGMIN	NGLNGDAT	NODE_SNGCOAL	NGMAP
LNGPPT	NGLNGDAT	NONU_ELAS_F	NGDTAR
LNGPS	NGLNGDAT	NONU_ELAS_I	NGDTAR
LNGQPT	NGLNGDAT	NPEMEX_SHR	NGMISC
LNGQS	NGLNGDAT	NPROC	NGMAP
LNGTAR	NGLNGDAT	NQPF_TOT	NGHISMN
LSTYR_MMS	NGHISAN	NRC_SHR	NGMISC
MAINT_FAC	NGMISC	NRCI_INV	NGMISC
MAP_NG	NGMAP	NRCI_LABOR	NGMISC
MAP_NRG_CRG	NGDTAR	NRCI_OPER	NGMISC
MAP_OG	NGMAP	NSRGN	NGMAP
MAP_PRDST	NGHISMN	NSTAT	NGDTAR
MAP_STSUB	NGHISAN	NSTSTOR	NGHISMN
MAPLNG_NEW	NGMAP	NSUPLM_TOT	NGHISMN
MAPLNG_NG	NGMAP	NUM_REGSHR	NGDTAR
MAX_CNG_BUILD	NGDTAR	NUMRS	NGDTAR
MAXCYCLE	NGUSER	NWTH_TOT	NGHISMN
MAXPLNG	NGLNGDAT	NYR_MISS	NGHISAN
MAXPRRFAC	NGMISC	OCSMAP	NGMAP
MAXPRRNG	NGMISC	oEL_MRKUP_BETA	NGDTAR
MAXUTZ	NGCAP	oEL_MRKUP_BETA	NGDTAR
MBAJA	NGMISC	OEQGCELGR	NGMISC
MDPIP1	NGMISC	OEQGFELGR	NGMISC
MDPIP2	NGMISC	OEQGIELGR	NGMISC
MEX_XMAP	NGMAP	OF_LAST	NGHISAN
MEX_XMAP	NGMAP	OOGHHPRNG	NGMISC
MEXEXP_SHR	NGMISC	OOGQNGEXP	NGMISC
MEXIMP_SHR	NGMISC	OPPK	NGCAP
MEXLNG	NGMISC	OPTCOM	NGDTAR
MEXLNGMIN	NGLNGDAT	OPTELO	NGDTAR
MISC_GAS	NGHISAN	OPTELP	NGDTAR
MISC_OIL	NGHISAN	OPTIND	NGDTAR
MISC_ST	NGHISAN	OPTRES	NGDTAR
MON_PEXP	NGHISMN	OQGCELGR	NGMISC
MON_PIMP	NGHISMN	OQGFEL	NGMISC
MON_QEXP	NGHISMN	OQGFELGR	NGMISC
MON_QIMP	NGHISMN	OQGIEL	NGMISC
MONMKT_PRD	NGHISMN	OQGIELGR	NGMISC
MSPLIT_STSUB	NGHISAN	OQNGEL	NGMISC
MUFAC	NGUSER	OSQGFELGR	NGMISC
NAW	NGHISAN	OSQGIELGR	NGMISC
NCNMX	NGCAN	OTH_FAC	NGMISC
NELE_SHR	NGMISC	PARM_LNGCRV3	NGLNGDAT
NG_CENMAP	NGMAP	PARM_LNGCRV5	NGLNGDAT
NGCFEL	NGHISMN	PARM_LNGELAS	NGLNGDAT
NGDBGCNTL	NGUSER	PARM_MINPR	NGUSER

Variable	File	Variable	File
PARM_SUPCRV3	NGUSER	QOF_GM	NGHISAN
PARM_SUPCRV5	NGUSER	QOF_LA	NGHISAN
PARM_SUPELAS	NGUSER	QOF_LAFD	NGHISAN
PCLADJ	NGMISC	QOF_MS	NGHISAN
PCNT_R	NGPTAR	QOF_TX	NGHISAN
PCT_AL	NGHISAN	QSUP_DELTA	NGUSER
PCT_LA	NGHISAN	QSUP_SMALL	NGUSER
PCT_MS	NGHISAN	QSUP_WT	NGUSER
PCT_TX	NGHISAN	RC_GFAC	NGMISC
PCTADJSHR	NGUSER	RECS_ALIGN	NGDTAR
PCTFLO	NGUSER	RESBASE	NGCAN
PEAK	NGCAP	RESBASYR	NGCAN
PEMEX_GFAC	NGMISC	RESTECH	NGCAN
PEMEX_PRD	NGMISC	RETAIL_COST	NGDTAR
PER_YROPEN	NGCAP	REV	NGHISMN
PERFDTX	NGHISAN	RGRWTH	NGCAN
PERMG	NGDTAR	RGRWTH	NGCAN
PIPE_FACTOR	NGPTAR	ROF_AL	NGHISAN
PKOPMON	NGMISC	ROF_CA	NGHISAN
PKSHR_CDMD	NGCAN	ROF_GM	NGHISAN
PKSHR_PROD	NGCAN	ROF_LA	NGHISAN
PLANPCAP	NGCAP	ROF_MS	NGHISAN
PLANPCAP	NGCAP	ROF_TX	NGHISAN
PMMMAP_NG	NGMAP	RS_ADJ	NGDTAR
PNGIMP	NGLNGDAT	RS_ALP	NGDTAR
PRAT	NGCAN	RS_COST	NGDTAR
PRAT	NGCAN	RS_LNQ	NGDTAR
PRC_EPMCD	NGHISMN	RS_PARM	NGDTAR
PRC_EPMGR	NGHISMN	RS_PKALP	NGDTAR
PRCWTS	NGMISC	RS_RHO	NGDTAR
PRCWTS2	NGMISC	SCEN_DIV	NGHISAN
PRD_GFAC	NGMISC	SCH_ID	NGHISAN
PRD_MLHIS	NGHISMN	SELE_SHR	NGMISC
PRICE_AL	NGHISAN	SHR_OPT	NGUSER
PRICE_CA	NGHISAN	SIM_EX	NGHISAN
PRICE_LA	NGHISAN	SIND_SHR	NGMISC
PRICE_TX	NGHISAN	SITM_RG	NGHISAN
PRJSDECOM	NGMISC	SNG_EM	NGHISAN
PRMETH	NGCAN	SNG_OG	NGHISAN
PROC_ORD	NGMAP	SNGCOAL	NGHISAN
PSUP_DELTA	NGUSER	SNGCOAL	NGMISC
PTCURPCAP	NGCAP	SNGLIQ	NGHISAN
PTMAXPCAP	NGCAN	SPCNEWFAC	NGPTAR
PTMBYR	NGPTAR	SPCNODID	NGPTAR
PTMSTBYR	NGPTAR	SPCNODID	NGPTAR
PUTL_POW	NGHISAN	SPCNODN	NGPTAR
Q23TO3	NGCAN	SPCPNODBAS	NGPTAR
QAK_ALB	NGMISC	SPEMEX_SHR	NGMISC
QLP_LHIS	NGHISMN	SPIN_PER	NGHISAN
QMD_ALB	NGMISC	SRATE	NGPTAR
QNGIMP	NGLNGDAT	SRC_SHR	NGMISC
QOF_AL	NGHISAN	STADIT_ADIT	NGPTAR
QOF_ALFD	NGHISAN	STADIT_C	NGPTAR
QOF_ALST	NGHISAN	STADIT_NEWCAP	NGPTAR
QOF_CA	NGHISAN	STAX	NGDTAR

Variable	File
STCCOST_BETAREG	NGPTAR
STCCOST_CREG	NGPTAR
STCWC_CREG	NGPTAR
STCWC_RHO	NGPTAR
STCWC_TOTCAP	NGPTAR
STDDA_CREG	NGPTAR
STDDA_NEWCAP	NGPTAR
STDDA_NPIS	NGPTAR
STDISCR	NGUSER
STENDCON	NGUSER
STEOYRS	NGUSER
STEP_CN	NGCAN
STEP_MX	NGCAN
STLNGIMP	NGUSER
STLNGRG	NGUSER
STLNGRGN	NGUSER
STLNGYR	NGUSER
STLNGYRN	NGUSER
STOGPRSUP	NGUSER
STOGWPRNG	NGUSER
STPHAS_YR	NGUSER
STPIN_FLG	NGUSER
STPNGCM	NGUSER
STPNGEL	NGUSER
STPNGIN	NGUSER
STPNGRS	NGUSER
STQGPTR	NGUSER
STQLPIN	NGUSER
STR_EFF	NGPTAR
STR_FACTOR	NGPTAR
STRATIO	NGPTAR
STSCAL_CAN	NGUSER
STSCAL_DISCR	NGUSER
STSCAL_FPR	NGUSER
STSCAL_IPR	NGUSER
STSCAL_LPLT	NGUSER
STSCAL_NETSTR	NGUSER
STSCAL_PFUEL	NGUSER
STSCAL_SUPLM	NGUSER
STSCAL_WPR	NGUSER

Variable	File
STSTATE	NGHISMN
STTAX_RT	NGMISC
STTOM_C	NGPTAR
STTOM_RHO	NGPTAR
STTOM_WORKCAP	NGPTAR
STTOM_YR	NGPTAR
SUPARRAY	NGMAP
SUPCRV	NGUSER
SUPREG	NGMAP
SUPSUB_NG	NGMAP
SUPSUB_OG	NGMAP
SUPTYPE	NGMAP
SUTZ	NGCAP
SUTZ	NGCAP
TAX_FAC	NGMISC
TFD	NGDTAR
TFDYR	NGDTAR
TOM_BYEAR	NGPTAR
TOM_BYEAR_EIA	NGPTAR
TOM_DEPSHR	NGPTAR
TOM_GPIS1	NGPTAR
TOM_K	NGPTAR
TOM_RHO	NGPTAR
TOM_YR	NGPTAR
TRN_DECL	NGDTAR
TTRNCAN	NGCAN
URES	NGCAN
URES	NGCAN
URG	NGCAN
URG	NGCAN
UTIL_ELAS_F	NGDTAR
UTIL_ELAS_I	NGDTAR
WHP_LHIS	NGHISMN
WLMETH	NGCAN
WPR4CAST_FLG	NGUSER
XBLD	NGCAP
XBM_ISBL	NGMISC
XBM_LABOR	NGMISC
YDCL_GASREQ	NGCAN

Appendix F. Derived Data

Table F1

Data: Parameter estimates for the Alaskan natural gas consumption equations for the residential and commercial sectors and the Alaskan natural gas wellhead price.

Author: Tony Radich, EIA, June 2007, reestimated by Margaret Leddy, EIA, July 2009

Source: *Natural Gas Annual*, DOE/EIA-0131.

Derivation: Annual data from 1974 through 2008 were transformed into logarithmic form, tested for unit roots, and examined for simple correlations. When originally estimated, heating degree day quantity was calculated using a five-year average, but was statistically insignificant in both the residential and commercial cases and dropped from the final estimations. Lags of dependent variables were added as needed to remove serial correlation from residuals. Heteroskedasticity-consistent standard error estimators were also used as needed.

Residential Natural Gas Consumption

The forecast equation for residential natural gas consumption is estimated below:

$$\begin{aligned} LN\_CONS\_RES = {} & (\beta_0 * (1 - \beta_{-1}) + (\beta_1 * (1 - \beta_{-1}) * LN\_RES\_CUST) \\ & + (\beta_{-1} * (LN\_CONS\_RES(-1) * 1000)))/1000. \end{aligned}$$

where,

LN_CONS_RES	=	natural log of Alaska residential natural gas consumption in MMcf
LN_RES_CUST	=	natural log of thousands of Alaska residential gas customers. See the forecast equation for Alaska residential gas customers in Table F2.
(-1)	=	first lag

All variables are annual from 1974 through 2008.

Regression Diagnostics and Parameters Estimates:

Dependent Variable: LN_CONS_RES
Method: Least Squares
Date: 07/03/07
Sample (adjusted): 1974 – 2008
Included observations: 35 after adjustments
Newey-West HAC Standard Errors & Covariance (lag truncation=3)

Variable	Coefficient	Std. Error	t-Statistic	Prob.	Symbol
C	6.983794	0.608314	11.48058	0.0000	β_0
LN_RES_CUST	0.601932	0.136919	4.396257	0.0001	β_1
AR(-1)	0.364042	0.117856	3.088872	0.0041	β_{-1}

R-squared	0.788754	Mean dependent var	9.486861
Adjusted R-squared	0.775552	S.D. dependent var	0.329138
S.E. of regression	0.155932	Akaike info criterion	-0.79697
Sum squared resid	0.778077	Schwarz criterion	-0.66366
Log likelihood	16.94702	Hannan-Quinn criter.	-0.75095
F-statistic	59.74123	Durbin-Watson stat	1.957789
Prob(F-statistic)	0.00000		

The equation for the Alaska residential natural gas consumption translates into the following forecast equation in the code:

AKQTY_F(1) = (exp(6.983794 * (1 - 0.364042)) * (AK_RN(t))**(0.601932 * (1 - 0.364042)) * (PREV_AKQTY(1,t-1)*1000)** (0.364042))/1000.

where,

AKQTY_F(1) = residential Alaskan natural gas consumption, (Bcf)
PREV_AKQTY(1,t-1) = previous year's residential Alaskan natural gas consumption, (Bcf)
AK_RN(t) = residential consumers (thousands) at current year. See Table F2

Commercial Natural Gas Consumption

The forecast equation for commercial natural gas consumption is estimated below:

$$LN\_CONS\_COM = (\beta_0*(1-\beta_{-1}) + (\beta_1*LN\_COM\_CUST) + (-\beta_{-1}*\beta_1)*LN\_COM\_CUST(-1) + (\beta_{-1}*LN\_CONS\_COM(-1)*1000))/1000.$$

where,

LN_CONS_COM = natural log of Alaska commercial natural gas consumption in MMcf
LN_COM_CUST = natural log of thousands of Alaska commercial gas customers. See the forecast equation in Table F2.
(-1) = first lag

All variables are annual from 1974 through 2008.

Regression Diagnostics and Parameters Estimates:

Dependent Variable: LN_CONS_COM
Method: Least Squares
Date: 07/22/09 Time: 09:36
Sample (adjusted): 1974 2008
Included observations: 35 after adjustments
Convergence achieved after 9 iterations
Newey-West HAC Standard Errors & Covariance (lag truncation=3)

Variable	Coefficient	Std. Error	t-Statistic	Prob.	Symbol
C	9.425307	0.229458	41.07648	0.0000	β_0
LN_COM_CUST	0.205020	0.115140	1.780615	0.0845	β_1
AR(1)	0.736334	0.092185	7.987556	0.0000	β_{-1}

R-squared	0.696834	Mean dependent var	9.885287
Adjusted R-squared	0.677886	S.D. dependent var	0.213360
S.E. of regression	0.121093	Akaike info criterion	-1.302700
Sum squared resid	0.469232	Schwarz criterion	-1.169385
Log likelihood	25.79725	Hannan-Quinn criter.	-1.256680
F-statistic	36.77630	Durbin-Watson stat	1.680652
Prob(F-statistic)	0.000000		

The equation in the code for the Alaska commercial natural gas consumption follows:

AKQTY_F(2) = (exp(9.425307 * (1 - 0.736334)) * (AK_CN(t)**(0.205020)) * (AK_CN(t-1)**(-0.736334 * 0.205020)) * (PREV_AKQTY(2,t-1)*1000.)**(0.736334)))/1000.

where,

AKQTY_F(2) = commercial Alaskan natural gas consumption, (Bcf)
PREV_AKQTY(2,t-1) = previous year's commercial Alaskan natural gas consumption, (Bcf)
AK_CN(t) = commercial consumers (thousands) at current year. See Table F2

Natural Gas Wellhead Price

The forecast equation for natural gas wellhead price is determined below:

$$\ln AK\_WPRC_t = \beta_{-1}*\ln AK\_WPRC_{t-1} + \beta_1*(1-\beta_{-1})*\ln IRAC87$$

Dependent Variable: LN_WELLHEAD_PRICE
Method: Least Squares
Date: 07/22/09 Time: 13:25
Sample (adjusted): 1974 2008
Included observations: 35 after adjustments
Convergence achieved after 6 iterations

	Coefficient	Std. Error	t-Statistic	Prob.	Symbol
LN_IRAC87	0.280760	0.101743	2.759499	0.0094	β_1
AR(1)	0.934077	0.040455	23.08940	0.0000	β_{-1}

R-squared	0.881227	Mean dependent var	0.135244
Adjusted R-squared	0.877628	S.D. dependent var	0.540629
S.E. of regression	0.189122	Akaike info criterion	-0.437408
Sum squared resid	1.180310	Schwarz criterion	-0.348531
Log likelihood	9.654637	Hannan-Quinn criter.	-0.406727
Durbin-Watson stat	2.121742		

Inverted AR Roots .93

The forecast equation becomes:

$$AK\_WPRC_t = AK\_WPRC_{t-1}^{0.934077} * oIT\_WOP_{y,1}^{(0.280760*(1-0.934077))}$$

where,

AK_WPRC_t	=	average natural gas wellhead price (1987$/Mcf) in year t.
AK_F	=	Parameters for Alaskan natural gas wellhead price (Appendix E).
$oIT\_WOP_{y,1}$ or IRAC87	=	World oil price (International Refinery Acquisition Cost) (1987$/barrel)
t	=	year index

Data used in estimating parameters in Tables F1 and F2

	(mmcf) Res_Cons	(mmcf) Com_Con	1987$/Mcf Res_Price	1987$/Mcf Com_Price	1987$/Mcf Wellhead Price	Thousand Population	HDD, Alaska	Thousand Res_ Cust	Thousand Com_ Cust	(2000=1) GDP defl	87$/bbl IRAC	Mbbl oil_prod
1973	5024	12277	3.61	1.79	0.34	336.4	12865	23	3	0.3185	9.38	
1974	4163	13106	3.33	1.83	0.36	348.1	12655	22	4	0.3473	26.39	
1975	10393	14415	3.14	1.87	0.58	384.1	12391	25	4	0.38	26.83	
1976	10917	14191	3	1.89	0.71	409.8	11930	28	4	0.402	24.55	
1977	11282	14564	2.93	2.29	0.68	418	12521	30	5	0.4275	24.88	
1978	12166	15208	2.82	2.11	0.83	411.6	11400	33	5	0.4576	23.31	
1979	7313	15862	2.53	1.52	0.77	413.7	11149	36	6	0.4955	32.01	
1980	7917	16513	2.34	1.44	0.99	419.8	10765	37	6	0.5404	45.9	
1981	7904	16149	2.41	1.73	0.77	434.3	11248	40	6	0.5912	45.87	587337
1982	10554	24232	2.09	1.86	0.74	464.3	11669	48	7	0.6273	39.15	618910
1983	10434	24693	2.62	2.18	0.82	499.1	10587	55	8	0.6521	32.89	625527
1984	11833	24654	2.69	2.24	0.79	524	12161	63	10	0.6766	31.25	630401
1985	13256	20344	2.95	2.48	0.78	543.9	11237	65	10	0.6971	28.34	666233
1986	12091	20874	3.34	2.6	0.51	550.7	11398	66	11	0.7125	14.38	681310
1987	12256	20224	3.21	2.41	0.94	541.3	11704	67.648	11.484	0.732	18.13	715955
1988	12529	20842	3.35	2.51	1.23	535	11116	68.612	11.649	0.7569	14.08	738143
1989	13589	21738	3.38	2.39	1.27	538.9	10884	69.54	11.806	0.7856	16.85	683979
1990	14165	21622	3.4	2.36	1.24	553.17	11101	70.808	11.921	0.8159	19.52	647309
1991	13562	20897	3.62	2.51	1.28	569.05	11582	72.565	12.071	0.8444	16.21	656349
1992	14350	21299	3.21	2.24	1.19	586.72	11846	74.268	12.204	0.8639	15.42	627322
1993	13858	20003	3.28	2.3	1.18	596.91	11281	75.842	12.359	0.8838	13.37	577495
1994	14895	20698	2.92	2.01	1.03	600.62	11902	77.67	12.475	0.9026	12.58	568951
1995	15231	24979	2.88	1.8	1.3	601.58	10427	79.474	12.584	0.9211	13.62	541654
1996	16179	27315	2.67	1.81	1.26	605.21	11498	81.348	12.732	0.9385	16.1	509999
1997	15146	26908	2.89	1.87	1.4	609.66	11165	83.596	12.945	0.9541	14.22	472949
1998	15617	27079	2.78	1.83	1	617.08	11078	86.243	13.176	0.9647	9.14	428850
1999	17634	27667	2.72	1.63	1.02	622	12227	88.924	13.409	0.9787	12.91	383199
2000	15987	26485	2.62	1.51	1.29	627.53	10908	91.297	13.711	1	20.28	355199
2001	16818	15849	3.02	2.26	1.42	632.24	12227	93.896	14.002	1.024	15.73	351411
2002	16191	15691	3.1	2.4	1.5	640.54	10908	97.077	14.342	1.0419	16.66	359335
2003	16853	17270	3.02	2.46	1.66	647.75	10174	100.4	14.502	1.064	19.06	355582
2004	18200	18373	3.26	2.77	2.29	656.83	10296	104.36	13.999	1.0946	24.01	332465
2005	18029	16903	3.71	3.19	3.08	663.25	10103	108.4	14.12	1.13	31.65	315420
2006	20616	18544	4.29	2.98	3.64	670.05	11269	112.27	14.384	1.1657	37.06	270486
2007	19843	18756	5.31	4.63	3.44	668.74	10815	115.5	13.408	1.1966	41.01	263595
2008	21440	18717.5	5.21	4.73	3.88	671.31	11640	118	13	1.225	55.44	249874

Table F2

Data: Equations for the number of residential and commercial customers in Alaska

Author: Tony Radich, EIA, June, 2007 and Margaret Leddy, July 2009.

Source: *Natural Gas Annual* (1985-2000), DOE/EIA-0131, see Table F1.

Derivation:

a. Residential customers

Since 1967, the number of residential households has increased steadily, mirroring the population growth in Alaska. Because the current year's population is highly dependent on the previous year's value, the number of residential consumers was estimated based on its lag values. The forecast equation is determined as follows:

$$NRS_t = \beta_0 + \beta_{-1} * NRS_{t-1} + \beta_{-2} * NRS_{t-2} + \beta_1 * POP$$

where,

NRS = natural log of thousands of Alaska residential gas customers (AK_RN in code)
POP = natural log of Alaska population in thousands (AK_POP in code, Appendix E)
t = year

Regression Diagnostics and Parameters Estimates:

Dependent Variable: NRS
Method: Least Squares
Date: 07/03/07
Sample (adjusted): 1969-2005
Included observations: 37 after adjustments

Variable	Coefficient	Std. Error	t-Statistic	Prob.	Symbol
C	-2.677338	0.946058	-2.829994	0.0079	β_0
NRS(-1)	0.887724	0.166407	5.334659	0.0000	β_{-1}
NRS(-2)	-0.184504	0.141213	-1.306569	0.2004	β_{-2}
POP	0.626436	0.201686	3.105990	0.0039	β_1

R-squared	0.995802	Mean dependent var	3.950822
Adjusted R-squared	0.995421	S.D. dependent var	0.602330
S.E. of regression	0.040760	Akaike info criterion	-3.460402
Sum squared resid	0.054827	Schwarz criterion	-3.286248
Log likelihood	68.01743	F-statistic	2609.424
Durbin-Watson stat	1.656152	Prob(F-statistic)	0.000000

This translates into the following forecast equation in the code:

$$AK\_RN_t = \exp[-2.677 + (0.888*\log(AK\_RN_{t-1})) - (0.185*\log(AK\_RN_{t-2})) + (0.626*\log(AK\_POP_t))]$$

b. Commercial customers

The number of commercial consumers, based on billing units, also showed a strong relationship to its lag value. The forecast equation was determined using data from 1985 to 2008 as follows:

$$COM\_CUST_t = \beta 0 + \beta_{-1} * COM\_CUST_{t-1}$$

where,

COM_CUST = number of Alaska commercial gas customers in year t, in thousands(AK_CM in the code)

t = year

Regression Diagnostics and Parameters Estimates:

Dependent Variable: COM_CUST
Method: Least Squares
07/14/09
Sample (adjusted): 1974-2008
Included observations: 35 after adjustments
Newey-West HAC Standard Errors & Covariance (lag truncation=3)

Variable	Coefficient	Std. Error	t-Statistic	Prob.	Symbol
C	0.932946	0.294368	3.169323	0.0033	β_0
COM_CUST(-1)	0.937471	0.023830	39.33956	0.0000	β_{-1}

R-squared	0.982050	Mean dependent var	10.63666
Adjusted R-squared	0.981506	S.D. dependent var	3.534514
S.E. of regression	0.480669	Akaike info criterion	1.428171
Sum squared resid	7.624424	Schwarz criterion	1.517048
Log likelihood	-22.99300	Hannan-Quinn criter.	1.458852
F-statistic	1805.422	Durbin-Watson	1.859586
Prob(F-statistic)	0.000000		

This translates into the following forecast equation in the code:

$$AK\_CN_t = 0.932946 + (0.937471 * AK\_CN_{t-1})$$

Table F3

Data: Coefficients for the following Pipeline Tariff Submodule forecasting equations for pipeline and storage: total cash working capital for the combined existing and new capacity; depreciation, depletion, and amortization expenses for existing capacity; accumulated deferred income taxes for the combined existing and new capacity; and total operating and maintenance expense for the combined existing and new capacity.

Author: Science Applications International Corporation (SAIC)

Source: Foster Pipeline Financial Data, 1997-2006
Foster Storage Financial Data, 1990-1998

Variables:

For Transportation:

R_CWC	=	total pipeline transmission cash working capital for existing and new capacity (2005 real dollars)
DDA_E	=	annual depreciation, depletion, and amortization costs for existing capacity (nominal dollars)
NPIS_E	=	net plant in service for existing capacity in dollars (nominal dollars)
NEWCAP_E	=	change in existing gross plant in service (nominal dollars) between t and t-1 (set to zero during the forecast year phase since $GPIS\_E_{a,t} = GPIS\_E_{a,t+1}$ for year t >= 2007)
ADIT	=	accumulated deferred income taxes (nominal dollars)
NEWCAP	=	change in gross plant in service between t and t-1 (nominal dollars)
R_TOM	=	total operating and maintenance cost for existing and new capacity (2005 real dollars)
GPIS	=	capital cost of plant in service for existing and new capacity (nominal dollars)
DEPSHR	=	level of the accumulated depreciation of the plant relative to the gross plant in service for existing and new capacity at the beginning of year t. This variable is a proxy for the age of the capital stock.
TECHYEAR	=	MODYEAR (time trend in Julian units, the minimum value of this variable in the sample being 1997, otherwise TECHYEAR=0 if less than 1997)
a	=	arc
t	=	forecast year

For Storage:

R_STCWC	=	total cash working capital at the beginning of year t for existing and new capacity (1996 real dollars)
DSTTCAP	=	total gas storage capacity (Bcf)
STDDA_E	=	annual depreciation, depletion, and amortization costs for existing capacity (nominal dollars)

STNPIS_E = net plant in service for existing capacity (nominal dollars)
STNEWCAP = change in gross plant in service for existing capacity (nominal dollars)
STADIT = accumulated deferred income taxes (nominal dollars)
NEWCAP = change in gross plant in service for the combined existing and new capacity between years t and t-1 (nominal dollars)
R_STTOM = total operating and maintenance cost for existing and new capacity (1996 real dollars)
DSTWCAP = level of gas working capacity for region r during year t (Bcf)
r = NGTDM region
t = forecast year

References: For transportation: "Memorandum describing the estimated and forecast equations for TOM, DDA, CWC, and ADIT for the new PTM," by SAIC, June 23-July 22, 2008.
For storage: "Memorandum describing the estimated and forecast equations for TOM, DDA, CWC, and ADIT for the new PTM," by SAIC, May 31, 2000.

Derivation: Estimations were done by using an accounting algorithm in combination with estimation software. Projections are based on a series of econometric equations which have been estimated using the Time Series Package (TSP) software. Equations were estimated by arc for pipelines and by NGTDM region for storage, as follows: total cash working capital for the combined existing and new capacity; depreciation, depletion, and amortization expenses for existing capacity; accumulated deferred income taxes for the combined existing and new capacity; and total operating and maintenance expense for the combined existing and new capacity. These equations are defined as follows:

(1) Total Cash Working Capital for the Combined Existing and New Capacity

For Transportation:

The equation was estimated using FERC Form 2 data over the period 1997 through 2006. In this analysis, the data were aggregated to the ARC level so that the results would be more consistent with the previous model.

Because of economies in cash management, a log-linear specification between total operating and maintenance expenses, R_TOM_a, and the level of cash working capital, R_CWC_a was assumed. To control for arc specific effects, a binary variable was created for each of the arcs. The associated coefficient represents the arc specific constant term.

The underlying notion of this equation is the working capital represents funds to maintain the capital stock and is therefore driven by changes in R_TOM

The forecasting equation is presented in two stages.

Stage 1:

$$Ln(R\_CWC_{a,t}) = CWC\_C_a * (1-\rho) + CWC\_TOM * Ln(R\_TOM_{a,t}) + \rho * Ln(R\_CWC_{a,t-1}) - \rho * CWC\_TOM * Ln(R\_TOM_{a,t-1})$$

Stage 2:

$$R\_CWC_{a,t} = CWC\_K * \exp(Ln(R\_CWC_{a,t}))$$

where,

R_CWC	=	total pipeline transmission cash working capital for existing and new capacity (2005 real dollars)
CWC_C_a	=	estimated arc specific constant for gas transported from node to node (see Table F3.2)
CWC_TOM	=	estimated R_TOM coefficient (see Table F3.2)
R_TOM	=	total operation and maintenance expenses in 2005 real dollars
CWC_K	=	correction factor estimated in stage 2 of the regression equation estimation process
ρ	=	autocorrelation coefficient from estimation (see Table F3.2 -- CWC_RHO)

Ln is a natural logarithm operator and CWC_K is the correction factor estimated in equation two.

The results of this regression are reported below:

Dependent variable: R_CWC
Number of observations: 396

Mean of dep. var.	= 18503.0	LM het. Test	= 135.638 [.000]
Std. dev. of dep. var.	= 283454.4	Durbin-Watson	= 2.29318 [<1.00]
Sum of squared residuals	= .116124E+11	Jarque-Bera test	= 6902.15 [.000]
Variance of residuals	= .293986E+08	Ramsey's RESET2	= .849453 [.357]
Std. error of regression	= 5422.05	Schwarz B.I.C.	= 3969.29
R-squared	= .963435	Log likelihood	= -3966.30
Adjusted R-squared	= .963435		

Variable	Estimated Coefficient	Standard Error	t-statistic	P-value
CWC_K	1.01813	8.31E-03	122.551	[.000]

For Storage:

$$R\_STCWC_{r,t} = e^{(\beta_{0,r} * (1-\rho))} * DSTTCAP_{r,t-1}^{\beta_1} * R\_STCWC_{r,t-1}^{\rho} * DSTTCAP_{r,t-2}^{-\rho * \beta_1}$$

where,

$\beta_{0,a}$	=	constant term estimated by region (see Table F3.1, $\beta_{0,r}$ = REG_r)
	=	STCWC_CREG (Appendix E)

β_1 = 1.07386
= STCWC_TOTCAP (Appendix E)
t-statistic = (2.8)
ρ = 0.668332
= STCWC_RHO (Appendix E)
t-statistic = (6.8)
DW = 1.53
R-Squared = 0.99

(2) Total Depreciation, Depletion, and Amortization for Existing Capacity

(a) existing capacity (up to 2000 for pipeline and up to 1998 for storage)

<u>*For Transportation:*</u>

The equation was estimated using FERC Form 2 data over the period 1997 through 2006. In this analysis, the data were aggregated to the ARC level so that the results would be more consistent with the previous model. A linear specification was chosen given that DDA_E is generally believed to be proportional to the level of net plant. The forecasting equation was estimated with a correction for first order serial correlation.

$$DDA\_E_{a,t} = DDA\_C_a * ARC_a + DDA\_NPIS * NPIS_{a,t-1} + DDA\_NEWCAP * NEWCAP\_E_{a,t}$$

where,

DDA_C_a = constant term estimated by arc for the binary variable ARC_a (see Table F3.3, $DDA\_C_a = B\_ARC_{xx\_yy}$)
ARC_a = binary variable created for each arc to control for arc specific effects
DDA_NPIS = estimated coefficient (see Table F3.3)
DDA_NEWCAP = estimated coefficient (see Table F3.3)

The standard errors in Table F3.3 are computed from heteroscedastic-consistent matrix (Robust-White). The results of this regression are reported below:

Dependent variable: DDA_E
Number of observations: 446

Mean of dep. var.	= 25154.4	R-squared	= .995361
Std. dev. of dep. var.	= 33518.3	Adjusted R-squared	= .994761
Sum of squared residuals	= .231907E+10	LM het. Test	= 30.7086 [.000]
Variance of residuals	= .588597E+07	Durbin-Watson	= 2.06651 [<1.00]
Std. error of regression	= 2426.10		

<u>*For Storage:*</u>

$$STDDA\_E_{r,t} = \beta_{0,r} + \beta_1 * STNPIS\_E_{r,t-1} + \beta_2 * STNEWCAP_{r,t}$$

where,

$\beta_{0,a}$ = constant term estimated by region (see Table F3.4, $\beta_{0,r} = REG_r$)
= STDDA_CREG (Appendix E)
β_1, β_2 = (0.032004, 0.028197)
= STDDA_NPIS, STDDA_NEWCAP (Appendix E)
t-statistic = (10.3) (16.9)
DW = 1.62
R-Squared = 0.97

(b) new capacity (generic pipelines and storage)

A regression equation is not used for the new capacity; instead, an accounting algorithm is used (presented in Chapter 6).

(3) Accumulated Deferred Income Taxes for the Combined Existing and New Capacity

<u>*For Transportation:*</u>

The equation was estimated using FERC Form 2 data over the period 1997 through 2006. In this analysis, the data were aggregated to the ARC level so that the results would be more consistent with the previous model. To control for arc specific effects, a binary variable ARC_a was created for each of the arcs. The associated coefficient represents the arc specific constant term.

Because the level of deferred income taxes is a stock (and not a flow) it was hypothesized that a formulation that focused on the change in the level of accumulated deferred income taxes from the previous year, $deltaADIT_{a,t}$, would be appropriate. Specifically, a linear relationship between the change in ADIT and the change in the level of gross plant in service, $NEWCAP_{a,t}$, and the change in tax policy, POLICY_CHG, was assumed. The form of the estimating equation is:

$$delta\,ADIT_{a,t} = ADIT\_C_a * ARC_a + \beta_1 * NEWCAP_{a,t} + \beta_2 * NEWCAP_{a,t} + \beta_3 * NEWCAP_{a,t}$$

where,

$ADIT\_C_a$ = constant term estimated by arc for the binary variable ARC_a (see Table F3.5, $ADIT\_C_a = B\_ARC_{xx\_yy}$)
β_1 = BNEWCAP_PRE2003, estimated coefficient on the change in gross plant in service in the pre-2003 period because of changes in tax policy in 2003 and 2004 (Appendix F, Table F3.5). It is zero otherwise.
β_2 = BNEWCAP_2003_2004, estimated coefficient on the change in gross plant in service for the years 2003 and 2004 because of changes in tax policy (Appendix F, Table F3.5). It is zero otherwise.
β_3 = BNEWCAP_POST2004, estimated coefficient on the change in gross plant in service in the post-2004 period because of changes in tax policy (Appendix F, Table F3.5). It is zero otherwise.

The estimation results are:

Dependent variable: DELTAADIT
Number of observations: 396

Mean of dep. var.	= 6493.50	R-squared	= .464802
Std. dev. of dep. var.	= 17140.8	Adjusted R-squared	= .383664
Sum of squared residuals	= .621120E+11	LM het. test	= 4.03824 [.044]
Variance of residuals	= .181084E+09	Durbin-Watson	= 2.44866 [<1.00]
Std. error of regression	= 13456.8		

For Storage:

$$STADIT_{r,t} = \beta_0 + \beta_1 * STADIT_{r,t-1} + \beta_2 * NEWCAP_{r,t}$$

where,

β_0	=	-212.535
	=	STADIT_C (Appendix E)
β_1, β_2	=	(0.921962, 0.212610)
	=	STADIT_ADIT, STADIT_NEWCAP (Appendix E)
t-statistic	=	(58.8) (8.4)
DW	=	1.69
R-Squared	=	0.98

(4) Total Operating and Maintenance Expense for the Combined Existing and New Capacity

For Transportation:

The equation was estimated using FERC Form 2 data over the period 1997 through 2006. In this analysis, the data were aggregated to the ARC level so that the results would be more consistent with the previous model. To control for arc specific effects, a binary variable ARC_a was created for each of the arcs. The associated coefficient represents the arc specific constant term.

The forecasting equation is presented in two stages.

Stage 1:

$$\begin{aligned} Ln(R\_TOM_{a,t}) = {} & TOM\_C_a * ARC_a * (1-\rho) + TOM\_GPIS1 * Ln(GPIS_{a,t-1}) \\ & + TOM\_DEPSHR * DEPSHR_{a,t-1} + TOM\_BYEAR * 2006 \\ & + TOM\_BYEAR\_EIA * (TECHYEAR - 2006.0) + \rho * Ln(R\_TOM_{a,t-1}) \\ & - \rho * (TOM\_GPIS1 * Ln(GPIS_{a,t-2}) + TOM\_DESHR * DEPSHR_{a,t-2} \\ & + TOM\_BYEAR * 2006 + TOM\_BYEAR\_EIA * (TECHYEAR - 1 - 2006.0)) \end{aligned}$$

Stage 2:

$$R\_TOM_{a,t} = TOM\_K * \exp(Ln(R\_TOM_{a,t}))$$

where Ln is a natural logarithm operator and TOM_K is the correction factor estimated in equation two, and where,

TOM_C_a	=	constant term estimated by arc for the binary variable ARCa (see Table F3.6, TOM_Ca = B_ARCxx_yy)
ARC_a	=	binary variable created for each arc to control for arc specific effects
TOM_GPIS1	=	estimated coefficient (see Table F3.6)
TOM_DEPSHR	=	estimated coefficient (see Table F3.6)
TOM_BYEAR	=	estimated coefficient (see Table F3.6)
TOM_BYEAR_EIA	=	future rate of decline in R_TOM due to technology improvements and efficiency gains. EIA assumes that this rate is the same as TOM_BYEAR (see Table F3.6)
ρ	=	first-order autocorrelation, TOM_RHO (see Table F3.6)

The results of this regression are reported below:

Dependent variable: R_TOM
Number of observations: 396

Mean of dep. var.	= 52822.9	LM het. test	= 28.7074 [.000]
Std. dev. of dep. var.	= 76354.9	Durbin-Watson	= 2.01148 [<1.00]
Sum of squared residuals	= .668483E+11	Jarque-Bera test	= 13559.1 [.000]
Variance of residuals	= .169236E+09	Ramsey's RESET2	= 4.03086 [.045]
Std. error of regression	= 13009.1	Schwarz B.I.C.	= 4215.86
R-squared	= .971019	Log likelihood	= -4312.87
Adjusted R-squared	= .971019		

Variable	Estimated Coefficient	Standard Error	t-statistic	P-value
TOM_K	0.940181	6.691E-03	140.504	[.000]

For Storage:

$$R\_STTOM_{r,t} = e^{(\beta_0 * (1-\rho))} * DSTWCAP_{r,t-1}^{\beta_1} * R\_STTOM_{r,t-1}^{\rho} * DSTWCAP_{r,t-2}^{-\rho * \beta_1}$$

where,

β_0	=	-6.6702
	=	STTOM_C (Appendix E)
β_1	=	1.44442
	=	STTOM_WORCAP (Appendix E)
t-statistic	=	(33.6)
ρ	=	0.761238
	=	STTOM_RHO (Appendix E)
t-statistic	=	(10.2)
DW	=	1.39
R-Squared	=	0.99

Table F3.1. Summary Statistics for Storage Total Cash Working Capital Equation

Variable	Coefficient	Standard Error	t-statistic
REG2	-2.30334	5.25413	-.438386
REG3	-1.51115	5.33882	-.283049
REG4	-2.11195	5.19899	-.406224
REG5	-2.07950	5.06766	-.410346
REG6	-1.24091	4.97239	-.249559
REG7	-1.63716	5.27950	-.310097
REG8	-2.48339	4.68793	-.529740
REG9	-3.23625	4.09158	-.790954
REG11	-2.15877	4.33364	-.498143

Table F3.2. Summary Statistics for Pipeline Total Cash Working Capital Equation

Variable	Coefficient	Standard-Error	t-statistic	P-value
CWC_TOM	0.381679	.062976	6.06073	[.000]
B_ARC01_01	4.83845	.644360	7.50892	[.000]
B_ARC02_01	5.19554	.644074	8.06668	[.000]
B_ARC02_02	6.37816	.781655	8.15982	[.000]
B_ARC02_03	4.38403	.594344	7.37625	[.000]
B_ARC02_05	5.02364	.684640	7.33764	[.000]
B_ARC03_02	5.51162	.651682	8.45754	[.000]
B_ARC03_03	6.10201	.772378	7.90028	[.000]
B_ARC03_04	4.10475	.572836	7.16566	[.000]
B_ARC03_05	4.69978	.665214	7.06507	[.000]
B_ARC03_15	4.99465	.600910	8.31180	[.000]
B_ARC04_03	5.56047	.718330	7.74083	[.000]
B_ARC04_04	6.15095	.783539	7.85021	[.000]
B_ARC04_07	4.26747	.590736	7.22400	[.000]
B_ARC04_08	4.12216	.611516	6.74089	[.000]
B_ARC05_02	5.50272	.732227	7.51505	[.000]
B_ARC05_03	4.93360	.667589	7.39018	[.000]
B_ARC05_05	6.03791	.774677	7.79409	[.000]
B_ARC05_06	3.27334	.516303	6.33995	[.000]
B_ARC06_03	5.80098	.714338	8.12078	[.000]
B_ARC06_05	5.76939	.741907	7.77644	[.000]
B_ARC06_06	6.73455	.807246	8.34262	[.000]
B_ARC06_07	3.52000	.555549	6.33606	[.000]
B_ARC06_10	4.64811	.665947	6.97970	[.000]
B_ARC07_04	5.60946	.732039	7.66279	[.000]
B_ARC07_06	6.35683	.778573	8.16471	[.000]
B_ARC07_07	6.81298	.828208	8.22616	[.000]
B_ARC07_08	3.60827	.543296	6.64144	[.000]

Variable	Coefficient	Standard-Error	t-statistic	P-value
B_ARC07_11	5.89640	.708385	8.32373	[.000]
B_ARC07_21	4.85140	.621031	7.81185	[.000]
B_ARC08_04	4.94307	.678799	7.28208	[.000]
B_ARC08_07	3.97367	.579267	6.85982	[.000]
B_ARC08_08	5.58162	.723678	7.71286	[.000]
B_ARC08_09	5.19274	.635784	8.16746	[.000]
B_ARC08_11	5.12277	.637835	8.03148	[.000]
B_ARC08_12	4.29097	.593945	7.22452	[.000]
B_ARC09_08	4.10222	.576694	7.11333	[.000]
B_ARC09_09	5.44178	.684020	7.95558	[.000]
B_ARC09_12	4.96229	.600227	8.26735	[.000]
B_ARC09_20	2.63716	.448339	5.88207	[.000]
B_ARC11_07	5.58226	.687702	8.11726	[.000]
B_ARC11_08	4.36952	.548152	7.97137	[.000]
B_ARC11_11	6.13044	.728452	8.41571	[.000]
B_ARC11_12	5.93253	.710336	8.35173	[.000]
B_ARC11_22	4.33062	.545420	7.93998	[.000]
B_ARC15_02	5.09861	.583090	8.74412	[.000]
B_ARC16_04	5.03673	.592859	8.49567	[.000]
B_ARC17_04	4.17798	.576943	7.24158	[.000]
B_ARC19_09	5.14500	.618100	8.32389	[.000]
B_ARC20_09	4.58498	.624006	7.34766	[.000]
B_ARC21_07	4.26846	.563536	7.57441	[.000]
CWC_RHO	0.527389	.048379	10.9011	[.000]

Table F3.3. Summary Statistics for Pipeline Depreciation, Depletion, and Amortization Equation

Variable	Coefficient	Standard-Error	t-statistic	P-value
DDA_NEWCAP	.725948E-02	.200846E-02	3.61446	[.000]
DDA_NPIS	.023390	.103991E-02	22.4923	[.000]
B_ARC01_01	4699.58	862.825	5.44674	[.000]
B_ARC02_01	5081.37	853.478	5.95372	[.000]
B_ARC02_02	43769.1	1954.50	22.3940	[.000]
B_ARC02_03	2050.29	814.056	2.51861	[.012]
B_ARC02_05	7876.12	880.047	8.94965	[.000]
B_ARC03_02	5973.21	842.863	7.08681	[.000]
B_ARC03_03	33063.3	1489.77	22.1936	[.000]
B_ARC03_04	1032.74	809.439	1.27588	[.202]
B_ARC03_05	2386.89	845.864	2.82184	[.005]
B_ARC03_15	7652.92	864.810	8.84924	[.000]
B_ARC04_03	19729.5	1118.66	17.6368	[.000]
B_ARC04_04	35522.7	2267.45	15.6663	[.000]
B_ARC04_07	1919.97	811.222	2.36677	[.018]

Variable	Coefficient	Standard-Error	t-statistic	P-value
B_ARC04_08	747.069	822.607	.908172	[.364]
B_ARC05_02	15678.2	1114.41	14.0686	[.000]
B_ARC05_03	6452.49	855.092	7.54596	[.000]
B_ARC05_05	45000.5	1771.82	25.3979	[.000]
B_ARC05_06	446.742	809.035	.552191	[.581]
B_ARC06_03	11967.8	942.879	12.6928	[.000]
B_ARC06_05	22576.3	1243.19	18.1599	[.000]
B_ARC06_06	67252.9	2892.23	23.2530	[.000]
B_ARC06_07	1134.14	809.115	1.40170	[.161]
B_ARC06_10	15821.4	989.531	15.9888	[.000]
B_ARC07_04	15041.4	984.735	15.2746	[.000]
B_ARC07_06	48087.6	1908.12	25.2015	[.000]
B_ARC07_07	80361.2	3384.54	23.7436	[.000]
B_ARC07_08	833.829	809.565	1.02997	[.303]
B_ARC07_11	4732.17	928.814	5.09486	[.000]
B_ARC07_21	1452.16	922.486	1.57418	[.115]
B_ARC08_04	4920.06	1022.86	4.81008	[.000]
B_ARC08_07	1425.79	811.348	1.75731	[.079]
B_ARC08_08	34661.3	1694.49	20.4553	[.000]
B_ARC08_09	5962.90	873.649	6.82528	[.000]
B_ARC08_11	1088.95	824.202	1.32122	[.186]
B_ARC08_12	7610.79	899.215	8.46382	[.000]
B_ARC09_08	2857.54	814.127	3.50994	[.000]
B_ARC09_09	15070.9	1021.78	14.7496	[.000]
B_ARC09_12	3120.00	833.569	3.74295	[.000]
B_ARC09_20	279.322	917.025	.304595	[.761]
B_ARC11_07	4022.68	871.680	4.61485	[.000]
B_ARC11_08	325.210	809.288	.401846	[.688]
B_ARC11_11	5616.89	1025.31	5.47822	[.000]
B_ARC11_12	4041.93	940.189	4.29906	[.000]
B_ARC11_22	259.293	809.060	.320487	[.749]
B_ARC15_02	2125.53	812.198	2.61701	[.009]
B_ARC16_04	8017.53	871.030	9.20465	[.000]
B_ARC17_04	3316.38	860.323	3.85481	[.000]
B_ARC19_09	4216.02	853.774	4.93810	[.000]
B_ARC20_09	6238.31	834.249	7.47776	[.000]
B_ARC21_07	666.813	810.034	.823192	[.410]

Table F3.4. Summary Statistics for Storage Depreciation, Depletion, and Amortization Equation

Variable	Coefficient	St-Error	t-statistic
REG2	4485.56	1204.28	3.72467
REG3	6267.52	1806.17	3.47006
REG4	3552.55	728.230	4.87833
REG5	2075.31	646.561	3.20976
REG6	1560.07	383.150	4.07169
REG7	4522.42	1268.87	3.56412
REG8	1102.49	622.420	1.77129
REG9	65.2731	10.1903	6.40542
REG11	134.692	494.392	.272439

Table F3.5. Summary Statistics for Pipeline Accumulated Deferred Income Tax Equation

Variable	Coefficient	Standard-Error	t-statistic	P-value
BNEWCAP_PRE2003	.067242	.023235	2.89405	[.004]
BNEWCAP_2003_2004	.132014	.013088	10.0865	[.000]
BNEWCAP_POST2004	.109336	.028196	3.87766	[.000]
B_ARC01_01	3529.80	4775.58	.739134	[.460]
B_ARC02_01	2793.71	4766.40	.586125	[.558]
B_ARC02_02	15255.3	5318.30	2.86844	[.004]
B_ARC02_03	767.648	4758.23	.161331	[.872]
B_ARC02_05	2479.86	4768.91	.520005	[.603]
B_ARC03_02	1663.09	4761.98	.349243	[.727]
B_ARC03_03	6184.51	4966.65	1.24521	[.213]
B_ARC03_04	-14.6495	4757.75	-.307908E-02	[.998]
B_ARC03_05	3183.89	4761.49	.668676	[.504]
B_ARC03_15	2531.19	4759.07	.531866	[.595]
B_ARC04_03	3660.65	4780.00	.765826	[.444]
B_ARC04_04	6076.87	4900.20	1.24013	[.215]
B_ARC04_07	-391.339	4757.90	-.082250	[.934]
B_ARC04_08	1798.04	4758.19	.377884	[.706]
B_ARC05_02	6654.17	4801.91	1.38573	[.166]
B_ARC05_03	1842.90	4762.25	.386982	[.699]
B_ARC05_05	6344.87	5220.98	1.21526	[.224]
B_ARC05_06	148.421	4757.73	.031196	[.975]
B_ARC06_03	2475.65	4775.18	.518441	[.604]
B_ARC06_05	5193.49	4996.38	1.03945	[.299]
B_ARC06_06	24991.1	5803.11	4.30650	[.000]
B_ARC06_07	-259.276	4757.72	-.054496	[.957]
B_ARC06_10	13015.7	4862.80	2.67659	[.007]
B_ARC07_04	189.221	4776.34	.039616	[.968]

Variable	Coefficient	Standard-Error	t-statistic	P-value
B_ARC07_06	14166.3	5012.13	2.82640	[.005]
B_ARC07_07	16102.7	5680.52	2.83472	[.005]
B_ARC07_08	118.047	4758.11	.024810	[.980]
B_ARC07_11	-434.842	4808.84	-.090426	[.928]
B_ARC07_21	495.934	5498.36	.090197	[.928]
B_ARC08_04	4679.95	4780.56	.978955	[.328]
B_ARC08_07	365.793	4762.84	.076801	[.939]
B_ARC08_08	5133.64	5235.92	.980466	[.327]
B_ARC08_09	-3672.71	4770.23	-.769923	[.441]
B_ARC08_11	-1856.45	4762.76	-.389784	[.697]
B_ARC08_12	795.831	4808.51	.165505	[.869]
B_ARC09_08	537.433	4759.95	.112907	[.910]
B_ARC09_09	-1812.27	4829.76	-.375230	[.707]
B_ARC09_12	-2803.40	4761.86	-.588719	[.556]
B_ARC09_20	55.5366	5493.73	.010109	[.992]
B_ARC11_07	-1137.92	4772.21	-.238448	[.812]
B_ARC11_08	276.612	4757.86	.058138	[.954]
B_ARC11_11	7.99239	4874.89	.163950E-02	[.999]
B_ARC11_12	-1079.76	4825.77	-.223750	[.823]
B_ARC11_22	337.987	4759.18	.071018	[.943]
B_ARC15_02	429.875	4758.19	.090344	[.928]
B_ARC16_04	2744.23	4759.07	.576631	[.564]
B_ARC17_04	935.795	4757.97	.196680	[.844]
B_ARC19_09	-3806.27	4762.95	-.799141	[.424]
B_ARC20_09	1173.22	4768.48	.246037	[.806]
B_ARC21_07	586.673	4759.84	.123255	[.902]

Table F3.6. Summary Statistics for Pipeline Total Operating and Maintenance Expense Equation

Variable	Coefficient	Standard-Error	t-statistic	P-value
TOM_GPIS1	.256869	.114518	2.24304	[.025]
TOM_DEPSHR	1.69807	.429440	3.95415	[.000]
TOM_BYEAR	-.019974	.718590E-02	-2.77955	[.005]
B_ARC01_01	45.8116	13.5505	3.38081	[.001]
B_ARC02_01	45.7428	13.5502	3.37580	[.001]
B_ARC02_02	47.4313	13.4380	3.52963	[.000]
B_ARC02_03	45.3570	13.6230	3.32944	[.001]
B_ARC02_05	46.3936	13.5393	3.42658	[.001]
B_ARC03_02	45.8277	13.5539	3.38115	[.001]
B_ARC03_03	47.1662	13.4461	3.50779	[.000]
B_ARC03_04	44.5365	13.6401	3.26512	[.001]
B_ARC03_05	45.9318	13.5464	3.39071	[.001]

Variable	Coefficient	Standard-Error	t-statistic	P-value
B_ARC03_15	45.1262	13.5508	3.33015	[.001]
B_ARC04_03	46.5137	13.4799	3.45060	[.001]
B_ARC04_04	47.4725	13.4290	3.53508	[.000]
B_ARC04_07	45.0325	13.6249	3.30516	[.001]
B_ARC04_08	45.6096	13.5965	3.35451	[.001]
B_ARC05_02	46.8361	13.4859	3.47298	[.001]
B_ARC05_03	46.2316	13.5556	3.41052	[.001]
B_ARC05_05	47.2881	13.4422	3.51788	[.000]
B_ARC05_06	44.2555	13.6969	3.23105	[.001]
B_ARC06_03	46.4249	13.4976	3.43948	[.001]
B_ARC06_05	46.9210	13.4730	3.48260	[.000]
B_ARC06_06	47.6072	13.4045	3.55157	[.000]
B_ARC06_07	44.5090	13.6696	3.25606	[.001]
B_ARC06_10	46.0547	13.5171	3.40715	[.001]
B_ARC07_04	46.6884	13.4905	3.46084	[.001]
B_ARC07_06	47.2664	13.4316	3.51904	[.000]
B_ARC07_07	47.8651	13.3928	3.57395	[.000]
B_ARC07_08	44.7096	13.6750	3.26944	[.001]
B_ARC07_11	46.7847	13.5263	3.45880	[.001]
B_ARC07_21	45.4067	13.6138	3.33535	[.001]
B_ARC08_04	46.3290	13.5124	3.42864	[.001]
B_ARC08_07	45.1349	13.6437	3.30810	[.001]
B_ARC08_08	46.8373	13.4658	3.47825	[.001]
B_ARC08_09	45.7056	13.5495	3.37323	[.001]
B_ARC08_11	45.9766	13.5925	3.38250	[.001]
B_ARC08_12	45.1596	13.5537	3.33190	[.001]
B_ARC09_08	44.9927	13.6211	3.30317	[.001]
B_ARC09_09	46.2997	13.5103	3.42699	[.001]
B_ARC09_12	45.2655	13.5793	3.33342	[.001]
B_ARC09_20	43.2644	13.7686	3.14226	[.002]
B_ARC11_07	46.4472	13.5409	3.43015	[.001]
B_ARC11_08	44.9105	13.6898	3.28058	[.001]
B_ARC11_11	47.0985	13.5107	3.48603	[.000]
B_ARC11_12	46.8744	13.5270	3.46526	[.001]
B_ARC11_22	44.8071	13.7118	3.26778	[.001]
B_ARC15_02	44.8267	13.6116	3.29327	[.001]
B_ARC16_04	45.0068	13.5491	3.32175	[.001]
B_ARC17_04	44.8832	13.5582	3.31042	[.001]
B_ARC19_09	45.4861	13.5613	3.35412	[.001]
B_ARC20_09	45.5729	13.5745	3.35725	[.001]
B_ARC21_07	44.6298	13.6465	3.27041	[.001]
TOM_RHO	.297716	.052442	5.67707	[.000]

Table F4

Data: Equation for industrial distribution tariffs

Author: Ernest Zampelli, SAIC, 2009.

Source: The source for the peak and off-peak consumption data used in this estimation was the Natural Gas Monthly, DOE/EIA-0130. State level city gate prices by month were averaged using quantity-weights to arrive at seasonal (peak and off-peak), regional level (12 NGTDM regions) prices. The quantity-weights for the city gate prices consisted of residential consumption plus commercial consumption that is represented by on-system sales plus industrial consumption that is represented by on-system sales. Prices for the estimations were derived as described in Table F5.

Variables:

$TIN_{r,n,t}$ = industrial distributor tariff in region r, network n (1987 dollars per Mcf) [DTAR_SF$_3$]
$PREG_r$ = 1, if observation is in region r during peak period (n=1), =0 otherwise
$QIND_{r,t}$ = industrial gas consumption in region r in year t (MMcf) [BASQTY_SF$_3$+BASQTY_SI$_3$]
r = NGTDM region
t = year
α_0, α_r, $\alpha_{r,n}$ = estimated parameters for regional constants [PINREG15$_r$ and PINREGPK15$_{r,n}$]
β = estimated parameter for consumption
ρ = autocorrelation coefficient

[Note: Variables in brackets correspond to comparable variables used in the main body of the documentation and in the model code.]

Derivation: The industrial distributor tariff equation was estimated using backcasted data for the 12 NGTDM regions over the 1990 to 2008 time period. The equation was estimated in linear form with corrections for cross sectional heteroscedasticity and first order serial correlation using TSP version 5.0. The form of the estimating equation follows:

$$\begin{aligned} \ln TIN_{r,n,t} = {} & \alpha_0 + \sum_r (\alpha_r + \alpha_{r,pk}) * REG_{r,pk} + \beta * QIND_{r,t} + \rho * TIN_{r,t-1} \\ & - \rho * (\sum_r (\alpha_r + \alpha_{r,pk}) * REG_{r,pk} + \beta * QIND_{r,t-1}) \end{aligned}$$

Regression Diagnostics and Parameter Estimates:

FIRST-ORDER SERIAL CORRELATION OF THE ERROR

Dependent variable: TIN87
Number of observations: 456

Mean of dep. var.	=	.282327	R-squared	=	.711027
Std. dev. of dep. var.	=	1.68053	Adjusted R-squared	=	.703199
Sum of squared residuals	=	371.429	Durbin-Watson	=	1.96827

Variance of residuals	=	.838440	Schwarz B.I.C.	=	640.302	
Std. error of regression	=	.915663	Log likelihood	=	-600.506	

Parameter	Estimate	Standard Error	t-statistic	P-value	Code Variable
WT	.199135	.041539	4.79396	[.000]	
NE	.664368	.178794	3.71584	[.000]	$PINREG15_1$
WNCNTL	-.565428	.069519	-8.13339	[.000]	$PINREG15_4$
ESCNTL	-.248102	.053509	-4.63666	[.000]	$PINREG15_6$
AZNM	.395943	.093005	4.25725	[.000]	$PINREG15_{11}$
CA	.605914	.097865	6.19132	[.000]	$PINREG15_{12}$
MIDATL_PK	.418090	.101754	4.10881	[.000]	$PINREGPK15_2$
WNCNTL_PK	.354066	.079415	4.45840	[.000]	$PINREGPK15_4$
ESCNTL_PK	.203711	.074239	2.74398	[.006]	$PINREGPK15_6$
WSCNTL_PK	-.411782	.068533	-6.00852	[.000]	$PINREGPK15_7$
WAOR_PK	.263996	.092401	2.85709	[.004]	$PINREGPK15_9$
QIND	-.317443E-03	.482650E-04	-6.57708	[.000]	
RHO	.423561	.043665	9.70021	[.000]	

Standard Errors computed from analytic second derivatives (Newton)

Data used for estimation

		New Engl.	Mid Atl.	E.N. Central	W.N. Central	S.Atl Fl	E.S. Central	W.S. Central	Mtn-AZNM	WA/OR	Florida	AZ/NM	CA/HI
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
1990 QIN	peak	25.238	156.14	453.96	140.9	185.23	152.15	948.57	56.599	46.146	30.06	13.198	177.12
1990 QIN	off-peak	56.095	270.87	730.76	245.05	351.31	272.39	1987.3	93.839	81.168	54.881	24.473	388.08
1991 QIN	peak	39.282	168.91	481.69	149.95	171.26	158.54	979.32	66.408	47.282	30.235	14.3	201.54
1991 QIN	off-peak	82.376	282.18	729.31	254.99	330.64	288.33	2003.6	109.22	87.502	53.163	24.25	401.08
1992 QIN	peak	54.227	204.09	498.51	155.99	185.1	166.54	1018.4	74.334	49.691	29.904	13.778	217.12
1992 QIN	off-peak	108.78	354.7	777.87	263.94	353.2	304.97	1942.1	128.69	88.594	54.925	23.066	377.45
1993 QIN	peak	61.814	224.11	529.31	166.97	185.5	176.42	1045.5	83.593	54.178	34.299	13.167	214.7
1993 QIN	off-peak	123.32	366.69	786.37	283.17	358.16	305.77	2109.2	148.52	98.713	66.051	25.02	445.02
1994 QIN	peak	60.862	243.6	553.36	190.76	182.9	170.14	1088.8	91.076	58.07	42.837	13.711	210.07
1994 QIN	off-peak	111.77	398.1	795.93	320.33	380.72	299.53	2069.5	149.79	112.1	84.036	30.899	446.68
1995 QIN	peak	67.612	274.81	564.08	174.94	198.2	181.21	1094.8	92.348	62.974	49.496	18.42	216.02
1995 QIN	off-peak	117.09	462.71	842.05	302.97	408.65	323.96	2206	154.12	115.93	83.981	30.338	471.9
1996 QIN	peak	54.363	285.51	578.99	166.26	193.94	178.95	1196.9	93.314	66.644	46.056	17.943	231.69
1996 QIN	off-peak	112.99	481.59	876.22	283.25	385.99	324.38	2332	168.08	135.35	90.666	31.894	461.85
1997 QIN	peak	48.405	234.18	527.5	180.9	213.68	185.66	1158.6	77.997	70.675	41.903	18.414	232.69
1997 QIN	off-peak	86.131	402.1	814.07	291.91	398.91	334.13	2246.7	136.03	130.89	83.234	35.325	487.2
1998 QIN	peak	52.54	226.19	506.96	165.78	200.57	186.74	1119.4	94.347	83.184	40.685	18.07	232.48
1998 QIN	off-peak	95.549	375.1	771.51	298.64	370.18	328.87	2140.8	154.17	152.69	81.23	35.135	513.67
1999 QIN	peak	55.157	197.85	523.25	160.89	221.22	201	1023.2	77.398	81.611	43.813	18.686	203.63
1999 QIN	off-peak	100.84	332.74	804.58	274.65	340.85	366.69	2032.3	146.67	150.74	90.394	34.188	522.78
2000 QIN	peak	54.493	152.64	539.34	163.07	194.49	200.21	1080.9	87.687	57.099	35.056	17.259	218.27
2000 QIN	off-peak	86.042	262.25	788.24	285.56	364.74	347.3	2230.3	139.76	102.92	69.631	33.847	558.47
2001 QIN	peak	49.565	139.45	480.99	150.12	155.17	168.54	1051.7	104.16	50.923	30.792	19.007	211.11
2001 QIN	off-peak	85.579	228.74	699.46	258.24	303.54	299.32	1974.5	167.1	93.96	63.919	35.375	455.88
2002 QIN	peak	52.54	144.33	470.45	121.75	173.22	176.85	1011.8	91.637	51.527	28.746	14.516	241.23
2002 QIN	off-peak	81.724	234.44	758.81	221.6	328.78	305.4	2005.8	169.31	86.7	54.823	26.005	499.44
2003 QIN	peak	39.744	139.83	481.39	158.53	175.69	176.28	982.91	89.808	47.009	25.345	13.858	252.4
2003 QIN	off-peak	46.063	215.76	678.89	260.18	298.39	286.67	1906.9	146.28	86.394	47.99	25.8	527.13

		New Engl.	Mid Atl.	E.N. Central	W.N. Central	S.Atl Fl	E.S. Central	W.S. Central	Mtn-AZNM	WA/OR	Florida	AZ/NM	CA/HI
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
2004 QIN	peak	37.198	136.43	491.51	156.64	176.4	173.92	973.99	91.339	49.641	23.374	16.187	271.43
2004 QIN	off-peak	45.242	214.24	688.46	265.89	305.66	303.33	1907	146.72	89.858	40.229	26.574	564.84
2005 QIN	peak	40.728	135.24	478.91	158.08	172.16	168.5	808.09	93.829	48.327	23.015	14.013	267.71
2005 QIN	off-peak	45.586	205.31	681.74	260.6	290.89	283.02	1538.7	159.82	88.192	40.118	27.785	514.11
2006 QIN	peak	35.807	124.55	429.28	162.89	161.04	157.39	787.35	97.212	50.66	24.302	13.762	244.48
2006 QIN	off-peak	47.391	207.44	673.41	298.82	305.01	292.01	1573.2	151.07	90.187	45.419	22.924	488.02
2007 QIN	peak	39.898	129.41	455.49	173.06	161.02	166.6	834.3	97.509	51.108	23.489	13.67	243.44
2007 QIN	off-peak	47.76	206.79	665.3	304.43	293.52	287.93	1612	156.13	91.117	42.303	23.336	490.16
2008 QIN	peak	41.994	131.75	450.39	195.27	158.12	162.98	834.03	101.53	55.157	25.683	13.962	255.11
2008 QIN	off-peak	45.87	195.97	644.85	323.08	290.82	281.62	1594.9	157.55	89.092	45.653	24.509	509.07
1990 TIN	peak	1.099	0.6688	0.3058	-0.1288	0.7025	0.1655	-0.5898	0.0125	0.6006	0.5055	0.3569	0.7677
1990 TIN	off-peak	0.2422	0.2975	0.3219	-0.2679	0.3332	0.0103	-0.8011	-0.6182	0.3989	0.6069	0.4618	0.4976
1991 TIN	peak	1.1651	0.7854	0.3182	-0.1239	0.6413	0.1569	-0.6598	-0.2375	0.5443	0.4694	0.4572	0.9729
1991 TIN	off-peak	0.2206	0.1636	0.1991	-0.3464	0.1277	-0.0513	-0.6584	-0.7412	0.4784	0.5472	0.3259	0.5807
1992 TIN	peak	1.2819	0.6984	0.2446	-0.0567	0.628	0.1737	-0.6297	-0.1706	0.5218	0.5658	1.2426	1.078
1992 TIN	off-peak	-0.1136	-0.164	-0.0413	-0.3214	0.0843	-0.1326	-0.5803	-0.9941	0.5634	0.4786	0.9993	0.2713
1993 TIN	peak	1.1049	0.5098	0.1875	-0.0766	0.6265	0.1938	-0.5649	-0.1407	0.4983	0.5495	0.7831	0.3072
1993 TIN	off-peak	-0.5318	-0.1649	0.0392	-0.3932	0.0085	-0.1049	-0.4782	-0.5373	0.4175	0.689	0.6653	-0.1804
1994 TIN	peak	1.1511	0.6644	0.3775	0.043	0.5115	0.3493	-0.4724	-0.4511	0.4197	0.0552	0.989	0.4388
1994 TIN	off-peak	-0.7697	0.0425	0.2089	-0.4502	-0.1338	-0.0533	-0.3722	-0.6965	0.1884	0.2237	0.5148	0.1871
1995 TIN	peak	0.9682	0.5415	0.1336	0.0336	0.5657	0.368	-0.5873	-0.1514	0.2735	-0.0042	1.0843	1.3996
1995 TIN	off-peak	-0.6908	0.1533	-0.0909	-0.4184	0.0587	-0.091	-0.5336	-0.1512	0.2563	0.1373	0.8486	0.7801
1996 TIN	peak	1.0885	0.4724	-0.0801	0.1501	0.3852	-0.0597	-0.2293	0.0624	0.3147	0.0629	0.7245	0.7635
1996 TIN	off-peak	-0.5643	-0.1022	-0.0573	-0.4768	0.0265	0.0109	-0.287	0.0885	0.0274	0.2877	0.6701	0.549
1997 TIN	peak	0.9536	0.5591	0.1766	-0.1368	0.4308	0.1911	-0.4936	0.04	0.5014	-0.2748	0.3125	1.0975
1997 TIN	off-peak	-0.3627	-0.9394	-0.1531	-0.7348	-0.0943	-0.0291	-0.2262	0.2046	0.0767	0.1115	0.1918	0.4767
1998 TIN	peak	0.7314	0.029	0.1798	-0.0513	0.1833	0.0944	-0.2879	-0.1103	0.1663	-0.0655	0.544	1.0797
1998 TIN	off-peak	-0.8255	-0.5106	0.0985	-0.5266	-0.3471	-0.2757	-0.1983	0.0953	0.0643	-0.0713	0.176	0.4421
1999 TIN	peak	0.381	0.1165	0.1777	-0.0447	-0.0503	0.1269	-0.4494	0.5426	0.1491	0.6896	0.5158	0.6471
1999 TIN	off-peak	-0.8161	-0.787	-0.2143	-0.5001	-0.4758	-0.2064	-0.2569	0.2023	0.0292	-0.0932	0.0834	0.2283
2000 TIN	peak	0.4368	0.3257	-0.1319	-0.1978	-0.0355	-0.0918	-0.5133	0.3527	0.5765	-0.0681	-0.0613	0.6967
2000 TIN	off-peak	-0.6324	-0.5654	-0.2139	-0.637	-0.4437	-0.2846	-0.3444	0.3139	-0.0557	0.2312	-0.0438	0.5583
2001 TIN	peak	-0.0298	0.5579	0.0726	-0.3949	-0.0079	-0.2461	-0.7083	0.157	-0.2738	-0.3584	-0.0328	-0.4836
2001 TIN	off-peak	-0.1169	0.2263	0.2662	-0.493	-0.4109	-0.0722	-0.3964	0.7435	0.3807	0.8896	0.7614	0.8027
2002 TIN	peak	0.6619	0.4506	-0.1471	-0.2	-0.0309	0.19	-0.5569	0.8717	0.7349	0.8584	1.2169	1.054
2002 TIN	off-peak	-0.875	0.1446	-0.447	-0.351	-0.4161	-0.0017	-0.4194	0.9103	-0.0871	0.4439	0.6581	0.6936
2003 TIN	peak	0.7842	1.1901	0.0288	-0.3011	0.018	0.3513	-0.222	0.5963	0.2737	-0.4933	0.3882	1.0483
2003 TIN	off-peak	0.2361	0.7713	0.1791	-0.4924	-0.4897	-0.3577	-0.2159	0.6595	0.1605	0.5482	0.6927	0.8708
2004 TIN	peak	1.2662	0.958	0.1488	-0.1974	0.0588	0.1299	-0.4422	0.2895	0.3958	0.1907	0.4129	1.176
2004 TIN	off-peak	0.17	0.2825	-0.2684	-0.6077	-0.4935	-0.1755	-0.1804	0.2801	0.0213	0.433	0.4578	0.4561
2005 TIN	peak	1.1769	0.9548	-0.071	0.0804	0.1706	0.2596	-0.513	0.4996	0.5463	-0.0684	0.4173	1.3857
2005 TIN	off-peak	6.2644	0.1607	-0.6005	-0.8601	-0.6412	-0.2335	-0.2605	0.2672	0.0206	-0.6922	0.4917	0.3082
2006 TIN	peak	0.7955	0.6048	-0.3683	0.1022	-0.2335	0.0381	-0.6599	0.3446	0.3204	0.599	0.3567	1.2178
2006 TIN	off-peak	0.2617	-0.7368	-0.1778	-0.7105	-0.4412	-0.3876	-0.4774	0.2411	0.1519	1.1891	1.1094	0.9437
2007 TIN	peak	1.3417	0.2697	-0.3644	0.0452	0.1393	-0.1848	-0.7233	-0.0415	0.6403	0.7626	0.7061	0.907
2007 TIN	off-peak	0.2215	-0.0402	-0.1513	-0.3497	-0.1962	-0.1132	-0.7936	0.3232	0.5507	0.9501	0.8721	0.8912
2008 TIN	peak	1.1063	0.3597	-0.1709	0.1381	0.1855	-0.1638	-0.62	0.1363	0.8461	1.0509	0.5912	0.9421
2008 TIN	off-peak	0.5047	0.3785	0.2288	-0.1025	-0.0856	-0.255	-0.6044	0.071	-0.1388	1.2117	1.1816	1.1883

Table F5

Data: Historical industrial sector natural gas prices by type of service, NGTDM region.

Derivation: The historical industrial natural gas prices published in the *Natural Gas Annual (NGA)* only reflect gas purchased through local distribution companies. In order to approximate the average price to all industrial customers by service type and NGTDM region (HPGFINGR, HPGIINGR), data available at the Census Region level[97] from the Manufacturing Energy Consumption Survey (MECS)[98] for the years 1988, 1991, 1994, 1998, and 2002 were used to estimate an equation for the regional MECS price as a function of the regional NGA industrial price and the regional supply price (quantity-weighted average of the gas wellhead price and import price). The procedure is outlined below.

1) Assign average Census Division industrial price using econometrically derived equation:

$$\mathrm{PIN\_NG}_{nr} = 1.00187 * \exp(0.039682) * \mathrm{PW\_NRG}_{nr}^{0.231404} * \mathrm{HPIN}_{nr}^{0.726227}$$

from estimating the following equation

$$\ln\mathrm{PIN\_NG}_{nr} = \beta_0 + \beta_1 * \ln\mathrm{PW\_NRG}_{nr} + \beta_2 * \mathrm{HPIN}_{nr}$$

2) Assign prices to the NGTDM regions that represent subregions of Census Divisions by multiplying the Census Division price from step 1 by the subregion price (as published in the NGA), divided by the Census Division price (as published in the NGA). For the Pacific Division, the industrial price in Alaska from the NGA, with quantity weights, is used to approximate a Pacific Division price for the lower-48 (i.e., CA, WA, and OR), before this step is performed.

3) Core industrial prices are derived by applying an historical, regional, average average-to-firm price markup (FDIFF, in 1987$/Mcf, Northeast 0.11, North Central 0.14, South 0.67, West 0.39) to the established average regional industrial price (from step 2). Noncore prices are calculated so that the quantity-weighted average of the core and noncore prices equal the original regional estimate. The data used to generate the average-to-firm markups are presented below.

4) Finally, the peak and off-peak prices from the NGA are scaled to align with the core and noncore prices generated from step 3 on an average annual basis, to arrive at peak/off-peak, core/noncore industrial prices for the NGTDM regions.

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[97]Through a special request, the Census Bureau generated MECS data by Census Region and by service type (core versus noncore) based on an assumption of which industrial classifications are more likely to consume most of their purchased natural gas in boilers (core) or non-boiler applications (noncore).

[98]A request was issued to the Census Bureau to obtain similar data from other MECS surveys to improve this estimation.

	Prices (87$/mcf)			Consumption (Bcf)		
	1988	**1991**	**1994**	**1988**	**1991**	**1994**
Core						
Northeast	3.39	3.05	3.04	335	299	310
North Central	3.04	2.37	2.42	864	759	935
South	2.91	2.40	2.53	643	625	699
West	3.21	2.70	2.55	217	204	227
Noncore						
Northeast	3.05	2.78	2.67	148	146	187
North Central	2.60	2.01	2.17	537	648	747
South	1.96	1.57	1.75	2517	2592	2970
West	2.54	2.19	1.91	347	440	528

	Price (87$/mcf)				
	1988	1991	1994	1998	2002
Northeast	3.297223	3.018058	2.941269	2.834076	3.498869
North Central	2.880355	2.247968	2.351399	2.247715	2.985983
South	2.162684	1.766014	1.939298	1.947017	2.634691
West	2.804912	2.398525	2.133228	2.217645	2.831414

Variables:

PIN_NG = Industrial natural gas prices by NGTDM region (1987$/Mcf)
PW_CDV = Average supply price by Census Division (1987$/Mcf)
PI_CDV = Industrial natural gas price from the NGA by Census Division (1987$/Mcf)
FDIFF = Average (1988, 1991, 1994) difference between the firm industrial price and the average industrial price by Census Region (1987$/Mcf)
PIN_FNG = Industrial core natural gas prices by NGTDM region (1987$/Mcf)
PIN_ING = Industrial noncore natural gas prices by NGTDM region (1987$/Mcf)
HPGFINGR = Industrial core natural gas prices by period and NGTDM region (1987$/Mcf)
HPGIINGR = Industrial noncore natural gas prices by period and NGTDM region (1987$/Mcf)

Regression Diagnostics and Parameter Estimates:

```
Dependent variable: LNMECS87
 Number of observations:  20

        Mean of dep. var. = .921802          LM het. test = .021529 [.883]
   Std. dev. of dep. var. = .190034         Durbin-Watson = 1.22472 [<.086]
 Sum of squared residuals = .067807      Jarque-Bera test = .977466 [.613]
    Variance of residuals = .398866E-02   Ramsey's RESET2 = .044807 [.835]
```

Std. error of regression = .063156		F (zero slopes) = 77.5121 [.000]	
R-squared = .901177		Schwarz B.I.C. = -23.9958	
Adjusted R-squared = .889550		Log likelihood = 28.4894	

Variable	Estimated Coefficient	Standard Error	t-statistic	P-value	Symbol
C	.039682	.072242	.549291	[.590]	β_0
LNSUPPLYP87	.231404	.105606	2.19120	[.043]	β_1
LNNGAP87	.726227	.073700	9.85385	[.000]	β_2

Form of Forecasting Equation:

$$MECS87 = 1.00187 * e^{0.039682} SUPPLYP87^{0.231404} NGAP87^{0.726227}$$

where:

*MECS*87 = Manufacturer's Energy Consumption Survey in US$87

*SUPPLYP*87 = supply price in US$87

*NGAP*87 = natural gas annual price in US$87

The term 1.00187 is an adjustment factor that is applied in cases where the value of "y" is predicted from an estimated equation where the dependent variable is the natural log of y. The adjustment is due to the fact that generally predictions of "y" using the first equation only tend to be biased downward. It is calculated by estimating the historical values of the dependent variable as a function of the estimated values for the same.

Table F6

Data: Equations for residential distribution tariffs

Author: Ernest Zampelli, SAIC, with summer intern Ben Laughlin, 2010.

Source: The source for the peak and off-peak data used in this estimation was the *Natural Gas Monthly*, DOE/EIA-0130. State level city gate and residential prices by month were averaged using quantity-weights to arrive at seasonal (peak and off-peak), regional level (12 NGTDM regions) prices. The quantity-weights for the city gate prices consisted of residential consumption plus commercial consumption that is represented by on-system sales plus industrial consumption that is represented by on-system sales. The source for the number of residential customers was the Natural Gas Annual, DOE/EIA-0131.

Variables:

$TRS_{r,n,t}$ = residential distributor tariff in the period n for region r (1987 dollars per Mcf) [$DTAR\_SF_1$]

REG_r = 1, if observation is in region r, =0 otherwise

$QRS\_NUMR_{r,n,t}$ = residential gas consumption per customer in the period for region r in year t (Bcf per thousand customers) [($BASQTY\_SF_1$+$BASQTY\_SI_1$)/NUMRS]

$NUMRS_{r,t}$ = number of residential customers (thousands)

r = NGTDM region

n = network (1=peak, 2=off-peak)

t = year

$\alpha_{r,n}$ = estimated parameters for regional dummy variables [PRSREGPK19]

$\beta_{1,n}$, $\beta_{2,n}$ = estimated parameters

ρ_n = autocorrelation coefficient

[Note: Variables in brackets correspond to comparable variables used in the main body of the documentation and in the model code.]

Derivation: Residential distributor tariff equations for the peak and off-peak periods were estimated using panel data for the 12 NGTDM regions over the 1990 to 2009 time period. The equations were estimated in log-linear form with corrections for cross sectional heteroscedasticity and first order serial correlation using EViews. The general form for both estimating equations follows:

$$\ln TRS_{r,n,t} = \sum_r (\alpha_{r,n} * REG_r) + \beta_{1,n} * \ln QRS\_NUMR_{r,n,t} + \beta_{2,n} * \ln NUMRS_{r,t} +$$

$$\rho_n * \ln TRS_{r,n,t-1} - \rho_n * (\sum_r (\alpha_{r,n} * REG_r) + \beta_{1,n} * \ln QRS\_NUMR_{r,n,t-1} + \beta_{2,n} * \ln NUMRS_{r,t}$$

Regression Diagnostics and Parameter Estimates for the Peak Period:

Dependent Variable: LNTRS87
Method: Least Squares
Date: 07/22/10 Time: 16:32
Sample (adjusted): 2 240
Included observations: 239 after adjustments
Convergence achieved after 7 iterations
Newey-West HAC Standard Errors & Covariance (lag truncation=4)

Variable	Coefficient	Std. Error	t-Statistic	Prob.
LNQRS_NUMR	-0.607267	0.094552	-6.422580	0.0000
LN_NUMRS	0.162972	0.090462	1.801551	0.0730
REGION=1	-6.947036	1.103041	-6.298074	0.0000
REGION=2	-7.422527	1.201445	-6.178001	0.0000
REGION=3	-8.021596	1.217912	-6.586353	0.0000
REGION=4	-7.864109	1.156385	-6.800599	0.0000
REGION=5	-7.473760	1.153979	-6.476514	0.0000
REGION=6	-7.664540	1.121958	-6.831398	0.0000
REGION=7	-8.052452	1.177230	-6.840170	0.0000
REGION=8	-7.987073	1.121141	-7.124058	0.0000
REGION=9	-7.308704	1.060240	-6.893446	0.0000
REGION=10	-7.283411	1.060717	-6.866500	0.0000
REGION=11	-7.523595	1.085943	-6.928169	0.0000
REGION=12	-7.954022	1.209662	-6.575410	0.0000
AR(1), ρ	0.231296	0.068422	3.380459	0.0009

R-squared	0.911539	Mean dependent var	0.940050
Adjusted R-squared	0.906010	S.D. dependent var	0.384204
S.E. of regression	0.117789	Akaike info criterion	-1.379145
Sum squared resid	3.107810	Schwarz criterion	-1.160957
Log likelihood	179.8078	Hannan-Quinn criter.	-1.291221
Durbin-Watson stat	1.994101		

Regression Diagnostics and Parameter Estimates for the Off-peak Period:

Dependent Variable: LNTRS87
Method: Least Squares
Date: 07/22/10 Time: 16:31
Sample: 241 480
Included observations: 240
Convergence achieved after 6 iterations
Newey-West HAC Standard Errors & Covariance (lag truncation=4)

Variable	Coefficient	Std. Error	t-Statistic	Prob.
LNQRS_NUMR	-0.814968	0.085444	-9.538040	0.0000
LN_NUMRS	0.282301	0.111488	2.532127	0.0120
REGION=1	-11.06556	1.189130	-9.305589	0.0000
REGION=2	-11.46569	1.331512	-8.611025	0.0000
REGION=3	-11.99084	1.365602	-8.780628	0.0000
REGION=4	-11.81121	1.265735	-9.331497	0.0000
REGION=5	-11.52214	1.266859	-9.095045	0.0000
REGION=6	-11.67063	1.209285	-9.650856	0.0000

REGION=7	-11.86662	1.278193	-9.283902	0.0000
REGION=8	-11.80703	1.229651	-9.601944	0.0000
REGION=9	-11.19628	1.140432	-9.817580	0.0000
REGION=10	-10.93813	1.060071	-10.31830	0.0000
REGION=11	-11.32604	1.134872	-9.980016	0.0000
REGION=12	-12.06455	1.327790	-9.086182	0.0000
AR(1), ρ	0.202612	0.083183	2.435748	0.0156

R-squared	0.905922	Mean dependent var	1.272962
Adjusted R-squared	0.900069	S.D. dependent var	0.368928
S.E. of regression	0.116625	Akaike info criterion	-1.399238
Sum squared resid	3.060333	Schwarz criterion	-1.181698
Log likelihood	182.9086	Hannan-Quinn criter.	-1.311585
Durbin-Watson stat	2.010275		

Data used for peak period estimation in log form

Year	Variable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
		New Engl	Mid Atl	E.N. Cntrl	W.N. Cntrl	S.Atl-FL	E.S. Cntrl	W.S. Cntrl	Mtn-AZNM	WA/OR	Florida	AZ/NM	CA/HI
1990	TRS87	1.3013	1.0730	0.4048	0.3961	1.0185	0.6054	0.6114	0.4041	1.0087	1.4535	1.0112	0.9513
1990	NUMRS	14.4242	15.9210	16.2206	15.2533	15.2427	14.6570	15.5148	14.5549	13.5724	13.0339	13.7708	15.9587
1990	QRS_NUMR	-9.8137	-9.8268	-9.5457	-9.6821	-9.9747	-9.9839	-10.1121	-9.8411	-9.9340	-11.0881	-10.1387	-10.2906
1991	TRS87	1.3496	1.1217	0.4383	0.4061	0.9869	0.7178	0.6539	0.4200	0.8813	1.5632	1.0210	1.0692
1991	NUMRS	14.4330	15.9914	16.2352	15.2651	15.2648	14.6832	15.5257	14.5850	13.6744	13.0546	13.8374	15.9747
1991	QRS_NUMR	-9.8481	-9.8694	-9.4866	-9.5907	-9.9350	-9.9281	-10.0510	-9.7635	-9.9330	-11.1596	-10.1994	-10.4037
1992	TRS87	1.3843	1.1746	0.4187	0.4769	1.0595	0.7357	0.6413	0.4536	0.9455	1.5313	0.9832	1.0246
1992	NUMRS	14.4423	16.0036	16.2475	15.2807	15.3133	14.7090	15.5316	14.6128	13.6913	13.0644	13.8095	15.9800
1992	QRS_NUMR	-9.7463	-9.7981	-9.4989	-9.6974	-9.8973	-9.9207	-10.0994	-9.8291	-9.9947	-11.0110	-10.1482	-10.4125
1993	TRS87	1.3820	1.1496	0.4725	0.4174	1.0268	0.6689	0.5867	0.4285	0.9412	1.6365	0.9866	1.0188
1993	NUMRS	14.4511	15.9482	16.2628	15.3088	15.3177	14.7384	15.5461	14.6431	13.7500	13.0915	13.8235	15.9853
1993	QRS_NUMR	-9.7174	-9.6990	-9.4326	-9.5707	-9.8014	-9.8673	-10.0340	-9.7353	-9.8164	-11.1386	-10.1938	-10.3689
1994	TRS87	1.4626	1.2113	0.5602	0.5377	1.0417	0.7789	0.6270	0.3148	1.0047	1.5705	1.0989	1.0644
1994	NUMRS	14.4669	15.9546	16.2793	15.3186	15.3552	14.7660	15.5493	14.6859	13.8117	13.1179	13.8590	15.9927
1994	QRS_NUMR	-9.6833	-9.6305	-9.4214	-9.5819	-9.8242	-9.8557	-10.0686	-9.8535	-9.9180	-11.0983	-10.2387	-10.3976
1995	TRS87	1.4777	1.2395	0.4181	0.5394	1.0357	0.7752	0.6719	0.4867	1.0564	1.5497	1.1641	1.2479
1995	NUMRS	14.4722	15.9635	16.2956	15.3296	15.3786	14.7928	15.5719	14.7298	13.8644	13.1468	13.8953	16.0011
1995	QRS_NUMR	-9.8144	-9.7202	-9.4542	-9.6281	-9.8344	-9.8930	-10.1371	-9.9560	-10.0186	-11.0584	-10.4061	-10.5225
1996	TRS87	1.3476	1.0818	0.1781	0.5158	0.8316	0.3859	0.5277	0.3350	0.9486	1.4764	0.8042	1.0371
1996	NUMRS	14.4787	15.9705	16.3101	15.3458	15.4097	14.8172	15.5827	14.7820	13.9172	13.1648	13.9272	16.0128
1996	QRS_NUMR	-9.7463	-9.6610	-9.3922	-9.5186	-9.7506	-9.8066	-10.0178	-9.8489	-9.8830	-10.9631	-10.3015	-10.5316
1997	TRS87	1.4246	1.2644	0.5200	0.5224	1.0685	0.7789	0.5464	0.2708	0.8759	1.5913	0.8229	0.9658
1997	NUMRS	14.4942	15.9815	16.3246	15.3617	15.4343	14.8403	15.5943	14.8138	13.9636	13.1859	13.9709	16.0228
1997	QRS_NUMR	-9.8196	-9.7484	-9.4966	-9.6504	-9.9177	-9.9457	-10.0575	-9.8098	-9.9762	-11.2669	-10.1617	-10.4781
1998	TRS87	1.4327	1.2917	0.4904	0.6157	0.9988	0.8608	0.7975	0.5630	0.9999	1.6068	0.9482	1.2250
1998	NUMRS	14.4989	15.9974	16.3359	15.3965	15.4742	14.8582	15.6056	14.8560	14.0103	13.2044	14.0129	16.0361
1998	QRS_NUMR	-9.9191	-9.8890	-9.6541	-9.7858	-10.0032	-10.0339	-10.1671	-9.8718	-9.9315	-11.2087	-10.1565	-10.3678
1999	TRS87	1.5129	1.2759	0.4744	0.6043	0.7784	0.8467	0.7095	0.7222	0.9247	1.6374	1.0753	1.1647
1999	NUMRS	14.5139	15.9997	16.3533	15.3897	15.5150	14.8715	15.6069	14.8947	14.0632	13.2297	14.0591	16.0522
1999	QRS_NUMR	-9.9349	-9.7629	-9.5478	-9.7411	-10.0050	-10.0386	-10.3070	-9.9509	-9.9094	-11.3010	-10.3344	-10.3496
2000	TRS87	1.2459	0.9658	0.2874	0.5682	1.0392	0.6611	0.4867	0.4600	0.8809	1.5769	0.8454	1.0239
2000	NUMRS	14.5479	16.0179	16.3707	15.4080	15.5191	14.8989	15.6219	14.9377	14.1061	13.2568	14.0976	16.0564
2000	QRS_NUMR	-9.8027	-9.7135	-9.5247	-9.7105	-9.8176	-9.9435	-10.2082	-9.9300	-9.9268	-11.1472	-10.3574	-10.4820
2001	TRS87	1.1669	0.8359	0.4220	0.5104	0.9910	0.7410	0.6233	0.5086	0.9195	1.6954	0.7993	0.7641
2001	NUMRS	14.5525	16.0404	16.3786	15.4165	15.5482	14.9102	15.6258	14.9727	14.1408	13.2883	14.1309	16.0808
2001	QRS_NUMR	-9.8536	-9.7796	-9.5948	-9.6984	-9.9725	-9.9584	-10.1280	-9.8815	-9.8992	-11.1316	-10.2740	-10.4422
2002	TRS87	1.3252	1.0061	0.1798	0.5499	1.1709	0.9131	0.7894	0.6021	1.3468	1.7721	1.2823	1.0116
2002	NUMRS	14.5638	16.0403	16.3942	15.4318	15.5633	14.9165	15.6392	15.0026	14.1702	13.3108	14.1679	16.0935
2002	QRS_NUMR	-9.9004	-9.8433	-9.6303	-9.9500	-9.9503	-9.9813	-10.1525	-9.8950	-10.0019	-11.2021	-10.3534	-10.5047
2003	TRS87	1.0640	0.9727	0.2343	0.3112	0.9532	0.7328	0.4904	0.2461	0.8771	1.7006	0.9723	0.9677
2003	NUMRS	14.5811	16.0513	16.3998	15.4423	15.5781	14.9256	15.6478	15.0353	14.2350	13.3332	14.1914	16.1013
2003	QRS_NUMR	-9.7270	-9.6751	-9.5145	-9.7046	-9.8285	-9.9254	-10.1285	-9.9871	-10.1089	-11.1387	-10.4292	-10.5824
2004	TRS87	1.4448	1.1049	0.4562	0.5844	1.1471	0.9384	0.7348	0.4769	0.9936	1.8242	1.0512	0.9869
2004	NUMRS	14.5756	16.0534	16.4051	15.4520	15.5898	14.9327	15.6576	15.0708	14.2355	13.3677	14.2230	16.1165

Year	Variable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
2004	QRS_NUMR	-9.8007	-9.7289	-9.5665	-9.7569	-9.8660	-10.0182	-10.2595	-9.9870	-10.0385	-11.2037	-10.3556	-10.5074
2005	TRS87	1.3379	1.0112	0.5253	0.5977	1.1991	1.1059	0.8346	0.6471	1.0996	1.8538	1.0791	1.0613
2005	NUMRS	14.5778	16.0534	16.4355	15.4628	15.6158	14.9387	15.6603	15.1071	14.2811	13.3940	14.2685	16.1330
2005	QRS_NUMR	-9.7550	-9.7055	-9.5980	-9.7940	-9.9176	-10.0749	-10.2975	-10.0114	-10.0741	-11.2697	-10.4966	-10.6082
2006	TRS87	1.4382	1.0702	0.5922	0.7802	1.3712	1.1594	0.9223	0.6719	1.1872	1.9608	1.2392	1.0536
2006	NUMRS	14.6041	16.0667	16.4213	15.4743	15.6183	14.9404	15.6673	15.1360	14.3135	13.4197	14.2995	16.1530
2006	QRS_NUMR	-9.9612	-9.9080	-9.7920	-9.9646	-10.1252	-10.2239	-10.4576	-10.0484	-10.0769	-11.3045	-10.5704	-10.6089
2007	TRS87	1.4864	1.0909	0.4472	0.6683	1.2977	0.9723	0.6249	0.3350	1.3113	1.8413	1.2638	0.9427
2007	NUMRS	14.6116	16.0784	16.4269	15.4747	15.6430	14.9418	15.6896	15.1576	14.3400	13.4342	14.3264	16.1636
2007	QRS_NUMR	-9.8358	-9.7697	-9.6440	-9.8083	-10.0464	-10.1692	-10.2719	-9.9694	-10.0544	-11.4291	-10.4542	-10.5827
2008	TRS87	1.3928	1.1184	0.4855	0.5188	1.2655	0.9639	0.6981	0.2994	1.1499	1.7733	1.1499	0.9547
2008	NUMRS	14.6286	16.0706	16.4277	15.4811	15.6491	14.9374	15.6981	15.1769	14.3588	13.4288	14.3374	16.1708
2008	QRS_NUMR	-9.8906	-9.7897	-9.5915	-9.7199	-10.0515	-10.0780	-10.2801	-9.9503	-10.0494	-11.3525	-10.4683	-10.5638
2009	TRS87	1.6335	1.2695	0.7903	0.8171	1.2355	1.1304	0.9066	0.5545	1.2369	1.9854	1.2550	1.0463
2009	NUMRS	14.5832	16.0687	16.4454	15.4815	15.6506	14.9563	15.6793	15.1583	14.3126	13.4289	14.3197	16.1646
2009	QRS_NUMR	-9.9948	-9.7392	-9.6625	-9.7911	-9.9657	-10.1392	-10.3138	-10.0136	-9.9490	-11.4385	-10.5687	-10.6136

Data used for off-peak period estimation in log form

Year	Variable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
		New Engl	Mid Atl	E.N. Cntrl	W.N. Cntrl	S.Atl-FL	E.S. Cntrl	W.S. Cntrl	Mtn-AZNM	WA/OR	Florida	AZ/NM	CA/HI
1990	TRS87	1.4572	1.3623	0.7696	0.7120	1.2790	1.0152	1.1575	0.5134	1.2202	1.8083	1.4110	0.9509
1990	NUMRS	14.4242	15.9210	16.2206	15.2533	15.2427	14.6570	15.5148	14.5549	13.5724	13.0339	13.7708	15.9587
1990	QRS_NUMR	-10.1737	-10.1963	-9.9287	-10.1549	-10.4345	-10.4700	-10.5254	-10.1992	-10.3260	-11.2459	-10.7420	-10.5401
1991	TRS87	1.4697	1.3661	0.7622	0.7571	1.2565	1.0811	1.1499	0.5218	1.1378	1.8672	1.3903	1.1285
1991	NUMRS	14.4330	15.9914	16.2352	15.2651	15.2648	14.6832	15.5257	14.5850	13.6744	13.0546	13.8374	15.9747
1991	QRS_NUMR	-10.2129	-10.2794	-9.9370	-10.1508	-10.4257	-10.5158	-10.5282	-10.1586	-10.2602	-11.2210	-10.6974	-10.4672
1992	TRS87	1.3002	1.2934	0.6785	0.7367	1.1210	0.9490	1.1311	0.3660	1.1894	1.8746	1.3697	1.0112
1992	NUMRS	14.4423	16.0036	16.2475	15.2807	15.3133	14.7090	15.5316	14.6128	13.6913	13.0644	13.8095	15.9800
1992	QRS_NUMR	-10.0309	-10.1508	-9.8551	-10.1300	-10.3308	-10.4581	-10.5444	-10.2928	-10.4391	-11.1796	-10.7692	-10.5941
1993	TRS87	1.2436	1.3337	0.8002	0.7756	1.2006	0.9381	1.0325	0.5110	1.0770	1.9327	1.3486	1.0533
1993	NUMRS	14.4511	15.9482	16.2628	15.3088	15.3177	14.7384	15.5461	14.6431	13.7500	13.0915	13.8235	15.9853
1993	QRS_NUMR	-10.0770	-10.1454	-9.8863	-10.0785	-10.3702	-10.4200	-10.4423	-10.1556	-10.2861	-11.1613	-10.7189	-10.5619
1994	TRS87	1.3990	1.5250	0.9030	0.7509	1.3126	1.1703	1.2499	0.5446	1.1378	1.9370	1.3880	1.1716
1994	NUMRS	14.4669	15.9546	16.2793	15.3186	15.3552	14.7660	15.5493	14.6859	13.8117	13.1179	13.8590	15.9927
1994	QRS_NUMR	-10.2330	-10.2089	-10.0332	-10.2796	-10.5232	-10.6547	-10.6284	-10.2230	-10.3182	-11.2742	-10.7146	-10.4615
1995	TRS87	1.3676	1.5059	0.6355	0.7971	1.2447	1.0378	1.2093	0.6871	1.2250	1.9244	1.4344	1.2686
1995	NUMRS	14.4722	15.9635	16.2956	15.3296	15.3786	14.7928	15.5719	14.7298	13.8644	13.1468	13.8953	16.0011
1995	QRS_NUMR	-10.2486	-10.2046	-9.8990	-10.1283	-10.4491	-10.5672	-10.6332	-10.1208	-10.3370	-11.2799	-10.7640	-10.5265
1996	TRS87	1.2179	1.4156	0.7251	0.8011	1.2945	1.0420	1.1490	0.5939	1.0515	1.9081	1.2404	1.1641
1996	NUMRS	14.4787	15.9705	16.3101	15.3458	15.4097	14.8172	15.5827	14.7820	13.9172	13.1648	13.9272	16.0128
1996	QRS_NUMR	-10.1759	-10.0992	-9.8632	-10.1027	-10.3690	-10.4690	-10.5870	-10.1797	-10.2427	-11.1834	-10.7557	-10.5586
1997	TRS87	1.3737	1.2977	0.6896	0.7006	1.3048	1.1594	1.1628	0.7333	0.9636	1.9840	1.4978	1.1817
1997	NUMRS	14.4942	15.9815	16.3246	15.3617	15.4343	14.8403	15.5943	14.8138	13.9636	13.1859	13.9709	16.0228
1997	QRS_NUMR	-10.1844	-10.1359	-9.9058	-10.1853	-10.3817	-10.5536	-10.5969	-10.2171	-10.2644	-11.3449	-10.8543	-10.6133
1998	TRS87	1.3538	1.4852	0.8912	0.9517	1.4389	1.2096	1.3172	0.9817	1.0821	1.9462	1.6148	1.2596
1998	NUMRS	14.4989	15.9974	16.3359	15.3965	15.4742	14.8582	15.6056	14.8560	14.0103	13.2044	14.0129	16.0361
1998	QRS_NUMR	-10.3094	-10.2789	-10.1529	-10.3891	-10.6234	-10.7340	-10.8047	-10.2558	-10.3918	-11.2958	-10.8069	-10.4719
1999	TRS87	1.0889	1.3689	0.7701	0.9219	1.3943	1.1805	1.2698	0.9010	1.0445	1.9481	1.4173	1.0852
1999	NUMRS	14.5139	15.9997	16.3533	15.3897	15.5150	14.8715	15.6069	14.8947	14.0632	13.2297	14.0591	16.0522
1999	QRS_NUMR	-10.2181	-10.2620	-10.1580	-10.3818	-10.6582	-10.7539	-10.8316	-10.2372	-10.2219	-11.2957	-10.7622	-10.4560
2000	TRS87	1.2021	1.1666	0.7641	0.9369	1.2873	1.2075	1.2439	0.7683	1.0360	1.9498	1.0543	1.1401
2000	NUMRS	14.5479	16.0179	16.3707	15.4080	15.5191	14.8989	15.6219	14.9377	14.1061	13.2568	14.0976	16.0564
2000	QRS_NUMR	-10.2939	-10.2010	-10.0886	-10.3475	-10.4772	-10.7147	-10.7695	-10.2952	-10.2961	-11.3271	-10.7458	-10.5203
2001	TRS87	1.5986	1.5336	0.8858	1.1518	1.4931	1.4535	1.3543	1.2768	1.4339	2.1949	1.5484	1.1171
2001	NUMRS	14.5525	16.0404	16.3786	15.4165	15.5482	14.9102	15.6258	14.9727	14.1408	13.2883	14.1309	16.0808
2001	QRS_NUMR	-10.3591	-10.3157	-10.2289	-10.4221	-10.6404	-10.8037	-10.8797	-10.3798	-10.1673	-11.3560	-10.9661	-10.6333
2002	TRS87	1.1783	1.3180	0.4898	0.9135	1.4253	1.3279	1.2407	0.9776	1.3118	2.0916	1.6413	1.0325
2002	NUMRS	14.5638	16.0403	16.3942	15.4318	15.5633	14.9165	15.6392	15.0026	14.1702	13.3108	14.1679	16.0935
2002	QRS_NUMR	-10.2894	-10.2494	-10.0372	-10.4213	-10.5565	-10.7848	-10.8196	-10.2990	-10.3072	-11.3809	-11.0132	-10.5959
2003	TRS87	1.6186	1.5151	0.9115	1.0726	1.5988	1.4413	1.5072	0.9738	1.0335	2.2077	1.6160	1.0526
2003	NUMRS	14.5811	16.0513	16.3998	15.4423	15.5781	14.9256	15.6478	15.0353	14.2350	13.3332	14.1914	16.1013
2003	QRS_NUMR	-10.2544	-10.2498	-10.1390	-10.4069	-10.6046	-10.8938	-10.9634	-10.3580	-10.3962	-11.4032	-10.9974	-10.5834
2004	TRS87	1.4646	1.4598	0.8796	1.1230	1.6372	1.4839	1.5330	0.9555	1.1681	2.1940	1.6409	0.9058
2004	NUMRS	14.5756	16.0534	16.4051	15.4520	15.5898	14.9327	15.6576	15.0708	14.2355	13.3677	14.2230	16.1165
2004	QRS_NUMR	-10.3369	-10.3011	-10.2379	-10.5061	-10.6721	-10.9527	-10.9803	-10.3803	-10.4749	-11.3955	-11.0150	-10.6372
2005	TRS87	1.2565	1.3067	0.8920	1.0574	1.5239	1.4063	1.5061	0.9768	1.1534	2.0852	1.4960	0.9310

Year	Variable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
2005	NUMRS	14.5778	16.0534	16.4355	15.4628	15.6158	14.9387	15.6603	15.1071	14.2811	13.3940	14.2685	16.1330
2005	QRS_NUMR	-10.3301	-10.3133	-10.2901	-10.5292	-10.6477	-10.8541	-10.9974	-10.4205	-10.4464	-11.3454	-11.0278	-10.6804
2006	TRS87	1.5839	1.4591	0.9431	1.1597	1.7837	1.5063	1.6380	0.8924	1.4159	2.2101	1.8361	1.1429
2006	NUMRS	14.6041	16.0667	16.4213	15.4743	15.6183	14.9404	15.6673	15.1360	14.3135	13.4197	14.2995	16.1530
2006	QRS_NUMR	-10.4060	-10.4084	-10.2527	-10.5223	-10.6889	-10.9109	-11.0536	-10.4466	-10.4555	-11.4250	-11.0867	-10.6868
2007	TRS87	1.5611	1.4748	1.0919	1.3310	1.7778	1.4913	1.5573	0.9662	1.4900	2.1891	1.8070	1.1891
2007	NUMRS	14.6116	16.0784	16.4269	15.4747	15.6430	14.9418	15.6896	15.1576	14.3400	13.4342	14.3264	16.1636
2007	QRS_NUMR	-10.3719	-10.3408	-10.3127	-10.5771	-10.6998	-10.9956	-11.0435	-10.4942	-10.4203	-11.4010	-11.1591	-10.7360
2008	TRS87	1.4298	1.4639	1.2161	1.2273	1.6152	1.4734	1.4704	0.7659	0.9869	2.0844	1.8111	1.2459
2008	NUMRS	14.6286	16.0706	16.4277	15.4811	15.6491	14.9374	15.6981	15.1769	14.3588	13.4288	14.3374	16.1708
2008	QRS_NUMR	-10.3753	-10.3351	-10.2613	-10.4774	-10.6242	-10.8958	-11.0306	-10.4334	-10.3485	-11.3981	-11.1367	-10.7886
2009	TRS87	1.7502	1.6044	1.1547	1.2444	1.8710	1.6198	1.6156	0.9761	1.5667	2.3046	1.8086	1.1597
2009	NUMRS	14.5832	16.0687	16.4454	15.4815	15.6506	14.9563	15.6793	15.1583	14.3126	13.4289	14.3197	16.1646
2009	QRS_NUMR	-10.4626	-10.3705	-10.2891	-10.5011	-10.7517	-10.9740	-10.9774	-10.3727	-10.3909	-11.4718	-11.0855	-10.7547

Table F7

Data: Equation for commercial distribution tariffs

Author: Ernest Zampelli, SAIC, with Ben Laughlin, EIA Intern, 2010.

Source: The source for the peak and off-peak data used in this estimation was the *Natural Gas Monthly*, DOE/EIA-0130. State level city gate and commercial prices by month were averaged using quantity-weights to arrive at seasonal (peak and off-peak), regional level (12 NGTDM regions) prices. The quantity-weights for the city gate prices consisted of residential consumption plus commercial consumption that is represented by on-system sales plus industrial consumption that is represented by on-system sales. Historical commercial floorspace data by census division were extracted from the NEMS model and allocated to NGTDM region using Census population figures.

Variables:

$TCM_{r,n,t}$	=	commercial distributor tariff in region r, network n (1987 dollars per Mcf) [DTAR_SF$_2$]
REG_r	=	1, if observation is in region r, =0 otherwise
$QCM\_FLRr_{r,n,t}$	=	commercial gas consumption per floorspace for region r in year t (Bcf) [(BASQTY_SF$_2$+BASQTY_SI$_2$)/FLRSPC12]
$FLR_{r,t}$	=	commercial floorspace for region r in year t (estimated in thousand square feet) [FLRSPC12]
r	=	NGTDM region
n	=	network (1=peak, 2=off-peak)
t	=	year
$\alpha_{r,n}$	=	estimated parameters for regional dummy variables [PCMREGPK13]
$\beta_{1,n}$,$\beta_{2,n}$	=	estimated parameters
ρ_n	=	autocorrelation coefficient

[Note: Variables in brackets correspond to comparable variables used in the main body of the documentation and in the model code.]

Derivation: The commercial distributor tariff equation was estimated using panel data for the 12 NGTDM regions over the 1990 to 2009 time period. The equation was estimated in log-linear form with corrections for cross sectional heteroscedasticity and first order serial correlation using EViews. The form of the estimated equation follows:

$$\ln TCM_{r,n,t} = \sum_r (\alpha_{r,n} * REG_r) + \beta_{1,n} * \ln QCM\_FLR_{r,n,t} + \beta_{2,n} * \ln FLR_{r,t} +$$
$$\rho_n * \ln TCM_{r,n,t\text{-}1} - \rho_n * (\sum_r (\alpha_{r,n} * REG_r) + \beta_{1,n} * \ln QCM\_FLR_{r,n,t\text{-}1} + \beta_{2,n} * \ln NUMCM_{r,t\text{-}1})$$

Regression Diagnostics and Parameter Estimates for the Peak Period

Dependent Variable: LNTCM87
Method: Least Squares
Date: 07/23/10 Time: 08:03
Sample (adjusted): 2 240
Included observations: 239 after adjustments
Convergence achieved after 9 iterations
Newey-West HAC Standard Errors & Covariance (lag truncation=4)

Variable	Coefficient	Std. Error	t-Statistic	Prob.
LNQCM_FLR	-0.217322	0.129951	-1.672341	0.0959
LNFLR	0.218189	0.121009	1.803081	0.0727
REGION=1	-4.498378	1.340720	-3.355196	0.0009
REGION=2	-4.852790	1.408476	-3.445420	0.0007
REGION=3	-5.471895	1.435476	-3.811903	0.0002
REGION=4	-5.266668	1.364229	-3.860545	0.0001
REGION=5	-5.054427	1.410819	-3.582619	0.0004
REGION=6	-4.975067	1.349163	-3.687521	0.0003
REGION=7	-5.517942	1.406269	-3.923816	0.0001
REGION=8	-5.253175	1.305366	-4.024293	0.0001
REGION=9	-4.795673	1.307829	-3.666896	0.0003
REGION=10	-5.051970	1.397162	-3.615881	0.0004
REGION=11	-4.899262	1.299003	-3.771555	0.0002
REGION=12	-4.817270	1.405236	-3.428085	0.0007
AR(1)	0.284608	0.083893	3.392527	0.0008

R-squared	0.809134	Mean dependent var	0.594811
Adjusted R-squared	0.797204	S.D. dependent var	0.347177
S.E. of regression	0.156344	Akaike info criterion	-0.812814
Sum squared resid	5.475313	Schwarz criterion	-0.594626
Log likelihood	112.1313	Hannan-Quinn criter.	-0.724890
Durbin-Watson stat	1.979180		

Regression Diagnostics and Parameter Estimates for the Off-Peak Period

Dependent Variable: LNTCM87
Method: Least Squares
Date: 07/23/10 Time: 08:04
Sample: 241 480
Included observations: 240
Convergence achieved after 6 iterations
Newey-West HAC Standard Errors & Covariance (lag truncation=4)

Variable	Coefficient	Std. Error	t-Statistic	Prob.
LNQCM_FLRSPC	-0.613588	0.209576	-2.927752	0.0038
LNFLRSPC	0.530831	0.213552	2.485719	0.0137
REGION=1	-13.87098	1.869814	-7.418373	0.0000
REGION=2	-14.12193	2.052895	-6.879033	0.0000
REGION=3	-14.49560	2.085660	-6.950127	0.0000
REGION=4	-14.29389	1.944700	-7.350175	0.0000
REGION=5	-14.37939	2.005218	-7.170990	0.0000
REGION=6	-13.98336	1.889625	-7.400073	0.0000

REGION=7	-14.50539	2.000913	-7.249384	0.0000
REGION=8	-13.81237	1.894236	-7.291790	0.0000
REGION=9	-13.71773	1.813711	-7.563346	0.0000
REGION=10	-14.29647	1.877570	-7.614347	0.0000
REGION=11	-13.50724	1.778116	-7.596376	0.0000
REGION=12	-14.05762	2.001953	-7.021954	0.0000
AR(1)	0.166956	0.091737	1.819954	0.0701

R-squared	0.603286	Mean dependent var	0.577749
Adjusted R-squared	0.578601	S.D. dependent var	0.335016
S.E. of regression	0.217477	Akaike info criterion	-0.152989
Sum squared resid	10.64162	Schwarz criterion	0.064551
Log likelihood	33.35864	Hannan-Quinn criter.	-0.065336
Durbin-Watson stat	1.997625		

Data used for peak period estimation in log form

Year	Variable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
		New Engl	Mid Atl	E.N. Cntrl	W.N. Cntrl	S.Atl-FL	E.S. Cntrl	W.S. Cntrl	Mtn-AZNM	WA/OR	Florida	AZ/NM	CA/HI
1990	TCM87	1.03354	0.782073	0.14842	0.042101	0.696143	0.430483	0.206201	0.028587	0.679555	0.735248	0.541161	0.904218
1990	QCM_FLR	-10.80819	-10.27518	-10.02571	-10.0121	-10.87259	-10.66464	-10.6939	-10.05054	-10.88697	-12.19567	-10.64772	-10.65706
1990	FLR	14.73416	15.69451	15.92281	15.07962	15.5246	14.82673	15.50667	14.31229	14.34193	14.8613	13.94832	15.48136
1991	TCM87	1.008688	0.80245	0.200489	0.090754	0.643432	0.518198	0.224742	0.058269	0.615186	0.76314	0.578297	1.0654
1991	QCM_FLR	-10.78194	-10.22102	-9.971767	-9.929256	-10.76971	-10.60622	-10.60989	-9.986422	-10.86598	-12.15423	-10.671	-10.80858
1991	FLR	14.74157	15.70491	15.93733	15.09204	15.55072	14.84239	15.51601	14.33424	14.36901	14.88742	13.97028	15.50845
1992	TCM87	1.074661	0.861201	0.193921	0.170586	0.711478	0.563608	0.322083	0.08526	0.658556	0.709021	0.549277	1.072268
1992	QCM_FLR	-10.67296	-10.15695	-9.984192	-10.02488	-10.69684	-10.61159	-10.66214	-10.05214	-10.96197	-12.10189	-10.66952	-10.77438
1992	FLR	14.74724	15.71275	15.94971	15.10304	15.57115	14.85401	15.52609	14.35083	14.38809	14.90785	13.98686	15.52753
1993	TCM87	1.017041	0.82242	0.265436	0.131905	0.680062	0.514618	0.288931	0.130151	0.625404	0.920283	0.581657	1.135587
1993	QCM_FLR	-10.61099	-10.14154	-9.926096	-9.900956	-10.64854	-10.54903	-10.68735	-9.946373	-10.76914	-12.1597	-10.7212	-10.84729
1993	FLR	14.75353	15.71675	15.96006	15.1135	15.58787	14.86603	15.53845	14.36863	14.40303	14.92458	14.00466	15.54246
1994	TCM87	1.17619	0.949339	0.377751	0.309688	0.710004	0.648673	0.266969	-0.037702	0.720762	0.729961	0.702602	1.439124
1994	QCM_FLR	-10.35558	-10.09798	-9.894967	-9.90904	-10.65618	-10.51963	-10.67386	-10.01784	-10.85795	-12.16941	-10.77524	-10.88982
1994	FLR	14.75796	15.72214	15.97161	15.12337	15.60436	14.88037	15.55029	14.39101	14.41575	14.94106	14.02705	15.55519
1995	TCM87	1.130434	0.950885	0.228728	0.249201	0.708036	0.628075	0.276115	0.18648	0.783445	0.727065	0.781616	1.382788
1995	QCM_FLR	-10.43041	-10.10463	-9.908138	-9.943346	-10.64013	-10.52523	-10.63409	-10.10654	-10.91288	-12.16089	-10.87959	-10.88643
1995	FLR	14.76406	15.72657	15.98518	15.1362	15.6225	14.89741	15.56682	14.41638	14.42795	14.9592	14.05242	15.56738
1996	TCM87	0.984697	0.874218	-0.04919	0.27079	0.548121	0.135405	0.138892	-0.019183	0.64815	0.639219	0.322808	1.107572
1996	QCM_FLR	-10.34278	-9.983987	-9.842353	-9.848968	-10.62702	-10.44972	-10.65972	-10.0069	-10.77339	-12.14789	-10.81071	-11.03641
1996	FLR	14.77156	15.73278	15.99937	15.15122	15.6444	14.91814	15.58439	14.44409	14.44094	14.98111	14.08013	15.58038
1997	TCM87	1.108893	0.927428	0.336472	0.222343	0.738598	0.559616	0.195567	-0.139262	0.475613	0.667316	0.360468	1.096276
1997	QCM_FLR	-10.30902	-10.00031	-9.948278	-9.98826	-10.68835	-10.55067	-10.5866	-9.999211	-10.86226	-12.31262	-10.71917	-10.94718
1997	FLR	14.78041	15.73888	16.01425	15.16549	15.6683	14.9417	15.60114	14.47542	14.45301	15.00501	14.11146	15.59244
1998	TCM87	1.06264	0.691646	0.300845	0.277632	0.718327	0.675492	0.447247	0.275356	0.617345	0.823298	0.609222	1.234308
1998	QCM_FLR	-10.39582	-9.992437	-10.09763	-10.06498	-10.71608	-10.66425	-10.75371	-10.09564	-10.80522	-12.32806	-10.73728	-10.96726
1998	FLR	14.79058	15.74669	16.03036	15.1816	15.69627	14.96628	15.62199	14.50829	14.46986	15.03297	14.14433	15.60929
1999	TCM87	1.021371	0.608678	0.291176	0.29565	0.561899	0.642906	0.280657	0.464363	0.58389	0.822859	0.687632	1.094604
1999	QCM_FLR	-10.59798	-9.933422	-10.01313	-10.06831	-10.72396	-10.66884	-10.76822	-10.20156	-10.74532	-12.35381	-10.84215	-10.95635
1999	FLR	14.80814	15.7567	16.04907	15.20068	15.72808	14.99202	15.64769	14.55063	14.49341	15.06479	14.18667	15.63284
2000	TCM87	0.813593	1.010509	0.002996	0.24686	0.687129	0.403463	-0.115411	0.111541	0.594431	0.690143	0.144966	0.967744
2000	QCM_FLR	-10.52122	-9.982545	-9.976626	-10.04653	-10.673	-10.60803	-10.71636	-10.16844	-10.7873	-12.1577	-10.87075	-11.04346
2000	FLR	14.82306	15.76907	16.06954	15.22189	15.76349	15.01802	15.67919	14.59011	14.51777	15.10019	14.22614	15.65721
2001	TCM87	0.740985	0.905432	0.128393	0.191446	0.771034	0.570414	-0.071496	0.242946	0.535908	1.127524	0.222343	0.726582
2001	QCM_FLR	-10.5722	-10.07162	-10.03531	-10.04857	-10.79009	-10.65373	-10.74992	-10.12952	-10.76708	-12.16264	-10.87023	-11.06204
2001	FLR	14.84233	15.78239	16.08961	15.2449	15.79681	15.04719	15.70677	14.6275	14.54296	15.13352	14.26353	15.6824
2002	TCM87	0.995102	0.442118	0.1415	0.203757	0.764072	0.731887	0.350657	0.360468	1.055705	1.118742	0.911479	0.885419
2002	QCM_FLR	-10.63463	-10.05163	-10.1255	-10.27543	-10.77561	-10.70046	-10.66041	-10.1548	-10.89604	-12.07748	-10.91055	-11.1448
2002	FLR	14.86432	15.79755	16.10825	15.26372	15.82963	15.0726	15.73421	14.66104	14.56744	15.16634	14.29707	15.70687
2003	TCM87	0.735728	0.82154	-0.043952	-0.009041	0.517006	0.508623	0.024693	-0.149661	0.515813	1.028547	0.442761	0.789366
2003	QCM_FLR	-10.60418	-9.934664	-9.984421	-10.07127	-10.73325	-10.63397	-10.67996	-10.25794	-10.94268	-12.1272	-10.99802	-11.08346
2003	FLR	14.87915	15.81076	16.124	15.28423	15.8558	15.09277	15.75895	14.68954	14.58792	15.1925	14.32557	15.72736
2004	TCM87	1.160334	0.913487	0.180653	0.280657	0.752359	0.666803	0.349952	0.094401	0.834213	1.166582	0.519984	0.799757
2004	QCM_FLR	-10.65883	-9.927092	-10.04934	-10.10882	-10.72775	-10.70777	-10.79844	-10.24872	-10.90133	-12.10691	-10.9337	-11.14323
2004	FLR	14.8915	15.82207	16.13839	15.30039	15.88185	15.11195	15.78199	14.71552	14.60498	15.21855	14.35156	15.74441
2005	TCM87	1.066433	0.756122	0.198031	0.318454	0.733329	0.942738	0.486738	0.366724	0.740985	1.011964	0.555608	0.914689
2005	QCM_FLR	-10.65271	-10.03913	-10.07135	-10.17298	-10.75486	-10.78261	-10.93415	-10.27977	-10.90604	-12.12498	-11.03518	-11.20321
2005	FLR	14.90435	15.83166	16.15338	15.31553	15.90631	15.13114	15.80292	14.74137	14.62178	15.24301	14.37741	15.76122
2006	TCM87	1.111199	0.781158	0.364643	0.509224	0.94585	0.92267	0.485508	0.423305	0.945461	1.307792	0.771034	0.947789
2006	QCM_FLR	-10.80154	-10.20122	-10.25512	-10.32185	-10.91544	-10.88917	-11.06584	-10.31421	-10.89834	-12.28774	-11.06119	-11.18639
2006	FLR	14.92068	15.84244	16.17045	15.33077	15.93231	15.15151	15.82449	14.7725	14.63929	15.26902	14.40853	15.77872
2007	TCM87	1.20627	0.597737	0.206201	0.408128	0.905028	0.699626	0.105261	0.038259	1.04486	1.032116	0.782988	0.732368
2007	QCM_FLR	-10.64449	-10.08287	-10.14895	-10.20875	-10.86095	-10.87075	-10.94939	-10.26239	-10.87505	-12.31859	-11.02282	-11.12961
2007	FLR	14.93262	15.85366	16.18633	15.34587	15.95991	15.1722	15.84616	14.80524	14.65694	15.29661	14.44127	15.79638
2008	TCM87	1.045212	0.580538	0.099845	0.245296	0.81978	0.683602	0.142367	-0.042908	0.821101	1.002101	0.560758	0.797958
2008	QCM_FLR	-10.70065	-10.08087	-10.08169	-10.10907	-10.88544	-10.82181	-10.96436	-10.25204	-10.86054	-12.33066	-11.05978	-11.13563

Year	Variable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
2008	FLR	14.946	15.86429	16.20345	15.36096	15.98527	15.19212	15.87062	14.83697	14.67404	15.32198	14.473	15.81347
2009	TCM87	1.185096	0.609222	0.404798	0.444686	0.78527	0.897719	0.447886	0.214305	0.950499	1.03176	0.65752	0.783445
2009	QCM_FLR	-10.72952	-10.06608	-10.12776	-10.18844	-10.85652	-10.88899	-10.99863	-10.33785	-10.83499	-12.34896	-11.17492	-11.19006
2009	FLR	14.95814	15.87473	16.21753	15.37525	16.00654	15.20937	15.88914	14.86197	14.68849	15.34324	14.49801	15.82793

Data used for off-peak period estimation in log form

Year	Variable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
		New Engl	**Mid Atl**	**E.N. Cntrl**	**W.N. Cntrl**	**S.Atl-FL**	**E.S. Cntrl**	**W.S. Cntrl**	**Mtn-AZNM**	**WA/OR**	**Florida**	**AZ/NM**	**CA/HI**
1990	TCM87	0.81978	0.711969	0.379805	-0.177931	0.630207	0.528862	0.183155	-0.185125	0.738121	0.738121	0.564177	0.534151
1990	QCM_FLR	-10.90124	-10.34489	-10.31414	-10.18253	-10.96697	-10.85666	-10.5901	-10.29073	-11.02909	-11.77349	-10.73081	-10.38875
1990	FLR	14.73416	15.69451	15.92281	15.07962	15.5246	14.82673	15.50667	14.31229	14.34193	14.8613	13.94832	15.48136
1991	TCM87	0.818016	0.702602	0.413433	-0.080126	0.578858	0.560758	0.221542	-0.176737	0.702602	0.730443	0.666803	0.728514
1991	QCM_FLR	-10.9393	-10.37896	-10.37715	-10.1497	-10.89713	-10.89184	-10.59688	-10.25007	-10.93988	-11.7143	-10.73172	-10.31648
1991	FLR	14.74157	15.70491	15.93733	15.09204	15.55072	14.84239	15.51601	14.33424	14.36901	14.88742	13.97028	15.50845
1992	TCM87	0.513422	0.700123	0.262364	-0.125563	0.429832	0.430483	0.087095	-0.55687	0.782073	0.693147	0.491031	0.436318
1992	QCM_FLR	-10.7426	-10.30278	-10.2948	-10.18815	-10.82841	-10.83675	-10.55567	-10.36185	-11.10669	-11.68164	-10.67683	-10.38468
1992	FLR	14.74724	15.71275	15.94971	15.10304	15.57115	14.85401	15.52609	14.35083	14.38809	14.90785	13.98686	15.52753
1993	TCM87	0.14842	0.671924	0.438255	0.059212	0.506215	0.442761	0.132781	-0.125563	0.677526	0.946238	0.567584	0.850151
1993	QCM_FLR	-10.76579	-10.33389	-10.30689	-10.20689	-10.84683	-10.79649	-10.57541	-10.22038	-11.00829	-11.6948	-10.64436	-10.5797
1993	FLR	14.75353	15.71675	15.96006	15.1135	15.58787	14.86603	15.53845	14.36863	14.40303	14.92458	14.00466	15.54246
1994	TCM87	0.365337	0.90987	0.555608	-0.142716	0.559044	0.620576	0.367417	-0.015114	0.703098	0.845439	0.733329	1.214022
1994	QCM_FLR	-10.57619	-10.34363	-10.38704	-10.28376	-10.88405	-10.89237	-10.6291	-10.23104	-10.98642	-11.76509	-10.68369	-10.49269
1994	FLR	14.75796	15.72214	15.97161	15.12337	15.60436	14.88037	15.55029	14.39101	14.41575	14.94106	14.02705	15.55519
1995	TCM87	0.436318	0.880456	0.265436	0.051643	0.555034	0.525911	0.170586	0.276115	0.815365	0.727065	0.758935	1.09293
1995	QCM_FLR	-10.55041	-10.25587	-10.26514	-10.18332	-10.83986	-10.85856	-10.48104	-10.1478	-10.98213	-11.78257	-10.71065	-10.41359
1995	FLR	14.76406	15.72657	15.98518	15.1362	15.6225	14.89741	15.56682	14.41638	14.42795	14.9592	14.05242	15.56738
1996	TCM87	0.249201	0.760338	0.35977	0.07139	0.596085	0.65024	0.157858	0.025668	0.590561	0.832474	0.407463	0.910675
1996	QCM_FLR	-10.42864	-10.23423	-10.23524	-10.16125	-10.79765	-10.7675	-10.6159	-10.19003	-10.89767	-11.76986	-10.70743	-10.61657
1996	FLR	14.77156	15.73278	15.99937	15.15122	15.6444	14.91814	15.58439	14.44409	14.44094	14.98111	14.08013	15.58038
1997	TCM87	0.528273	0.00995	0.335043	-0.191161	0.695644	0.690143	0.358374	0.178146	0.483043	0.875885	0.522359	0.909468
1997	QCM_FLR	-10.32009	-9.960956	-10.25067	-10.28505	-10.78882	-10.73029	-10.48983	-10.22183	-10.87255	-11.91702	-10.78638	-10.5713
1997	FLR	14.78041	15.73888	16.01425	15.16549	15.6683	14.9417	15.60114	14.47542	14.45301	15.00501	14.11146	15.59244
1998	TCM87	0.385262	0.413433	0.524729	0.175633	0.744315	0.607044	0.510426	0.574364	0.617885	0.809151	0.828115	1.053615
1998	QCM_FLR	-10.47149	-10.05141	-10.4248	-10.4753	-10.83441	-10.90459	-10.71362	-10.26044	-10.98847	-11.91034	-10.78333	-10.41553
1998	FLR	14.79058	15.74669	16.03036	15.1816	15.69627	14.96628	15.62199	14.50829	14.46986	15.03297	14.14433	15.60929
1999	TCM87	-0.357674	0.32573	-0.375693	-0.036332	-0.640274	-0.603769	-0.41871	-0.502592	-0.576051	-0.82022	-0.599386	-0.945073
1999	QCM_FLR	10.5712	9.960255	10.44113	10.47538	10.90767	10.88557	10.76356	10.30853	10.88778	12.00961	10.78357	10.69796
1999	FLR	-14.80814	-15.7567	-16.04907	-15.20068	-15.72808	-14.99202	-15.64769	-14.55063	-14.49341	-15.06479	-14.18667	-15.63284
2000	TCM87	-0.209487	-0.500875	0.370183	0.173953	0.585005	0.626473	0.235072	0.237441	0.323532	0.661657	0.157004	0.856116
2000	QCM_FLR	-10.64719	-9.928819	-10.38156	-10.45832	-10.87819	-10.97466	-10.67225	-10.32453	-10.89739	-11.73493	-10.80875	-10.6644
2000	FLR	14.82306	15.76907	16.06954	15.22189	15.76349	15.01802	15.67919	14.59011	14.51777	15.10019	14.22614	15.65721
2001	TCM87	0.731406	0.951272	0.576051	0.491031	0.907855	0.963937	0.452985	1.003202	1.0936	1.363026	0.74479	0.817133
2001	QCM_FLR	-10.75139	-10.03607	-10.51336	-10.54833	-10.92828	-11.03404	-10.86342	-10.44685	-10.81949	-11.73978	-10.91398	-10.69869
2001	FLR	14.84233	15.78239	16.08961	15.2449	15.79681	15.04719	15.70677	14.6275	14.54296	15.13352	14.26353	15.6824
2002	TCM87	0.274597	0.290428	0.260825	0.303063	0.662688	0.824175	0.306749	0.540579	0.836381	1.101608	0.853564	0.605408
2002	QCM_FLR	-10.69804	-9.993283	-10.3539	-10.51929	-10.95871	-11.03534	-10.62712	-10.39477	-11.01604	-11.64437	-10.9786	-10.73535
2002	FLR	14.86432	15.79755	16.10825	15.26372	15.82963	15.0726	15.73421	14.66104	14.56744	15.16634	14.29707	15.70687
2003	TCM87	1.125579	0.783445	0.50742	0.407463	0.793897	0.764537	0.682592	0.541161	0.463734	1.20147	0.724646	0.72222
2003	QCM_FLR	-10.81744	-10.1338	-10.46123	-10.54033	-10.94377	-11.05512	-10.73289	-10.43014	-11.01381	-11.70079	-10.98742	-10.85435
2003	FLR	14.87915	15.81076	16.124	15.28423	15.8558	15.09277	15.75895	14.68954	14.58792	15.1925	14.32557	15.72736
2004	TCM87	0.826366	0.740508	0.386622	0.363948	0.710004	0.814479	0.650761	0.490419	0.78982	1.18142	0.762207	0.394067
2004	QCM_FLR	-10.95466	-10.09444	-10.51966	-10.58474	-10.97447	-11.05178	-10.85089	-10.47832	-11.07644	-11.69623	-11.01532	-10.84808
2004	FLR	14.8915	15.82207	16.13839	15.30039	15.88185	15.11195	15.78199	14.71552	14.60498	15.21855	14.35156	15.74441
2005	TCM87	0.592774	0.527093	0.255417	0.180653	0.463734	0.789366	0.541161	0.444045	0.519984	0.941569	0.456792	0.432432
2005	QCM_FLR	-10.98257	-10.26062	-10.56394	-10.64246	-10.98874	-11.04146	-10.96842	-10.46439	-11.03032	-11.68515	-11.05266	-10.82296
2005	FLR	14.90435	15.83166	16.15338	15.31553	15.90631	15.13114	15.80292	14.74137	14.62178	15.24301	14.37741	15.76122
2006	TCM87	0.993622	0.35347	0.404131	0.408128	1.02029	0.916291	0.787548	0.463734	1.059178	1.178039	1.137512	0.795704
2006	QCM_FLR	-11.02975	-10.27795	-10.52172	-10.61187	-11.00399	-11.10895	-11.03871	-10.49775	-11.02842	-11.83787	-11.08461	-10.78475
2006	FLR	14.92068	15.84244	16.17045	15.33077	15.93231	15.15151	15.82449	14.7725	14.63929	15.26902	14.40853	15.77872
2007	TCM87	0.947789	0.405465	0.552159	0.579418	0.841998	0.852712	0.614104	0.594983	1.112186	1.178963	1.042042	0.792993
2007	QCM_FLR	-10.95062	-10.22291	-10.57512	-10.66478	-11.02575	-11.14991	-11.02351	-10.57283	-10.9986	-11.84828	-11.14366	-10.8093
2007	FLR	14.93262	15.85366	16.18633	15.34587	15.95991	15.1722	15.84616	14.80524	14.65694	15.29661	14.44127	15.79638
2008	TCM87	0.863312	0.539413	0.779325	0.496524	0.636577	0.909065	0.30822	0.239017	0.279146	1.082483	1.0431	0.923068
2008	QCM_FLR	-10.97875	-10.23502	-10.54087	-10.56937	-10.98552	-11.13943	-10.98381	-10.51688	-10.95221	-11.88835	-11.1648	-10.83484
2008	FLR	14.946	15.86429	16.20345	15.36096	15.98527	15.19212	15.87062	14.83697	14.67404	15.32198	14.473	15.81347
2009	TCM87	1.102272	0.518198	0.387301	0.436318	1.070213	1.057443	0.848012	0.623261	1.21075	1.154047	1.091588	0.718815
2009	QCM_FLR	-11.06186	-10.26981	-10.53377	-10.60598	-11.07528	-11.17901	-10.98755	-10.53441	-11.04401	-11.92348	-11.15915	-10.84407
2009	FLR	14.95814	15.87473	16.21753	15.37525	16.00654	15.20937	15.88914	14.86197	14.68849	15.34324	14.49801	15.82793

Table F8

Data: Equation for electric generator distribution tariffs or markups.

Author: Ernest Zampelli, SAIC, 2008.

Source: The original source for the natural gas prices to electric generators used with city gate prices to calculate markups was the *Electric Power Monthly*, DOE/EIA-0226. The original source for the rest of the data used was the *Natural Gas Monthly*, DOE/EIA-0130. State level city gate and electric generator prices by month were averaged using quantity-weights to arrive at seasonal (peak and off-peak), regional level (12 NGTDM and 16 NGTDM/EMM regions, respectively) prices. The quantity-weights for the city gate prices consisted of residential consumption plus commercial consumption that is represented by on-system sales plus industrial consumption that is represented by on-system sales. The consumption data were generated within the historical routines in the NEMS system based on state level data from the original source and therefore may differ from the original source.

Variables:

$MARKUP_{r,t}$	=	electric generator distributor tariff (or markup) in region r, year t (1987 dollars per Mcf) [UDTAR_SF]
$QELEC_{r,t}$	=	electric generator consumption of natural gas [sum of BASUQTY_SF and BASUQTY_SI]
REG_r	=	1, if observation is in region r, =0 otherwise
$\beta_{0.r}$	=	coefficient on REGr [PELREG20 or PELREG25 equivalent to the product of REGr and β0r]
β_0, β_1	=	Estimated parameters
ρ	=	autocorrelation coefficient
r	=	NGTDM/EMM region
t	=	year
n	=	season (1=peak, 2=off-peak)

[Note: Variables in brackets correspond to comparable variables used in the main body of the documentation and/or in the model code.]

Derivation: The equation used for the peak and off-peak electric markups was estimated using panel data for the 16 EMM regions over the 1990 to 2009 time period and two periods. The equations were estimated in linear form allowing for region and period-specific intercepts and with corrections for cross sectional heteroscedasticity and first order serial correlation using EViews. Because the reported point estimates of the parameters yielded projections of the electric generator distributor tariffs that were considered inconsistent with analyst's expectations (i.e., that did not align well with more recent historical levels), the constant term in each equation was increased by one half of a standard deviation of the error, well within the 95% confidence interval limits for the parameters.

$$MARKUP_{n,r,t} = \beta_{0,n} + \sum_r \beta_{0,n,r} REG_r + \beta_{1,n} QELEC_{n,r,t} + \rho * MARKUP_{n,r,t-1}$$
$$- \rho_n * (\beta_{0,n} + \sum_r \beta_{0,n,r} REG_r + \beta_{1,n} QELEC_{n,r,t-1})$$

Regression Diagnostics and Parameter Estimates

This table reports the results of the estimation of the electric generator tariff equation allowing for different intercepts for each region/peak and off-peak period pairing.

Dependent Variable: TEU87
Method: Least Squares
Date: 08/03/10 Time: 08:58
Sample (adjusted): 2 640
Included observations: 639 after adjustments
Convergence achieved after 6 iterations
Newey-West HAC Standard Errors & Covariance (lag truncation=6)

Variable	Coefficient	Std. Error	t-Statistic	Prob.
C	-0.153777	0.059859	-2.569001	0.0104
R1N1	-0.569051	0.187530	-3.034454	0.0025
R1N2	-1.377838	0.165891	-8.305701	0.0000
R2N2	-0.836857	0.142380	-5.877619	0.0000
R4N1	-0.993607	0.123113	-8.070659	0.0000
R4N2	-0.966333	0.122853	-7.865788	0.0000
R5N2	-0.553732	0.118913	-4.656614	0.0000
R6N2	-0.549285	0.066117	-8.307780	0.0000
R7N2	-0.495265	0.150436	-3.292203	0.0011
R9N2	-0.349100	0.143640	-2.430379	0.0154
R10N1	-0.453206	0.099193	-4.568931	0.0000
R10N2	-0.625117	0.089210	-7.007262	0.0000
R11N1	-0.553142	0.115808	-4.776368	0.0000
R11N2	-1.148493	0.338392	-3.393968	0.0007
QELEC	7.04E-07	2.61E-07	2.703306	0.0071
AR(1), ρ	0.281378	0.048877	5.756867	0.0000

R-squared	0.337021	Mean dependent var	-0.341534
Adjusted R-squared	0.321059	S.D. dependent var	0.704578
S.E. of regression	0.580558	Akaike info criterion	1.775065
Sum squared resid	209.9805	Schwarz criterion	1.886738
Log likelihood	-551.1334	Hannan-Quinn criter.	1.818414
F-statistic	21.11324	Durbin-Watson stat	2.010879
Prob(F-statistic)	0.000000		

Data used for estimation

YEAR	REG	TEU87	QELEC	TEU87	QELEC	REG	TEU87	QELEC	TEU87	QELEC
		peak	peak	off-peak	off-peak		peak	peak	off-peak	off-peak
1990	1	-0.373	5477.792	-0.689	78029.21	9	0.202	112.733	-0.07	733.267
1991	1	-0.285	10403.05	-0.948	90079.95	9	-0.07	88	-1.004	350
1992	1	-0.431	4216.713	-0.879	124801.3	9	-0.031	85	-0.434	474
1993	1	-0.595	16036.8	-1.384	109778.2	9	-0.079	54	-1.686	1745
1994	1	-0.626	11368.83	-1.836	146989.2	9	0.061	118.826	-1.354	1249.174

YEAR	REG	TEU87	QELEC	TEU87	QELEC	REG	TEU87	QELEC	TEU87	QELEC
1995	1	-0.898	30834.64	-1.78	164613.4	9	0.142	380.87	-0.344	2539.13
1996	1	-0.544	30441.67	-1.507	152519.3	9	-0.009	471.804	-0.227	1934.196
1997	1	-0.647	51998.01	-0.985	152213	9	-0.044	478.75	-0.447	3349.25
1998	1	-0.527	58556.68	-1.476	124108.3	9	0.343	644.785	-0.557	11348.22
1999	1	-2.145	26046.15	-2.22	154448.8	9	-0.129	904	-0.324	10655
2000	1	-2.864	48405.54	-2.915	151491.4	9	-0.248	2628.278	0.356	6823.722
2001	1	-0.25	75437.73	-1.985	192119.3	9	-0.921	655.664	-0.514	6254.336
2002	1	-0.665	106724.8	-1.482	233054.2	9	-0.82	4669.191	-0.453	11638.81
2003	1	-0.218	93391.41	-0.622	249761.6	9	0.321	2993.909	-0.332	6293.09
2004	1	0.075	104596.4	-1.357	248623.6	9	-0.117	1886.401	-0.005	5208.599
2005	1	0.103	96665.48	-0.938	258176.5	9	0.616	5315.032	-0.031	17492.97
2006	1	-1.356	101914.5	-1.654	267822.5	9	-0.905	3080.886	-0.662	15897.11
2007	1	-0.079	103940.7	-1.287	277224.3	9	-0.312	6110.758	-0.597	20556.24
2008	1	0.252	101929.7	-0.739	250712.3	9	-0.071	4028.149	0.085	9966.851
2009	1	-0.906	113848.8	-1.615	238725.2	9	-1.09	3550.858	-0.92	8518.142
1990	2	-0.091	56008.69	-0.827	254571.3	10	-0.78	11836.17	-0.971	58827.83
1991	2	-0.157	64743.73	-0.898	267021.3	10	-0.812	15655.99	-1.021	51891.01
1992	2	-0.277	86805.72	-0.846	297436.3	10	-0.931	16384.83	-0.943	42633.17
1993	2	-0.302	83314.7	-0.87	308035.3	10	-0.715	8031.323	-0.744	38079.68
1994	2	-0.503	70013.87	-0.815	393282.2	10	-0.56	16516.63	-0.983	71653.38
1995	2	-0.444	134962.2	-0.675	487430.7	10	-0.607	30614.88	-0.86	89503.12
1996	2	0.171	62217.58	-0.622	411604.4	10	0.692	14569.8	-0.618	76325.2
1997	2	-0.502	111473	-1.339	456865	10	-0.684	14076	-0.592	70928
1998	2	-0.397	108447	-0.742	433440	10	-0.615	15754.85	-0.793	88350.15
1999	2	-0.284	108384.3	-0.864	496415.8	10	-0.541	28160.57	-0.566	103466.4
2000	2	0.037	120397.1	-0.692	408934.9	10	-0.559	34598.51	-0.28	108258.5
2001	2	0.566	114874.5	-0.896	393543.5	10	-1.737	40322.03	-1.047	177977
2002	2	-0.56	140725.3	-0.283	435593.6	10	-0.807	79041.83	-0.438	197026.2
2003	2	0.591	111812	-0.135	320290	10	0.211	58740.21	-0.426	123469.8
2004	2	0.17	121153.9	-0.097	354346.2	10	-0.434	59686.33	-0.333	164801.7
2005	2	0.356	116582	0.151	393216	10	0.674	56009.41	0.03	184339.6
2006	2	-0.916	137123.6	-1.023	482526.4	10	-1.223	46339.27	-0.933	239106.8
2007	2	-0.366	171300.2	-0.902	538288.8	10	-0.589	82203.64	-0.851	276528.3
2008	2	0.118	189873.8	-0.029	520375.2	10	-0.307	95446.84	-0.201	236164.2
2009	2	-1.209	212035.5	-1.426	544876.5	10	-1.263	121736.6	-1.046	292033.4
1990	3	0.477	150	-0.356	1103	11	-0.5	383955.5	-0.588	1244416
1991	3	-0.539	453	-0.68	2784	11	-0.471	381862.6	-0.474	1224830
1992	3	-0.597	933	-0.9	2023	11	-0.4	396487	-0.439	1151983
1993	3	-0.491	1267	0.237	1469	11	-0.39	381623.1	-0.41	1254746
1994	3	1.015	845.443	0.864	2122.557	11	-0.384	386224	-0.37	1266091
1995	3	-0.197	851.772	-0.584	6606.229	11	-0.555	426659.9	-0.507	1298862
1996	3	0.336	446.384	-0.27	2455.616	11	-0.183	387316.8	-0.302	1250172
1997	3	0.397	390	-0.063	3100	11	-0.628	378754.8	-0.27	1292336
1998	3	0.447	904.887	0.156	7075.113	11	-0.241	393644.6	-0.113	1588856
1999	3	0.282	2043.821	-0.556	9343.18	11	-0.407	449100.1	-0.214	1535106
2000	3	-0.057	2424.521	0.069	7697.479	11	-0.173	505656.9	-0.106	1587056
2001	3	1.586	1313.623	2.199	9230.377	11	-0.469	473726.6	-0.291	1475389
2002	3	-0.291	5156.494	-0.457	17565.51	11	-0.5	527764.5	-0.314	1583531
2003	3	-0.134	5862.449	0.086	12911.55	11	0.169	520349.9	0.035	1422995
2004	3	-0.037	5929.066	-0.26	12328.93	11	-0.229	496203.2	-0.024	1383611
2005	3	0.204	6165.703	-0.088	21775.3	11	0.066	497927.9	-0.046	1544522
2006	3	-0.931	4535.418	-0.126	18648.58	11	-0.645	474470.1	-0.286	1534773
2007	3	-0.287	9500.535	-0.174	27791.47	11	-0.524	541641.6	-0.532	1506612
2008	3	0.267	8165.851	1.186	15327.15	11	-0.454	571748.9	-0.527	1451966

YEAR	REG	TEU87	QELEC	TEU87	QELEC	REG	TEU87	QELEC	TEU87	QELEC
2009	3	-0.925	12502.88	-1.185	25454.13	11	-1.02	550137.3	-0.832	1434106
1990	4	-1.817	31429.56	-1.347	72129.44	12	-0.595	108.33	-0.957	376.67
1991	4	-1.348	31578.48	-1.253	77733.52	12	0.711	74.782	1.56	268.218
1992	4	-1.418	44851.64	-1.497	68893.36	12	1.405	51.828	-0.004	250.172
1993	4	-1.241	35502.96	-1.283	87438.03	12	0.845	112.683	0.455	242.317
1994	4	-0.907	45192.25	-1.022	104732.8	12	-0.713	189.751	-0.878	571.249
1995	4	-1.128	47723.8	-1.258	132765.2	12	5.098	93.277	1.118	422.723
1996	4	-1.342	41181.18	-1.264	136386.8	12	3.806	267.156	1.572	471.844
1997	4	-1.893	58116.89	-1.709	149975.1	12	-1.3	713.689	-0.673	1580.311
1998	4	-1.426	57722.75	-1.106	185009.2	12	-0.003	834	-1.099	1726
1999	4	-1.017	56206.06	-1.275	181599.9	12	-1.421	661.7	-1.291	1543.3
2000	4	-0.795	62974.71	-0.843	154818.3	12	-1.468	858	-1.035	2886
2001	4	-1.38	55546.81	-0.777	164441.2	12	-0.705	2966.774	-0.578	10398.23
2002	4	-0.447	64369.93	-0.624	219275	12	0.762	1841.396	0.58	4757.604
2003	4	-0.951	58171.08	-0.766	128116.9	12	-0.093	3115.147	-0.2	9223.853
2004	4	-1.009	67560.77	-1.245	140486.2	12	-0.73	3432.394	-0.513	9186.606
2005	4	-1.006	62452.09	-1.464	220560.9	12	-0.394	3310.012	-0.31	8903.987
2006	4	-1.683	43653.99	-0.841	179495	12	-0.645	2908.668	-0.985	8073.332
2007	4	-0.72	70883.59	-0.594	207352.4	12	-0.109	4028.414	-0.17	11499.59
2008	4	-0.447	70728.65	0.307	132756.4	12	0.074	4134.663	0.213	9996.337
2009	4	-0.718	63267.38	-1.036	128803.6	12	-0.835	3748.62	-0.598	9380.38
1990	5	-0.591	6513.661	-0.868	37663.33	13	-0.406	7475.622	-1.168	30674.38
1991	5	-0.577	8386.246	-0.945	54605.75	13	-0.725	8442.727	-1.35	32877.27
1992	5	-0.477	6564.392	-0.855	19551.61	13	-0.779	11631.35	-1.39	41860.65
1993	5	-0.404	5430.949	-0.708	31682.05	13	-0.202	16816.29	-0.642	41179.71
1994	5	-0.379	6607.164	-1.018	37455.84	13	-0.624	16133.88	-1.112	66494.13
1995	5	-0.49	9284.483	-0.854	48442.52	13	-0.717	25685.17	-0.801	67311.83
1996	5	-0.145	6701.926	-0.869	33308.07	13	-0.188	22187.69	-0.468	78930.31
1997	5	-0.485	7062.148	-1.058	40882.85	13	-0.467	22608.37	-0.311	83926.64
1998	5	-0.275	6673.499	-0.839	73116.5	13	-0.385	28588.31	0.006	94087.7
1999	5	-0.392	11064.86	-0.741	67943.15	13	-0.072	35234.71	-0.007	102074.3
2000	5	-0.33	14452.84	-0.533	73293.16	13	1.265	53316.27	0.455	141533.7
2001	5	-0.658	12855.91	-0.609	68365.09	13	1.211	71984.5	1.291	137618.5
2002	5	-0.502	14525.6	-0.627	61418.4	13	0.473	56705.46	0.332	146509.5
2003	5	0.365	12441.34	-0.24	51685.66	13	0.415	52597.99	0.28	155741
2004	5	0.111	15715.84	-0.398	45414.16	13	-0.132	62488.94	0.094	167248.1
2005	5	0.574	22234.67	-0.68	82644.33	13	0.01	68457.95	0.123	184153
2006	5	-0.07	16733.13	-0.368	93896.87	13	-0.452	76476.9	-0.827	212270.1
2007	5	0.162	36287.14	-0.307	106214.9	13	-0.652	91240.94	-0.624	260458.1
2008	5	0.254	40233.62	-0.079	81822.38	13	-0.092	100212.7	0.03	242283.3
2009	5	-0.488	30968.19	-0.602	68794.81	13	-0.614	101870	-0.415	254915
1990	6	0.123	5736.463	-0.57	45691.54	14	-0.12	12451.51	-0.552	37300.48
1991	6	-0.259	9603.718	-0.824	55953.28	14	-0.39	10503.82	-0.595	40932.18
1992	6	-0.1	13896.39	-0.568	40156.62	14	-0.093	11060.75	-0.151	42418.25
1993	6	-0.168	18359.31	-0.714	46145.68	14	0.047	11955.11	-0.095	36309.89
1994	6	-0.247	18000.7	-0.969	60320.31	14	-0.143	13658.88	-0.164	44792.13
1995	6	-0.142	25663.08	-0.677	78174.92	14	-0.125	13662.47	-0.176	40548.53
1996	6	-0.021	14490.55	-0.611	57460.45	14	0.394	11768.99	0.121	45934.01
1997	6	-0.455	11760.21	-0.704	48107.79	14	0.084	12934.19	-0.122	54012.81
1998	6	-0.031	10607.77	-0.703	82748.23	14	0.076	18095.38	-0.132	69705.62
1999	6	-0.088	18558	-0.702	88756	14	-0.042	22906.24	-0.124	74796.77
2000	6	-0.661	18429.81	-0.196	77524.2	14	0.368	33129.53	0.148	109635.5
2001	6	1.04	11727.8	-0.54	83846.2	14	0.489	49709.35	-0.107	128357.6
2002	6	-0.542	31719.6	-1.034	113421.4	14	0.286	50972.55	-0.266	131697.5

YEAR	REG	TEU87	QELEC	TEU87	QELEC	REG	TEU87	QELEC	TEU87	QELEC
2003	6	0.025	22153.38	-0.48	65724.62	14	0.355	52509.88	0.372	155480.1
2004	6	-0.342	31824.06	-0.621	96166.94	14	0.239	73750.1	0.265	197387.9
2005	6	-0.163	42401.81	-0.379	132210.2	14	0.716	70105.91	0.66	188586.1
2006	6	-1.163	38068.46	-0.523	135358.5	14	-0.245	80424.6	-0.312	223227.4
2007	6	-0.056	50933.98	-0.522	170925	14	-0.019	88519	-0.567	252688
2008	6	0.475	47926.71	-0.042	144152.3	14	-0.166	103157.1	0.523	249401.9
2009	6	-1.173	60839.04	-0.951	177359	14	-0.482	95551.13	-0.231	239102.9
1990	7	0.373	94	-0.127	1838	15	-0.398	2163.144	-0.413	5411.857
1991	7	0.18	86	-0.214	752	15	-0.111	2385.528	-0.415	10360.47
1992	7	0.599	40	-0.404	1122	15	-0.184	6807.541	0.497	19222.46
1993	7	0.601	112.963	-0.408	2913.037	15	0.499	26265.15	-0.027	18996.85
1994	7	0.485	268.321	-0.153	1070.679	15	-0.333	26457.18	-0.207	42886.82
1995	7	1.584	368.214	-0.26	10727.79	15	-0.285	17894.08	-0.113	41866.93
1996	7	1.371	208.809	-0.706	5566.191	15	0.58	1662.173	-0.161	66420.83
1997	7	0.181	323.943	-0.941	16729.06	15	0.104	7462.426	0.902	44431.57
1998	7	-1.064	845	-0.463	32505	15	-0.372	16440.47	-0.323	76776.53
1999	7	-0.867	683	-1.1	31822	15	-0.098	12471.85	-0.158	69827.15
2000	7	0.814	676	-0.777	41357	15	0.166	30435.15	0.56	113414.9
2001	7	-0.394	1813.314	-1.357	32851.69	15	0.213	55816.64	0.531	112908.4
2002	7	-0.472	12366.93	-0.961	44221.07	15	-0.439	30135.98	-0.949	65269.01
2003	7	-0.114	8131.998	-0.605	24126	15	-0.518	41637.16	-1.075	90642.84
2004	7	-0.437	11419.18	-0.718	34506.82	15	-0.675	46265.81	-0.82	108536.2
2005	7	0.062	17548.92	-0.107	54718.08	15	-0.387	48284.78	-0.701	105522.2
2006	7	-1.522	20942.52	-0.854	74464.48	15	-1.054	36728.14	-1.325	97256.86
2007	7	-0.527	27945.63	-0.963	93780.37	15	-0.7	45077.4	-0.962	113719.6
2008	7	0.218	24032.35	-0.327	72283.65	15	-0.536	62191.23	-0.708	129025.8
2009	7	-1.494	36520.59	-1.208	106465.4	15	-1.093	61018.65	-1.443	133252.4
1990	8	-0.111	53532.49	-0.081	135631.5	16	0.519	154426.4	0.106	474358.6
1991	8	-0.347	57488.14	-0.233	143844.9	16	0.314	200566.8	0.049	427968.1
1992	8	-0.559	54243.96	-0.149	149075	16	0.129	227147.9	0.029	535783.1
1993	8	-0.41	47776.24	-0.304	140451.8	16	0.261	244498.6	0.09	428566.4
1994	8	-0.538	53104.2	-0.412	158386.8	16	-0.027	238089.7	0.013	572584.3
1995	8	-0.384	80269.09	-0.369	289028.9	16	0.403	181126.9	0.103	421776.1
1996	8	-0.203	70158.84	-0.441	267108.2	16	0.446	116542	0.08	408493
1997	8	-1.335	88892.73	-0.917	249964.3	16	0.344	129870	0.036	465952
1998	8	-0.996	80991.75	-0.831	242778.3	16	0.378	206154	0.294	442932
1999	8	-0.436	83337	-0.25	282249	16	0.305	279871.4	0.035	443299.6
2000	8	-0.699	109654.3	-0.233	254590.7	16	3.086	234992	0.621	658384
2001	8	-0.608	88541.95	-0.013	285769.1	16	1.745	313453.9	1.712	659873.1
2002	8	0.223	114050.8	0.133	407817.2	16	0.606	229522.8	0.335	497104.2
2003	8	0.241	134894.4	0.056	400204.6	16	0.438	222017.6	0.166	483325.4
2004	8	-0.203	145665.3	0.002	440175.8	16	0.003	230285.1	-0.041	540231.9
2005	8	-0.598	153085.3	-0.367	477324.7	16	0.559	216351.5	-0.172	472817.5
2006	8	-0.21	162821.4	0.462	578937.6	16	-0.409	211302.6	0.249	559533.4
2007	8	0.835	177456.6	0.931	595511.4	16	0.046	236827.2	-0.076	597458.9
2008	8	0.396	198930.3	0.309	598335.6	16	0.092	279011.8	0.08	578855.2
2009	8	1.253	232426	1.368	677572	16	0.123	255257.8	0.146	557431.3

Table F9

Data: Equation for natural gas price at the Henry Hub

Author: Eddie Thomas, EI-83, 2008

Source: Annual natural gas wellhead prices and chain-type GDP price deflators data from EIA's *Annual Energy Review 2007*, DOE/EIA-0384(2007), published June 2008. Henry Hub spot price data from EIA's Short-Term Energy Outlook database series NGHHUUS; the annual Henry Hub prices equal the arithmetic average of the monthly data.

Variables:

HHPRICE	=	Henry Hub spot natural gas price (1987 dollars per MMBtu)
EIAPRICE	=	Average U.S. natural gas wellhead price (1987 dollars per Mcf)
HHPRICE_HAT	=	estimated values for Henry Hub price (1987 dollars per MMBtu)
α	=	estimated parameter
α_0	=	constant term
const2	=	constant term

Derivation: Using TSP version 5.0 and annual price data from 1995 through 2007, the first equation was estimated in log-linear form using ordinary least squares. The second equation estimates an adjustment factor that is applied in cases where the value of "y" is predicted from an estimated equation where the dependent variable is the natural log of y. The adjustment is due to the fact that generally predictions of "y" using the first equation only tend to be biased downward.

1) $\ln HHPRICE = \alpha_0 + (\alpha * \ln EIAPRICE)$
2) $HHPRICE = \beta * HHPRICE\_HAT$

Regression Diagnostics and Parameter Estimates

First Equation

Dependent variable: lnHHPRICE
Current sample: 1 to 13
Number of observations: 13

Mean of dep. var.	= 1.00473	LM het. test	= .317007 [.573]
Std. dev. of dep. var.	= .447616	Durbin-Watson	= 2.74129 [<.934]
Sum of squared residuals	= .048856	Jarque-Bera test	= .475878 [.788]
Variance of residuals	= .444143E-02	Ramsey's RESET2	= .103879 [.754]
Std. error of regression	= .066644	F (zero slopes)	= 530.339 [.000]
R-squared	= .979680	Schwarz B.I.C.	= -15.2838
Adjusted R-squared	= .977833	Log likelihood	= 17.8487

Variable	Estimated Coefficient	Standard Error	t-statistic	P-value	Symbol
CONST	.090246	.043801	2.06036	[.064]	α_0
lnEIAPRICE	1.00119	.043475	23.0291	[.000]	α

<u>Second Equation</u>

Dependent variable: HHPRICE
Current sample: 1 to 13
Number of observations: 13

Mean of dep. var.	= 2.98879	LM het. test	= 2.14305 [.143]
Std. dev. of dep. var.	= 1.29996	Durbin-Watson	= 2.97238 [<1.00]
Sum of squared residuals	= .420043	Jarque-Bera test	= .138664 [.933]
Variance of residuals	= .035004	Ramsey's RESET2	= .655186 [.435]
Std. error of regression	= .187092	Schwarz B.I.C.	= -2.58158
R-squared	= .979456	Log likelihood	= 3.86405
Adjusted R-squared	= .979456		

Variable	Estimated Coefficient	Standard Error	t-statistic	P-value	Symbol
HHPRICE_HAT	1.00439	.016114	62.3290	[.000]	β

Data used for Estimation:

Year	**Henry Hub Spot Natural Gas Price ($/MMBtu, in 1987 dollars)**	**Average U.S. Wellhead Natural Gas Price ($/Mcf, in 1987 dollars)**
1995	1.34	1.23
1996	2.14	1.70
1997	1.91	1.79
1998	1.58	1.50
1999	1.70	1.65
2000	3.16	2.73
2001	2.83	2.89
2002	2.36	2.09
2003	3.77	3.40
2004	3.95	3.68
2005	5.62	4.79
2006	4.23	4.03
2007	4.26	3.90

Table F10

Data: Lease and plant fuel consumption in Alaska

Author: Margaret Leddy, EIA summer intern

Source: EIA's Petroleum Supply Annual and Natural Gas Annual.

Variables:

LSE_PLT = Lease and plant fuel consumption in Alaska [QALK_LAP_N]
OIL_PROD = Oil production in Alaska (thousand barrels) [OGPRCOAK]

[Note: Variables in brackets correspond to comparable variables used in the main body of the documentation and in the model code.]

Derivation: Using EViews and annual price data from 1981 through 2007, the following equation was estimated using ordinary least squares without a constant term:

$$LSE\_PLT_t = \beta_{-1} * LSE\_PLT_{t-1} + \beta_1 * OIL\_PROD_t$$

The intent was to find an equation that demonstrated similar characteristics to the projection by the Alaska Department of Natural Resources in their "Alaska Oil and Gas Report."

Regression Diagnostics and Parameter Estimates

Dependent Variable: LSE_PLT
Method: Least Squares
Date: 07/24/09 Time: 17:34
Sample (adjusted): 1981 2007
Included observations: 27 after adjustments

	Coefficient	Std. Error	t-Statistic	Prob.	Symbol
OIL_PROD	0.038873	0.015357	2.531280	0.0180	β_1
LSE_PLT_PREV	0.943884	0.037324	25.28876	0.0000	β_{-1}

R-squared	0.911327	Mean dependent var	210731.2
Adjusted R-squared	0.907780	S.D. dependent var	86703.97
S.E. of regression	26329.98	Akaike info criterion	23.26599
Sum squared resid	1.73E+10	Schwarz criterion	23.36198
Log likelihood	-312.0909	Hannan-Quinn criter.	23.29453
Durbin-Watson stat	2.407017		

Data used for Estimation:

Year	oil_prod	lse_plt	Year	oil_prod	lse_plt	Year	oil_prod	lse_plt
1981	587337	15249	1990	647309	193875	1999	383199	265504.375
1982	618910	94232	1991	656349	223194.366	2000	355199	269177.988
1983	625527	97828	1992	627322	234716.225	2001	351411	271448.841
1984	630401	111069	1993	577495	237701.556	2002	359335	285476.659
1985	666233	64148	1994	568951	238156.064	2003	355582	300463.487
1986	681310	72686	1995	541654	292810.594	2004	332465	281546.298
1987	715955	116682	1996	509999	295833.863	2005	315420	303215.128
1988	738143	153670	1997	472949	271284.345	2006	270486	257091.267
1989	683979	192239	1998	428850	281871.556	2007	263595	268571.098

Table F11

Data: Western Canada successful conventional gas wells

Author: Ernie Zampelli, SAIC, 2009

Source: Canadian Association of Petroleum Producers, Statistical Handbook. Undiscovered remaining resource estimates from National Energy Board of Canada.

Variables:

GWELLS = Number of successful new natural gas wells drilled in Western Canada [SUCWELL]

PGAS2000 = Average natural gas wellhead price in Alberta (2000 U.S. dollars per Mcf) [CN_PRC00]

REMAIN = Remaining natural gas undiscovered resources in Western Canada (Bcf) [URRCAN]

DRILLCOSTPERGASWELL2000 = U.S. based proxy for drilling cost per gas well (2000 U.S. dollars) [CST_PRXYLAG]

PR_LAG = Production to reserve ratio last forecast year [CURPRRCAN]

[Note: Variables in brackets correspond to comparable variables used in the main body of the documentation and in the model code.]

Derivation: Using TSP version 5.0 and annual price data from 1978 through 2005, the following equation was estimated after taking natural logs of all of the variables and by instrumental variables:

$$\ln GWELLS = \beta_0 + \beta_1 * \ln PGAS2000 + \beta_2 * \ln REMAIN + \beta_3 * \ln DRILLCOSTPERGASWELL2000LAG + \beta_4 * PR\_LAG$$

Regression Diagnostics and Parameter Estimates

```
TSP Program File:  canada10_wells_v1.tsp
TSP Output File:  canada10_wells_v1.out
Data File: canada10.xls

Method of estimation = Instrumental Variable

 Dependent variable: LNGWELLS
 Endogenous variables: LNPGAS2000
 Included exogenous variables: C LNREMAIN PR_LAG LNDRILLCOSTPERGASWELL2000LAG
 Excluded exogenous variables: LNRIGS_AVAIL LNRIGS_ACT LNWOP2000
                               LNWOP2000(-1)
 Current sample:  32 to 59
 Number of observations:  28

        Mean of dep. var. = 8.22053  Adjusted R-squared = .868002
   Std. dev. of dep. var. = .770092       Durbin-Watson = 1.47006 [<.460]
 Sum of squared residuals = 1.81489     F (zero slopes) = 44.8913 [.000]
    Variance of residuals = .078908  F (over-id. rest.) = 3.04299 [.049]
 Std. error of regression = .280906             E'PZ*E = .720351
                R-squared = .887557
```

Variable	Estimated Coefficient	Standard Error	t-statistic	P-value	Symbol
C	-1.85639	10.8399	-.171256	[.864]	β_0
LNPGAS2000	1.09939	.275848	3.98551	[.000]	β_1
LNREMAIN	1.57373	.767550	2.05033	[.040]	β_2
PR_LAG	33.6237	5.95568	5.64564	[.000]	β_3
LNDRILLCOSTPERGASWELL2000LAG	-.860630	.413101	-2.08334	[.037]	β_4

where LNGWELLS is the natural log of the number of successful gas wells drilled, C is the constant term, LNPGAS2000 is the natural log of the natural gas wellhead price in US$2000, LNREMAIN is the natural log of remaining natural gas resources, PR_LAG is the one-year lag of the natural gas production to reserves ratio, and LNDRILLCOSTPERGASWELL2000LAG is the one-year lag of the natural log drilling costs per gas well in US$2000.

Data used for Estimation:

OBS	Year	gwells	pgas2000	Remain	drillcostpergaswell2000
3	1949		0.048973961		
4	1950		0.326113924		
5	1951		0.332526561		
6	1952		0.53466758		
7	1953		0.520772302		
8	1954		0.518522266		
9	1955	168	0.508917468		
10	1956	180	0.506220324		
11	1957	194	0.521861883		
12	1958	200	0.481073325		
13	1959	302	0.452683617		
14	1960	292	0.474693506		487885.5568
15	1961	392	0.533594173		445149.9201
16	1962	331	0.529535218		450150.6792
17	1963	338	0.569702785		423745.2977
18	1964	308	0.58367073	247614.5688	473327.0074
19	1965	320	0.567907929	238537.3503	452030.1753
20	1966	342	0.576547139	236436.2237	577347.2558
21	1967	372	0.562604404	232547.9993	590110.0741
22	1968	478	0.537960863	229480.2528	596222.8555
23	1969	524	0.505967348	224686.5834	590148.7629
24	1970	731	0.518371638	219742.8184	583504.0314
25	1971	838	0.506420538	215141.3928	576188.9938
26	1972	1164	0.514557299	211401.9226	522986.1433
27	1973	1656	0.532790308	210506.5381	487525.511
28	1974	1902	0.791608407	207750.6318	544786.1771
29	1975	2080	1.411738215	207326.7494	689458.4496
30	1976	3304	2.237940881	203831.3434	672641.5564
31	1977	3192	2.599391226	201592.1585	733387.9117
32	1978	3319	2.626329384	196792.3469	817752.475
33	1979	3450	2.710346999	191501.0181	894243.9654
34	1980	4241	3.384567857	185756.1549	992546.6758
35	1981	3206	3.221572826	182757.9141	1181643.803
36	1982	2555	3.213342789	177773.8365	1377862.449
37	1983	1374	3.284911566	175254.2284	932534.8506
38	1984	1866	3.129580432	172207.6619	723979.0112
39	1985	2528	2.783743697	164103.9115	729665.916
40	1986	1298	2.102135277	163082.6472	733903.1579
41	1987	1599	1.70904727	162025.2004	519637.6851
42	1988	2300	1.605152553	161045.0253	608099.7173
43	1989	2313	1.6374231	159296.4045	582756.2503
44	1990	2226	1.616410647	154195.8722	577621.032
45	1991	1645	1.413315563	150493.0434	599894.6047
46	1992	908	1.302240063	147472.6695	493273.1377
47	1993	3327	1.450352061	144605.8153	589678.7771
48	1994	5333	1.51784337	141039.5975	592881.5963
49	1995	3325	1.094686059	137038.8014	683668.8164
50	1996	3664	1.255799796	130554.9327	656352.5551
51	1997	4820	1.46778215	128082.3795	763619.5946
52	1998	4955	1.340424158	126038.0859	845430.7986
53	1999	7005	1.702885108	122364.2737	815784.5261
54	2000	9034	3.139760843	117371.83	756939
55	2001	10693	3.517434005	112428.7004	875486.0887
56	2002	9011	2.374637309	105719.0529	951999.7696
57	2003	12911	4.216469412	100440.0085	1039434.608
58	2004	15041	4.506654918	95800	1568071.111
59	2005	15895	6.175733625	89650.7047	1324919.051
60	2006	13850	3.555109614	82089.6695	1161087.791
61	2007	9626	5.155666777	75854.5886	3260771.516
62	2008	8104	6.102395678	69930.7064	

Table F12

Data: Western Canada conventional natural gas finding rate

Author: Ernie Zampelli, SAIC, 2009

Source: Canadian Association of Petroleum Producers, Statistical Handbook. Undiscovered remaining resource estimates from National Energy Board of Canada.

Variables:

FR = Natural gas proved reserves added per successful natural gas well in Western Canada (Bcf/well) [FRCAN]

REMAIN = Remaining natural gas undiscovered resources in Western Canada (Bcf) [URRCAN]

[Note: Variables in brackets correspond to comparable variables used in the main body of the documentation and in the model code.]

Derivation: The equation to project the average natural gas finding rate in Western Canada was estimated for the time period 1965-2007 using TSP version 5.0 and aggregated reserves and production data for the provinces in Western Canada. Natural logs were taken of all data before the estimation was performed. The following equation was estimated with correction for first-order serial correlation:

$$\ln FR_t = \beta_0 + \beta_1 * \ln REMAIN_t + \rho * \ln FR_{t-1} - \rho * (\beta_0 + \beta_1 * \ln REMAIN_{t-1})$$

Regression Diagnostics and Parameter Estimates

```
TSP Program File:  canada10_findrate_v1.tsp
TSP Output File:  canada10_findrate_v1.out
Data File:  canada10.xls

FIRST-ORDER SERIAL CORRELATION OF THE ERROR

 Objective function:  Exact ML (keep first obs.)

 CONVERGENCE ACHIEVED AFTER   6 ITERATIONS

 Dependent variable: LNFR
 Current sample:  19 to 61
 Number of observations:  43
        Mean of dep. var. = .258333           R-squared = .523925
   Std. dev. of dep. var. = 1.01511  Adjusted R-squared = .500121
 Sum of squared residuals = 20.6112       Durbin-Watson = 2.19910
    Variance of residuals = .515280      Schwarz B.I.C. = 50.8486
 Std. error of regression = .717830      Log likelihood = -45.2068
```

Parameter	Estimate	Standard Error	t-statistic	P-value	Symbol
C	-25.3204	6.81740	-3.71409	[.000]	β_0
LNREMAIN	2.13897	.569561	3.75547	[.000]	β_1
RHO (ρ)	.428588	.139084	3.08150	[.002]	ρ

Data used for Estimation:

OBS	Year	fr	remain
17	1963	9.28880858	
18	1964	29.47148864	247614.5688
19	1965	6.566020625	238537.3503
20	1966	11.36907719	236436.2237
21	1967	8.246630376	232547.9993
22	1968	10.02859707	229480.2528
23	1969	9.434666031	224686.5834
24	1970	6.294699863	219742.8184
25	1971	4.46237494	215141.3928
26	1972	0.76923067	211401.9226
27	1973	1.664194626	210506.5381
28	1974	0.222861409	207750.6318
29	1975	1.680483654	207326.7494
30	1976	0.677719401	203831.3434
31	1977	1.503700376	201592.1585
32	1978	1.594253932	196792.3469
33	1979	1.665177739	191501.0181
34	1980	0.706965527	185756.1549
35	1981	1.554609357	182757.9141
36	1982	0.986147984	177773.8365
37	1983	2.217297307	175254.2284
38	1984	4.342845874	172207.6619
39	1985	0.403981131	164103.9115
40	1986	0.81467396	163082.6472
41	1987	0.612992558	162025.2004
42	1988	0.760269913	161045.0253
43	1989	2.205158798	159296.4045
44	1990	1.663445103	154195.8722
45	1991	1.836093556	150493.0434
46	1992	3.157328414	147472.6695
47	1993	1.071901954	144605.8153
48	1994	0.750196156	141039.5975
49	1995	1.950035699	137038.8014
50	1996	0.674823472	130554.9327
51	1997	0.424127303	128082.3795
52	1998	0.741435358	126038.0859
53	1999	0.712697173	122364.2737
54	2000	0.547169537	117371.83
55	2001	0.627480361	112428.7004
56	2002	0.585844457	105719.0529
57	2003	0.35938413	100440.0085
58	2004	0.408835536	95800
59	2005	0.475686392	89650.7047
60	2006	0.450186347	82089.6695
61	2007	0.615404342	75854.5886
62	2008		69930.7064

Table F13

Data: Western Canada production-to-reserves ratio

Author: Ernie Zampelli, SAIC, 2009

Source: Canadian Association of Petroleum Producers, Statistical Handbook.

Variables:

PR = Natural gas production-to-reserve ratio in Western Canada [PRRATCAN]
GWELLS = Number of successful new natural gas wells drilled in Western Canada [SUCWELL}
RES_ADD_PER_WELL = Proved natural gas reserves added per successful natural gas well in Western Canada (Bcf/well) [FRCAN]
YEAR = Calendar year [RLYR]

[Note: Variables in brackets correspond to comparable variables used in the main body of the documentation and in the model code.]

Derivation: The equation was estimated using TSP version 5.0 for the period from 1978 to 2007 using aggregated data in natural log form (with the exception of YEAR) for the provinces of Western Canada. Because the PR ratio is bounded between zero and one, the dependent variable was measured in logistic form, as follows:

$$\ln\left(\frac{PR_t}{1 - PR_t}\right) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 * \ln GWELLS_t + \beta_2 * \ln RES\_ADD\_PER\_WELL_t + \beta_3 * YEAR$$
$$+ \rho * \ln\left(\frac{PR_{t-1}}{1 - PR_{t-1}}\right)$$
$$- \rho * (\beta_0 + \beta_1 * \ln GWELLS_t + \beta_2 * \ln RES\_ADD\_PER\_WELL_t + \beta_3 * YEAR)$$

Regression Diagnostics and Parameter Estimates

```
TSP Program File:  canada10_pr_v1.tsp
TSP Output File:  canada10_pr_v1.out
Data File:  canada10.xls

FIRST-ORDER SERIAL CORRELATION OF THE ERROR

 Objective function:  Exact ML (keep first obs.)

 CONVERGENCE ACHIEVED AFTER   7 ITERATIONS

 Dependent variable: LOGISTIC
 Current sample:  32 to 61
 Number of observations:  30
```

Mean of dep. var.	= -2.68213	R-squared	= .986473
Std. dev. of dep. var.	= .479351	Adjusted R-squared	= .984308
Sum of squared residuals	= .090398	Durbin-Watson	= 1.29483
Variance of residuals	= .361591E-02	Schwarz B.I.C.	= -35.3745
Std. error of regression	= .060132	Log likelihood	= 43.8775

Parameter	Estimate	Standard Error	t-statistic	P-value	Symbol
C	-72.1364	13.7385	-5.25069	[.000]	β_0
LNGWELLS	.117911	.032053	3.67858	[.000]	β_1
LNRES_ADD_PER_WELL	.041469	.017819	2.32723	[.020]	β_2
YEAR	.034370	.690795E-02	4.97536	[.000]	β_3
RHO (ρ)	.916835	.061397	14.9329	[.000]	ρ

Data used for Estimation:

OBS	Year	pr	gwells	res_add_per_well
9	1955		168	
10	1956		180	
11	1957		194	
12	1958		200	
13	1959		302	
14	1960		292	
15	1961		392	
16	1962		331	
17	1963	0.023779341	338	9.28880858
18	1964	0.024979017	308	29.47148864
19	1965	0.022612325	320	6.566020625
20	1966	0.02372014	342	11.36907719
21	1967	0.024985242	372	8.246630376
22	1968	0.027431524	478	10.02859707
23	1969	0.030312333	524	9.434666031
24	1970	0.032625343	731	6.294699863
25	1971	0.034308623	838	4.46237494
26	1972	0.037697554	1164	0.76923067
27	1973	0.041418124	1656	1.664194626
28	1974	0.040851176	1902	0.222861409
29	1975	0.042823468	2080	1.680483654
30	1976	0.042727689	3304	0.677719401
31	1977	0.04464118	3192	1.503700376
32	1978	0.04178307	3319	1.594253932
33	1979	0.042644059	3450	1.665177739
34	1980	0.037495598	4241	0.706965527
35	1981	0.036757207	3206	1.554609357
36	1982	0.036329357	2555	0.986147984
37	1983	0.034484267	1374	2.217297307
38	1984	0.03717602	1866	4.342845874
39	1985	0.038172848	2528	0.403981131
40	1986	0.035340517	1298	0.81467396
41	1987	0.039250307	1599	0.612992558
42	1988	0.046730172	2300	0.760269913
43	1989	0.051076089	2313	2.205158798
44	1990	0.050410254	2226	1.663445103
45	1991	0.054586093	1645	1.836093556
46	1992	0.060679876	908	3.157328414
47	1993	0.068904777	3327	1.071901954
48	1994	0.075709817	5333	0.750196156
49	1995	0.080323276	3325	1.950035699
50	1996	0.082543421	3664	0.674823472
51	1997	0.087979875	4820	0.424127303
52	1998	0.095582952	4955	0.741435358
53	1999	0.102052842	7005	0.712697173
54	2000	0.105232537	9034	0.547169537
55	2001	0.108329697	10693	0.627480361
56	2002	0.107044449	9011	0.585844457
57	2003	0.105846562	12911	0.35938413
58	2004	0.109676418	15041	0.408835536
59	2005	0.110235118	15895	0.475686392
60	2006	0.107756259	13850	0.450186347
61	2007	0.105636132	9626	0.615404342
62	2008	0.101395754	8104	

Appendix G. Variable Cross Reference Table

With the exception of the Pipeline Tariff Submodule (PTS) all of the equations in this model documentation report are the same as those used in the model FORTRAN code. Table G-1 presents cross references between model equation variables defined in this document and in the FORTRAN code for the PTS.

Table G-1. Cross Reference of PTM Variables Between Documentation and Code

Documentation	Code Variable	Equation #
$R_{i,f}$	Not represented	157
$R_{i,v}$	Not represented	158
ALL_f	AFX_ i, where i = PFEN, CMEN, LTDN, DDA, FSIT, DIT, OTTAX, TOM	157
ALL_v	AVA_ i, where i = PFEN, CMEN, LTDN, DDA, FSIT, DIT, OTTAX, TOM	158
R_i	PFEN, CMEN, LTDN, DDA, FSIT, DIT, OTTAX, TOM	157, 158
FC_a	Not represented	159
VC_a	Not represented	160
$R_{i,f,r}$	RFC_ i, where i = PFEN, CMEN, LTDN, DDA, FSIT, DIT, OTTAX, TOM	161
$R_{i,f,u}$	UFC_i, where i = PFEN, CMEN, LTDN, DDA, FSIT, DIT, OTTAX, TOM	162
$R_{i,v,r}$	RVC_ i, where i = PFEN, CMEN, LTDN, DDA, FSIT, DIT, OTTAX, TOM	163
$R_{i,v,u}$	UVC_ i, where i = PFEN, CMEN, LTDN, DDA, FSIT, DIT, OTTAX, TOM	164
$ALL_{f,r}$	AFR_ i, where i = PFEN, CMEN, LTDN, DDA, FSIT, DIT, OTTAX, TOM	161
$ALL_{f,u}$	AFU_ i, where i = PFEN, CMEN, LTDN, DDA, FSIT, DIT, OTTAX, TOM	162
$ALL_{v,r}$	AVR_ i, where i = PFEN, CMEN, LTDN, DDA, FSIT, DIT, OTTAX, TOM	163
$ALL_{v,u}$	AVU_ i, where i = PFEN, CMEN, LTDN, DDA, FSIT, DIT, OTTAX, TOM	164

Documentation	Code Variable	Equation #
ξ_i	AFX_ i, where i = PFEN, CMEN, LTDN, DDA, FSIT, DIT, OTTAX, TOM	222, 223, 225-228
$Item_{i,a,t}$	PFEN, CMEN, LTDN, DDA, FSIT, DIT, OTTAX, TOM	222, 223, 225-228
$FC_{a,t}$	Not represented	222
$VC_{a,t}$	Not represented	223
$TCOS_{a,t}$	Not represented	224, 229
$RFC_{a,t}$	RFC_i, where i = PFEN, CMEN, LTDN, DDA, FSIT, DIT, OTTAX, TOM	225
$UFC_{a,t}$	UFC_i, where i = PFEN, CMEN, LTDN, DDA, FSIT, DIT, OTTAX, TOM	225
$RVC_{a,t}$	RVC_i, where i = PFEN, CMEN, LTDN, DDA, FSIT, DIT, OTTAX, TOM	227
$UVC_{a,t}$	UVC_i, where i = PFEN, CMEN, LTDN, DDA, FSIT, DIT, OTTAX, TOM	228
λ_i	AFR_i, where i = PFEN, CMEN, LTDN, DDA, FSIT, DIT, OTTAX, TOM	225, 226
μ_i	AVR_i, where i = PFEN, CMEN, LTDN, DDA, FSIT, DIT, OTTAX, TOM	227, 228
a - arc, t - year, i - cost-of-service component index		

Appendix H. Coal-to-Gas Submodule

A Coal-to-Gas (CTG) algorithm has been incorporated into the NGTDM to project potential new CTG plants at the census division level and the associated pipeline quality gas production. The Coal-to-Gas process with no carbon sequestration is adopted as the generic facility for the CTG. The CTG_INVEST subroutine calculates the annualized capital costs, operating costs, and other variable costs for a generic coal-to-gas plant producing 100 MMcf/day (Appendix E, CTG_PUCAP) of pipeline quality synthetic gas from coal. The capital costs are converted into a per unit basis by dividing by the plant's assumed output of gas. Capital and operating costs are assumed to decline over the forecast due to technological improvements. To determine whether it is profitable to build a CTG plant, the per unit capital and operating costs plus the coal costs are compared to the average market price of natural gas and electricity. If a CTG plant is profitable, the actual number of plants to be built is set using the Mansfield-Blackman market penetration algorithm. Any new generic plant is assumed to be built in the regions with the greatest level of profitability and to produce pipeline quality natural gas and cogenerated electricity (cogen) for sale to the grid.

Electricity generated by a CTG facility is partially consumed in the facility, while the remainder is assumed to be sold to the grid at wholesale market prices (EWSPRCN, 87$/MWh, from the EMM). Cogeneration for each use is set for a generic facility using assumed ratios of electricity produced to coal consumed (Appendix E, own—CTG_BASECGS, grid—CTG_BASCGG). The revenue from cogen sales is treated as a credit (CGNCRED) by the model to offset the costs (feedstock, fixed, and operation costs) of producing CTG syngas. The annualized transmission cost (CGNTRNS) for cogen sent to the grid is accounted for in the operating cost of the CTG facility.

The primary inputs to the CTG model include a mine-mouth coal price (PCLGAS, 87$/MMBtu, from the Coal Market Module (CMM)) and a regional wholesale equivalent natural gas price (NODE_ENDPR, 87$/Mcf). A carbon tax (JCLIN, 87$/MMBtu from the Integration Module) is added to the coal price as well as a penalty for SO2 and HG. If the CTG plant is deemed to be economic, the final quantity of coal demanded (QCLGAS, Quad Btu/yr) is sent back to the CMM for feedback. The final outputs from the model are coal consumed, gas produced, electricity consumed, and electricity sold to the grid.

Investment decisions for building new CTG facilities are based on the total investment cost of a CTG plant (CTG_INVCST). Actual cash flows associated with the operation of the individual plants are considered, as well as cash flows associated with capital for the construction of new plants. Terms for capital-related financial charges (CAPREC) and fixed operating costs (FXOC) are included.

$$\mathrm{CTG\_INVCST} = \mathrm{CAPREC} + \mathrm{FXOC} \qquad (306)$$

Once a build decision is made, a Mansfield-Blackman algorithm for market penetration is used to determine the limit on the number of plants allowed to build in a given year. The investment costs are further adjusted to account for learning and for resource competition. The methodologies used to calculate the capital-related financial charges and the fixed operating costs, the Mansfield-Blackman model, and investment costs adjustments are presented in detail below.

Capital-Related Financial Charges for Coal-to-Gas

A discounted cash flow calculation is used to determine the annual capital charge for a CTG plant investment. The annual capital recovery charge assumes a discount rate equal to the cost of capital, which includes the cost of equity (CTGCOE) and interest payments on any loans or other debt instruments used as part of capital project financing (CTGCOD) with an assumed interest rate of the Industrial BAA bond rate (MC_RMCORPBAA, from MACRO) plus an additional risk premium (Appendix E, BA_PREM). Together, this translates into the capital recovery factor (CTG_RECRAT) which is calculated on an after-tax basis.

Some of the steps associated with the capital-related financial charge estimates are conducted exogenous to NEMS (Step 0 below), either by the analyst in preparing the input data or during input data preprocessing. The individual steps in the plant capital-related cost estimation algorithm are:

0) Estimation of the inside battery limit field cost (ISBL)
1) Year-dollar and location adjustments for ISBL Field Costs
2) Estimation of outside battery limit field cost (OSBL) and Total Field Cost
3) Estimation of Total Project Cost
4) Calculate Annual Capital Recovery
5) Convert capital related financial costs to a "per-unit" basis

Step 0 involves several adjustments which must be made prior to input into the NGTDM; steps 1-4 are performed within the NGTDM.

Step 0 - Estimation of ISBL Field Cost
The inside battery limits (CTG_ISBL) field costs include direct costs such as major equipment, bulk materials, direct labor costs for installation, construction subcontracts, and indirect costs such as distributables. The ISBL investment and labor costs were provided for plants sited at a generic U.S. Gulf Coast (PADD III) location, and are in 2004 dollars.

Step 1 - Year-Dollar and Location Adjustments to ISBL Field Costs
Before utilizing the ISBL investment cost information, the raw data must be converted according to the following steps:

a) Adjust the ISBL field and labor costs from 2004 dollars, first to the year-dollar reported by NEMS, using the Nelson-Farrar refining industry cost-inflation indices. Then the GDP chain-type price indices provided by the NEMS Macroeconomic Activity Model are used to convert from report-year dollars to 1987 year dollars used internally by the NEMS.

b) Convert the ISBL field costs in 1987 dollars from a PADD III basis (Appendix E, XBM_ISBL) to costs in the NGTDM demand regions using location multipliers (Appendix E, CTG_INVLOC). The location multipliers represent differences in material costs between the various regions.

$$CTG\_ISBL = CTG\_INVLOC * BM\_ISBL / 1000 \tag{307}$$

Step 2 - Estimation of OSBL and Total Field Cost
The outside battery-limit (OSBL) costs for CTG are included in the inside battery-limit costs. The total field cost (CTG_TFCST) is the sum of ISBL and OSBL

$$CTG\_TFCST = (1 - CTG\_OSBLFAC) * CTG\_ISBL \tag{308}$$

The OSBL field cost is estimated as a fraction (Appendix E, CTG_OSBLFAC) of the ISBL costs.

Step 3 - Estimation of Total Project Cost
The total project investment (CTG_TPI) is the sum of the total field cost (Eq. 3) and other one-time costs (CTG_OTC).

$$CTG\_TPI = CTG\_TFCST + CTG\_OTC \tag{309}$$

Other one-time costs include the contractor's cost (such as home office costs), the contractor's fee and a contractor's contingency, the owner's cost (such as pre-startup and startup costs), and the owner's contingency and working capital. The other one-time costs are estimated as a function of total field costs using cost factors (OTCFAC):

$$CTG\_OTC = OTCFAC * CTG\_TFCST \tag{310}$$

where,

$$\begin{aligned} OTCFAC = {} & CTG\_PCTENV + CTG\_PCTCNTG + CTG\_PCTLND + \\ & CTG\_PCTSPECL + CTG\_PCTWC \end{aligned} \tag{311}$$

and,

CTG_PCTENV	=	Home, office, contractor fee
CTG_CNTG	=	Contractor & owner contingency
CTG_PCTLND	=	Land
CTG_PCTSPECL	=	Prepaid royalties, license, start-up costs
CTG_PCTWC	=	Working capital

The total project investment given above represents the total project cost for 'overnight construction.' The total project investment at project completion and startup will be discussed below.

Closely related to the total project investment are the fixed capital investment (CTG_FCI) and total depreciable investment (CTG_TDI). The fixed capital investment is equal to the total project investment less working capital. It is used to estimate capital-related fixed operating costs.

$$WRKCAP = CTG\_PCTWC * CTG\_TFCST \tag{312}$$

Thus,

$$CTG\_FCI = CTG\_TPI - WKRCAP \tag{313}$$

For the CTG plant, the total depreciable investment (CTG_TDI) is assumed to be equal to the total project investment.

Step 4 - Annual Capital Recovery

The annual capital recovery (ACAPRCV) is the difference between the total project investment (TPI) and the recoverable investment (RCI), all in terms of present value (e.g., at startup). The TPI estimated previously is for overnight construction (ONC). In reality, the TPI is spread out through the construction period. Land costs (LC) will occur as a lump-sum payment at the beginning of the project, construction expenses (TPI – WC – LC = FCI - LC) will be distributed during construction, and working capital (WC) expenses will occur as a lump-sum payment at startup. Thus, the TPI at startup (present value) is determined by discounting the construction expenses (assumed as discrete annual disbursements) and adding working capital (WC):

$$\begin{aligned} TPI\_START = {} & FVI\_CONSTR * LAND + FV\_CONSTR * \\ & (CTG\_FCI - LAND) + WRKCAP \end{aligned} \tag{314}$$

where,

FVI_CONSTR	=	Future-value compounding factor for an instantaneous payment made n years before the startup year
FV_CONSTR	=	Future-value compounding factor for discrete uniform payments made at the beginning of each year starting n years before the startup year.

The future-value factors are a function of the number of compounding periods (n), and the interest rate (r) assumed for compounding. In this case, (n) equals the construction time in years before startup, and the compounding rate used is the cost of capital (CTG_RECRAT).

The recoverable investment (RCI_START) includes the value of the land and the working capital (assumed not to depreciate over the life of the project), as well as the salvage value (PRJSDECOM) of the used equipment:

$$RCI\_START = PV\_PRJ * (LAND + WKRCAP + PRJSDECOM) \tag{315}$$

The present value of RCI is subtracted from the TPI at startup to determine the present value of the project investment (PVI):

$$PVI\_START = TPI\_START - RCI\_START \quad (316)$$

Thus, the annual capital recovery (ACAPRCV) is given by:

$$ACAPRCV = LC\_LIFE * PVI\_START \quad (317)$$

where,

LC_LIFE = uniform- value leveling factor for a periodic payment (annuity) made at the end of each year for (n) years in the future

The depreciation tax credit (DTC) is based on the depreciation schedule for the investment and the total depreciable investment (TDI). The simplest method used for depreciation calculations is the straight-line method, where the total depreciable investment is depreciated by a uniform annual amount over the tax life of the investment. Generic equations representing the present value and the levelized value of the annual depreciation charge are:

$$ADEPREC = CTG\_TDI / CTG\_PRJLIFE \quad (318)$$
$$ADEPTAXC = ADEPREC * FEDST\_TAX \quad (319)$$
$$ACAPCHRGAT = ACAPRCV - ADEPTAXC \quad (320)$$
$$DCAPCHRGAT = ACAPCHRGAT / 365 \quad (321)$$

where,

ADEPREC = annual levelized depreciation
ADEPTAXC = levelized depreciation tax credit, after federal and state taxes
ACAPCHRGAT = annual capital charge, after tax credit
DCAPCHRGAT = daily capital charge, after tax credit

Step 5 - Convert Capital Costs to a 'per-day', 'per-capacity' Basis
The annualized capital-related financial charge is converted to a daily charge, and then converted to a "per-capacity" basis by dividing the result by the operating capacity of the unit being evaluated. The result is a fixed operation cost on a per-mcf basis (CAPREC).

CTG Plant Fixed Operating Costs
Fixed operating costs (FXOC), a component of total product cost, are costs incurred at the plant that do not vary with plant throughput, and any other costs which cannot be controlled at the plant level. These include such items as wages, salaries and benefits; the cost of maintenance, supplies and repairs; laboratory charges; insurance, property taxes and rent; and other overhead costs. These components can be factored from either the operating labor requirement or the capital cost.

Like capital cost estimations, operating cost estimations, involve a number of distinct steps. Some of the steps associated with the FXOC estimate are conducted exogenous to NEMS (Step 0 below), either by the analyst in preparing the input data or during input data preprocessing. The individual steps in the plant fixed operating cost estimation algorithm are:

0) Estimation of the annual cost of direct operating labor
1) Year-dollar and location adjustment for operating labor costs (OLC)
2) Estimation of total labor-related operating costs (LRC)
3) Estimation of capital-related operating costs (CRC)
4) Convert fixed operating costs to a “per-unit” basis

Step 0 involves several adjustments which must be made prior to input into the NGTDM; steps 1-4 are performed within the NGTDM.

Step 0 – Estimation of Direct Labor Costs
Direct labor costs are reported based on a given processing unit size. Operation and labor costs were provided for plants sited at a generic U.S. Gulf Coast (PADD III) location, and are in 2004 dollars.

Step 1 – Year-Dollar and Location Adjustment for Operating Labor Costs
Before the labor cost data can be utilized, it must be converted via the following steps:

a) Adjust the labor costs from 2004 dollars, first to the year-dollar reported by NEMS using the Nelson-Farrar refining-industry cost-inflation indices. Then the GDP chain-type price indices provided by the NEMS Macroeconomic Activity Model are used to convert from report-year dollars to 1987 dollars used internally by the NEMS (Appendix E, XBM_LABOR).

b) Convert the 1987 operating labor costs from a PADD III (Gulf Coast) basis into regional (other U.S. PADDs) costs using regional location factors. The location multiplier (Appendix E, LABORLOC) represents differences in labor costs between the various locations and includes adjustments for construction labor productivity.

$$CTG\_LABOR = LABORLOC * BM\_LABOR \tag{322}$$

Location multipliers are translated to the NGTDM demand regions.

Step 2 - Estimation of Labor-Related Fixed Operating Costs
Fixed operating costs related to the cost of labor include the salaries and wages of supervisory and other staffing at the plant, charges for laboratory services, and payroll benefits and other plant overhead. These labor-related fixed operating costs (FXOC_LABOR) can be factored from the direct operating labor cost. This relationship is expressed by:

$$FXOC\_STAFF = CTG\_LABOR * CTG\_STAFF\_LCFAC \tag{323}$$

$$\begin{aligned} FXOC\_OH = {} & (CTG\_LABOR + FXOC\_STAFF) \\ & * CTG\_OH\_LCFAC \end{aligned} \tag{324}$$

$$\text{FXOC\_LABOR} = \text{CTG\_LABOR} + \text{FXOC\_STAFF} + \text{FXOC\_OH} \quad (325)$$

where,

FXOC_STAFF = Supervisory and staff salary costs
FXOC_OH = Benefits and overhead

Step 3 - Estimation of Capital-Related Fixed Operating Costs
Capital–related fixed operating costs (FXOC_CAP) include insurance, local taxes, maintenance, supplies, non-labor related plant overhead, and environmental operating costs. These costs can be factored from the fixed capital investment (CTG_FCI). This relationship is expressed by:

$$\text{FXOC\_INS} = \text{CTG\_FCI} * \text{INS\_FAC} \quad (326)$$

$$\text{FXOC\_TAX} = \text{CTG\_FCI} * \text{TAX\_FAC} \quad (327)$$

$$\text{FXOC\_MAINT} = \text{CTG\_FCI} * \text{MAINT\_FAC} \quad (328)$$

$$\text{FXOC\_OTH} = \text{CTG\_FCI} * \text{OTH\_FAC} \quad (329)$$

$$\begin{aligned}\text{FXOC\_CAP} = {} & \text{FXOC\_INS} + \text{FXOC\_TAX} + \\ & \text{FXOC\_MAINT} + \text{FXOC\_OTH}\end{aligned} \quad (330)$$

where,

INS_FAC = Yearly Insurance
TAX_FAC = Local Tax Rate
MAINT_FAC = Yearly Maintenance
OTH_FAC = Yearly Supplies, Overhead, Etc.

Step 4 - Convert Fixed Operating Costs to a "per-capacity" Basis
On a "per-capacity" basis, the FXOC is the sum of capital-related operating costs and labor-related operating costs, divided by the operating capacity of the unit being evaluated.

Mansfield-Blackman Model for Market Penetration
The Mansfield-Blackman model for market penetration has been incorporated to limit excessive growth of CTG (on a national level) once they become economically feasible.[99] The indices associated with this modeling algorithm are user inputs that define the characteristics of the CTG process. They include an innovation index of the industry (Appendix E, CTG_IINDX), the relative profitability of the investment within the industry (Appendix E, CTG_PINDX), the relative size of the investment (per plant) as a percentage of total company value (Appendix E, CTG_SINVST), and a maximum penetration level (total number of units, Appendix E, CTG_BLDX).[100]

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[99] E. Mansfield, "Technical Change and the Rate of Imitation," *Econometrica*, Vol. 29, No. 4 (1961), pp. 741-765. A.W. Blackman, "The Market Dynamics of Technological Substitution," *Technological Forecasting and Social Change*, Vol. 6 (1974), pp. 41-63.

[100] These have been defined in a memorandum from Andy Kydes (EIA) to Han-Lin Lee (EIA), entitled "Development of a model for optimistic growth rates for the coal-to-liquids (CTG) technology in NEMS," dated March 23, 2002.

$$KFAC = -LOG((CTG\_BLDX / NCTGBLT) - 1) \tag{331}$$

$$PHI = -0.3165 + (0.23221 * CTG\_IINDX) + (0.533 * CTG\_PINDX) - (0.027 * CTG\_SINVST) \tag{332}$$

$$SHRBLD = 1/(1 + EXP(-KFAC - (YR * PHI))) \tag{333}$$

$$CTGBND = CTG\_BLDX * SHRBLD \tag{334}$$

where,

CTG_BLDX	=	maximum number of plants allowed
NCTGBLT	=	number of plants already built
SHRBLD	=	the share of the maximum number of plants that can be built in a given year
CTGBND	=	the upper bound on the number of plants to build

Investment Cost Adjustments
To represent cost improvements over time (due to learning), a decline rate (CTG_DCLCAPCST) is applied to the original CTG capital costs after builds begin.

$$CTG\_INVADJ = CTG\_INVBAS * (1 - CTG\_DCLCAPCST)^{(YR - CTG\_BASYR)} \tag{335}$$

where,

CTG_INVBAS	=	the initial CTG investment cost
CTG_BASYR	=	the first year CTG plants are allowed to build
CTG_INVADJ	=	the adjusted CTG investment cost

However, once the capacity builds exceed 1.1 bcf/day, a supplemental algorithm is applied to increase costs in response to impending resource depletions (such as competition for water).[101]

$$CTG\_CSTADD = 15 * TANH(0.4 * (MAX(0, (CTGPRODC / 1127308) - 1))) \tag{336}$$

where,

CTGPRODC	=	current CTG production
CTG_CSTADD	=	the additional cost

[101] The basic algorithm is defined in a memorandum from Andy Kydes (EIA) to William Brown (EIA), entitled "CTL run-- add to total CTLCST in ADJCTLCST sub," dated September 29, 2006.

DOE/EIA-M063(2011)

Documentation of the Oil and Gas Supply Module (OGSM)

July 2011

Office of Energy Analysis
U.S. Energy Information Administration
U.S. Department of Energy
Washington, DC 20585

Update Information

This edition of the *Documentation of the Oil and Gas Supply Module* reflects changes made to the oil and gas supply module over the past year for the *Annual Energy Outlook 2011*. The major changes include:

- Texas Railroad Commission District 5 is included in the Southwest region instead of the Gulf Coast region.
- Re-estimation of Lower 48 onshore exploration and development costs.
- Updates to crude oil and natural gas resource estimates for emerging shale plays.
- Addition of play-level resource assumptions for tight gas, shale gas, and coalbed methane (Appendix 2.C).
- Updates to the assumptions used for the announced/nonproducing offshore discoveries.
- Revision of the North Slope New Field Wildcat (NFW) exploration wells drilling rate function. The NFW drilling rate is a function of the low-sulfur light projected crude oil prices and was statically estimated based on Alaska Oil and Gas Conservation Commission well counts and success rates.
- Recalibration of the Alaska oil and gas well drilling and completion costs based on the 2007 American Petroleum Institute Joint Association Survey drilling cost data.
- Updates to oil shale plant configuration, cost of capital calculation, and market penetration algorithms.
- Addition of natural gas processing and coal-to-liquids plants as anthropogenic sources of carbon dioxide (CO_2).

Contents

Tables

Figures

1. Introduction

The purpose of this report is to define the objectives of the Oil and Gas Supply Module (OGSM), to describe the model's basic approach, and to provide detail on how the model works. This report is intended as a reference document for model analysts, users, and the public. It is prepared in accordance with the U.S. Energy Information Administration's (EIA) legal obligation to provide adequate documentation in support of its statistical and forecast reports (Public Law 93-275, Section 57(b)(2)).

Projected production estimates of U.S. crude oil and natural gas are based on supply functions generated endogenously within the National Energy Modeling System (NEMS) by the OGSM. The OGSM encompasses both conventional and unconventional domestic crude oil and natural gas supply. Crude oil and natural gas projections are further disaggregated by geographic region. The OGSM projects U.S. domestic oil and gas supply for six Lower 48 onshore regions, three offshore regions, and Alaska. The general methodology relies on forecasted profitability to determine exploratory and developmental drilling levels for each region and fuel type. These projected drilling levels translate into reserve additions, as well as a modification of the production capacity for each region.

The OGSM utilizes both exogenous input data and data from other modules within the NEMS. The primary exogenous inputs are resource levels, finding-rate parameters, costs, production profiles, and tax rates - all of which are critical determinants of the expected returns from projected drilling activities. Regional projections of natural gas wellhead prices and production are provided by the Natural Gas Transmission and Distribution Module (NGTDM). Projections of the crude oil wellhead prices at the OGSM regional level come from the Petroleum Market Model (PMM). Important economic factors, namely interest rates and GDP deflators, flow to the OGSM from the Macroeconomic Module. Controlling information (e.g., forecast year) and expectations information (e.g., expected price paths) come from the Integrating Module (i.e. system module).

Outputs from the OGSM go to other oil and gas modules (NGTDM and PMM) and to other modules of the NEMS. To equilibrate supply and demand in the given year, the NGTDM employs short-term supply functions (with the parameters provided by the OGSM) to determine non-associated gas production and natural gas imports. Crude oil production is determined within the OGSM using short-term supply functions. These short-term supply functions reflect potential oil or gas flows to the market for a 1-year period. The gas functions are used by the NGTDM and the oil volumes are used by the PMM for the determination of equilibrium prices and quantities of crude oil and natural gas at the wellhead. The OGSM also provides projections of natural gas production to the PMM to estimate the corresponding level of natural gas liquids production. Other NEMS modules receive projections of selected OGSM variables for various uses. Oil and gas production is passed to the Integrating Module for reporting purposes. Forecasts of oil and gas production are also provided to the Macroeconomic Module to assist in forecasting aggregate measures of output.

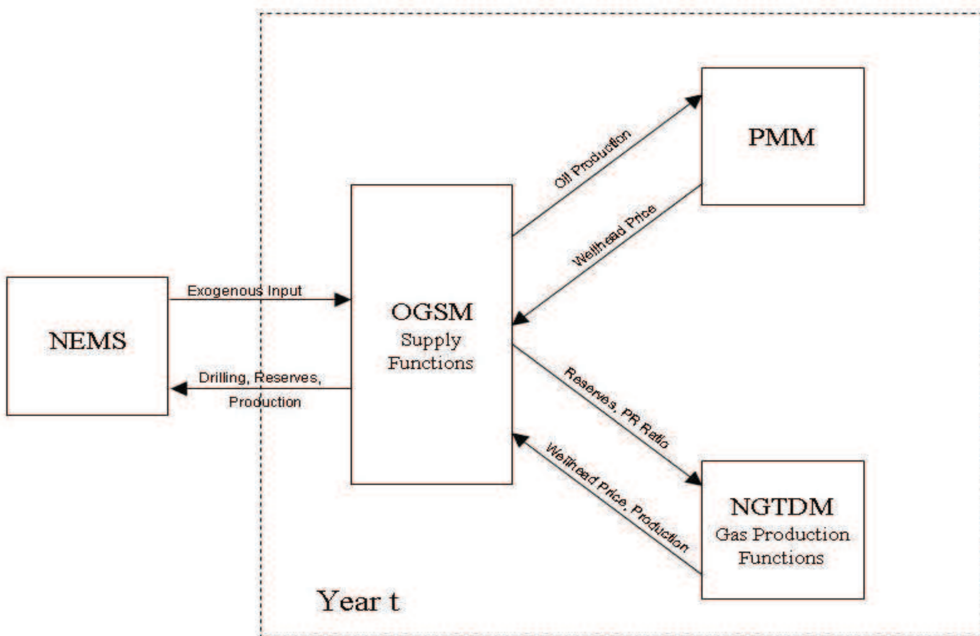
The OGSM is archived as part of the NEMS. The archival package of the NEMS is located under the model acronym NEMS2011. The NEMS version documented is that used to produce the *Annual Energy Outlook 2011 (AEO2011)*. The package is available on the EIA website.[1]

Model Purpose

The OGSM is a comprehensive framework used to analyze oil and gas supply potential and related issues. Its primary function is to produce domestic projections of crude oil and natural gas production as well as natural gas imports and exports in response to price data received endogenously (within the NEMS) from the NGTDM and PMM. Projected natural gas and crude oil wellhead prices are determined within the NGTDM and PMM, respectively. As the supply component only, the OGSM cannot project prices, which are the outcome of the equilibration of both demand and supply.

The basic interaction between the OGSM and the other oil and gas modules is represented in Figure 1-1. The OGSM provides beginning-of-year reserves and the production-to-reserves ratio to the NGTDM for use in its short-term domestic non-associated gas production functions and associated-dissolved natural gas production. The interaction of supply and demand in the NGTDM determines non-associated gas production.

Figure 1-1. OGSM Interface with Other Oil and Gas Modules



[1] ftp://ftp.eia.doe.gov/pub/forecasts/aeo/

The OGSM provides domestic crude oil production to the PMM. The interaction of supply and demand in the PMM determines the level of imports. System control information (e.g., forecast year) and expectations (e.g., expect price paths) come from the Integrating Module. Major exogenous inputs include resource levels, finding-rate parameters, costs, production profiles, and tax rates -- all of which are critical determinants of the oil and gas supply outlook of the OGSM.

The OGSM operates on a regionally disaggregated level, further differentiated by fuel type. The basic geographic regions are Lower 48 onshore, Lower 48 offshore, and Alaska, each of which, in turn, is divided into a number of subregions (see Figure 1-2). The primary fuel types are crude oil and natural gas, which are further disaggregated based on type of deposition, method of extraction, or geologic formation. Crude oil supply includes lease condensate. Natural gas is differentiated by non-associated and associated-dissolved gas.[2] Non-associated natural gas is categorized by fuel type: low-permeability carbonate and sandstone (conventional), high-permeability carbonate and sandstone (tight gas), shale gas, and coalbed methane.

The OGSM provides mid-term (through year 2035) projections and serves as an analytical tool for the assessment of alternative supply policies. One publication that utilizes OGSM forecasts is the *Annual Energy Outlook (AEO)*. Analytical issues that OGSM can address involve policies that affect the profitability of drilling through impacts on certain variables, including:

- drilling and production costs;
- regulatory or legislatively mandated environmental costs;
- key taxation provisions such as severance taxes, State or Federal income taxes, depreciation schedules and tax credits; and
- the rate of penetration for different technologies into the industry by fuel type.

The cash flow approach to the determination of drilling levels enables the OGSM to address some financial issues. In particular, the treatment of financial resources within the OGSM allows for explicit consideration of the financial aspects of upstream capital investment in the petroleum industry.

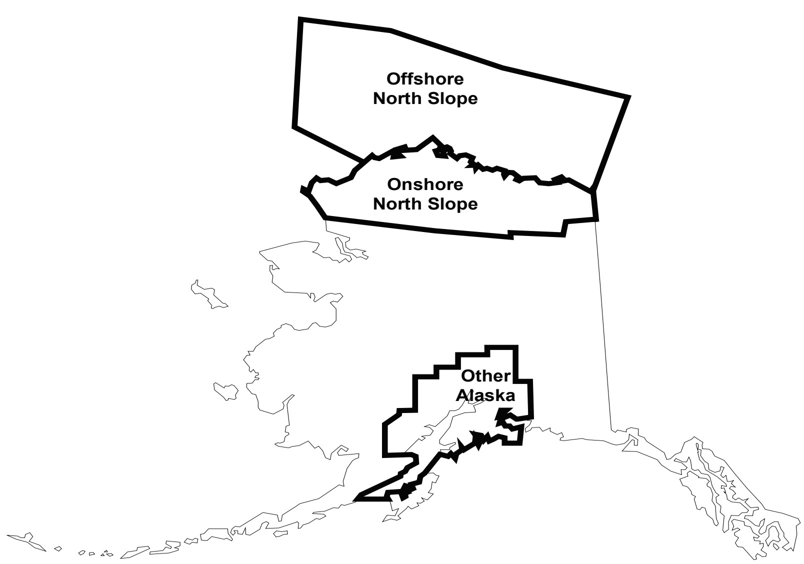
The OGSM is also useful for policy analysis of resource base issues. OGSM analysis is based on explicit estimates for technically recoverable oil and gas resources for each of the sources of domestic production (i.e., geographic region/fuel type combinations). With some modification, this feature could allow the model to be used for the analysis of issues involving:

- the uncertainty surrounding the technically recoverable oil and gas resource estimates, and
- access restrictions on much of the offshore Lower 48 states, the wilderness areas of the onshore Lower 48 states, and the 1002 Study Area of the Arctic National Wildlife Refuge (ANWR).

[2]Nonassociated (NA) natural gas is gas not in contact with significant quantities of crude oil in a reservoir. Associated-dissolved natural gas consists of the combined volume of natural gas that occurs in crude oil reservoirs either as free gas (associated) or as gas in solution with crude oil (dissolved).

In general, the OGSM is used to foster a better understanding of the integral role that the oil and gas extraction industry plays with respect to the entire oil and gas industry, the energy subsector of the U.S. economy, and the total U.S. economy.

Figure 1-2. Oil and Gas Supply Regions

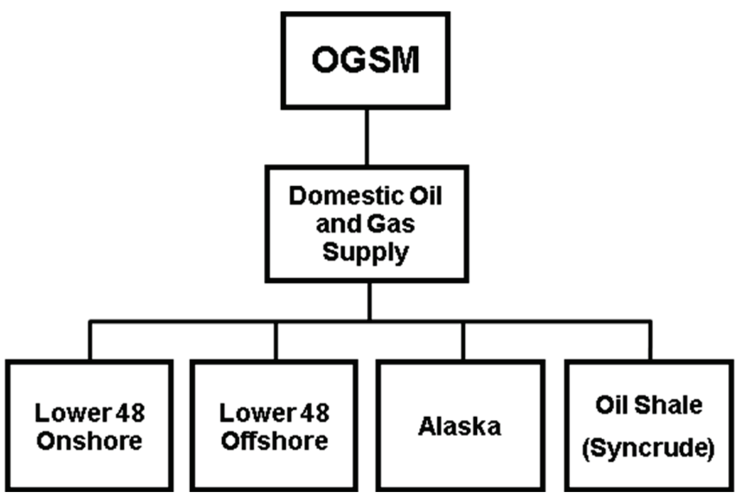


Model Structure

The OGSM consists of a set of submodules (Figure 1-3) and is used to perform supply analysis of domestic oil and gas as part of the NEMS. The OGSM provides crude oil production and parameter estimates representing natural gas supplies by selected fuel types on a regional basis to support the market equilibrium determination conducted within other modules of the NEMS. The oil and gas supplies in each period are balanced against the regionally-derived demand for the produced fuels to solve simultaneously for the market clearing prices and quantities in the wellhead and end-use markets. The description of the market analysis models may be found in the separate methodology documentation reports for the Petroleum Market Module (PMM) and the Natural Gas Transmission and Distribution Model (NGTDM).

The OGSM represents the activities of firms that produce oil and natural gas from domestic fields throughout the United States. The OGSM encompasses domestic crude oil and natural gas supply by both conventional and unconventional recovery techniques. Natural gas is categorized by fuel type: high-permeability carbonate and sandstone (conventional), low-permeability carbonate and sandstone (tight gas), shale gas, and coalbed methane. Unconventional oil includes production of synthetic crude from oil shale (syncrude). Crude oil and natural gas projections are further disaggregated by geographic region. Liquefied natural gas (LNG) imports and pipeline natural gas import/export trade with Canada and Mexico are determined in the NGTDM.

Figure 1-3. Submodules within the Oil and Gas Supply Module



The model's methodology is shaped by the basic principle that the level of investment in a specific activity is determined largely by its expected profitability. Output prices influence oil and gas supplies in distinctly different ways in the OGSM. Quantities supplied as the result of the annual market equilibration in the PMM and the NGTDM are determined as a direct result of the observed market price in that period. Longer-term supply responses are related to investments required for subsequent production of oil and gas. Output prices affect the expected profitability of these investment opportunities as determined by use of a discounted cash flow evaluation of representative prospects. The OGSM incorporates a complete and representative description of the processes by which oil and gas in the technically recoverable resource base[3] convert to proved reserves.[4]

The breadth of supply processes that are encompassed within OGSM result in different methodological approaches for determining crude oil and natural gas production from Lower 48 onshore, Lower 48 offshore, Alaska, and oil shale. The present OGSM consequently comprises four submodules. The Onshore Lower 48 Oil and Gas Supply Submodule (OLOGSS) models crude oil and natural gas supply from resources in the Lower 48 States. The Offshore Oil and Gas Supply Submodule (OOGSS) models oil and gas exploration and development in the offshore Gulf of Mexico, Pacific, and Atlantic regions. The Alaska Oil and Gas Supply Submodule (AOGSS) models industry supply activity in Alaska. Oil shale (synthetic) is modeled in the Oil Shale Supply Submodule (OSSS). The distinctions of each submodule are explained in individual chapters covering methodology. Following the methodology chapters, four appendices are included: Appendix A provides a description of the discounted cash flow (DCF) calculation; Appendix B is the bibliography; Appendix C contains a model abstract; and Appendix D is an inventory of key output variables.

[3] *Technically recoverable resources* are those volumes considered to be producible with current recovery technology and efficiency but without reference to economic viability. Technically recoverable volumes include proved reserves and inferred reserves as well as undiscovered and other unproved resources. These resources may be recoverable by techniques considered either conventional or unconventional.

[4] *Proved reserves* are the estimated quantities that analyses of geological and engineering data demonstrate with reasonable certainty to be recoverable in future years from known reservoirs under existing economic and operating conditions.

2. Onshore Lower 48 Oil and Gas Supply Submodule

Introduction

U.S. onshore lower 48 crude oil and natural gas supply projections are determined by the Onshore Lower 48 Oil and Gas Supply Submodule (OLOGSS). The general methodology relies on a detailed economic analysis of potential projects in known crude oil and natural gas fields, enhanced oil recovery projects, developing natural gas plays, and undiscovered crude oil and natural gas resources. The projects that are economically viable are developed subject to the availability of resource development constraints which simulate the existing and expected infrastructure of the oil and gas industries. The economic production from the developed projects is aggregated to the regional and the national levels.

OLOGSS utilizes both exogenous input data and data from other modules within the National Energy Modeling System (NEMS). The primary exogenous data includes technical production for each project considered, cost and development constraint data, tax information, and project development data. Regional projections of natural wellhead prices and production are provided by the Natural Gas Transmission and Distribution Model (NGTDM). From the Petroleum Market Module (PMM) come projections of the crude oil wellhead prices at the OGSM regional level.

Model Purpose

OLOGSS is a comprehensive model with which to analyze the crude oil and natural gas supply potential and related economic issues. Its primary purpose is to project production of crude oil and natural gas from the onshore lower 48 in response to price data received from the PMM and the NGTDM. As a supply submodule, OLOGSS does not project prices.

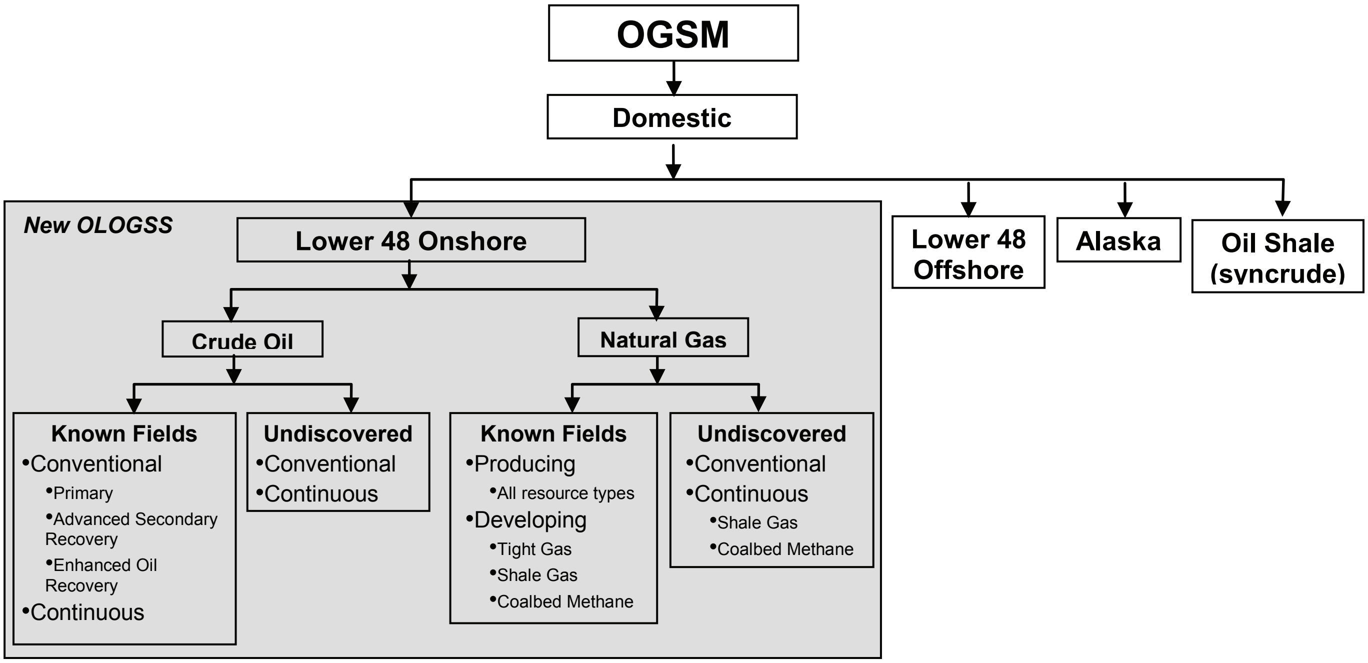
The basic interaction between OLOGSS and the OGSM is illustrated in figure 2-1. As seen in the figure, OLOGSS models the entirety of the domestic crude oil and natural gas production within the onshore lower 48.

Resources Modeled

Crude Oil Resources

Crude oil resources, as illustrated in figure 2-1, are divided into known fields and undiscovered fields. For known resources, exogenous production type curves are used for quantifying the technical production profiles from known fields under primary, secondary, and tertiary recovery processes. Primary resources are also quantified for their advanced secondary recovery (ASR) processes that include the following: waterflooding, infill drilling, horizontal continuity, and horizontal profile modification. Known resources are evaluated for the potential they may possess when employing enhanced oil recovery (EOR) processes such as CO_2 flooding, steam flooding, polymer flooding and profile modification. Known crude oil resources include highly fractured continuous zones such as the Austin chalk formations and the Bakken shale formations.

Figure 2-1: Subcomponents within OGSM



Undiscovered crude oil resources are characterized in a method similar to that used for discovered resources and are evaluated for their potential production from primary and secondary techniques. The potential from an undiscovered resource is defined based on United States Geological Survey (USGS) estimates and is distinguished as either conventional or continuous. Conventional crude oil and natural gas resources are defined as discrete fields with well-defined hydrocarbon-water contacts, where the hydrocarbons are buoyant on a column of water. Conventional resources commonly have relatively high permeability and obvious seals and traps. In contrast, continuous resources commonly are regional in extent, have diffuse boundaries, and are not buoyant on a column of water. Continuous resources have very low permeability, do not have obvious seals and traps, are in close proximity to source rocks, and are abnormally pressured. Included in the category of continuous accumulations are hydrocarbons that occur in tight reservoirs, shale reservoirs, fractured reservoirs, and coal beds.

Natural Gas Resources

Natural gas resources, as illustrated in figure 2-1, are divided into known producing fields, developing natural gas plays, and undiscovered fields. Exogenous production type curves have been used to estimate the technical production from known fields. The undiscovered resources have been characterized based on resource estimates developed by the USGS. Existing databases of developing plays, such as the Marcellus Shale, have been incorporated into the model's resource base. The natural gas resource estimates have been developed from detailed geological characterizations of producing plays.

Processes Modeled

OLOGSS models primary, secondary and tertiary oil recovery processes. For natural gas, OLOGSS models discovered and undiscovered fields, as well as discovered and developing fields. Table 2-1 lists the processes modeled by OLOGSS.

Table 2-1: Processes Modeled by OLOGSS

Crude Oil Processes	Natural Gas Processes
Existing Fields and Reservoirs	Existing Radial Flow
Waterflooding in Undiscovered Resources	Existing Water Drive
CO_2 Flooding	Existing Tight Sands
Steam Flooding	Existing Dry Coal/Shale
Polymer Flooding	Existing Wet Coal/Shale
Infill Drilling	Undiscovered Conventional
Profile Modification	Undiscovered Tight Gas
Horizontal Continuity	Undiscovered Coalbed Methane
Horizontal Profile	Undiscovered Shale Gas
Undiscovered Conventional	Developing Shale Gas
Undiscovered Continuous	Developing Coalbed Methane
	Developing Tight Gas

Major Enhancements

OLOGSS is a play-level model that projects the crude oil and natural gas supply from the onshore lower 48. The modeling procedure includes a comprehensive assessment method for determining the relative economics of various prospects based on future financial considerations, the nature of the undiscovered and discovered resources, prevailing risk factors, and the available technologies. The model evaluates the economics of future exploration and development from the perspective of an operator making an investment decision. Technological advances, including improved drilling and completion practices, as well as advanced production and processing operations are explicitly modeled to determine the direct impacts on supply, reserves, and various economic parameters. The model is able to evaluate the impact of research and development (R&D) on supply and reserves. Furthermore, the model design provides the flexibility to evaluate alternative or new taxes, environmental, or other policy changes in a consistent and comprehensive manner.

OLOGSS provides a variety of levers that allow the user to model developments affecting the profitability of development:

- Development of new technologies
- Rate of market penetration of new technologies
- Costs to implement new technologies
- Impact of new technologies on capital and operating costs
- Regulatory or legislative environmental mandates

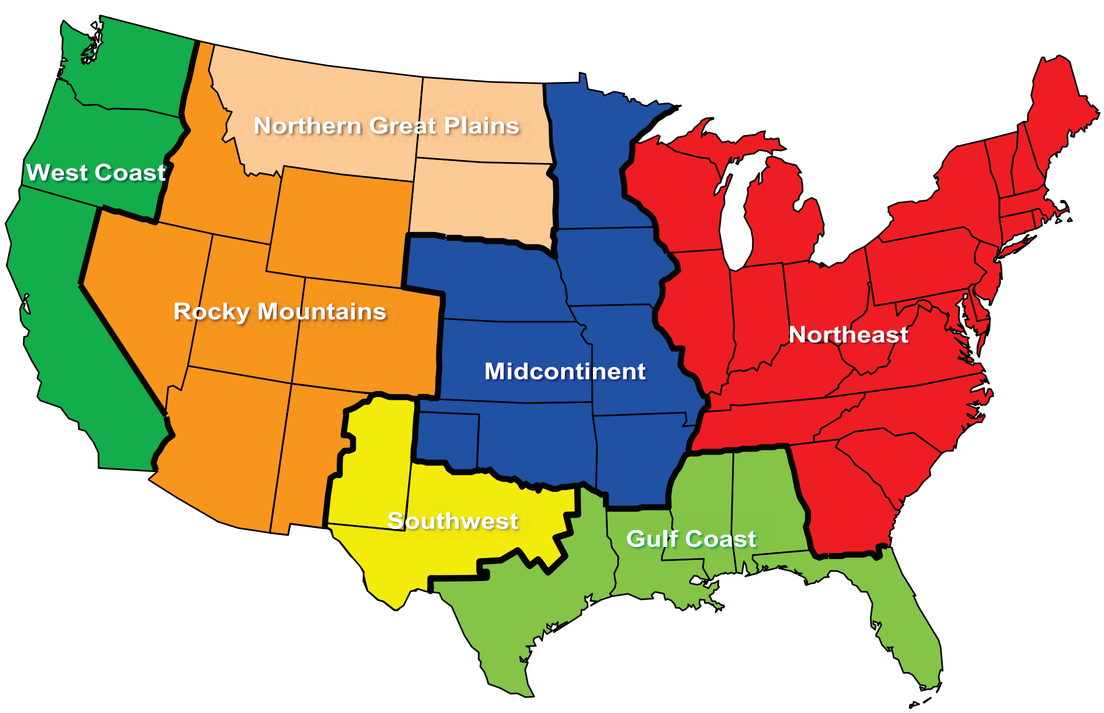
In addition, OLOGSS can quantify the effects of hypothetical developments that affect the resource base. OLOGSS is based on explicit estimates for technically recoverable crude oil and natural gas resources for each source of domestic production (i.e., geographic region/fuel type combinations).

OLOGSS is capable of addressing access issues concerning crude oil and natural gas resources located on federal lands. Undiscovered resources are divided into four categories:

- Officially inaccessible
- Inaccessible due to development constraints
- Accessible with federal lease stipulations
- Accessible under standard lease terms

OLOGSS uses the same geographical regions as the OGSM with one distinction. In order to capture the regional differences in costs and drilling activities in the Rocky Mountain region, the region has been divided into two sub-regions. These regions, along with the original six, are illustrated in figure 2-2. The Rocky Mountain region has been split to add the Northern Great Plains region. The results for these regions are aggregated before being passed to other OGSM or NEMS routines.

Figure 2-2: Seven OLOGSS Regions for Onshore Lower 48



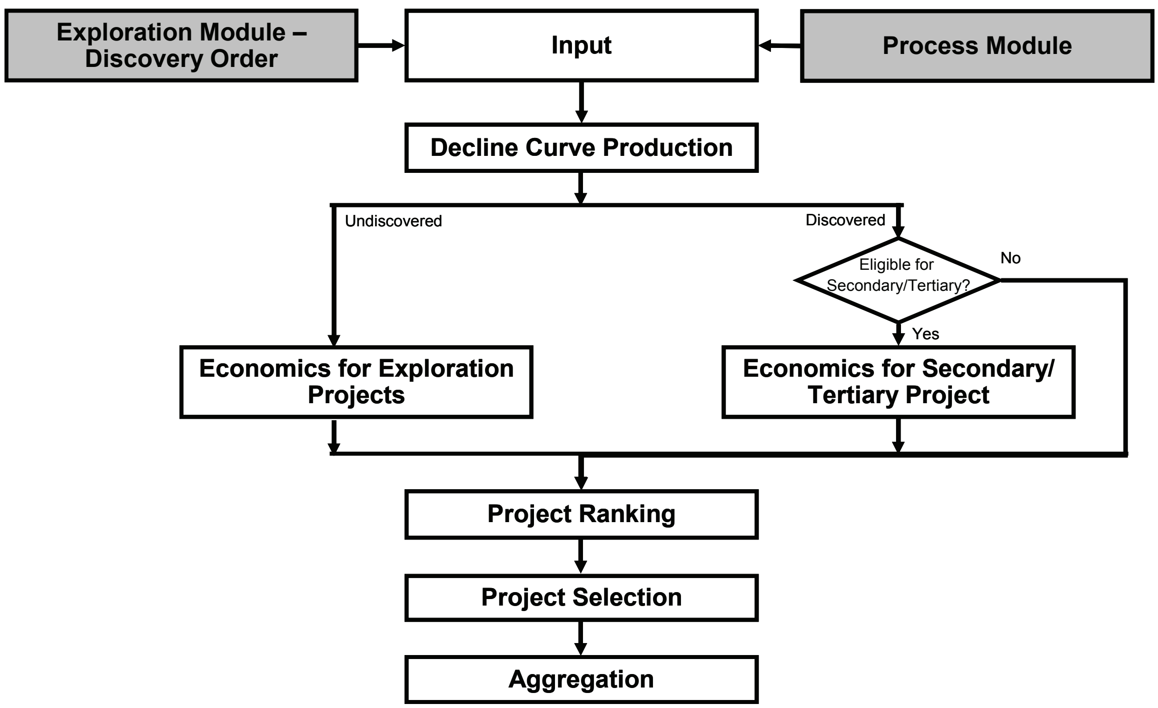
Model Structure

The OLOGSS projects the annual crude oil and natural gas production from existing fields, reserves growth, and exploration. It performs economic evaluation of the projects and ranks the reserves growth and exploration projects for development in a way designed to mimic the way decisions are made by the oil and gas industry. Development decisions and project selection depend upon economic viability and the competition for capital, drilling, and other available development constraints. Finally, the model aggregates production and drilling statistics using geographical and resource categories.

Overall System Logic

Figure 2-3 provides the overall system logic for the OLOGSS timing and economic module. This is the only component of OLOGSS which is integrated into NEMS.

Figure 2-3: OLOGSS Timing Module Overall System Logic



As seen in the figure, there are two primary sources of resource data. The exploration module provides the well-level technical production from the undiscovered projects which may be discovered in the next thirty years. It also determines the discovery order in which the projects will be evaluated by OLOGSS. The process module calculates the well-level technical production from known crude oil and natural gas fields, EOR and advanced secondary recovery (ASR) projects, and developing natural gas plays.

OLOGSS determines the potential domestic production in three phases. As seen in Figure 2-3, the first phase is the evaluation of the known crude oil and natural gas fields using a decline curve analysis. As part of the analysis, each project is subject to a detailed economic analysis used to determine the economic viability and expected life span of the project. In addition, the model applies regional factors used for history matching and resource base coverage. The remaining resources are categorized as either exploration or EOR/ASR. Each year, the exploration projects are subject to economic analysis which determines their economic viability and profitability.

For the EOR/ASR projects, development eligibility is determined before the economic analysis is conducted. The eligibility is based upon the economic life span of the corresponding decline curve project and the process-specific eligibility window. If a project is not currently eligible, it will be re-evaluated in future years. The projects which are eligible are subject to the same type of economic analysis applied to existing and exploration projects in order to determine the viability and relative profitability of the project.

After the economics have been determined for each eligible project, the projects are sorted. The exploration projects maintain their discovery order. The EOR/ASR projects are sorted by their relative profitability. The finalized lists are then considered by the project selection routines.

A project will be selected for development only if it is economically viable and if there are sufficient development resources available to meet the project's requirements. Development resource constraints are used to simulate limits on the availability of infrastructure related to the oil and gas industries. If sufficient resources are not available for an economic project, the project will be reconsidered in future years if it remains economically viable. Other development options are considered in this step, including the waterflooding of undiscovered conventional resources and the extension of CO_2 floods through an increase in total pore volume injected.

The production, reserves, and other key parameters for the timed and developed projects are aggregated at the regional and national levels.

The remainder of this document provides additional details on the logic and particular calculations for each of these steps. These include the decline analysis, economic analysis, timing decisions, project selection, constraints, and modeling of technology.

Known Fields

In this step, the production from existing crude oil and natural gas projects is estimated. A detailed economic analysis is conducted in order to calculate the economically viable production as well as the expected life of each project. The project life is used to determine when a project becomes eligible for EOR and ASR processes.

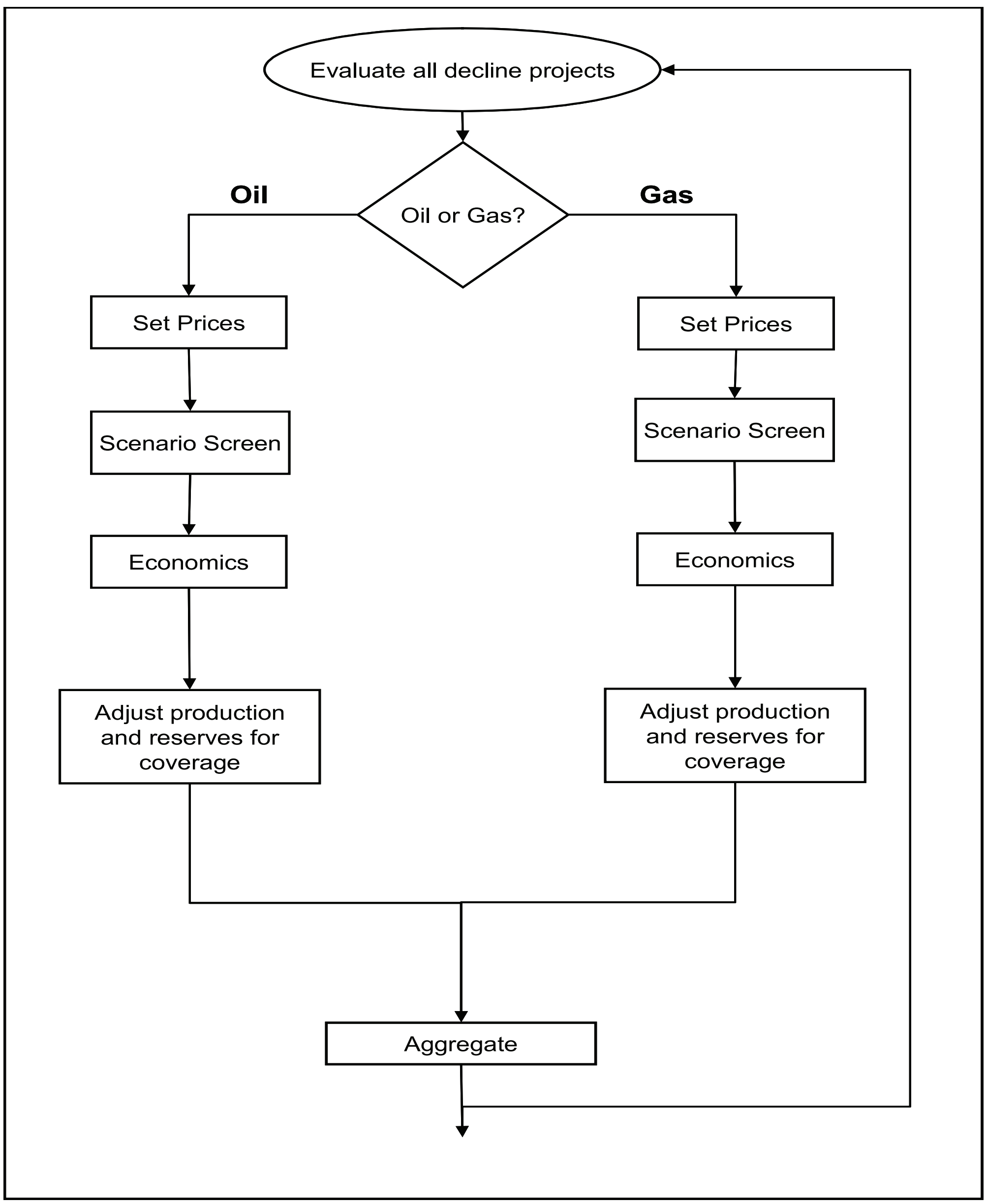
The logic for this process is provided in figure 2-4. For each crude oil project, regional prices are set and the project is screened to determine whether the user has specified any technology and/or economic levers. The screening considers factors including region, process, depth, and several other petro-physical properties. After applicable levers are determined, the project undergoes a detailed economic analysis.

After the analysis, resource coverage factors are applied to the economic production and reserves, and the project results are aggregated at the regional and national levels. In a final step, key parameters including the economic lifespan of the project are stored. A similar process is applied to the existing natural gas fields and reservoirs.

Resource coverage factors are applied in the model to ensure that historical production from existing fields matches that reported by EIA. These factors are calculated at the regional level and applied to production data for the following resources:

- Crude oil (includes lease condensates)
- High-permeability natural gas
- Coalbed methane
- Shale gas
- Tight gas

Figure 2-4: Decline Process Flowchart



Economics

Project Costs

OLOGSS conducts the economic analysis of each project using regional crude oil and natural gas prices. After these prices are set, the model evaluates the base and advanced technology cases for the project. The base case is defined as the current technology and cost scenario for the project; while the advanced case includes technology and/or cost improvements associated with the application of model levers. It is important to note that these cases – for which the assumption are applied to data for the project – are not the same as the *AEO* low, reference, or high technology cases.

For each technology case, the necessary petro-physical properties and other project data are set, the regional dryhole rates are determined, and the process specific depreciation schedule is assigned. The capital and operating costs for the project are then calculated and aggregated for both the base and advanced technology cases.

In the next step, a standard cashflow analysis is conducted, the discounted rate of return is calculated, and the ranking criteria are set for the project. Afterwards, the number and type of wells required for the project, and the last year of actual economic production are set. Finally, the economic variables, including production, development requirements, and other parameters, are stored for project timing and aggregation. All of these steps are illustrated in figure 2-5.

The details of the calculations used in conducting the economic analysis of a project are provided in the following description.

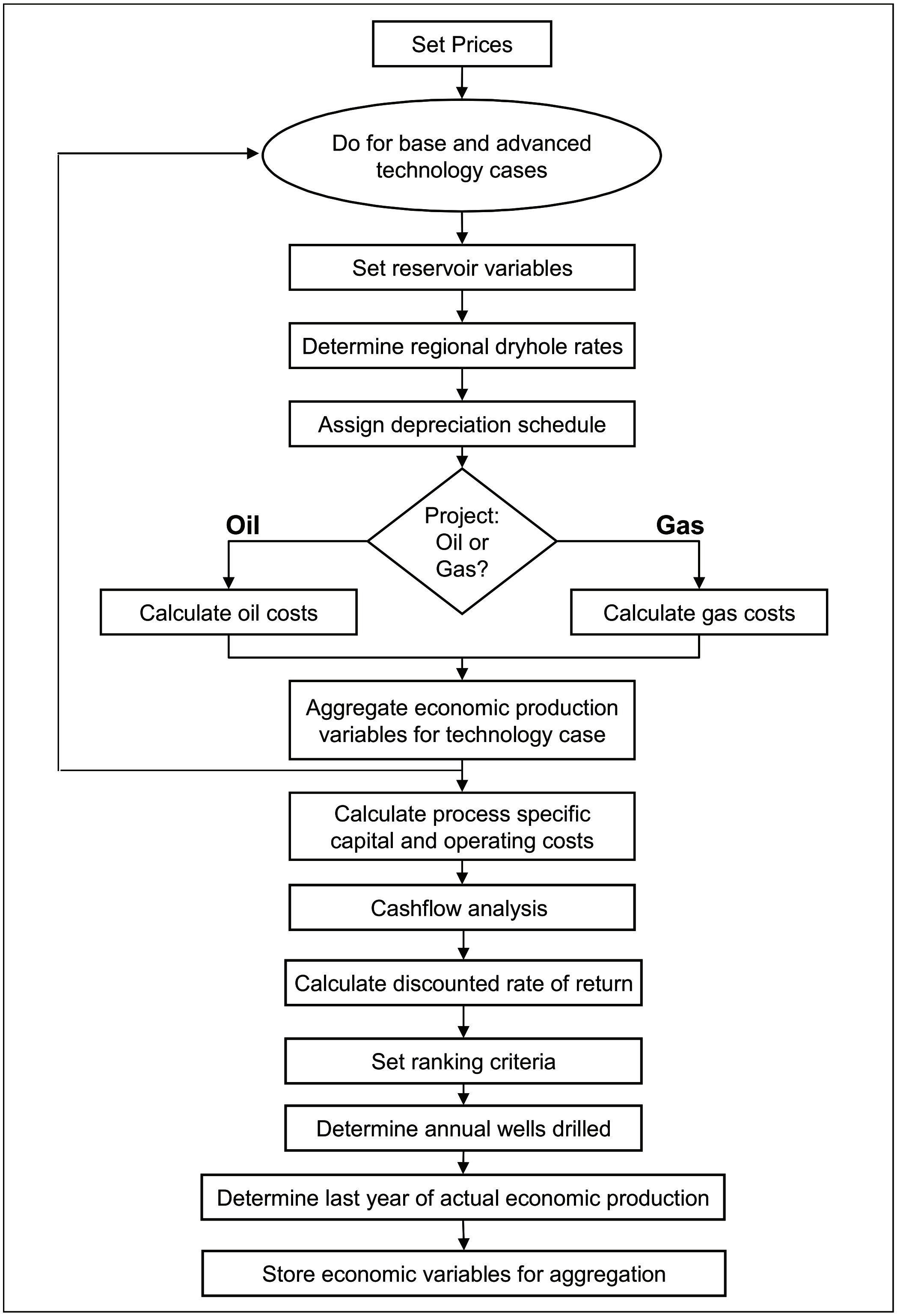
Determine the project shift: The first step is to determine the number of years the project development is shifted, i.e., the numbers of years between the discovery of a project and the start of its development. This will be used to determine the crude oil and natural gas price shift. The number of years is dependent upon both the development schedule – when the project drilling begins – and upon the process.

Determine annual prices: Determine the annual prices used in evaluating the project. Crude oil and natural gas prices in each year use the average price for the previous 5 years.

Begin analysis of base and advanced technology: To capture the impacts of technological improvements on both production and economics, the model divides the project into two categories. The first category – base technology – does not include improvements associated with technology or economic levers. The second category – advanced technology – incorporates the impact of the levers. The division of the project depends on the market penetration algorithm of any applicable technologies.

Determine the dryhole rate for the project: Assigns the regional dryhole rates for undiscovered exploration, undiscovered development, and discovered development. Three types of dryhole rates are used in the model: development in known fields and reservoirs, the first (wildcat) well in an exploration project, and subsequent wells in an exploration project. Specific dryhole rates are used for horizontal drilling and the developing natural gas resources.

Figure 2-5: Economic Analysis Logic



In the advanced case, the dryhole rates may also incorporate technology improvements associated with exploration or drilling success.

$$REGDRYUE_{im} = \left(\frac{SUCEXP_{im}}{100}\right) * \left(1.0 - DRILL\_FAC_{itech}\right) * EXPLR\_FAC_{itech} \tag{2-1}$$

$$REGDRYUD_{im} = \left(\frac{SUCEXPD_{im}}{100}\right) * \left(1.0 - DRILL\_FAC_{itech}\right) \tag{2-2}$$

$$REGDRYKD_{im} = \left(\frac{SUCDEVE_{im}}{100}\right) * \left(1.0 - DRILL\_FAC_{itech}\right) \tag{2-3}$$

If evaluating horizontal continuity or horizontal profile, then,

$$REGDRYKD_{im} = \left(\frac{SUCCHDEV_{im}}{100}\right) * \left(1.0 - DRILL\_FAC_{itech}\right) \tag{2-4}$$

If evaluating developing natural gas resources, then,

$$REGDRYUD_{im} = ALATNUM_{ires} * \left(1.0 - DRILL\_FAC_{itech}\right) \tag{2-5}$$

where

ITECH	=	Technology case number
IM	=	Region number
REGDRYUE	=	Project specific dryhole rate for undiscovered exploration (Wildcat)
REGDRYUD	=	Project specific dryhole rate for undiscovered development
REGDRYKD	=	Project specific dryhole rate for known field development
SUCEXPD	=	Regional dryhole rate for undiscovered development
ALATNUM	=	Variable representing the regional dryhole rate for known field development
SUCDEVE	=	Regional dryhole rate for undiscovered exploration (Wildcat)
SUCCDEVH	=	Dryhole rate for horizontal drilling
DRILL_FAC	=	Technology lever applied to dryhole rate
EXPLR_FAC	=	Technology factor applied to exploratory dryhole rate

Process specific depreciation schedule: The default depreciation schedule is based on an eight-year declining balance depreciation method. The user may select process-specific depreciation schedules for CO2 flooding, steam flooding, or water flooding in the input file.

Calculate the capital and operating costs for the project: The project costs are calculated for each technology case. The costs are specific to crude oil or natural gas resources. The results of the cost calculations, which include technical crude oil and natural gas production, as well as drilling costs, facilities costs, and operating costs, are then aggregated to the project level.

G & G factor: Calculates the geological and geophysical (G&G) factor for each technology case. This is added to the first year cost.

$$GG_{\text{itech}} = GG_{itech} + DRL\_CST_{itech} * INTANG\_M_{itech} * GG\_FAC \qquad (2\text{-}6)$$

where

GG_{itech}	=	Geophysical and Geological costs for the first year of the project
DRL_CST_{itech}	=	Total drilling cost for the first year of the project
$INTANG\_M_{itech}$	=	Energy Elasticity factor for intangible investments (first year)
GG_FAC	=	Portion of exploratory costs that is G&G costs

After the variables are aggregated, the technology case loop ends. At this point, the process specific capital costs, which apply to the entire project instead of the technology case, are calculated.

Cashflow Analysis: The model then conducts a cashflow analysis on the project and calculates the discounted rate of return. Economic Analysis is conducted using a standard cashflow routine described in Appendix A.

Calculate the discounted rate of return: Determines the projected rate of return for all investments and production. The cumulative investments and discounted after tax cashflow are used to calculate the investment efficiency for the project.

Calculate wells: The annual number of new and existing wells is calculated for the project. The model tracks five drilling categories:

- New production wells drilled
- New injection wells drilled
- Active production wells
- Active injection wells
- Shut in wells

The calculation of the annual well count depends on the number of existing production and injection wells as well as on the process and project-specific requirements to complete each drilling pattern developed.

Determine number of years a project is economic: The model calculates the last year of actual economic production. This is based on both the results of the cashflow analysis and the annual production in year specified by the analysis. The last year of production is used to determine the aggregation range to be used if the project is selected for development.

If the project is economic only in the first year, it will be considered uneconomic and unavailable for development at that time. If this occurs for an existing crude oil or natural gas project, the model will assume that all of the wells will be shut in.

Non-producing decline project: Determines if the existing crude oil or natural gas project is non-producing. If there is no production, then the end point for project aggregation is not calculated. This check applies only to the existing crude oil and natural gas projects

Ranking criteria: Ranks investment efficiency based on the discounted after tax cashflow over tangible and intangible investments.

Determine ranking criterion: The ranking criterion, specified by the user, is the parameter by which the projects will be sorted before development. Ranking criteria options include the project net present value, the rate of return for the project, and the investment efficiency.

Calculating Unit Costs

To conduct the cost analysis, the model calculates price adjustment factors as well as unit costs for all required capital and operating costs. Unit costs include the cost of drilling and completing a single well, producing one barrel of crude oil, or operating one well for a year. These costs are adjusted using the technology levers and CPI indices. After the development schedule for the project is determined and the economic life of a single well is calculated, the technical production and injection are determined for the project. Based on the project's development schedule and the technical production, the annual capital and operating costs are determined. In the final step, the process and resource specific capital and operating costs are calculated for the project. These steps are illustrated in figure 2-6.

The Onshore Lower 48 Oil and Gas Supply Submodule uses detailed project costs for economic calculations. There are three broad categories of costs used by the model: capital costs, operating costs, and other costs. These costs are illustrated in figure 2-7. Capital costs encompass the costs of drilling and equipment necessary for the production of crude oil and natural gas resources. Operating costs are used to calculate the full life cycle economics of the project. Operating costs consist of normal daily expenses and surface maintenance. Other cost parameters include royalty, state and federal taxes, and other required schedules and factors.

The calculations for capital costs and operating costs for both crude oil and natural gas are described in detail below. The capital and operating costs are used in the timing and economic module to calculate the lifecycle economics for all crude oil and natural gas projects.

There are two categories for these costs: costs that are applied to all processes, thus defined as *resource independent*, and the process-specific costs, or *resource dependent* costs. Resource dependent costs are used to calculate the economics for existing, reserves growth, and exploration projects. The capital costs for both crude oil and natural gas are calculated first, followed by the resource independent costs, and then the resource dependent costs.

The resource independent and resource dependent costs applied to each of the crude oil and natural gas processes are detailed in tables 2-2 and 2-3 respectively.

Figure 2-6: Project Cost Calculation Procedure

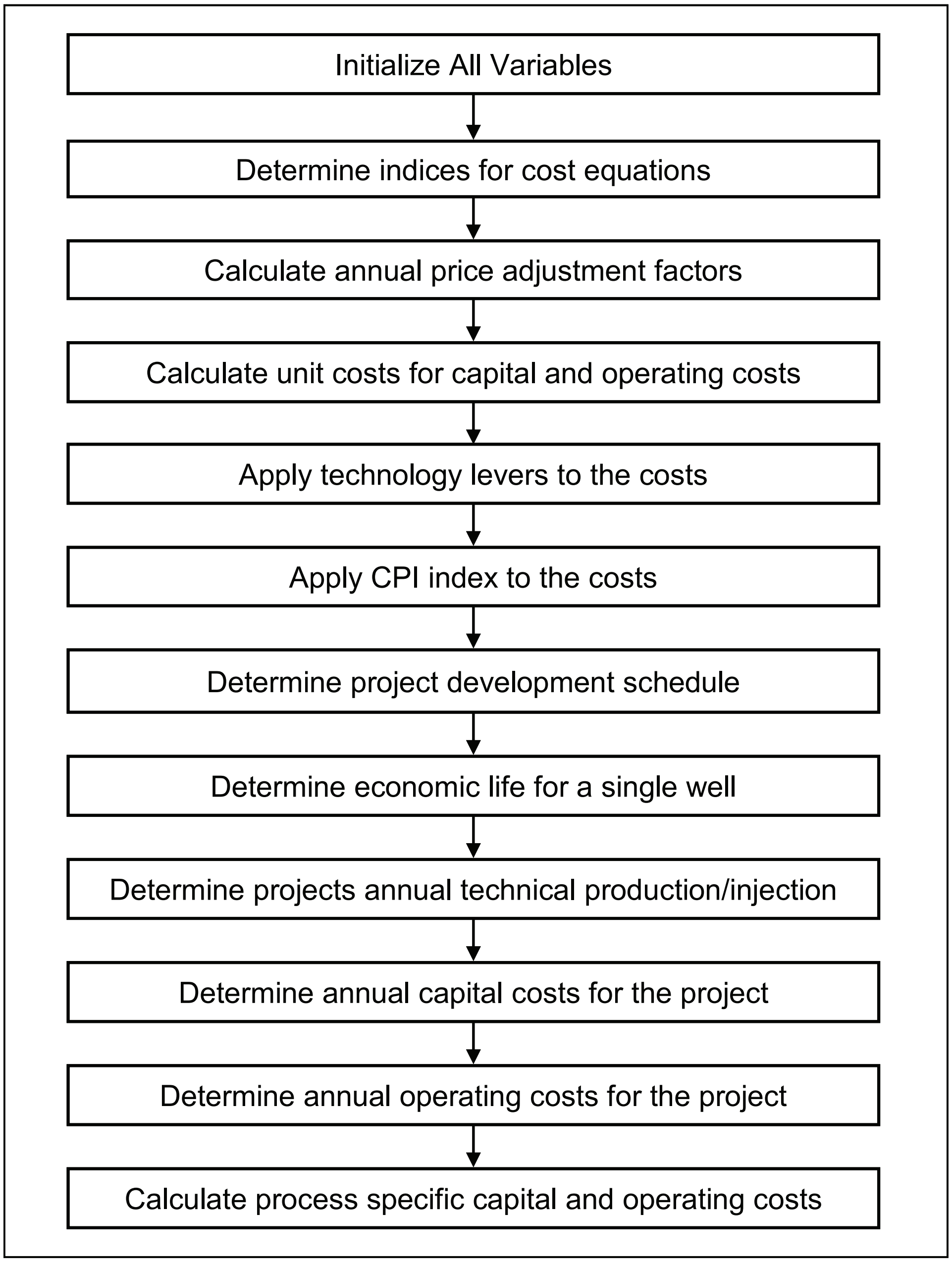


Figure 2-7: Cost Data Types and Requirements

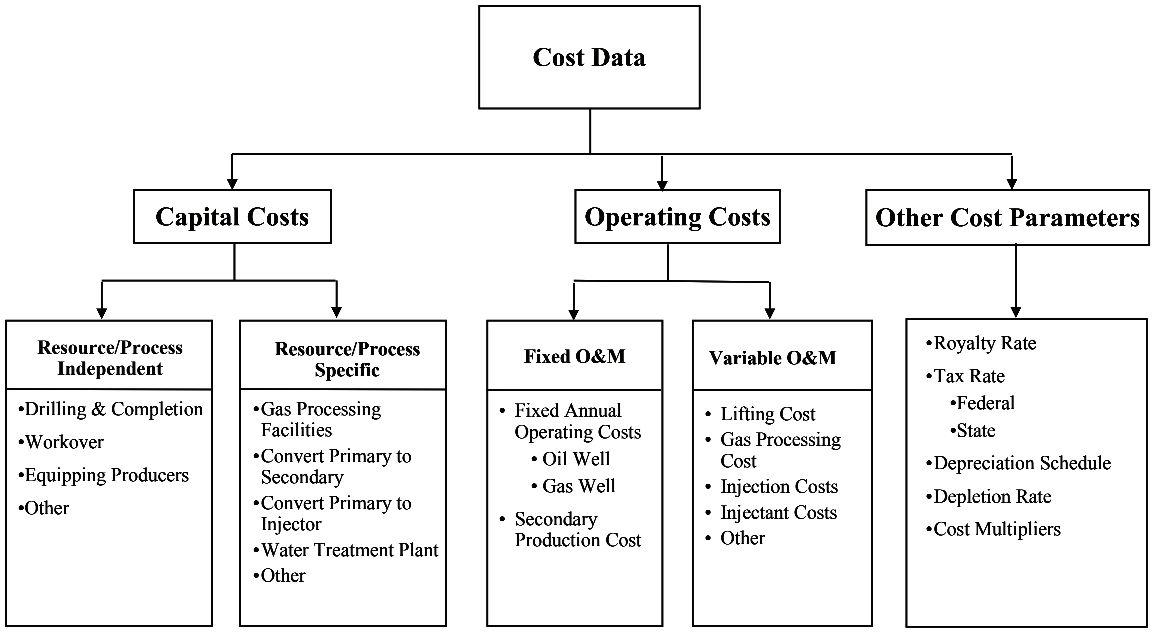


Table 2-2: Costs Applied to Crude Oil Processes

	Capital Cost for Oil	Existing	Water Flooding	CO2 Flooding	Steam Flooding	Polymer Flooding	Infill Drilling	Profile Modification	Undiscovered
Resource Independent	Vertical Drilling Cost	v	v	v	v	V	v	v	v
	Horizontal Drilling Cost								
	Drilling Cost for Dryhole	v	v	v	v	V	v	v	v
	Cost to Equip a Primary Producer		v	v	v	V	v	v	v
	Workover Cost		v	v	v	V	v	v	v
	Facillities Upgrade Cost		v	v	v	V	v	v	
	Fixed Annual Cost for Oil Wells	v	v	v	v	V	v	v	v
	Fixed Annual Cost for Secondary Production		v	v	v	V	v	v	v
	Lifting Cost		v	v	v	V	v	v	v
	O & M Cost for Active Patterns		v			V		v	
	Variable O & M Costs	v	v	v	v	V	v	v	v
	Socondary Workover Cost		v	v	v	V	v	v	v
Resource Dependent	Cost of Water Handling Plant		v			V		v	
	Cost of Chemical Plant					V			
	CO2 Recycle Plant			v					
	Cost of Injectant					V			
	Cost to Convert a Primary to Secondary Well		v	v	v	V	v	v	v
	Cost to Convert a Producer to an Injector		v	v	v	V	v	v	v
	Fixed O & M Cost for Secondary Operations		v	v	v	V	v	v	v
	Cost of a Water Injection Plant		v						
	O & M Cost for Active Patterns per Year		v			V		v	
	Cost to Inject CO2			v					
	King Factor				v				
	Steam Manifolds Cost				v				
	Steam Generators Cost				v				
	Cost to Inject Poloymer					V		v	

Table 2-3: Costs Applied to Natural Gas Processes

	Capital Costs for Gas	Conventional Radial Gas	Water Drive	Tight Sands	Coal/Shale Gas	Undiscovered Conventional
Resource Independent	Vertical Drilling Cost	v	v	v	v	v
	Horizontal Drilling Cost	v	v	v	v	v
	Drilling Cost for Dryhole	v	v	v	v	v
	Gas Facilities Cost	v	v	v	v	v
	Fixed Annual Costs for Gas Wells	v	v	v	v	v
	Gas Stimulation Costs	v	v	v	v	v
	Overhead Costs	v	v	v	v	v
	Variable O & M Cost	v	v	v	v	v
Resource Dependent	Gas Processing and Treatment Facilities	v	v	v	v	v

The following section details the calculations used to calculate the capital and operating costs for each crude oil and natural gas project. The specific coefficients are econometrically estimated according to the corresponding equations in Appendix 2.B.

Cost Multipliers

Cost multipliers are used to capture the impact on capital and operating costs associated with changes in energy prices. OLOGSS calculates cost multipliers for tangible and intangible investments, operating costs, and injectants (polymer and CO_2). The methodology used to calculate the multipliers is based on the National Energy Technology Laboratory (NETL's) Comprehensive Oil and Gas Analysis Model as well as the 1984 Enhanced Oil Recovery Study completed by the National Petroleum Council.

The multipliers for operating costs and injectant are applied while calculating project costs. The investment multipliers are applied during the cashflow analysis. The injectant multipliers are held constant for the analysis period while the others vary with changing crude oil and natural gas prices.

Operating Costs for Crude Oil: Operating costs are adjusted by the change between current crude oil prices and the base crude oil price. If the crude oil price in a given year falls below a pre-established minimum price, the adjustment factor is calculated using the minimum crude oil price.

$$\text{TERM} = \left(\frac{\text{OILPRICE}_{\text{iyr}} - \text{BASEOIL}}{\text{BASEOIL}} \right) \tag{2-7}$$

$$\text{INTANG\_M}_{\text{iyr}} = 1.0 + (\text{OMULT\_INT} * \text{TERM}) \tag{2-8}$$

$$\text{TANG\_M}_{\text{iyr}} = 1.0 + (\text{OMULT\_TANG} * \text{TERM}) \tag{2-9}$$

$$\text{OAM\_M}_{\text{iyr}} = 1.0 + (\text{OMULT\_OAM} * \text{TERM}) \tag{2-10}$$

where

IYR	=	Year
TERM	=	Fractional change in crude oil prices (from base price)
BASEOIL	=	Base crude oil price used for normalization of capital and operating costs
OMULT_INT	=	Coefficient for intangible crude oil investment factor
OMULT_TANG	=	Coefficient for tangible crude oil investment factor
OMULT_OAM	=	Coefficient for O & M factor
INTANG_M	=	Annual energy elasticity factor for intangible investments
TANG_M	=	Annual energy elasticity factor for tangible investments
OAM_M	=	Annual energy elasticity factor for crude oil O & M

Cost Multipliers for Natural Gas:

$$TERM = \left(\frac{GASPRICEC_{iyr} - BASEGAS}{BASEGAS} \right) \tag{2-11}$$

$$TANG\_M_{iyr} = 1.0 + (GMULT\_TANG * TERM) \tag{2-12}$$

$$INTANG\_M_{iyr} = 1.0 + (GMULT\_INT * TERM) \tag{2-13}$$

$$OAM\_M_{iyr} = 1.0 + (GMULT\_OAM * TERM) \tag{2-14}$$

where

GASPRICEC	=	Annual natural gas price
IYR	=	Year
TERM	=	Fractional change in natural gas prices
BASEGAS	=	Base natural gas price used for normalization of capital and operating costs
GMULT_INT	=	Coefficient for intangible natural gas investment factor
GMULT_TANG	=	Coefficient for tangible natural gas investment factor
GMULT_OAM	=	Coefficient for O & M factor
INTANG_M	=	Annual energy elasticity factor for intangible investments
TANG_M	=	Annual energy elasticity factor for tangible investments
OAM_M	=	Annual energy elasticity factor for crude oil O & M

Cost Multipliers for Injectant:

In the first year of the project:

$$FPLY = 1.0 + (0.3913 * TERM) \tag{2-15}$$

$$FCO2 = \frac{0.5 + 0.013 * BASEOIL * (1.0 + TERM)}{0.5 + 0.013 * BASEOIL} \tag{2-16}$$

where

TERM	=	Fractional change in crude oil prices
BASEOIL	=	Base crude oil price used for normalization of capital and operating costs
FPLY	=	Energy elasticity factor for polymer

FCO2 = Energy elasticity factor for natural CO_2 prices

Resource Independent Capital Costs for Crude Oil

Resource independent capital costs are applied to both crude oil and natural gas projects, regardless of the recovery method applied. The major resource independent capital costs are as follows: drilling and completion costs, the cost to equip a new or primary producer, and workover costs.

Drilling and Completion Costs: Drilling and completion costs incorporate the costs to drill and complete a crude oil or natural gas well (including tubing costs), and logging costs. These costs do not include the cost of drilling a dryhole/wildcat during exploration. OLOGSS uses a separate cost estimator, documented below, for dryholes drilled. Vertical well drilling costs include drilling and completion of vertical, tubing, and logging costs. Horizontal well costs include costs for drilling and completing a vertical well and the horizontal laterals.

Horizontal Drilling for Crude Oil:

$$DWC\_W = OIL\_DWCK_{r,d} + (OIL\_DWCA_{r,d} * DEPTH^2) + (OIL\_DWCB_{r,d} * DEPTH^2 * NLAT) + (OIL\_DWCC_{r,d} * DEPTH^2 * NLAT * LATLEN) \quad (2\text{-}17)$$

Vertical Drilling for Crude Oil:

$$DWC\_W = OIL\_DWCK_{r,d} + (OIL\_DWCA_{r,d} * DEPTH) + (OIL\_DWCB_{r,d} * DEPTH^2) + (OIL\_DWCC_{r,d} * DEPTH^3) \quad (2\text{-}18)$$

where

DWC_W	=	Cost to drill and complete a crude oil well (K$/Well)
r	=	Region number
d	=	Depth category number
OIL_DWCA, B, C, K	=	Coefficients for crude oil well drilling cost equation
DEPTH	=	Well depth
NLAT	=	Number of laterals
LATLEN	=	Length of lateral

Horizontal Drilling for a Dry Well:

$$DRY\_W = DRY\_DWCK_{r,d} + (DRY\_DWCA_{r,d} * DEPTH^2) + (DRY\_DWCB_{r,d} * DEPTH^2 * NLAT) + (DRY\_DWCC_{r,d} * DEPTH^2 * NLAT * LATLEN) \quad (2\text{-}19)$$

Vertical Drilling for a Dry Well:

$$DRY\_W = DRY\_DWCK_{r,d} + (DRY\_DWCA_{r,d} * DEPTH) + (DRY\_DWCB_{r,d} * DEPTH^2) + (DRY\_DWCC_{r,d} * DEPTH^3) \quad (2\text{-}20)$$

where

DRY_W	=	Cost to drill a dry well (K$/Well)
R	=	Region number
D	=	Depth category number
DRY_DWCA, B, C, K	=	Coefficients for dry well drilling cost equation
DEPTH	=	Well depth
NLAT	=	Number of laterals
LATLEN	=	Length of lateral

Cost to Equip a New Producer: The cost of equipping a primary producing well includes the production equipment costs for primary recovery.

$$NPR\_W = NPRK_{r,d} + (NPRA_{r,d} * DEPTH) + (NPRB_{r,d} * DEPTH^2) + (NPRC_{r,d} * DEPTH^3) \quad (2\text{-}21)$$

where

NPR_W	=	Cost to equip a new producer (K$/Well)
R	=	Region number
D	=	Depth category number
NPRA, B, C, K	=	Coefficients for new producer equipment cost equation
DEPTH	=	Well depth

Workover Costs: Workover, also known as stimulation is done every 2-3 years to increase the productivity of a producing well. In some cases workover or stimulation of a wellbore is required to maintain production rates.

$$WRK\_W = WRKK_{r,d} + (WRKA_{r,d} * DEPTH) + (WRKB_{r,d} * DEPTH^2) + (WRKC_{r,d} * DEPTH^3) \quad (2\text{-}22)$$

Where,

WRK_W	=	Cost for a well workover (K$/Well)
R	=	Region number
D	=	Depth category number
WRKA, B, C, K	=	Coefficients for workover cost equation
DEPTH	=	Well depth

Facilities Upgrade Cost: Additional cost of equipment upgrades incurred when converting a primary producing well to a secondary resource recovery producing well. Facilities upgrade costs consist of plant costs and electricity costs.

$$FAC\_W = FACUPK_{r,d} + (FACUPA_{r,d} * DEPTH) + (FACUPB_{r,d} * DEPTH^2) + (FACUPC_{r,d} * DEPTH^3) \quad (2\text{-}23)$$

where

FAC_W	=	Well facilities upgrade cost (K$/Well)
R	=	Region number
D	=	Depth category number
FACUPA, B, C, K	=	Coefficients for well facilities upgrade cost equation

DEPTH = Well depth

Resource Independent Capital Costs for Natural Gas

Drilling and Completion Costs: Drilling and completion costs incorporate the costs to drill and complete a crude oil or natural gas well (including tubing costs), and logging costs. These costs do not include the cost of drilling a dryhole/wildcat during exploration. OLOGSS uses a separate cost estimator, documented below, for dryholes drilled. Vertical well drilling costs include drilling and completion of vertical, tubing, and logging costs. Horizontal well costs include costs for drilling and completing a vertical well and the horizontal laterals.

Vertical Drilling Costs:

$$DWC\_W = GAS\_DWCK_{r,d} + (GAS\_DWCA_{r,d} * DEPTH) + (GAS\_DWCB_{r,d} * DEPTH^2) + (GAS\_DWCC_{r,d} * DEPTH^3) \quad (2\text{-}24)$$

Horizontal Drilling Costs:

$$DWC\_W = GAS\_DWCK_{r,d} + (GAS\_DWCA_{r,d} * DEPTH^2) + (GAS\_DWCB_{r,d} * DEPTH^2 * NLAT) + (GAS\_DWCC_{r,d} * DEPTH^2 * NLAT * LATLEN) \quad (2\text{-}25)$$

Where,

DWC_W = Cost to drill and complete a natural gas well (K$/Well)
R = Region number
D = Depth category number
GAS_DWCA, B, C, K = Coefficients for natural gas well drilling cost equation
DEPTH = Well depth
NLAT = Number of laterals
LATLEN = Length of lateral

Vertical Drilling Costs for a Dry Well:

$$DRY\_W = DRY\_DWCK_{r,d} + (DRY\_DWCA_{r,d} * DEPTH) + (DRY\_DWCB_{r,d} * DEPTH^2) + (DRY\_DWCC_{r,d} * DEPTH^3) \quad (2\text{-}26)$$

Horizontal Drilling Costs for a Dry Well:

$$DRY\_W = DRY\_DWCK_{r,d} + (DRY\_DWCA_{r,d} * DEPTH^2) + (DRY\_DWCB_{r,d} * DEPTH^2 * NLAT) + (DRY\_DWCC_{r,d} * DEPTH^2 * NLAT * LATLEN) \quad (2\text{-}27)$$

where

DRY_W = Cost to drill a dry well (K$/Well)
R = Region number
D = Depth category number
DRY_DWCA, B, C, K = Coefficients for dry well drilling cost equation
DEPTH = Well depth
NLAT = Number of laterals
LATLEN = Length of lateral

Facilities Cost: Additional cost of equipment upgrades incurred when converting a primary producing well to a secondary resource recovery producing well. Facilities costs consist of flowlines and connections, production package costs, and storage tank costs.

$$FWC\_W_{iyr} = FACGK_{r,d} + (FACGA_{r,d} * DEPTH) + (FACGB_{r,d} * PEAKDAILY\_RATE) + (FACGC_{r,d} * DEPTH * PEAKDAILY\_RATE) \tag{2-28}$$

where

FWC_W	=	Facilities cost for a natural gas well (K$/Well)
R	=	Region number
D	=	Depth category number
FACGA, B, C, K	=	Coefficients for facilities cost equation
DEPTH	=	Well depth
PEAKDAILY_RATE	=	Maximum daily natural gas production rate

Fixed Annual Operating Costs: The fixed annual operating costs are applied to natural gas projects in decline curve analysis.

$$FOAMG\_W = OMGK_{r,d} + (OMGA_{r,d} * DEPTH) + (OMGB_{r,d} * PEAKDAILY\_RATE) + (OMGC_{r,d} * DEPTH * PEAKDAILY\_RATE) \tag{2-29}$$

where

FOAMG_W	=	Fixed annual operating costs for natural gas (K$/Well)
R	=	Region number
D	=	Depth category number
OMGA, B, C, K	=	Coefficients for fixed annual O & M cost equation for natural gas
DEPTH	=	Well depth
PEAKDAILY_RATE	=	Maximum daily natural gas production rate

Resource Independent Annual Operating Costs for Crude Oil

Fixed Operating Costs: The fixed annual operating costs are applied to crude oil projects in decline curve analysis.

$$OMO\_W = OMOK_{r,d} + (OMOA_{r,d} * DEPTH) + (OMOB_{r,d} * DEPTH^2) + (OMOC_{r,d} * DEPTH^3) \tag{2-30}$$

where

OMO_W	=	Fixed annual operating costs for crude oil wells (K$/Well)
R	=	Region number
D	=	Depth category number
OMOA, B, C, K	=	Coefficients for fixed annual operating cost equation for crude oil
DEPTH	=	Well depth

Annual Costs for Secondary Producers: The direct annual operating expenses include costs in the following major areas: normal daily expenses, surface maintenance, and subsurface maintenance.

$$OPSEC\_W = OPSECK_{r,d} + (OPSECA_{r,d} * DEPTH) + (OPSECB_{r,d} * DEPTH^2) + (OPSECC_{r,d} * DEPTH^3) \quad (2\text{-}31)$$

where

OPSEC_W	=	Fixed annual operating cost for secondary oil operations (K$/Well)
R	=	Region number
D	=	Depth category number
OPSECA, B, C, K	=	Coefficients for fixed annual operating cost for secondary oil operations
DEPTH	=	Well depth

Lifting Costs: Incremental costs are added to a primary and secondary flowing well. These costs include pump operating costs, remedial services, workover rig services and associated labor.

$$OML\_W = OMLK_{r,d} + (OMLA_{r,d} * DEPTH) + (OMLB_{r,d} * DEPTH^2) + (OMLC_{r,d} * DEPTH^3) \quad (2\text{-}32)$$

where

OML_W	=	Variable annual operating cost for lifting (K$/Well)
R	=	Region number
D	=	Depth category number
OMLA, B, C, K	=	Coefficients for variable annual operating cost for lifting equation
DEPTH	=	Well depth

Secondary Workover: Secondary workover, also known as stimulation is done every 2-3 years to increase the productivity of a secondary producing well. In some cases secondary workover or stimulation of a wellbore is required to maintain production rates.

$$SWK\_W = OMSWRK_{r,d} + (OMSWR\ A_{r,d} * DEPTH) + (OMSWR\ B_{r,d} * DEPTH^2) + (OMSWR\ C_{r,d} * DEPTH^3) \quad (2\text{-}33)$$

where

SWK_W	=	Secondary workover costs (K$/Well)
R	=	Region number
D	=	Depth category number
OMSWRA, B, C, K	=	Coefficients for secondary workover costs equation
DEPTH	=	Well depth

Stimulation Costs: Workover, also known as stimulation is done every 2-3 years to increase the productivity of a producing well. In some cases workover or stimulation of a wellbore is required to maintain production rates.

$$STIM\_W = \left(\frac{STIM\_A + STIM\_B * DEPTH}{1000} \right) \tag{2-34}$$

where

STIM_W	=	Oil stimulation costs (K$/Well)
STIM_A, B	=	Stimulation cost equation coefficients
DEPTH	=	Well depth

Resource Dependent Capital Costs for Crude Oil

Cost to Convert a Primary Well to a Secondary Well: These costs consist of additional costs to equip a primary producing well for secondary recovery. The cost of replacing the old producing well equipment includes costs for drilling and equipping water supply wells but excludes tubing costs.

$$\begin{aligned} PSW\_W = {} & PSWK_{r,d} + (PSWA_{r,d} * DEPTH) + (PSWB_{r,d} * DEPTH^2) \\ & + (PSWC_{r,d} * DEPTH^3) \end{aligned} \tag{2-35}$$

where

PSW_W	=	Cost to convert a primary well into a secondary well (K$/Well)
R	=	Region number
D	=	Depth category number
PSWA, B, C, K	=	Coefficients for primary to secondary well conversion cost equation
DEPTH	=	Well depth

Cost to Convert a Producer to an Injector: Producing wells may be converted to injection service because of pattern selection and favorable cost comparison against drilling a new well. The conversion procedure consists of removing surface and sub-surface equipment (including tubing), acidizing and cleaning out the wellbore, and installing new 2- 7/8 inch plastic-coated tubing and a waterflood packer (plastic-coated internally and externally).

$$\begin{aligned} PSI\_W = {} & PSIK_{r,d} + (PSIA_{r,d} * DEPTH) + (PSIB_{r,d} * DEPTH^2) \\ & + (PSIC_{r,d} * DEPTH^3) \end{aligned} \tag{2-36}$$

where

PSI_W	=	Cost to convert a producing well into an injecting well (K$/Well)
R	=	Region number
D	=	Depth category number
PSIA, B, C, K	=	Coefficients for producing to injecting well conversion cost equation
DEPTH	=	Well depth

Cost of Produced Water Handling Plant: The capacity of the water treatment plant is a function of the maximum daily rate of water injected and produced (MBbl) throughout the life of the project.

$$PWP\_F = PWHP * \left(\frac{RMAXW}{365}\right) \tag{2-37}$$

where

PWP_F	=	Cost of the produced water handling plant (K$/Well)
PWHP	=	Produced water handling plant multiplier
RMAXW	=	Maximum pattern level annual water injection rate

Cost of Chemical Handling Plant (Non-Polymer): The capacity of the chemical handling plant is a function of the maximum daily rate of chemicals injected throughout the life of the project.

$$CHM\_F = CHMK * CHMA * \left(\frac{RMAXP}{365}\right)^{CHMB} \tag{2-38}$$

where

CHM_F	=	Cost of chemical handling plant (K$/Well)
CHMB	=	Coefficient for chemical handling plant cost equation
CHMK, A	=	Coefficients for chemical handling plant cost equation
RMAXP	=	Maximum pattern level annual polymer injection rate

Cost of Polymer Handling Plant: The capacity of the polymer handling plant is a function of the maximum daily rate of polymer injected throughout the life of the project.

$$PLY\_F = PLYPK * PLYPA * \left(\frac{RMAXP}{365}\right)^{0.6} \tag{2-39}$$

where

PLY_F	=	Cost of polymer handling plant (K$/Well)
PLYPK, A	=	Coefficients for polymer handling plant cost equation
RMAXP	=	Maximum pattern level annual polymer injection rate

Cost of CO_2 Recycling Plant: The capacity of a recycling/injection plant is a function of the maximum daily injection rate of CO_2 (Mcf) throughout the project life. If the maximum CO_2 rate equals or exceeds 60 MBbl/Day then the costs are divided into two separate plant costs.

$$CO2\_F = CO2rk * \left(\frac{0.75 * RMAXP}{365}\right)^{CO2RB} \tag{2-40}$$

where,

CO2_F	=	Cost of CO_2 recycling plant (K$/Well)
CO2RK, CO2RB	=	Coefficients for CO_2 recycling plant cost equation
RMAXP	=	Maximum pattern level annual CO_2 injection rate

Cost of Steam Manifolds and Pipelines: Cost to install and maintain steam manifolds and pipelines for steam flood enhanced oil recovery project.

$$STMM\_F = TOTPAT * PATSZE * STMMA \quad (2\text{-}41)$$

where

STMM_F	=	Cost for steam manifolds and generation (K$)
TOTPAT	=	Total number of patterns in the project
PATSZE	=	Pattern size (Acres)
STMMA	=	Steam manifold and pipeline cost (per acre)

Resource Dependant Annual Operating Costs for Crude Oil

Injection Costs: Incremental costs are added for secondary injection wells. These costs include pump operating, remedial services, workover rig services, and associated labor.

$$OPINJ\_W = OPINJK_{r,d} + (OPINJA_{r,d} * DEPTH) + (OPINJ\ B_{r,d} * DEPTH^2) + (OPINJ\ C_{r,d} * DEPTH^3) \quad (2\text{-}42)$$

where

OPINJ_W	=	Variable annual operating cost for injection (K$/Well)
R	=	Region number
D	=	Depth category number
OPINJA, B, C, K	=	Coefficients for variable annual operating cost for injection equation
DEPTH	=	Well depth

Injectant Cost: The injectant costs are added for the secondary injection wells. These costs are specific to the recovery method selected for the project. Three injectants are modeled: polymer, CO_2 from natural sources, and CO_2 from industrial sources.

Polymer Cost:

$$POLYCOST = POLYCOST * FPLY \quad (2\text{-}43)$$

where

POLYCOST	=	Cost of polymer ($/Lb)
FPLY	=	Energy elasticity factor for polymer

Natural CO_2 Cost: Cost to drill, produce and ship CO_2 from natural sources, namely CO_2 fields in Western Texas.

$$CO2COST = CO2K + (CO2B * OILPRICEO(1)) \quad (2\text{-}44)$$

$$CO2COST = CO2COST * CO2PR(IST) \quad (2\text{-}45)$$

where

CO2COST	=	Cost of natural CO_2 ($/Mcf)
IST	=	State identifier
CO2K, CO2B	=	Coefficients for natural CO_2 cost equation
OILPRICEO(1)	=	Crude oil price for first year of project analysis
CO2PR	=	State CO_2 cost multiplier used to represent changes in cost associated with transportation outside of the Permian Basin

Industrial CO_2 Cost: Cost to capture and transport CO_2 from industrial sources. These costs include the capture, compression to pipeline pressure, and the transportation to the project site via pipeline. The regional costs, which are specific to the industrial source of CO_2, are exogenously determined and provided in the input file.

Industrial CO_2 sources include

- Hydrogen Plants
- Ammonia Plants
- Ethanol Plants
- Cement Plants
- Hydrogen Refineries
- Power Plants
- Natural Gas Processing Plants
- Coal to Liquids

After unit costs have been calculated for the project, they are adjusted using technology levers as well as CPI multipliers. Two types of levers are applied to the costs. The first is the fractional change in cost associated with a new technology. The second is the incremental cost associated with implementing the new technology. These factors are determined by the model user. As an example,

$$NPR\_W = (NPR\_W * CHG\_FAC\_FAC(ITECH)) + CST\_FAC\_FAC(ITECH) \quad (2\text{-}46)$$

where,

NPR_W	=	Cost to equip a new oil producer (K$/well)
CHG_FAC_FAC	=	Fractional change in cost associated with technology improvements
CST_FAC_FAC	=	Incremental cost to apply the new technology
ITECH	=	Technology case (Base or Advanced)

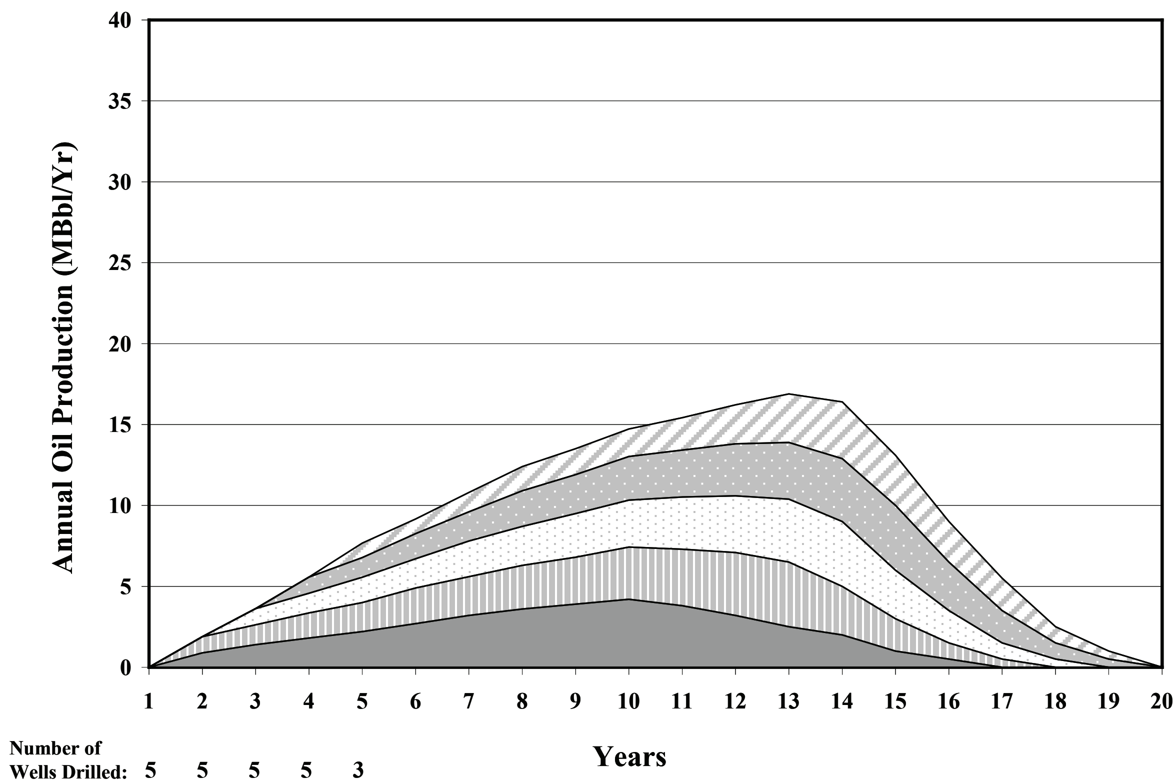
Determining Technical Production

The development schedule algorithms determine how the project's development over time will be modeled. They calculate the number of patterns initiated per year and the economic life of the well. The economic life is the number of years in which the revenue from production exceeds the costs required to produce the crude oil and natural gas.

The model then aggregates the well-level production of crude oil, natural gas, water, and injectant based upon the pattern life and number of wells initiated each year. The resulting profile is the technical production for the project.

Figure 2-8 shows the crude oil production for one project over the course of its life. The graph shows a hypothetical project. In this scenario patterns are initiated for five years. Each shaded area is the annual technical production associated with the initiated patterns.

Figure 2-8: Calculating Project Level Technical Production



The first step in modeling the technical production is to calculate the number of patterns drilled each year. The model uses several factors in calculating the development schedule:

- Potential delays between the discovery of the project and actual initiation
- The process modeled
- The resource access – the number of patterns developed each year is reduced if the resource is subject to cumulative surface use limitations
- The total number of patterns in the project
- The crude oil and natural gas prices
- The user specified maximum and minimum number of patterns developed each year
- The user specified percentage of the project to be developed each year
- The percentage of the project which is using base or advanced technology.

These apply to the EOR/ASR projects as well as the undiscovered and currently developing ones. The projects in existing fields and reservoirs are assumed to have all of their patterns – the number of active wells – developed in the first year of the project.

After calculating the number of patterns initiated each year, the model calculates the number of patterns which are active for each year of the project life.

Production Profile of the Project: For all EOR/ASR, undiscovered, and developing processes, the project level technical production is calculated using well-level production profiles. For infill projects, the production is doubled because the model assumes that there are two producers in each pattern.

$$OILPROD_{iyr1} = OILPROD_{iyr1} + (OPROD_{kyr} * PATN_{iyr}) \tag{2-47}$$
$$GASPROD_{iyr1} = OILPROD_{iyr1} + (GPROD_{kyr} * PATN_{iyr}) \tag{2-48}$$
$$NGLPROD_{iyr1} = NGLPROD_{iyr1} + (NPROD_{kyr} * PATN_{iyr}) \tag{2-49}$$
$$WATPROD_{iyr1} = WATPROD_{iyr1} + (WPROD_{kyr} * PATN_{iyr}) \tag{2-50}$$
$$TOTINJ_{iyr1} = TOTINJ_{iyr1} + (OINJ_{kyr} * PATN_{iyr}) \tag{2-51}$$
$$WATINJ_{iyr1} = WATINJ_{iyr1} + (WINJ_{kyr} * PATN_{iyr}) \tag{2-52}$$
$$TORECY_{iyr1} = TORECY_{iyr1} + (ORECY_{kyr} * PATN_{iyr}) \tag{2-53}$$
$$SUMP_{iyr1} = SUMP_{iyr1} + PATN_{iyr} \tag{2-54}$$

where

IYR1	=	Number of years
IYR	=	Year of project development
JYR	=	Number of years the project is developed
KYR	=	Year (well level profile)
LYR	=	Last project year in which pattern level profile is applied
OPROD	=	Pattern level annual crude oil production
GPROD	=	Pattern level annual natural gas production
NPROD	=	Pattern level annual NGLl production
WPROD	=	Pattern level annual water production
WINJ	=	Pattern level annual water injection
OINJ	=	Pattern level annual injectant injection
ORECY	=	Pattern level annual injectant recycled
PATN	=	Number of patterns initiated each year
SUMP	=	Cumulative number of patterns developed
OILPROD	=	Project level annual crude oil production
GASPROD	=	Project level annual natural gas production
NGLPROD	=	Project level annual NGL production
WATPROD	=	Project level annual water production
WATINJ	=	Project level annual water injection
TOTINJ	=	Project level annual injectant injection
TORECY	=	Project level annual injectant recycled

Reviewer's note: The equations above are confusing, because the same variable appears on the LHS and RHS. I'm guessing that the variable is simply being incremented on an annual basis, i.e., that the first equation should read something like

In any case, please clarify what is happening in the equations and use a new variable name on the LHS.

Resource Accounting

OLOGSS incorporates a complete and representative description of the processes by which crude oil and natural gas in the technically recoverable resource base[1] are converted to proved reserves.[2]

OLOGSS distinguishes between drilling for new fields (new field wildcats) and drilling for additional deposits within old fields (other exploratory and developmental wells). This enhancement recognizes important differences in exploratory drilling, both by its nature and in its physical and economic returns. New field wildcats convert resources in previously undiscovered fields[3] into both proved reserves (as new discoveries) and inferred reserves.[4] Other exploratory drilling and developmental drilling add to proved reserves from the stock of inferred reserves. The phenomenon of reserves appreciation is the process by which initial assessments of proved reserves from a new field discovery grow over time through extensions and revisions.

End of Year Reserves: The model calculates two types of end of year (EOY) reserves at the project level: inferred reserves and proved reserves. Inferred reserves are calculated as the total technical production minus the technical production from patterns initiated through a particular year. Proved reserves are calculated as the technical production from wells initiated through a particular year minus the cumulative production from those patterns.

Inferred reserves = total technical production – technical production for wells initiated

$$\text{airsvoil(ires, n)} = \sum_{i=1}^{\text{max\_yr}} \left[\sum_{j=1}^{\text{ilife}} \left(\text{oprod}(j)\right) \times \text{patn}(i) \right] - \sum_{i=1}^{n} \left[\sum_{j=1}^{\text{ilife}} \left(\text{oprod}(j)\right) \times \text{patn}(i) \right] \qquad (2\text{-}55)$$

$$\text{airsvgas(ires, n)} = \sum_{i=1}^{\text{max\_yr}} \left[\sum_{j=1}^{\text{ilife}} \left(\text{gprod}(j)\right) \times \text{patn}(i) \right] - \sum_{i=1}^{n} \left[\sum_{j=1}^{\text{ilife}} \left(\text{gprod}(j)\right) \times \text{patn}(i) \right]$$

(2-56)

Reviewers note: It's not clear what "ires" is above. Also, it looks like all of these equations can be simplified by writing the outer sums from n+1 to max_yr, e.g.,

Proved reserves = technical production for patterns initiated – cumulative production

[1] *Technically recoverable resources* are those volumes considered to be producible with current recovery technology and efficiency but without reference to economic viability. Technically recoverable volumes include proved reserves, inferred reserves, as well as undiscovered and other unproved resources. These resources may be recoverable by techniques considered either conventional or unconventional.

[2] *Proved reserves* are the estimated quantities that analyses of geological and engineering data demonstrate with reasonable certainty to be recoverable in future years from known reservoirs under existing economic and operating conditions.

[3] *Undiscovered resources* are located outside of oil and gas fields, in which the presence of resources has been confirmed by exploratory drilling, and thus exclude reserves and reserve extensions; however, they include resources from undiscovered pools within confirmed fields to the extent that such resources occur as unrelated accumulations controlled by distinctly separate structural features or stratigraphic conditions.

[4] *Inferred reserves* are that part of expected ultimate recovery from known fields in excess of cumulative production plus current reserves.

$$aresvoil(ires,n) = \sum_{`i=1}^{n}\left[\sum_{j=1}^{ilife}(oprod(j)) \times patn(i)\right] - \sum_{i=1}^{n}\left[\sum_{j=1}^{n}(oprod(j)) \times patn(i)\right] \tag{2-57}$$

$$aresvgas(ires,n) = \sum_{`i=1}^{n}\left[\sum_{j=1}^{ilife}(gprod(j)) \times patn(i)\right] - \sum_{i=1}^{n}\left[\sum_{j=1}^{n}(gprod(j)) \times patn(i)\right] \tag{2-58}$$

where,

I, J	=	Years
N	=	Current year evaluated
ILIFE	=	Pattern life
MAX_YR	=	Maximum number of years
OPROD	=	Pattern level annual crude oil production
GPROD	=	Pattern level annual natural gas production
PATN	=	Number of patterns developed each year
AIRSVOIL	=	Annual inferred crude oil reserves
AIRSVGAS	=	Annual inferred natural gas reserves
ARESVOIL	=	Annual proved oil reserves
ARESVGAS	=	Annual proved natural gas reserves

For existing crude oil and natural gas projects, the model calculates the proved reserves. For these processes, the proved reserves are defined as the total technical production divided by the life of the project.

Calculating Project Costs

The model uses four drilling categories for the calculation of drilling and facilities costs. These categories are:

- New producers
- New injectors
- Conversions of producers to injectors
- Conversions of primary wells to secondary wells.

The number of ??? in each category required for the pattern is dependent upon the process and the project.

Project Level Process Independent Costs

Drilling costs and facility costs are determined at the project level.

Drilling Costs: Drilling costs are calculated using one of four approaches, depending on the resource and recovery process. These approaches apply to the following resources:

- Undiscovered crude oil and natural gas
- Existing crude oil and natural gas fields
- EOR/ASR projects
- Developing natural gas projects

For undiscovered crude oil and natural gas resources: The first well drilled in the first year of the project is assumed to be a wildcat well. The remaining wells are assumed to be undiscovered development wells. This is reflected in the application of the dryhole rates.

$$DRL\_CST2_{iyr} = DRL\_CST2_{iyr} + (DWC\_W + DRY\_W * REGDRYUE_R) * 1.0 * XPP1 \quad (2\text{-}59)$$

$$DRL\_CST2_{iyr} = DRL\_CST2_{iyr} + (DWC\_W + DRY\_W * REGDRYUD_R) * (PATN_{iyr} - 1 * XPP1) \quad (2\text{-}60)$$

For existing crude oil and natural gas fields: As the field is already established, the developmental dryhole rate is used.

$$DRL\_CST2_{iyr} = DRL\_CST2_{iyr} + (DWC\_W + DRY\_W * REGDRYKD_R) * (PATDEV_{ires,iyr,itech} * XPP1) \quad (2\text{-}61)$$

For EOR/ASR Projects: As the project is in an established and known field, the developmental dryhole rate is used.

$$DRL\_CST2_{iyr} = DRL\_CST2_{iyr} + (DWC\_W + DRY\_W * REGDRYKD_R) * (PATN_{iyr} * XPP1) \quad (2\text{-}62)$$

For developing natural gas projects: As the project is currently being developed, it is assumed that the wildcat well(s) have previously been drilled. Therefore, the undiscovered developmental dryhole rate is applied to the project.

$$DRL\_CST2_{iyr} = DRL\_CST2_{iyr} + (DWC\_W + DRY\_W * REGDRYUD_R) * (PATN_{iyr} * XPP1) \quad (2\text{-}63)$$

where

IRES	=	Project index number
IYR	=	Year
R	=	Region
PATDEV	=	Number of patterns initiated each year for base and advanced technology cases
PATN	=	Annual number of patterns initiated
DRL_CST2	=	Technology case specific annual drilling cost
DWC_W	=	Cost to drill and complete a well
DRY_W	=	Cost to drill a dryhole
REGDRYUE	=	Dryhole rate for undiscovered exploration (wildcat)
REGDRYUD	=	Dryhole rate for undiscovered development
REGDRYKD	=	Dryhole rate for known fields development
XPP1	=	Number of producing wells drilled per pattern

Facilities Costs: Facilities costs depend on both the process and the resource. Five approaches are used to calculate the facilities costs for the project.

For undiscovered and developing natural gas projects:

$$FACCOST_{iyr} = FACCOST_{iyr} + (FWC\_W * PATN_{iyr} * XPP1) \quad (2\text{-}64)$$

For existing natural gas fields:

$$FACCOST_{iyr} = FACCOST_{iyr} + (FWC\_W * (PATDEV_{IRES,iyr, itech}) * XPP1) \tag{2-65}$$

For undiscovered continuous crude oil:

$$FACCOST_{iyr} = FACCOST_{iyr} + (NPR\_W * PATN_{iyr} * XPP1) \tag{2-66}$$

For existing crude oil fields:

$$\begin{aligned} FACCOST_{iyr} = FACCOST_{iyr} &+ (PSW\_W * (PATDEV_{IRES,iyr, itech}) * XPP4) \\ &+ (PSI\_W * PATDEV_{IRES,iyr, itech} * XPP3) \\ &+ (FAC\_W * PATDEV_{IRES,iyr, itech} * (XPP1 + XPP2)) \end{aligned} \tag{2-67}$$

For undiscovered conventional crude oil and EOR/ASR projects:

$$\begin{aligned} FACCOST_{iyr} = FACCOST_{iyr} &+ (PSW\_W * PATN_{iyr} *XPP4) \\ &+ (PSI\_W * PATN_{iyr} * XPP3) + (FAC\_W * PATN_{iyr} * (XPP1 + XPP2)) \end{aligned} \tag{2-68}$$

where

IYR	=	Year
IRES	=	Project index number
ITECH	=	Technology case
PATN	=	Number of patterns initiated each year for the technology case being evaluated
PATDEV	=	Number of patterns initiated each year for base and advanced technology cases
XPP1	=	Number of new production wells drilled per pattern
XPP2	=	Number of new injection wells drilled per pattern
XPP3	=	Number of producers converted to injectors per pattern
XPP4	=	Number of primary wells converted to secondary wells per pattern
FAC_W	=	Crude oil well facilities upgrade cost
NPR_W	=	Cost to equip a new producer
PSW_W	=	Cost to convert a primary well to a secondary well
PSI_W	=	Cost to convert a production well to an injection well
FWC_W	=	Natural gas well facilities cost
FACCOST	=	Annual facilities cost for the well

Injectant Cost Added to Operating and Maintenance: The cost of injectant is calculated and added to the operating and maintenance costs.

$$INJ_{iyr} = INJ_{iyr} + INJ\_OAM1 * WATINJ_{iyr} \tag{2-69}$$

where

IYR	=	Year

INJ = Annual injection cost
INJ_OAM1 = Process specific cost of injection ($/Bbl)
WATINJ = Annual project level water injection

Fixed Annual Operating Costs for Crude Oil:
For CO_2 EOR:

$$AOAM_{iyr} = AOAM_{iyr} + OPSEC\_W * SUMP_{iyr} \quad (2\text{-}70)$$

For undiscovered conventional crude oil:

Fixed annual operating costs for secondary oil wells are assumed to be zero.

For all crude oil processes except CO_2 EOR:

$$AOAM_{iyr} = AOAM_{iyr} + (OMO\_W * XPATN_{iyr}) + (OPSEC\_W * XPATN_{iyr}) \quad (2\text{-}71)$$

Fixed Annual Operating Costs for Natural Gas:
For existing natural gas fields:

$$AOAM_{iyr} = AOAM_{iyr} + (FOAMG\_W * OAM\_M_{iyr} * XPATN_{iyr}) \quad (2\text{-}72)$$

For undiscovered and developing natural gas resources:

$$AOAM_{iyr} = AOAM_{iyr} + (FOAMG\_W * OAM\_M_{iyr} * XPATN_{iyr}) * XPP1 \quad (2\text{-}73)$$

where,
AOAM = Annual fixed operating an maintenance costs
IYR = Year
SUMP = Total cumulative patterns initiated
OPSEC_W = Fixed annual operating costs for secondary oil wells
OMO_W = Fixed annual operating costs for crude oil wells
FOAMG_W = Fixed annual operating costs for natural gas wells
OAM_M = Energy elasticity factor for operating and maintenance costs
XPATN = Annual number of active patterns
XPP1 = Number of producing wells drilled per pattern

Variable Operating Costs:

$$OAM_{iyr} = OAM_{iyr} + (OILPROD_{iyr} * OIL\_OAM1 * OAM\_M_{iyr}) + (GASPROD_{iyr} * GAS\_OAM1 * OAM\_M_{iyr}) + (WATPROD_{iyr} * WAT\_OAM1 * OAM\_M_{iyr}) \quad (2\text{-}74)$$

$$STIM_{iyr} = STIM_{iyr} + (0.2 * STIM\_W * XPATN_{iyr} * XPP1) \quad (2\text{-}74)$$

For infill drilling: Injectant costs are zero.

$$OAM_{iyr} = OAM_{iyr} + INJ_{iyr} \quad (2\text{-}75)$$

where

OAM	=	Annual variable operating and maintenance costs
OILPROD	=	Annual project level crude oil production
GASPROD	=	Annual project level natural gas production
WATPROD	=	Annual project level water injection
OIL_OAM1	=	Process specific cost of crude oil production ($/Bbl)
GAS_OAM1	=	Process specific cost of natural gas production ($/Mcf)
WAT_OAM1	=	Process specific cost of water production ($/Bbl)
OAM_M	=	Energy elasticity factor for operating and maintenance costs
STIM	=	Project stimulation costs
STIM_W	=	Well stimulation costs
INJ	=	Cost of injection
XPATN	=	Annual number of active patterns
IYR	=	Year
XPP1	=	Number of producing wells drilled per pattern

Cost of Compression (Natural Gas Processes):

Installation costs:

$$COMP_{IYR} = COMP_{IYR} + (COMP\_W*PATN_{IYR}*XPP1) \quad (2\text{-}76)$$

O&M cost for compression:

$$OAM\_COMP_{IYR} = OAM\_COMP_{IYR} + (GASPROD_{IYR} * COMP\_OAM *OAM\_M_{IYR}) \quad (2\text{-}77)$$

where

COMP	=	Cost of installing natural gas compression equipment
COMP_W	=	Natural gas compression cost
PATN	=	Number of patterns initiated each year
IYR	=	Year
XPP1	=	Number of producing wells drilled per pattern
OAM_COMP	=	Operating and maintenance costs for natural gas compression
GASPROD	=	Annual project level natural gas production
COMP_OAM	=	Compressor O & M costs
OAM_M	=	Energy elasticity factor for operating and maintenance costs

Process Dependent Costs

Process-specific facilities and capital costs are calculated at the project level.

Facilities Costs

Profile Model: The facilities cost of a water handling plant is added to the first year facilities costs.

$$FACCOST_1 = FACCOST_1 + PWHP * \left(\frac{RMAX}{365}\right) \tag{2-78}$$

where

$FACCOST_1$	=	First year of project facilities costs
PWHP	=	Produced water handling plant multiplier
RMAX	=	Maximum annual water injection rate

Polymer Model: The facilities cost for a water handling plant is added to the first year facilities costs.

$$FACCOST_1 = FACCOST_1 + PWP\_F \tag{2-79}$$

where

$FACCOST_1$	=	First year of project facilities costs
PWP_F	=	Produced water handling plant

Advanced CO_2: Other costs added to the facilities costs include the facilities cost for a CO_2 handling plant and a recycling plant, the O&M cost for a CO_2 handling plant and recycling plant, injectant cost, O&M and fixed O&M costs for a CO_2 handling plant and a recycling plant. If the plant is developed in a single stage, the costs are added to the first year of the facilities costs. If a second stage is required, the additional costs are added to the sixth year of facilities costs.

$$FACCOST1 = FACCOST1 + \left(CO2RK * \left(\frac{0.75 * RMAX}{365}\right)^{CO2RB}\right) * 1{,}000 \tag{2-80}$$

$$FACCOST6 = FACCOST6 + \left(CO2RK * \left(\frac{0.75 * RMAX}{365}\right)^{CO2RB}\right) * 1{,}000$$

$$INJ_{iyr} = INJ_{iyr} + (TOTINJ_{iyr} - TORECY_{iyr}) * CO2COST \tag{2-81}$$

$$OAM_{iyr} = OAM_{iyr} + (OAM\_M_{iyr} * TORECY_{iyr}) * (CO2OAM + PSW\_W * 0.25) \tag{2-82}$$

$$FOAM_{iyr} = (FOAM_{iyr} + TOTINJ_{iyr}) * 0.40 * FCO2 \tag{2-83}$$

$$TORECY\_CST_{iyr} = TORECY\_CST_{iyr} + (TORECY_{iyr} * CO2OAM2 * OAM\_M_{iyr}) \tag{2-84}$$

where

IYR	=	Year
RMAX	=	Maximum annual volume of recycled CO_2

CO2OAM	=	O & M cost for CO_2 handling plant
CO2OAM2	=	The O & M cost for the project's CO_2 injection plant
CO2RK, CO2RB	=	CO_2 recycling plant cost coefficients
INJ	=	Cost of purchased CO_2
TOTINJ	=	Annual project level volume of injected CO_2
TORECY	=	Annual project level CO_2 recycled volume
CO2COST	=	Cost of CO_2 ($/mcf)
OAM	=	Annual variable operating and maintenance costs
OAM_M	=	Energy elasticity factor for operating and maintenance costs
FOAM	=	Fixed annual operating and maintenance costs
FCO2	=	Energy elasticity factor for CO_2
FACCOST	=	Annual project facilities costs
TORECY_CST	=	The annual cost of operating the CO_2 recycling plant

Steam Model: Facilities and O&M costs for steam generators and recycling.

Recalculate the facilities costs: Facilities costs include the capital cost for injection plants, which is based upon the OOIP of the project, the steam recycling plant, and the steam generators required for the project.

$$\text{FACCOST1} = \text{FACCOST1} + \left(\frac{OOIP * 0.1 * 2.0 * APAT}{TOTPAT}\right) + (\text{RECY\_WAT} * \text{RMAXWAT} + \text{RECY\_OIL} * \text{RMAXOIL}) + (\text{STMMA} * \text{TOTPAT} * \text{PATSIZE}) + (\text{IGEN}_{iyr} - \text{IG}) * \text{STMGA} \qquad (2\text{-}85)$$

$$\text{OAM}_{iyr} = \text{OAM}_{iyr} + (\text{WAT\_OAM1} * \text{WATPROD}_{iyr} * \text{OAM\_M}_{iyr}) + (\text{OIL\_OAM1} * \text{OILPROD}_{iyr} * \text{OAM\_M}_{iyr}) + (\text{INJ\_OAM1} * \text{WATINJ}_{iyr} * \text{OAM\_M}_{iyr}) \qquad (2\text{-}86)$$

where

IYR	=	Year
IGEN	=	Number of active steam generators each year
IG	=	Number of active steam generators in previous year
FACCOST	=	Annual project level facilities costs
RMAXWAT	=	Maximum daily water production rate
RMAXOIL	=	Maximum daily crude oil production rate
APAT	=	Number of developed patterns
TOTPAT	=	Total number of patterns in the project
OOIP	=	Original oil in place (mmbbl)
PATSIZE	=	Pattern size (acres)
STMMA	=	Unit cost for steam manifolds
STMGA	=	Unit cost for steam generators
OAM	=	Annual variable operating and maintenance costs
OAM_M	=	Energy elasticity factor for operating and maintenance costs
WAT_OAM1	=	Process specific cost of water production ($/Bbl)
OIL_OAM1	=	Process specific cost of crude oil production ($/Bbl)

INJ_OAM1	=	Process specific cost of water injection ($/Bbl)
OILPROD	=	Annual project level crude oil production
WATPROD	=	Annual project level water production
WATINJ	=	Annual project level water injection
RECY_WAT	=	Recycling plant cost – water factor
RECY_OIL	=	Recycling plant cost – oil factor

Operating and Maintenance Cost

This subroutine calculates the process specific O&M costs.

Profile Model: Add the O&M costs of injected polymer.

$$INJ_{iyr} = INJ_{iyr} + \frac{OAM\_M_{iyr} * TOTINJ_{iyr} * POLYCOST}{1000} \tag{2-87}$$

$$OAM_{iyr} = OAM_{iyr} + (XPATN_{iyr} * 0.25 * PSI\_W) \tag{2-88}$$

where

IYR	=	Year
MAX_YR	=	Maximum number of years
INJ	=	Annual Injection cost
OAM_M	=	Energy elasticity factor for operating and maintenance cost
TOTINJ	=	Annual project level injectant injection volume
POLYCOST	=	Polymer cost
OAM	=	Annual variable operating and maintenance cost
XPATN	=	Number of active patterns
PSI_W	=	Cost to convert a primary well to an injection well

Polymer: Add the O&M costs of injected polymer.

$$INJ_{iyr} = INJ_{IYR} + \frac{TOTINJ_{iyr} * POLYCOST}{1,000} \tag{2-89}$$

$$OAM_{iyr} = OAM_{iyr} + (XPATN_{iyr} * 0.25 * PSI\_W) \tag{2-90}$$

where

IYR	=	Year
MAX_YR	=	Maximum number of years
INJ	=	Annual Injection cost
TOTINJ	=	Annual project level injectant injection volume
POLYCOST	=	Polymer cost
OAM	=	Annual variable operating and maintenance cost
XPATN	=	Number of active patterns
PSI_W	=	Cost to convert a primary well to an injection well

Waterflood: Add the O&M costs of water injected as well as the cost to convert a primary well to an injection well.

$$OAM_{iyr} = OAM_{iyr} + (XPATN_{iyr} * 0.25 * PSI\_W) \tag{2-91}$$

where

IYR	=	Year
MAX_YR	=	Maximum number of years
OAM	=	Annual variable operating and maintenance cost
XPATN	=	Number of active patterns
PSI_W	=	Cost to convert a primary well to an injection well

Existing crude oil fields and reservoirs: Since no new drilling or major investments are expected for decline, facilities and drilling costs are zeroed out.

$$OAM_{iyr} = OAM_{iyr} + ((OIL\_OAM1 * OILPROD_{iyr}) + (GAS\_OAM1 * GASPROD_{iyr}) + (WAT\_OAM1 * WATPROD_{iyr})) * OAM\_M_{iyr} \tag{2-92}$$

$$AOAM_{iyr} = AOAM_{iyr} + \left(\frac{OPSEC\_W * OAM\_M_{iyr} * SUMP_{iyr}}{5}\right) \tag{2-93}$$

where

IYR	=	Year
OILPROD	=	Annual project level crude oil production
GASPROD	=	Annual project level natural gas production
WATPROD	=	Annual project level water production
OIL_OAM1	=	Process specific cost of crude oil production ($/Bbl)
GAS_OAM1	=	Process specific cost of natural gas production ($/Mcf)
WAT_OAM1	=	Process specific cost of water production ($/Bbl)
OAM_M	=	Energy elasticity factor for operating and maintenance costs
OPSEC_W	=	Fixed annual operating cost for secondary well operations
SUMP	=	Cumulative patterns developed
AOAM	=	Fixed annual operating and maintenance costs
OAM	=	Variable annual operating and maintenance costs

Overhead Costs: : General and Administrative (G&A) costs on capitalized and expensed items, which consist of administration, accounting, contracting and legal fees/expenses for the project, are calculated according to the following equations:

$$GNA\_EXP_{itech} = GNA\_EXP_{itech} * CHG\_GNA\_FAC_{itech} \tag{2-94}$$

$$GNA\_CAP_{itech} = GNA\_CAP_{itech} * CHG\_GNA\_FAC_{itech} \tag{2-95}$$

where

ITECH	=	Technology case (base and advanced) number
GNA_EXP	=	The G&A rate applied to expensed items for the project
GNA_CAP	=	The G&A rate applied to capitalized items for the project
CHG_GNA_FAC	=	Technology case specific change in G&A rates

Timing

Overview of Timing Module

The timing routine determines which of the exploration and EOR/ASR projects are eligible for development in any particular year. Those that are eligible are subject to an economic analysis and passed to the project sort and development routines. The timing routine has two sections. The first applies to exploration projects while the second is applied to EOR/ASR and developing natural gas projects.

Figure 2-9 provides the overall logic for the exploration component of the timing routine. For each project regional crude oil and natural gas prices are obtained. The project is then examined to see if it has previously been timed and developed. The timed projects are no longer available and thus not considered.

The model uses four resource access categories for the undiscovered projects:

- No leasing due to statutory or executive order
- Leasing available but cumulative timing limitations between 3 and 9 months
- Leasing available but with controlled surface use
- Standard leasing terms

Each project has been assigned to a resource access category. If the access category is not available in the year evaluated, the project fails the resource access check.

After the project is evaluated, the number of considered projects is increased. Figure 2-10 shows the timing logic applied to the EOR/ASR projects as well as the developing natural gas projects.

Before the economics are evaluated, the prices are set and the eligibility is determined. The following conditions must be met:

- Project has not been previously timed
- Project must be eligible for timing, re-passed the economic pre-screening routine
- Corresponding decline curve project must have been timed. This does not apply to the developing natural gas projects.

If the project meets all of these criteria, then it is considered eligible for economic analysis. For an EOR/ASR project to be considered for timing, it must be within a process specific EOR/ASR development window. These windows are listed in Table 2-4.

Table 2-4: EOR/ASR Eligibility Ranges

Process	Before Economic Limit	After Economic Limit
CO_2 Flooding	After 2009	10 Years
Steam Flooding	5 Years	10 Years
Polymer Flooding	5 Years	10 Years
Infill Drilling	After 2009	7 Years
Profile Modification	5 Years	7 Years
Horizontal Continuity	5 Years	7 Years
Horizontal Profile	5 Years	7 Years
Waterflood	4 Years	6 Years

The economic viability of the eligible projects is then evaluated. A different analytical approach is applied to CO_2 EOR and all other projects. For non-CO_2 EOR projects the project is screened for applicable technology levers, and the economic analysis is conducted. CO_2 EOR projects are treated differently because of the different CO_2 costs associated with the different sources of industrial and natural CO_2.

For each available source, the economic variables are calculated and stored. These include the source of CO_2 and the project's ranking criterion.

Detailed description of timing module

Exploration projects: The first step in the timing module is to determine which reservoirs are eligible to be timed for conventional and continuous exploration. Prior to evaluation, the constraints, resource access, and technology and economic levers are checked, and the technology case is set.

Calculate economics for EOR/ASR and developing natural gas projects:
This section determines whether an EOR/ASR or developing natural gas project is eligible for economic analysis and timing. The following resources are processes considered in this step.
EOR Processes:

- CO_2 Flooding
- Steam Flooding
- Polymer Flooding
- Profile Modification

ASR Processes:

- Water Flooding
- Infill Drilling
- Horizontal Continuity
- Horizontal Profile

Developing natural gas

- Tight Gas
- Shale Gas
- Coalbed Methane

A project is eligible for timing if the corresponding decline curve project has previously been timed and the year of evaluation is within the eligibility window for the process, as listed in table 2-4.

Project Ranking: Sorts exploration and EOR/ASR projects which are economic for timing. The subroutine matches the discovery order for undiscovered projects and sorts the others by ranking criterion. The criteria include

- Net present value
- Investment efficiency
- Rate of return
- Cumulative discounted after tax cashflow

Selection and Timing: Times the exploration and EOR/ASR projects which are considered in that given year.

Project Selection

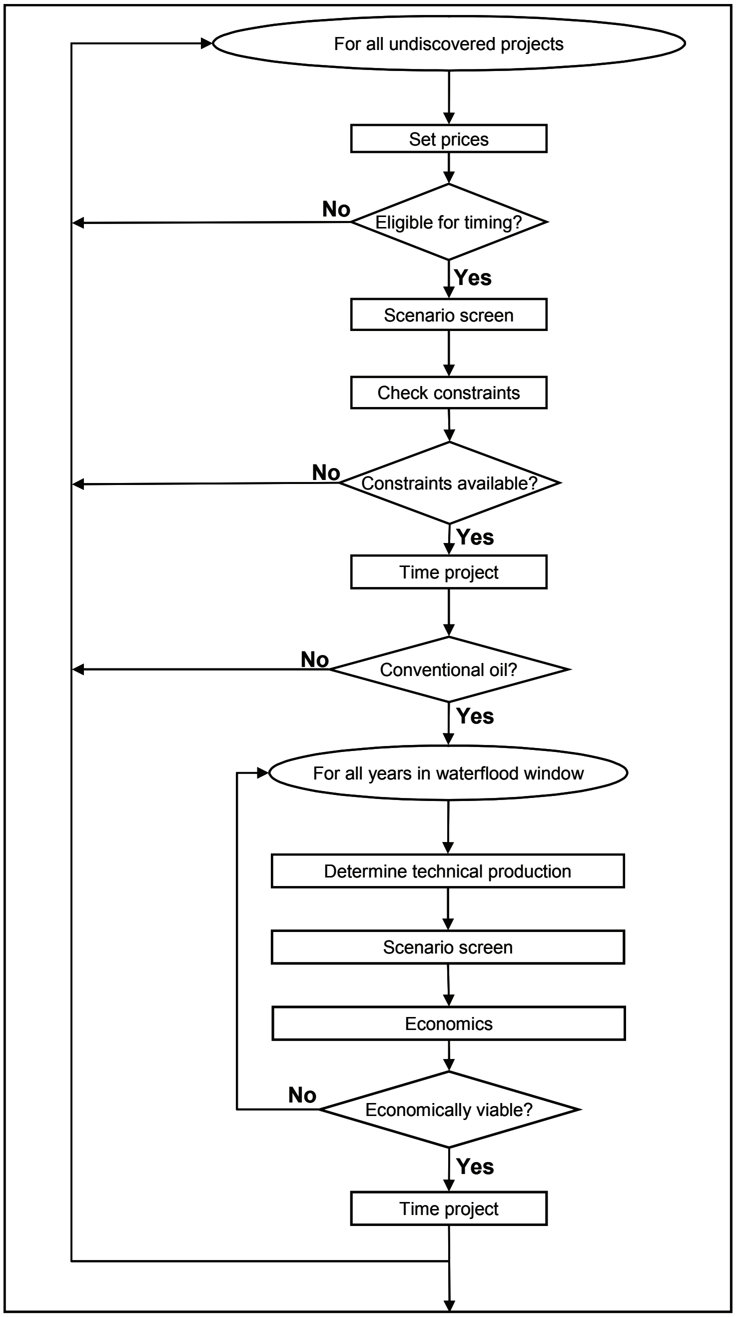
The project selection subroutine determines which exploration, EOR/ASR and developing natural gas projects will be modeled as developed in each year analyzed. In addition, the following development decisions are made:

- Waterflood of conventional undiscovered crude oil projects
- Extension of CO_2 floods as the total CO_2 injected is increased from 0.4 hydrocarbon pore volume (HCPV) to 1.0 HCPV

Overview of Project Selection

The project selection subroutine evaluates undiscovered projects separate from other projects. The logic for the development of exploration projects is provided in figure 2-9.

Figure 2-9: Selecting Undiscovered Projects



As illustrated in the figure the prices are set for the project before its eligibility is checked. Eligibility has the following requirements:

- Project is economically viable
- Project is not previously timed and developed

The projects which are eligible are screened for applicable technologies which impact the drilling success rates. The development constraints required for the project are checked against those that are available in the region.

If sufficient development resources are available, the project is timed and developed. As part of this process, the available development constraints are adjusted, the number of available accumulations is reduced and the results are aggregated. If no undiscovered accumulations remain, then the project is no longer eligible for timing. The projects that are eligible, economically viable, and undeveloped due to lack of development resources, are considered again for future projection years. If the project is conventional crude oil, it is possible to time a waterflood project.

The model evaluates the waterflood potential in a window centered upon the end of the economic life for the undiscovered project. For each year of that window, the technical production is determined for the waterflood project, applicable technology and economic levers are applied, and the economics are considered. If the waterflood project is economic, it is timed. This process is continued until either a waterflood project is timed or the window closes.

The second component of the project selection subroutine is applicable to EOR/ASR projects as well as the developing natural gas projects. The major steps applied to these projects are detailed in figures 2-10 and 2-11.

As seen in the flowchart, the prices are set for the project and the eligibility is checked. As with the undiscovered projects, the subroutine checks the candidate project for both economic viability and eligibility for timing. Afterwards, the project is screened for any applicable technology and economic levers.

If the project is eligible for CO_2 EOR, the economics are re-run for the specific source of CO_2. Afterwards, the availability of resource development constraints is checked for the project. If sufficient drilling and capital resources are available, the project preferences are checked.

The project preferences are rules which govern the competition between projects and selection of projects; these rules are listed below:

- CO_2 EOR and infill drilling are available after 2010
- Profile modification becomes available after 2011
- The annual number of infill drilling and profile modification projects is limited
- Horizontal continuity can compete against any other process except steam flood
- Horizontal profile can compete against any other process except steam flood or profile modification
- Polymer flooding cannot compete against any other process

If the project meets the technology preferences, then it is timed and developed. This process is different for CO_2 EOR and all other processes.

Figure 2-10: Selecting EOR/ASR projects

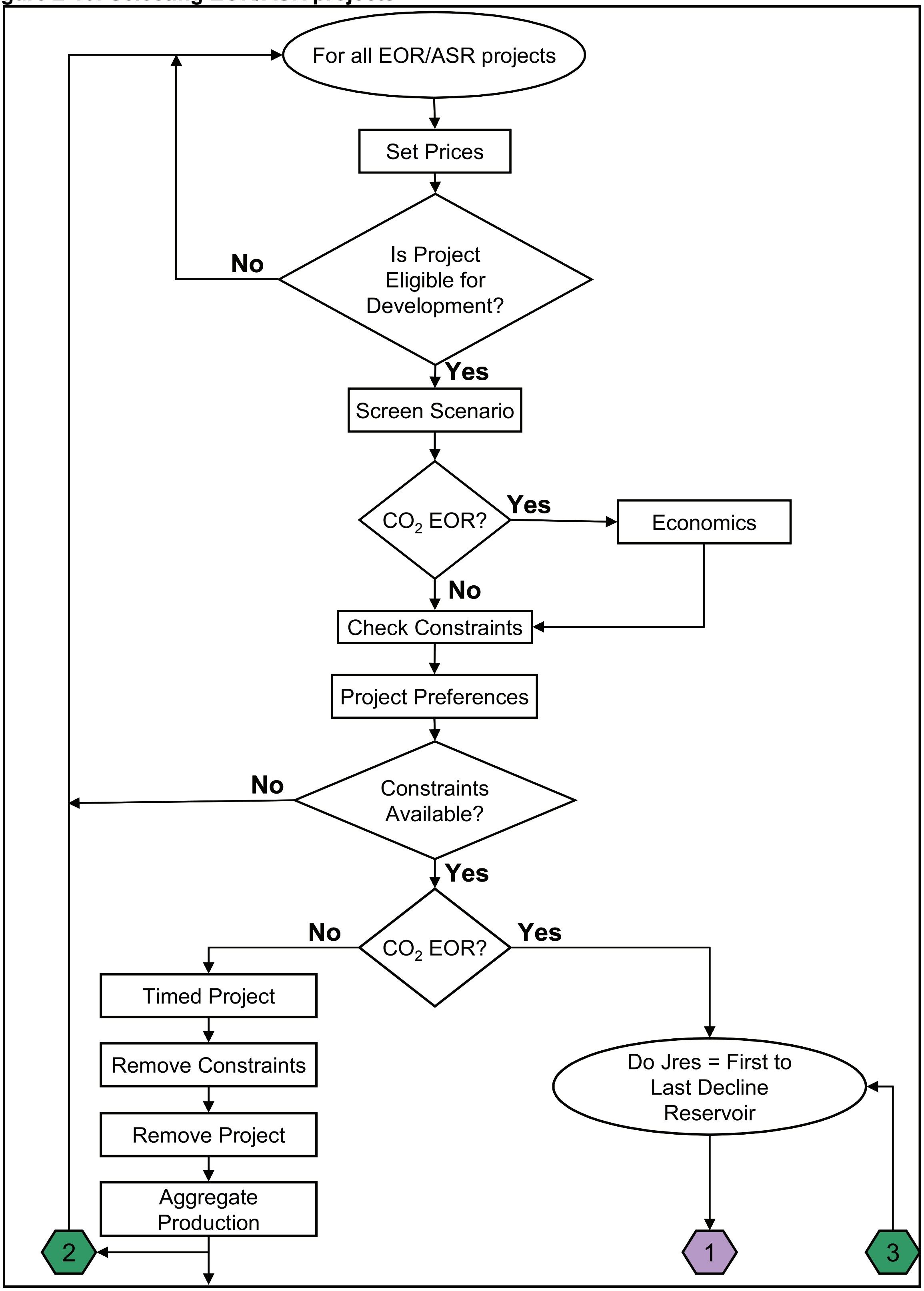
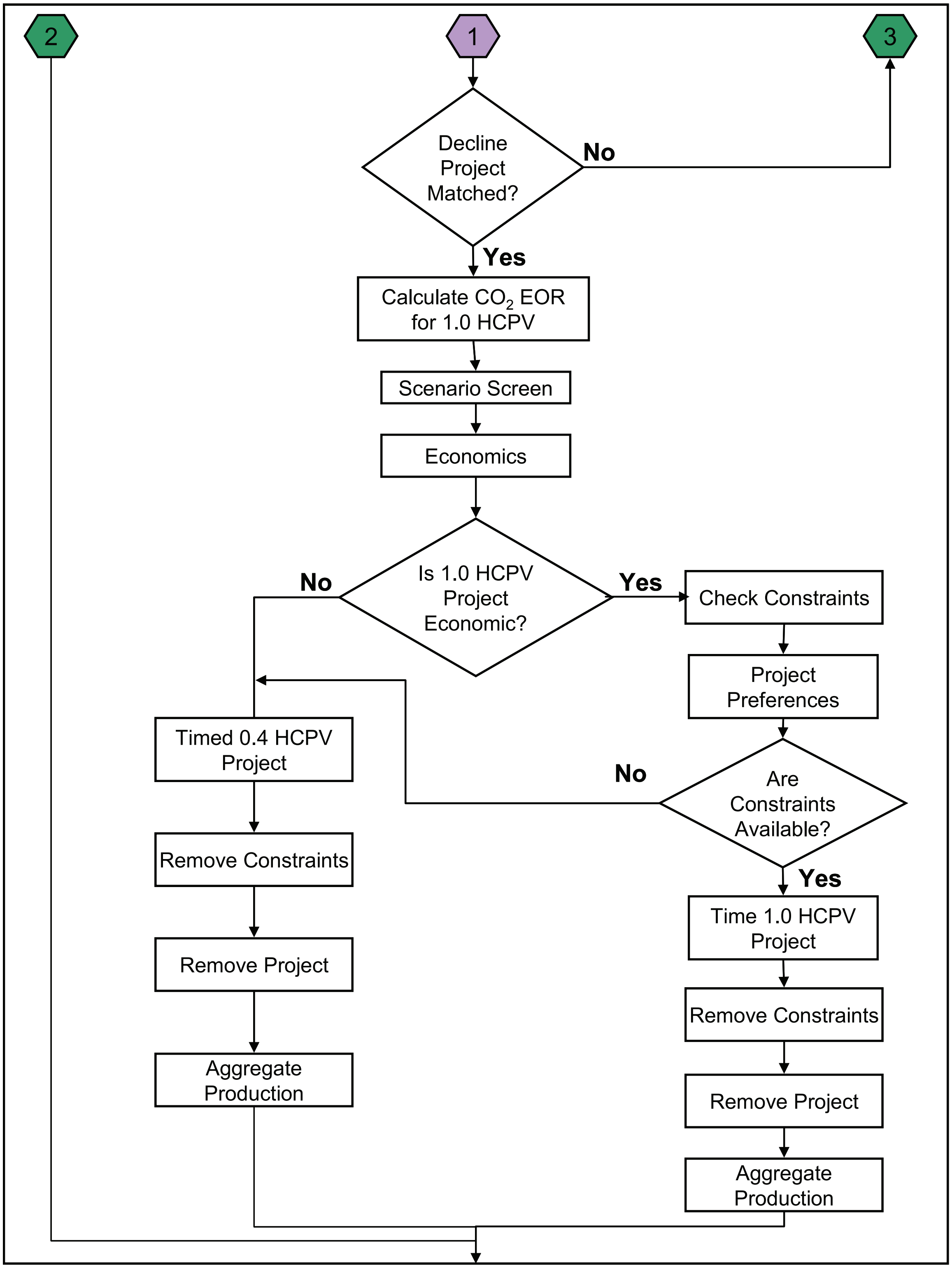


Figure 2-11: Selecting EOR/ASR projects, Continued



For non-CO_2 projects, the constraints are adjusted, the project is removed from the list of eligible projects, and the results are aggregated. It is assumed that most EOR/ASR processes are mutually exclusive and that a reservoir is limited to one process. There are a few exceptions:

- CO_2 EOR and infill drilling can be done in the same reservoir
- CO_2 EOR and horizontal continuity can be done in the same reservoir

For CO_2 EOR projects, a different methodology is used at this step: the decision to increase the total CO_2 injection from 0.4 hydrocarbon pore volume (HCPV) to 1.0 HCPV is made. The model performs the following steps, illustrated in figure 2-10 and continued in figure 2-11.

The CO_2 EOR project is matched to the corresponding decline curve project. Using the project-specific petro-physical properties, the technical production and injection requirements are determined for the 1.0 HCPV project. After applying any applicable technology and economic levers, the model evaluates the project economics. If the 1.0 HCPV project is not economically viable, then the 0.4 HCPV project is timed. If the 1.0 HCPV project is viable, the constraints and project preferences are checked. Assuming that there are sufficient development resources, and competition allows for the development of the project, then the model times the 1.0 HCPV project. If sufficient resources for the 1.0 HCPV project are not available, the model times the 0.4 HCPV project.

Detailed description of project selection

The project selection subroutine analyzes undiscovered crude oil and natural gas projects. If a project is economic and eligible for development, the drilling and capital constraints are examined to determine whether the constraints have been met. The model assumes that the projects for which development resources are available are developed.

Waterflood processing may be considered for undiscovered conventional crude oil projects. The waterflood project will be developed in the first year it is both eligible for implementation and the waterflood project is economically viable.

EOR/ASR Projects

When considering whether a project is eligible for EOR/ASR processing, the model first checks the availability of sufficient development resources are available. Based on the project economics and projected availability of development resources, it also decides whether or not to extend injection in CO_2 EOR projects from 0.4 HCPV to 1.0 HCPV.

If the 1.0 HCPV is economic but insufficient resources are available, the 0.4 HCPV project is selected instead. If the 1.0 HCPV project is uneconomic, the 0.4 HCPV project is selected.

Constraints

Resource development constraints are used during the selection of projects for development in order to mimic the infrastructure limitations of the oil and gas industry. The model assumes that only the projects that do not exceed the constraints available will be developed.

Types of constraints modeled

The development constraints represented in the model include drilling footage availability, rig depth rating, capital constraints, demand for natural gas, carbon dioxide volumes, and resource access.

In the remainder of this section, additional details will be provided for each of these constraints.

Drilling: Drilling constraints are bounding values used to determine the resource production in a given region. OLOGSS uses the following drilling categories:

- Developmental crude oil – applied to EOR/ASR projects
- Developmental natural gas – applied to developing natural gas projects
- Horizontal drilling – applied to horizontal wells
- Dual use – available for either crude oil or natural gas projects
- Conventional crude oil exploration – applied to undiscovered conventional crude oil projects
- Conventional natural gas exploration – applied to undiscovered conventional natural gas projects
- Continuous crude oil exploration – applied to undiscovered continuous crude oil projects
- Continuous natural gas exploration – applied to undiscovered continuous natural gas projects

Except for horizontal drilling, which is calculated as a fraction of the national developmental crude oil footage, all categories are calculated at the national level and apportioned to the regional level. Horizontal drilling is at the national level.

The following equations are used to calculate the national crude oil development drilling. The annual footage available is a function of lagged five year average crude oil prices and the total growth in drilling.

The total growth in drilling is calculated using the following algorithm.
<u>For the first year:</u>

$$\mathrm{TOT\_GROWTH} = 1.0 * \left(1.0 + \frac{\mathrm{DRILL\_OVER}}{100}\right) \tag{2-96}$$

<u>For the remaining years:</u> (2-97)

$$\mathrm{TOT\_GROWTH} = \left(\left(\mathrm{TOT\_GROWTH} * \left(1.0 + \frac{\mathrm{RGR}}{100}\right)\right) - \left(\mathrm{TOT\_GROWTH} * \left(1.0 + \frac{\mathrm{RGR}}{100}\right)\right) * \left(\frac{\mathrm{RRR}}{100}\right)\right) * \left(1.0 * \frac{\mathrm{DRILL\_OVER}}{100}\right)$$

Reviewers note: The equation above would be clearer if it were written as

where

IYR	=	Year evaluated
MAX_YR	=	Maximum number of years
TOT_GROWTH	=	Annual growth change for drilling at the national level (fraction)
DRILL_OVER	=	Percent of drilling constraint available for footage over run
RGR	=	Annual rig development rate (percent)
RRR	=	Annual rig retirement rate (percent)

The national level crude oil and natural gas development footage available for drilling is calculated using the following equations. The coefficients for the drilling footage equations were estimated by least squares using model equations 2.B-16 and 2.B-17 in Appendix 2.B.

$$NAT\_OIL_{IYR} = (OILA0 + OILA1 * OILPRICED_{IYR}) * TOTMUL * TOT\_GROWTH * OIL\_ADJ_{IYR} \qquad (2\text{-}98)$$

$$NAT\_GAS_{IYR} = (GASA0 + GASA1 * GASPRICED_{IYR}) * TOTMUL * TOT\_GROWTH * GAS\_ADJ_{IYR} \qquad (2\text{-}99)$$

where

IYR	=	Year evaluated
TOT_GROWTH	=	Final calculated annual growth change for drilling at the national level
NAT_OIL NAT_GAS	=	National development footage available (Thousand Feet)
OILA0,1 GASA0,1	=	Footage equation coefficients
OILPRICED GASPRICED	=	Annual prices used in drilling constraints, five year average
TOTMUL	=	Total drilling constraint multiplier
OIL_ADJ GAS_ADJ	=	Annual crude oil, natural gas developmental drilling availability factors

After the available footage for drilling is calculated at the national level, regional allocations are used to allocate the drilling to each of the OLOGSS regions. The drilling which is not allocated, due to the "drill_trans" factor, is available in any region and represents the drilling which can be transferred among regions. The regional allocations are then subtracted from the national availability.

$$REG\_OIL_{j,iyr} = NAT\_OIL_{IYR} * \left(\frac{PRO\_REGOIL_J}{100}\right) * \left(1.0 - \frac{DRILL\_TRANS}{100}\right) \qquad (2\text{-}100)$$

where

J	=	Region number
IYR	=	Year

REG_OIL	=	Regional development oil footage (Thousand Feet) available in a specified region
NAT_OIL	=	National development oil footage (Thousand Feet). After allocation, the footage transferrable among regions.
PRO_REGOIL	=	Regional development oil footage allocation (percent)
DRILL_TRANS	=	Percent of footage that is transferable among regions

Footage Constraints: The model determines whether there is sufficient footage available to drill the complete project. The drilling constraint is applied to all projects. Footage requirements are calculated in two stages: vertical drilling and horizontal drilling. The first well for an exploration project is assumed to be a wildcat well and uses a different success rate than the other wells in the project. The vertical drilling is calculated using the following formula.

For non-exploration projects:

$$FOOTREQ_{ii} = (DEPTH_{itech} * (1.0 + SUC\_RATEKD_{itech})) * PATDEV_{irs,ii-itimeyr+1,itech} * (ATOTPROD_{irs,itech} + ATOTINJ_{irs,itech}) + (DEPTH_{itech} * PATDEV_{irs,ii-itiimeyr+1,itech}) * 0.5 * ATOTCONV_{irs,itech} \quad (2\text{-}101)$$

For exploration projects:

For the first year of the project (2-102)

$$FOOTREQ_{ii} = (DEPTH_{itech} * (1.0 + SUC\_RATEUE_{itech})) * (ATOTPROD_{irs,itech} + ATOTINJ_{irs,itech}) + (0.5 * ATOTCONV_{irs,itech}) + (DEPTH_{itech} * (1.0 + SUC\_RATEUD_{itech})) * (PATDEV_{irs,ii-itimeyr+1,itech} - 1 * ATOTPROD_{irs,itech} + ATOTINJ_{ir,itech} + 0.5 * ATOTCONV_{irs,itech})$$

For all other project years (2-103)

$$FOOTREQ_{ii} = (DEPTH_{itech} * (1.0 + SUC\_RATEUD_{itech})) * PATDEV_{irs,ii-itimeyr+1,itech} * (ATOTPROD_{irs,itech} + ATOTINJ_{irs,itech}) + (DEPTH_{itech} * PATDEV_{irs,ii-itimeyr+1,itech} * 0.5 * ATOTCONV_{irs,itech})$$

where

irs	=	Project index number
itech	=	Technology index number
itimeyr	=	Year in which project is evaluated for development
ii	=	Year evaluated
FOOTREQ	=	Footage required for drilling (Thousand Feet)
DEPTH	=	Depth of formation (Feet)
SUC_RATEKD	=	Success rate for known development
SUC_RATEUE	=	Success rate for undiscovered exploration (wildcat)
SUC_RATEUD	=	Success rate for undiscovered development
PATDEV	=	Annual number of patterns developed for base and advanced technology
ATOTPROD	=	Number of new producers drilled per pattern
ATOTINJ	=	Number of new injectors drilled per patterns
ATOTCONV	=	Number of conversions from producing to injection wells per pattern

Add Laterals and Horizontal Wells: The lateral length and the horizontal well length are added to the footage required for drilling.

$$FOOTREQii = FOOTREQii + (ALATNUM_{irs,itech} * ALATLEN_{irs,itech} * (1.0 + SUC\_RATEKD_{itech}) * PATDEV_{irs,ii-itimeyr+1,itech}) \quad (2\text{-}104)$$

where

irs	=	Project index number
itech	=	Technology index number
itimeyr	=	Year in which project is evaluated for development
ii	=	Year evaluated
FOOTREQ	=	Footage required for drilling (Feet)
ALATNUM	=	Number of laterals
ALATLEN	=	Length of laterals (Feet)
SUC_RATEKD	=	Success rate for known development
PATDEV	=	Annual number of patterns developed for base and advanced technology

After determining the footage requirements, the model calculates the footage available for the project. The available footage is specific to the resource, the process, and the constraint options which have been specified by the user. If the footage required to drill the project is greater than the footage available then the project is not feasible.

Rig depth rating: The rig depth rating is used to determine whether a rig is available which can drill to the depth required by the project. OLOGSS uses the nine rig depth categories provided in table 2-5.

Table 2-5 Rig Depth Categories

Depth Category	Minimum Depth (Ft)	Maximum Depth (Ft)
1	1	2,500
2	2,501	5,000
3	5,001	7,500
4	7,501	10,000
5	10,001	12,500
6	12,501	15,000
7	15,001	17,500
8	17,251	20,000
9	20,001	Deeper

The rig depth rating is applied at the national level. The available footage is calculated using the following equation.

$$RDR\_FOOTAGE_{j,\,iyr} = (NAT\_TOT_{iyr} + NAT\_EXP_{iyr} + NAT\_EXPG_{iyr}) * \frac{RDR_j}{100} \quad (2\text{-}106)$$

where

J	=	Rig depth rating category
IYR	=	Year
RDR_FOOTAGE	=	Footage available in this interval (K Ft)

NAT_TOT	=	Total national developmental (crude oil, natural gas, and horizontal) drilling footage available (Thousand feet)
NAT_EXPG	=	National gas exploration drilling constraint
NAT_EXP	=	Total national exploration drilling footage available (Thousand feet)
RDR_j	=	Percentage of rigs which can drill to depth category j

Capital: Crude oil and natural gas companies use different investment and project evaluation criteria based upon their specific cost of capital, the portfolio of investment opportunities available, and their perceived technical risks. OLOGSS uses capital constraints to mimic limitations on the amount of investments the oil and gas industry can make in a given year. The capital constraint is applied at the national level.

Natural Gas Demand: Demand for natural gas is calculated at the regional level by the NGTDM and supplied to OLOGSS.

Carbon Dioxide: For CO_2 miscible flooding, availability of CO_2 gas from natural and industrial sources is a limiting factor in developing the candidate projects. In the Permian Basin, where the majority of the current CO_2 projects are located, the CO_2 pipeline capacity is a major concern.

The CO_2 constraint in OLOGSS incorporates both industrial and natural sources of CO_2. The industrial sources of CO_2 are ammonia plants, hydrogen plants, existing and planned ethanol plants, cement plants, refineries, fossil fuel power plants, and new IGCC plants.

Technology and market constraints prevent the total volumes of CO_2 produced from becoming immediately available. The development of the CO_2 market is divided into 3 periods:
1) technology R&D, 2) infrastructure construction, and 3) market acceptance. The capture technology is under development during the R&D phase, and no CO_2 produced by the technology is assumed available at that time. During the infrastructure development, the required capture equipment, pipelines, and compressors are being constructed, and no CO_2 is assumed available. During the market acceptance phase, the capture technology is being widely implemented and volumes of CO_2 are assumed to become available.

The maximum CO_2 available is achieved when the maximum percentage of the industry that will adopt the technology has adopted it. This provides an upper limit on the volume of CO_2 that will be available. The graph below provides the annual availability of CO_2 from ammonia plants. Availability curves were developed for each source of industrial, as well as natural CO_2.

CO_2 constraints are calculated at the regional level and are source specific.

Resource Access: Restrictions on access to Federal lands constrain the development of undiscovered crude oil and natural gas resources. OLOGSS uses four resource access categories:

- No leasing due to statutory or executive order
- Leasing available but cumulative timing limitations between 3 and 9 months
- Leasing available but with controlled surface use
- Standard leasing terms

The percentage of the undiscovered resource in each category was estimated using data from the Department of Interior's Basin Inventories of Onshore Federal Land's Oil and Gas Resources.

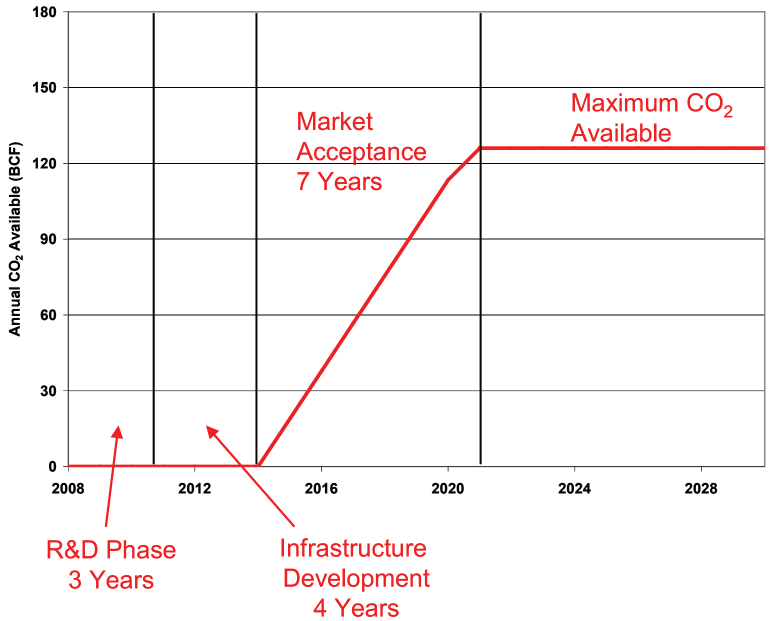


Figure 2-12: CO2 Market Acceptance Curve

Technology

Research and development programs are designed to improve technology to increase the amount of resources recovered from crude oil and natural gas fields. Key areas of study include methods of increasing production, extending reserves, and reducing costs. To optimize the impact of R & D efforts, potential benefits of a new technology are weighed against the costs of research and development. OLOGSS has the capability to model the effects of R & D programs and other technology improvements as they impact the production and economics of a project. This is done in two steps: (1) modeling the implementation of the technology within the oil and gas industry and (2) modeling the costs and benefits for a project that applies this technology.

Impact of technology on economics and recovery

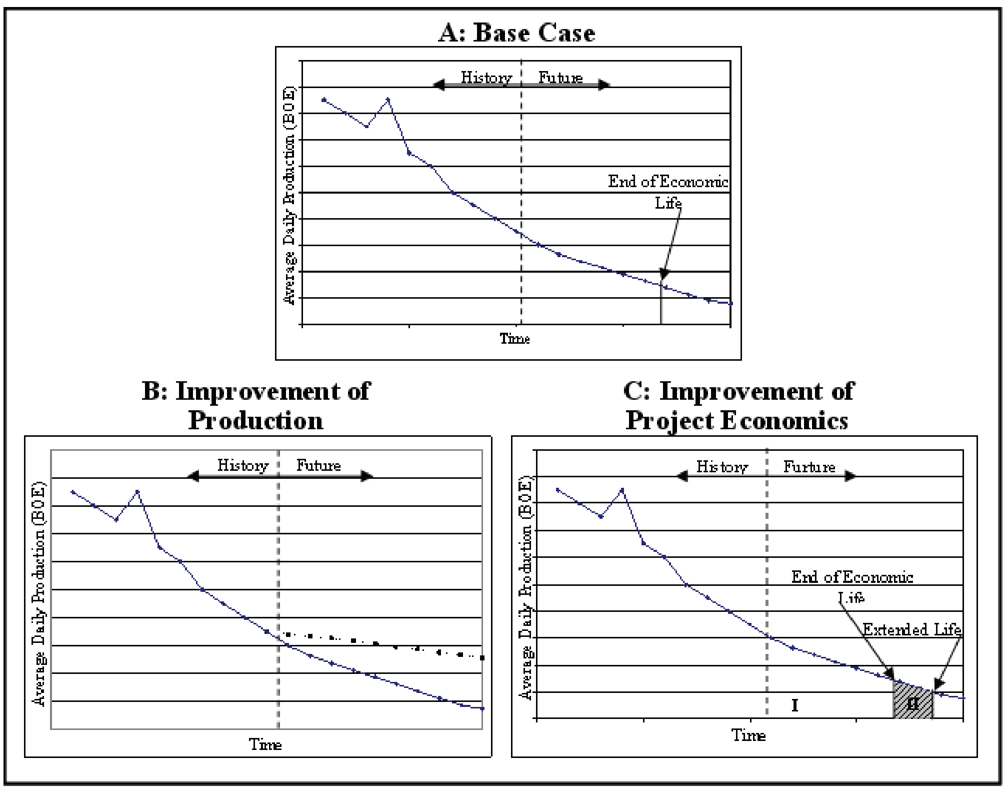
Figure 2-13 illustrates the effects of technology improvement on the production and project economics of a hypothetical well. The graphs plot the daily average production, projected by decline analysis, over the life of the project. Each graph represents a different scenario: (A) base case, (B) production improvement, and (C) economic improvement.

Graph A plots the production for the base case. In the base case, no new technology is applied to the project. The end of the project's economic life, the point at which potential revenues are less than costs of further production, is indicated. At that point, the project would be subject to reserves-growth processes or shut in.

Graph B plots the production for the base case and a production-increasing technology such as skin reduction. The reduction in skin, through well-bore fracturing or acidizing, increases the daily production flow rate. The increase in daily production rate is shown by the dotted line in graph B. The outcome of the production-increasing technology is reserves growth for the well. The amount of reserves growth for the well is shown by the area between the two lines as illustrated in figure 2-13 graph B.

Another example of technology improvement is captured in graph C. In this case a technology is implemented that reduces the cost of operation and maintenance, thereby extending the reservoir life as shown in figure 2-13 graph C.

Figure 2-13: Impact of Economic and Technology Levers

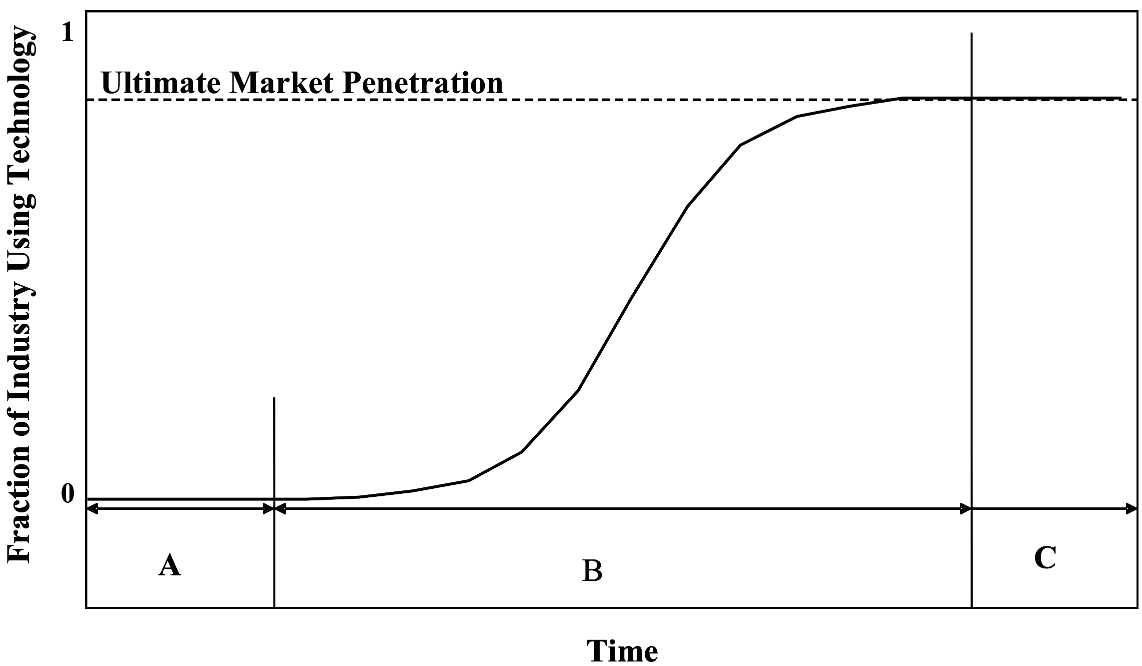


Technology improvements are modeled in OLOGSS using a variety of technology and economic levers. The technology levers, which impact production, are applied to the technical production of the project. The economic levers, which model improvement in project economics, are applied to cashflow calculations. Technology penetration curves are used to model the market penetration of each technology.

The technology-penetration curve is divided into three sections, each of which represents a phase of development. The first section is the research and development phase. In this phase the technology is developed and tested in the laboratory. During these years, the industry may be aware of the technology but has not begun implementation, and therefore does not see a benefit to production or economics. The second section corresponds to the commercialization phase. In the commercialization phase, the technology has successfully left the laboratory and is being adopted by the industry. The third section represents maximum market penetration. This is the ultimate extent to which the technology is adopted by the industry.

Figure 2-14 provides the graph of a generic technology-penetration curve. This graph plots the fraction of industry using the new technology (between 0 and 1) over time. During the research and development phase (A) the fraction of the industry using the technology is 0. This increases during commercialization phase (B) until it reaches the ultimate market penetration. In phase C, the period of maximum market acceptance, the percentage of industry using the technology remains constant.

Figure 2-14: Generic Technology Penetration Curve

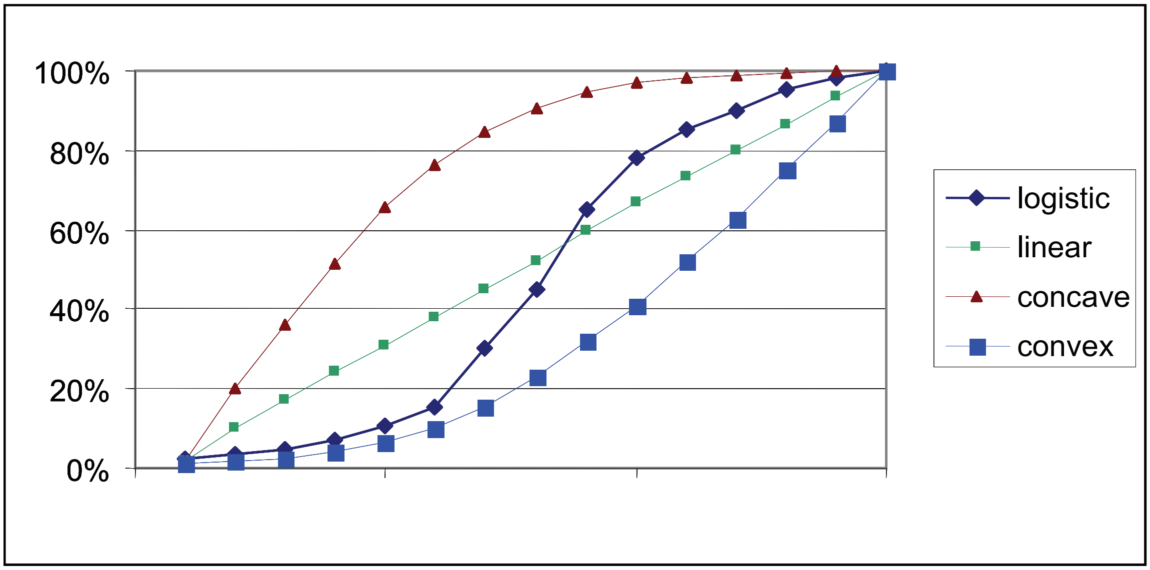


Technology modeling in OLOGSS

The success of the technology program is measured by estimating the probability that the technology development program will be successfully completed. It reflects the pace at which technology performance improves and the probability that the technology project will meet the program goals. There are four possible curve shapes that may represent the adoption of the technology: convex, concave, sigmoid/logistic or linear, as shown in figure 2-15. The convex curve corresponds to rapid initial market penetration followed by slow market penetration. The concave curve corresponds to slow initial market penetration followed by rapid market penetration. The sigmoid/logistic curve represents a slow initial adoption rate followed by rapid increase in adoption and the slow adoption again as the market becomes saturated. The linear curve represents a constant rate of market penetration, and may be used when no other predictions can be made.

The market penetration curve is a function of the relative economic attractiveness of the technology instead of being a time-dependent function. A technology will not be implemented unless the benefits through increased production or cost reductions are greater than the cost to apply the technology. As a result, the market penetration curve provides a limiting value on commercialization instead of a specific penetration path. In addition to the curve, the implementation probability captures the fact that not all technologies that have been proved in the lab are able to be successfully implemented in the field. The implementation probability does not reflect resource access, development constraints, or economic factors.

Figure 2-15: Potential Market Penetration Profiles



The three phases of the technology penetration curve are modeled using three sets of equations. The first set of equations models the research and development phase, the second set models the commercialization phase, and the third set models the maximum market penetration phase.

In summary, technology penetration curves are defined using the following variables:

- Number of years required to develop a technology = Y_d
- First year of commercialization = Y_c
- Number of years to fully penetrate the market = Y_a
- Ultimate market penetration (%) = UP
- Probability of success = P_s
- Probability of implementation = P_i
- Percent of industry implementing the technology (fraction) in year x = Imp_x

Research and Development Phase:
During the research and development phase, the percentage of industry implementing the new technology for a given year is zero.

This equation is used for all values of *market_penetration_profile.*

Commercialization Phase:

The commercialization phase covers the years from the beginning of commercialization through the number of years required to fully develop the technology. The equations used to model this phase depend upon the value of *market_penetration_profile.*

If the *market_penetration_profile* is assumed to be *convex*, then

Step 1: Calculate raw implementation percentage:

$$Imp_{xr} = -0.9 * 0.4^{[(x - Ys) / Ya]} \tag{2-105}$$

Step 2: Normalize Imp_x using the following equation:

$$Imp_x = \frac{[(-0.6523) - Imp_x]}{[(-0.6523) - (-0.036)]} \tag{2-106}$$

If the *market_penetration_profile* is assumed to be *concave*, then

Step 1: Calculate raw implementation percentage:

$$Imp_x = 0.9 * 0.04^{[1 - \{(x + 1 - Ys)/ Ya\}]} \tag{2-107}$$

Step 2: Normalize Imp_x using the following equation:

$$Imp_x = \frac{[(0.04) - Imp_{xr}]}{[(0.04) - (0.74678)]} \tag{2-108}$$

If the *market_penetration_profile* is assumed to be *sigmoid*, then

Step 1: Determine midpoint of the sigmoid curve = int $\left(\frac{Y_a}{2}\right)$

Where int$\left(\frac{Y_a}{2}\right) = \left(\frac{Y_a}{2}\right)$ rounded to the nearest integer

Step 2: Assign a value of 0 to the midpoint year of the commercialization period, incrementally increase the values for the years above the midpoint year, and incrementally decrease the values for the years below the midpoint year.

Step 3: Calculate raw implementation percentage:

$$Imp_x = \frac{e^{value_x}}{1 + e^{value_x}} \tag{2-109}$$

No normalizing of Imp_x is required for the sigmoid profile.

If the *market_penetration_profile* is assumed to be *linear*, then

Step 1: Calculate the raw implementation percentage:

$$\text{Imp}_x = \left[\frac{P_s * P_i * UP}{Y_a + 1} \right] * x_i \qquad (2\text{-}110)$$

No normalizing of Imp_x is required for the linear profile.

Note that the maximum technology penetration is 1.

Ultimate Market Penetration Phase:
For each of the curves generated, the ultimate technology penetration applied per year will be calculated using:

$$\text{Imp}_{final} = \text{Imp}_x * P_s * P_i \qquad (2\text{-}111)$$

Note that Imp_{final} is not to exceed Ultimate Market Penetration ("UP")

Using these three sets of equations, the industry-wide implementation of a technology improvement can be mapped using a technology-penetration curve.

Levers included in model

Project Level Technology Impact: Adopting a new technology can impact two aspects of a project. It improves the production and/or improves the economics. Technology and economic levers are variables in OLOGSS. The values for these levers are set by the user.

There are two cost variables to which economic levers can be applied in the cashflow calculations: the cost of applying the technology and the cost reductions that result from the technology's implementation. The cost to apply is the incremental cost to apply the technology. The cost reduction is the savings associated with using the new technology. The "cost to apply" levers can be applied at the well and/or project level. The model recognizes the distinction between technologies that are applied at the well level – modeling while drilling - and reservoir characterization and simulation, which affects the entire project. By using both types of levers, users can model the relationship between implementation costs and offsetting cost reductions.

The model assumes that the technology will be implemented only if the cost to apply the technology is less than the increased revenue generated through improved production and cost reductions.

Resource and Filter Levers: Two other types of levers are incorporated into OLOGSS: resource-access levers and technology levers. Resource-access levers allow the user to model changes in resource-access policy. For example, the user can specify that the federal lands in the Santa Maria Basin, which are currently inaccessible due to statutory or executive orders, will be available for exploration in 2015. A series of filter levers is also incorporated in the model. These are used to specifically locate the impact of technology improvement. For example, a technology can be applied only to CO_2 flooding projects in the Rocky Mountain region that are between 5,000 and 7,000 feet deep.

Appendix 2.A: Onshore Lower 48 Data Inventory

Variable Name	Variable Type	Description	Unit
AAPI	Input	API gravity	
AARP	Input	CO_2 source acceptance rate	
ABO	Variable	Current formation volume factor	Bbl/stb
ABOI	Input	Initial formation volume factor	Bbl/stb
ABTU	Variable	BTU content	Btu/Cf
ACER	Input	ACE rate	Percent
ACHGASPROD	Input	Cumulative historical natural gas production	MMcf
ACHOILPROD	Input	Cumulative historical crude oil production	MBbl
ACO2CONT	Input	CO_2 impurity content	%
ADEPTH	Input	Depth	Feet
ADGGLA	Variable	Depletable items in the year (G & G and lease acquisition cost)	K$
ADJGAS	Variable	National natural gas drilling adjustment factor	Fraction
ADJGROSS	Variable	Adjusted gross revenue	K$
ADJOIL	Variable	National crude oil drilling adjustment factor	Fraction
ADOILPRICE	Variable	Adjusted crude oil price	$/Bbl
ADVANCED	Variable	Patterns to be developed using advanced technology	Fraction
AECON_LIFE	Variable	Economic life of the project	Years
AFLP	Input	Portion of reservoir on federal lands	Fraction
AGAS_GRAV	Input	Natural gas gravity	
AGOR	Input	Gas/oil ratio	Mcf/bbl
AH2SCONT	Input	H_2S impurity content	%
AHCPV	Variable	Hydro Carbon Pore Volume	0.4 HCPV
AHEATVAL	Input	Heat content of natural gas	Btu/Cf
AINJINJ	Input	Annual injectant injected	MBbl, Mcf, MLbs
AINJRECY	Variable	Annual injectant recycled	MBbl, Mcf
AIRSVGAS	Variable	End of year inferred natural gas reserves	MMcf
AIRSVOIL	Variable	End of year inferred crude oil reserves	MBbl
ALATLEN	Input	Lateral length	Feet
ALATNUM	Input	Number of laterals	
ALYRGAS	Input	Last year of historical natural gas production	MMcf

ALYROIL	Input	Last year of historical crude oil production	MBbl
AMINT	Variable	Alternative minimum income tax	K$
AMOR	Variable	Intangible investment depreciation amount	K$
AMOR_BASE	Variable	Amortization base	K$
AMORSCHL	Input	Annual fraction amortized	Fraction
AMT	Input	Alternative minimum tax	K$
AMTRATE	Input	Alternative minimum tax rate	K$
AN2CONT	Input	N_2 impurity content	%
ANGL	Input	NGL	bbl/MMcf
ANUMACC	Input	Number of accumulations	
ANWELLGAS	Input	Number of natural gas wells	
ANWELLINJ	Input	Number of injection wells	
ANWELLOIL	Input	Number of crude oil wells	
AOAM	Variable	Annual fixed O & M cost	K$
AOGIP	Variable	Original Gas in Place	Bcf
AOILVIS	Input	Crude Oil viscosity	CP
AOOIP	Variable	Original Oil In Place	MBbl
AORGOOIP	Input	Original OOIP	MBbl
APATSIZ	Input	Pattern size	Acres
APAY	Input	Net pay	Feet
APD	Variable	Annual percent depletion	K$
APERM	Input	Permeability	MD
APHI	Input	Porosity	Percent
APLAY_CDE	Input	Play number	
APRESIN	Variable	Initial pressure	PSIA
APRODCO2	Input	Annual CO_2 production	MMcf
APRODGAS	Input	Annual natural gas production	MMcf
APRODNGL	Input	Annual NGL production	MBbl
APRODOIL	Input	Annual crude oil production	MBbl
APRODWAT	Input	Annual water production	MBbl
APROV	Input	Province	
AREGION	Input	Region number	
ARESACC	Input	Resource Access	
ARESFLAG	Input	Resource flag	
ARESID	Input	Reservoir ID number	
ARESVGAS	Variable	End of year proven natural gas reserves	MMcf
ARESVOIL	Variable	End of year proven crude oil reserves	MBbl
ARRC	Input	Railroad Commission District	
ASC	Input	Reservoir Size Class	
ASGI	Variable	Gas saturation	Percent
ASOC	Input	Current oil saturation	Percent
ASOI	Input	Initial oil saturation	Percent

ASOR	Input	Residual oil saturation	Percent
ASR_ED	Input	Number of years after economic life of ASR	
ASR_ST	Input	Number of years before economic life of ASR	
ASULFOIL	Input	Sulfur content of crude oil	%
ASWI	Input	Initial water saturation	Percent
ATCF	Variable	After tax cashflow	K$
ATEMP	Variable	Reservoir temperature	F°
ATOTACRES	Input	Total area	Acres
ATOTCONV	Input	Number of conversions from producing wells to injecting wells per pattern	
ATOTINJ	Input	Number of new injectors drilled per pattern	
ATOTPAT	Input	Total number of patterns	
ATOTPROD	Input	Number of new producers drilled per pattern	
ATOTPS	Input	Number of primary wells converted to secondary wells per pattern	
AVDP	Input	Dykstra Parsons coefficient	
AWATINJ	Input	Annual water injected	MBbl
AWOR	Input	Water/oil ratio	Bbl/Bbl
BAS_PLAY	Input	Basin number	
BASEGAS	Input	Base natural gas price used for normalization of capital and operating costs	$/Mcf
BASEOIL	Input	Base crude oil price used for normalization of capital and operating costs	K$
BSE_AVAILCO2	Variable	Base annual volume of CO_2 available by region	Bcf
CAP_BASE	Variable	Capital to be depreciated	K$
CAPMUL	Input	Capital constraints multiplier	
CATCF	Variable	Cumulative discounted cashflow	K$
CHG_ANNSEC_FAC	Input	Change in annual secondary operating cost	Fraction
CHG_CHMPNT_FAC	Input	Change in chemical handling plant cost	Fraction
CHG_CMP_FAC	Input	Change in compression cost	Fraction
CHG_CO2PNT_FAC	Input	Change in CO_2 injection/recycling plant cost	Fraction
CHG_COMP_FAC	Input	Change in completion cost	Fraction
CHG_DRL_FAC	Input	Change in drilling cost	Fraction
CHG_FAC_FAC	Input	Change in facilities cost	Fraction

CHG_FACUPG_FAC	Input	Change in facilities upgrade cost	Fraction
CHG_FOAM_FAC	Input	Change in fixed annual O & M cost	Fraction
CHG_GNA_FAC	Input	Change in G & A cost	Fraction
CHG_INJC_FAC	Input	Change in injection cost	Fraction
CHG_INJCONV_FAC	Input	Change in injector conversion cost	Fraction
CHG_INJT_FAC	Input	Change in injectant cost	Fraction
CHG_LFT_FAC	Input	Change in lifting cost	Fraction
CHG_OGAS_FAC	Input	Change in natural gas O & M cost	K$
CHG_OINJ_FAC	Input	Change in injection O & M cost	K$
CHG_OOIL_FAC	Input	Change in oil O & M cost	K$
CHG_OWAT_FAC	Input	Change in water O & M cost	K$
CHG_PLYPNT_FAC	Input	Change in polymer handling plant cost	Fraction
CHG_PRDWAT_FAC	Input	Change in produced water handling plant cost	Fraction
CHG_SECWRK_FAC	Input	Change in secondary workover cost	Fraction
CHG_SECCONV_FAC	Input	Change in secondary conversion cost	Fraction
CHG_STM_FAC	Input	Change in stimulation cost	Fraction
CHG_STMGEN_FAC	Input	Change in steam generation and distribution cost	Fraction
CHG_VOAM_FAC	Input	Change in variable O & M cost	Fraction
.CHG_WRK_FAC	Input	Change in workover cost	Fraction
CHM_F	Variable	Cost for a chemical handling plant	K$
CHMA	Input	Chemical handling plant	
CHMB	Input	Chemical handling plant	
CHMK	Input	Chemical handling plant	
CIDC	Input	Capitalize intangible drilling costs	K$
CO2_F	Variable	Cost for a CO_2 recycling/injection plant	K$
CO2_RAT_ FAC	Input	CO_2 injection factor	
CO2AVAIL	Variable	Total CO_2 available in a region across all sources	Bcf/Yr
CO2BASE	Input	Total Volume of CO_2 Available	Bcf/Yr
CO2COST	Variable	Final cost for CO_2	$/Mcf

CO2B	Input	Constant and coefficient for natural CO_2 cost equation	
CO2K	Input	Constant and coefficient for natural CO_2 cost equation	
CO2MUL	Input	CO_2 availability constraint multiplier	
CO2OAM	Variable	CO_2 variable O & M cost	K$
CO2OM_20	Input	The O & M cost for CO_2 injection < 20 MMcf	K$
CO2OM20	Input	The O & M cost for CO_2 injection > 20 MMcf	K$
CO2PR	Input	State/regional multipliers for natural CO_2 cost	
CO2PRICE	Input	CO_2 price	$/Mcf
CO2RK, CO2RB	Input	CO_2 recycling plant cost	K$
CO2ST	Input	State code for natural CO_2 cost	
COI	Input	Capitalize other intangibles	
COMP	Variable	Compressor cost	K$
COMP_OAM	Variable	Compressor O & M cost	K$
COMP_VC	Input	Compressor O & M costs	K$
COMP_W	Variable	Compression cost to bring natural gas up to pipeline pressure	K$
COMYEAR_FAC	Input	Number of years of technology commercialization for the penetration curve	Years
CONTIN_ FAC	Input	Continuity increase factor	
COST_BHP	Input	Compressor Cost	$/Bhp
COTYPE	Variable	CO_2 source, either industrial or natural	
CPI_2003	Variable	CPI conversion for 2003$	
CPI_2005	Variable	CPI conversion for 2005$	
CPI_AVG	Input	Average CPI from 1990 to 2010	
CPI_FACTOR	Input	CPI factor from 1990 to 2010	
CPI_YEAR	Input	Year for CPI index	
CREDAMT	Input	Flag that allows AMT to be credited in future years	
CREGPR	Input	The CO_2 price by region and source	$/Mcf
CST_ANNSEC_ FAC	Input	Well level cost to apply secondary producer technology	K$
CST_ANNSEC_CSTP	Variable	Project level cost to apply secondary producer technology	K$

CST_CMP_CSTP	Variable	Project level cost to apply compression technology	K$
CST_CMP_FAC	Input	Well level cost to apply compression technology	K$
CST_COMP_ FAC	Input	Well level cost to apply completion technology	K$
CST_COMP_CSTP	Variable	Project level cost to apply completion technology	K$
CST_DRL_ FAC	Input	Well level cost to apply drilling technology	K$
CST_DRL_CSTP	Variable	Project level cost to apply drilling technology	K$
CST_FAC_ FAC	Input	Well level cost to apply facilities technology	K$
CST_FAC_CSTP	Variable	Project level cost to apply facilities technology	K$
CST_FACUPG_ FAC	Input	Well level cost to apply facilities upgrade technology	K$
CST_FACUPG_CSTP	Variable	Project level cost to apply facilities upgrade technology	K$
CST_FOAM_ FAC	Input	Well level cost to apply fixed annual O & M technology	K$
CST_FOAM_CSTP	Variable	Project level cost to apply fixed annual O & M technology	K$
CST_GNA_ FAC	Input	Well level cost to apply G & A technology	K$
CST_GNA_CSTP	Variable	Project level cost to apply G & A technology	K$
CST_INJC_ FAC	Input	Well level cost to apply injection technology	K$
CST_INJC_CSTP	Variable	Project level cost to apply injection technology	K$
CST_INJCONV_ FAC	Input	Well level cost to apply injector conversion technology	K$
CST_INJCONV_CSTP	Variable	Project level cost to apply injector conversion technology	K$
CST_LFT_ FAC	Input	Well level cost to apply lifting technology	K$
CST_LFT_CSTP	Variable	Project level cost to apply lifting technology	K$
CST_SECCONV_ FAC	Input	Well level cost to apply secondary conversion technology	K$

CST_SECCONV_CSTP	Variable	Project level cost to apply secondary conversion technology	K$
CST_SECWRK_ FAC	Input	Well level cost to apply secondary workover technology	K$
CST_SECWRK_CSTP	Variable	Project level cost to apply secondary workover technology	K$
CST_STM_ FAC	Input	Well level cost to apply stimulation technology	K$
CST_STM_CSTP	Variable	Project level cost to apply stimulation technology	K$
CST_VOAM_ FAC	Input	Well level cost to apply variable annual O & M technology	K$
CST_VOAM_CSTP	Variable	Project level cost to apply variable annual O & M technology	K$
CST_WRK_ FAC	Input	Well level cost to apply workover technology	K$
CST_WRK_CSTP	Variable	Project level cost to apply workover technology	K$
CSTP_ANNSEC_ FAC	Input	Project level cost to apply secondary producer technology	K$
CSTP_CMP_ FAC	Input	Project level cost to apply compression technology	K$
CSTP_COMP_ FAC	Input	Project level cost to apply completion technology	K$
CSTP_DRL_ FAC	Input	Project level cost to apply drilling technology	K$
CSTP_FAC_ FAC	Input	Project level cost to apply facilities technology	K$
CSTP_FACUPG_ FAC	Input	Project level cost to apply facilities upgrade technology	K$
CSTP_FOAM_ FAC	Input	Project level cost to apply fixed annual O & M technology	K$
CSTP_GNA_ FAC	Input	Project level cost to apply G & A technology	K$
CSTP_INJC_ FAC	Input	Project level cost to apply injection technology	K$
CSTP_INJCONV_ FAC	Input	Project level cost to apply injector conversion technology	K$
CSTP_LFT_ FAC	Input	Project level cost to apply lifting technology	K$

CSTP_SECCONV_ FAC	Input	Project level cost to apply secondary conversion technology	K$
CSTP_SECWRK_ FAC	Input	Project level cost to apply secondary workover technology	K$
CSTP_STM_ FAC	Input	Project level cost to apply stimulation technology	K$
CSTP_VOAM_ FAC	Input	Project level cost to apply variable annual O & M technology	K$
CSTP_WRK_ FAC	Input	Project level cost to apply workover technology	K$
CUTOIL	Input	Base crude oil price for the adjustment term of price normalization	$/Bbl
DATCF	Variable	Discounted cashflow after taxes	K$
DEP_CRD	Variable	Depletion credit	K$
DEPLET	Variable	Depletion allowance	K$
DEPR	Variable	Depreciation amount	K$
DEPR_OVR	Input	Annual fraction to depreciate	
DEPR_PROC	Input	Process number for override schedule	
DEPR_YR	Input	Number of years for override schedule	
DEPRSCHL	Input	Annual Fraction Depreciated	Fraction
DEPR_SCH	Variable	Process specific depreciation schedule	Years
DGGLA	Variable	Depletion base (G & G and lease acquisition cost)	K$
DISC_DRL	Variable	Discounted drilling cost	K$
DISC_FED	Variable	Discounted federal tax payments	K$
DISC_GAS	Variable	Discounted revenue from natural gas sales	K$
DISC_INV	Variable	Discounted investment rate	K$
DISC_NDRL	Variable	Discounted project facilities costs	K$
DISC_OAM	Variable	Discounted O & M cost	K$
DISC_OIL	Variable	Discounted revenue from crude oil sales	K$
DISC_ROY	Variable	Discounted royalty	K$
DISC_ST	Variable	Discounted state tax rate	K$
DISCLAG	Input	Number of years between discovery and first production	
DISCOUNT_RT	Input	Process discount rates	Percent

DRCAP_D	Variable	Regional dual use drilling footage for crude oil and natural gas development	Ft
DRCAP_G	Variable	Regional natural gas well drilling footage constraints	Ft
DRCAP_O	Variable	Regional crude oil well drilling footage constraints	Ft
DRILL_FAC	Input	Drilling rate factor	
DRILL_OVER	Input	Drilling constraints available for footage over run	%
DRILL_RES	Input	Development drilling constraints available for transfer between crude oil and natural gas	%
DRILL_TRANS	Input	Drilling constraints transfer between regions	%
DRILLCST	Variable	Drill cost by project	K$
DRILLL48	Variable	Successful well drilling costs	1987$ per well
DRL_CST	Variable	Drilling cost	K$
DRY_CST	Variable	Dryhole drilling cost	K$
DRY_DWCA	Estimated	Dryhole well cost	K$
DRY_DWCB	Estimated	Dryhole well cost	K$
DRY_DWCC	Estimated	Dryhole well cost	K$
DRY_DWCD	Input	Maximum depth range for dry well drilling cost equations	Ft
DRY_DWCK	Estimated	Constant for dryhole drilling cost equation	
DRY_DWCM	Input	Minimum depth range for dry well drilling equations	Ft
DRY_W	Variable	Cost to drill a dry well	K$
DRYCST	Variable	Dryhole cost by project	K$
DRYL48	Variable	Dry well drilling costs	1987$ per well
DRYWELLL48	Variable	Dry Lower 48 onshore wells drilled	Wells
DWC_W	Variable	Cost to drill and complete a crude oil well	K$
EADGGLA	Variable	G&G and lease acquisition cost depletion	K$
EADJGROSS	Variable	Adjusted revenue	K$
EAMINT	Variable	Alternative minimum tax	K$
EAMOR	Variable	Amortization	K$
EAOAM	Variable	Fixed annual operating cost	K$
EATCF	Variable	After tax cash flow	K$
ECAP_BASE	Variable	Depreciable/capitalized base	K$

ECATCF	Variable	Cumulative discounted after tax cashflow	K$
ECO2CODE	Variable	CO_2 source code	
ECO2COST	Variable	CO_2 cost	K$
ECO2INJ	Variable	Economic CO_2 injection	Bcf/Yr
ECO2LIM	Variable	Source specific project life for CO_2 EOR projects	
ECO2POL	Variable	Injected CO_2	MMcf
ECO2RANKVAL	Variable	Source specific ranking value for CO_2 EOR projects	
ECO2RCY	Variable	CO_2 recycled	Bcf/Yr
ECOMP	Variable	Compressor tangible capital	K$
EDATCF	Variable	Discounted after tax cashflow	K$
EDEP_CRD	Variable	Adjustment to depreciation base for federal tax credits	K$
EDEPGGLA	Variable	Depletable G & G/lease cost	K$
EDEPLET	Variable	Depletion	K$
EDEPR	Variable	Depreciation	K$
EDGGLA	Variable	Depletion base	K$
EDRYHOLE	Variable	Number of dryholes drilled	
EEC	Input	Expensed environmental costs	K$
EEGGLA	Variable	Expensed G & G and lease acquisition cost	K$
EEORTCA	Variable	Tax credit addback	K$
EEXIST_ECAP	Variable	Environmental existing capital	K$
EEXIST_EOAM	Variable	Environmental existing O & M costs	K$
EFEDCR	Variable	Federal tax credits	K$
EFEDROY	Variable	Federal royalty	K$
EFEDTAX	Variable	Federal tax	K$
EFOAM	Variable	CO_2 FOAM cost	K$
EGACAP	Variable	G & A capitalized	K$
EGAEXP	Variable	G & A expensed	K$
EGASPRICE2	Variable	Natural gas price used in the economics	K$
EGG	Variable	Expensed G & G cost	K$
EGGLA	Variable	Expensed G & G and lease acquisition cost	K$
EGGLAADD	Variable	G & G/lease addback	K$
EGRAVADJ	Variable	Gravity adjustment	K$
EGREMRES	Variable	Remaining proven natural gas reserves	Bcf
EGROSSREV	Variable	Gross revenues	K$
EIA	Variable	Environmental intangible addback	K$

EICAP	Variable	Environmental intangible capital	
EICAP2	Variable	Environmental intangible capital	
EIGEN	Variable	Number of steam generators	
EIGREMRES	Variable	Remaining inferred natural gas reserves	Bcf
EII	Variable	Intangible investment	K$
EIIDRL	Variable	Intangible investment drilling	K$
EINJCOST	Variable	CO_2/Polymer cost	K$
EINJDR	Variable	New injection wells drilled per year	
EINJWELL	Variable	Active injection wells per year	
EINTADD	Variable	Intangible addback	K$
EINTCAP	Variable	Tangible investment drilling	K$
EINVEFF	Variable	Investment efficiency	
EIREMRES	Variable	Remaining inferred crude oil reserves	MMBbl
EITC	Input	Environmental intangible tax credit	K$
EITCAB	Input	Environmental intangible tax credit rate addback	%
EITCR	Input	Environmental intangible tax credit rate	K$
ELA	Variable	Lease and acquisition cost	K$
ELYRGAS	Variable	Last year of historical natural gas production	MMcf
ELYROIL	Variable	Last year of historical crude oil production	MBbl
ENETREV	Variable	Net revenues	K$
ENEW_ECAP	Variable	Environmental new capital	K$
ENEW_EOAM	Variable	Environmental new O & M costs	K$
ENIAT	Variable	Net income after taxes	K$
ENIBT	Variable	Net income before taxes	K$
ENPV	Variable	Net present value	K$
ENV_FAC	Input	Environmental capital cost multiplier	
ENVOP_FAC	Input	Environmental operating cost multiplier	
ENVSCN	Input	Include environmental costs?	
ENYRSI	Variable	Number of years project is economic	
EOAM	Variable	Variable operating and maintenance	K$

EOCA	Variable	Environmental operating cost addback	K$
EOCTC	Input	Environmental operating cost tax credit	K$
EOCTCAB	Input	Environmental operating cost tax credit rate addback	%
EOCTCR	Input	Environmental operating cost tax credit rate	K$
EOILPRICE2	Variable	Crude oil price used in the economics	K$
EORTC	Input	EOR tax credit	K$
EORTCA	Variable	EOR tax credit addback	K$
EORTCAB	Input	EOR tax credit rate addback	%
EORTCP	Input	EOR tax credit phase out crude oil price	K$
EORTCR	Input	EOR tax credit rate	K$
EORTCRP	Input	EOR tax credit applied by year	%
EOTC	Variable	Other tangible capital	K$
EPROC_OAM	Variable	Natural gas processing cost	K$
EPRODDR	Variable	New production wells drilled per year	
EPRODGAS	Variable	Economic natural gas production	MMcf
EPRODOIL	Variable	Economic crude oil production	MBbl
EPRODWAT	Variable	Economic water production	MBbl
EPRODWELL	Variable	Active producing wells per year	
EREMRES	Variable	Remaining proven crude oil reserves	MMBbl
EROR	Variable	Rate of return	
EROY	Variable	Royalty	K$
ESEV	Variable	Severance tax	K$
ESHUTIN	Variable	New shut in wells drilled per year	
ESTIM	Variable	Stimulation cost	K$
ESTTAX	Variable	State tax	K$
ESUMP	Variable	Number of patterns	
ESURFVOL	Variable	Total volume injected	MMcf/ MBbl/ MLbs
ETAXINC	Variable	Net income before taxes	K$
ETCADD	Variable	Tax credit addbacks taken from NIAT	K$
ETCI	Variable	Federal tax credit	K$
ETCIADJ	Variable	Adjustment for federal tax credit	K$

ETI	Variable	Tangible investments	K$
ETOC	Variable	Total operating cost	K$
ETORECY	Variable	CO_2/Surf/Steam recycling volume	Bcf/MBbl/Yr
ETORECY_CST	Variable	CO_2/Surf/Steam recycling cost	Bcf/MBbl/Yr
ETTC	Input	Environmental tangible tax credit	K$
ETTCAB	Input	Environmental tangible tax credit rate addback	%
ETTCR	Input	Environmental tangible tax credit rate	K$
EWATINJ	Variable	Economic water injected	MBbl
EX_CONRES	Variable	Number of exploration reservoirs	
EX_FCRES	Variable	First exploration reservoir	
EXIST_ECAP	Variable	Existing environmental capital cost	K$
EXIST_EOAM	Variable	Existing environmental O & M cost	K$
EXP_ADJ	Input	Fraction of annual crude oil exploration drilling which is made available	Fraction
EXP_ADJG	Input	Fraction of annual natural gas exploration drilling which is made available	Fraction
EXPA0	Estimated	Crude oil exploration well footage A0	
EXPA1	Estimated	Crude oil exploration well footage A1	
EXPAG0	Input	Natural gas exploration well footage A0	
EXPAG1	Input	Natural gas exploration well footage A1	
EXPATN	Variable	Number of active patterns	
EXPCDRCAP	Variable	Regional conventional exploratory drilling footage constraints	Ft
EXPCDRCAPG	Variable	Regional conventional natural gas exploration drilling footage constraint	Ft
EXPGG	Variable	Expensed G & G cost	K$
EXPL_FRAC	Input	Exploration drilling for conventional crude oil	%
EXPL_FRACG	Input	Exploration drilling for conventional natural gas	%

EXPL_MODEL	Input	Selection of exploration models	
EXPLA	Variable	Expensed lease purchase costs	K$
EXPLR_ FAC	Input	Exploration factor	
EXPLR_CHG	Variable	Change in exploration rate	
EXPLSORTIRES	Variable	Sort pointer for exploration	
EXPMUL	Input	Exploration constraint multiplier	
EXPRDL48	Variable	Expected Production	Oil-MMB Gas-BCF
EXPUDRCAP	Variable	Regional continuous exploratory drilling footage constraints	Ft
EXPUDRCAPG	Variable	Regional continuous natural gas exploratory drilling footage constraints	Ft
FAC_W	Variable	Facilities upgrade cost	K$
FACCOST	Variable	Facilities cost	K$
FACGA	Estimated	Natural gas facilities costs	
FACGB	Estimated	Natural gas facilities costs	
FACGC	Estimated	Natural gas facilities costs	
FACGD	Input	Maximum depth range for natural gas facilities costs	Ft
FACGK	Estimated	Constant for natural gas facilities costs	
FACGM	Input	Minimum depth range for natural gas facilities costs	Ft
FACUPA	Estimated	Facilities upgrade cost	
FACUPB	Estimated	Facilities upgrade cost	
FACUPC	Estimated	Facilities upgrade cost	
FACUPD	Input	Maximum depth range for facilities upgrade cost	Ft
FACUPK	Estimated	Constant for facilities upgrade costs	
FACUPM	Input	Minimum depth range for facilities upgrade cost	Ft
FCO2	Variable	Cost multiplier for natural CO_2	
FEDRATE	Input	Federal income tax rate	Percent
FEDTAX	Variable	Federal tax	K$
FEDTAX_CR	Variable	Federal tax credits	K$
FIRST_ASR	Variable	First year a decline reservoir will be considered for ASR	
FIRST_DEC	Variable	First year a decline reservoir will be considered for EOR	

FIRSTCOM_FAC	Input	First year of commercialization for technology on the penetration curve	
FIT	Variable	Federal income tax	K$
FOAM	Variable	CO_2 fixed O & M cost	K$
FOAMG_1	Variable	Fixed annual operating cost for natural gas 1	K$
FOAMG_2	Variable	Fixed annual operating cost for natural gas 2	K$
FOAMG_W	Variable	Fixed operating cost for natural gas wells	K$
FGASPRICE	Input	Fixed natural gas price	$/MCF
FOILPRICE	Input	Fixed crude oil price	$/BBL
FPLY	Variable	Cost multiplier for polymer	
FPRICE	Input	Selection to use fixed prices	
FR1L48	Variable	Finding rates for new field wildcat drilling	Oil-MMB per well Gas-BCF per well
FR2L48	Variable	Finding rates for other exploratory drilling	Oil-MMB per well Gas-BCF per well
FR3L48	Variable	Finding rates for developmental drilling	Oil-MMB per well Gas-BCF per well
FRAC_CO2	Variable	Fraction of CO_2	Fraction
FRAC_H2S	Variable	Fraction of hydrogen sulfide	Fraction
FRAC_N2	Variable	Fraction of nitrogen	Fraction
FRAC_NGL	Variable	NGL yield	Fraction
FWC_W	Variable	Natural gas facilities costs	K$
GA_CAP	Variable	G & A on capital	K$
GA_EXP	Variable	G & A on expenses	K$
GAS_ADJ	Input	Fraction of annual natural gas drilling which is made available	Fraction
GAS_CASE	Input	Filter for all natural gas processes	
GAS_DWCA	Estimated	Horizontal natural gas drilling and completion costs	
GAS_DWCB	Estimated	Horizontal natural gas drilling and completion costs	
GAS_DWCC	Estimated	Horizontal natural gas drilling and completion costs	

GAS_DWCD	Input	Maximum depth range for natural gas well drilling cost equations	Ft
GAS_DWCK	Estimated	Constant for natural gas well drilling cost equations	
GAS_DWCM	Input	Minimum depth range for natural gas well drilling cost equations	Ft
GAS_FILTER	Input	Filter for all natural gas processes	
GAS_OAM	Input	Process specific operating cost for natural gas production	$/Mcf
GAS_SALES	Input	Will produced natural gas be sold?	
GASA0	Estimated	Natural gas footage A0	
GASA1	Estimated	Natural gas footage A1	
GASD0	Input	Natural gas drywell footage A0	
GASD1	Input	Natural gas drywell footage A1	
GASPRICE2	Variable	Natural gas price dummy to shift price track	K$
GASPRICEC	Variable	Annual natural gas prices used by cashflow	K$
GASPRICED	Variable	Annual natural gas prices used in the drilling constraints	K$
GASPRICEO	Variable	Annual natural gas prices used by the model	K$
GASPROD	Variable	Annual natural gas production	MMcf
GG	Variable	G & G cost	K$
GG_FAC	Input	G & G factor	
GGCTC	Input	G & G tangible depleted tax credit	K$
GGCTCAB	Input	G & G tangible tax credit rate addback	%
GGCTCR	Input	G & G tangible depleted tax credit rate	K$
GGETC	Input	G & G intangible depleted tax credit	K$
GGETCAB	Input	G & G intangible tax credit rate addback	%
GGETCR	Input	G & G intangible depleted tax credit rate	K$
GGLA	Variable	G & G and lease acquisition addback	K$
GMULT_INT	Input	Natural gas price adjustment factor, intangible costs	K$

GMULT_OAM	Input	Natural gas price adjustment factor, O & M	K$
GMULT_TANG	Input	Natural gas price adjustment factor, tangible costs	K$
GNA_CAP2	Input	G & A capital multiplier	Fraction
GNA_EXP2	Input	G & A expense multiplier	Fraction
GPROD	Variable	Well level natural gas production	MMcf
GRAVPEN	Variable	Gravity penalty	K$
GREMRES	Variable	Remaining proven natural gas reserves	MMcf
GROSS_REV	Variable	Gross revenue	K$
H_GROWTH	Input	Horizontal growth rate	Percent
H_PERCENT	Input	Crude oil constraint available for horizontal drilling	%
H_SUCCESS	Input	Horizontal development well success rate by region	%
H2SPRICE	Input	H_2S price	$/Metric ton
HOR_ADJ	Input	Fraction of annual horizontal drilling which is made available	Fraction
HOR_VERT	Input	Split between horizontal and vertical drilling	
HORMUL	Input	Horizontal drilling constraint multiplier	
IAMORYR	Input	Number of years in default amortization schedule	
ICAP	Variable	Other intangible costs	K$
ICST	Variable	Intangible cost	K$
IDCA	Variable	Intangible drilling capital addback	K$
IDCTC	Input	Intangible drilling cost tax credit	K$
IDCTCAB	Input	Intangible drilling cost tax credit rate addback	%
IDCTCR	Input	Intangible drilling cost tax credit rate	K$
IDEPRYR	Input	Number of years in default depreciation schedule	
IGREMRES	Variable	Remaining inferred natural gas reserves	MMcf
II_DRL	Variable	Intangible drilling cost	K$
IINFARSV	Variable	Initial inferred AD gas reserves	Bcf
IINFRESV	Variable	Initial inferred reserves	MMBbl
IMP_CAPCR	Input	Capacity for NGL cryogenic expander plant	MMCf/D

IMP_CAPST	Input	Capacity for NGL straight refrigeration	MMCf/D
IMP_CAPSU	Input	Capacity for Claus Sulfur Recovery	Long ton/day
IMP_CAPTE	Input	Natural gas processing plant capacity	MMcf/D
IMP_CO2_LIM	Input	Limit on CO_2 in natural gas	Fraction
IMP_DIS_RATE	Input	Discount rate for natural gas processing plant	
IMP_H2O_LIM	Input	Limit on H_2O in natural gas	Fraction
IMP_H2S_LIM	Input	Limit on H_2S in natural gas	Fraction
IMP_N2_LIM	Input	Limit on N^2 in natural gas	Fraction
IMP_NGL_LIM	Input	Limit on NGL in natural gas	Fraction
IMP_OP_FAC	Input	Natural gas processing operating factor	
IMP_PLT_LFE	Input	Natural gas processing plant life	Years
IMP_THRU	Input	Throughput	
IND_SRCCO2	Input	Use industrial source of CO_2?	
INDUSTRIAL	Variable	Natural or industrial CO_2 source	
INFLFAC	Input	Annual Inflation Factor	
INFR_ADG	Input	Adjustment factor for inferred AD gas reserves	Tcf
INFR_CBM	Input	Adjustment factor for inferred coalbed methane reserves	Tcf
INFR_DNAG	Input	Adjustment factor for inferred deep non-associated gas reserves	Tcf
INFR_OIL	Input	Adjustment factor for inferred crude oil reserves	Bbl?
INFR_SHL	Input	Adjustment factor for inferred shale gas reserves	Tcf
INFR_SNAG	Input	Adjustment factor for inferred shallow non-associated gas reserves	Tcf
INFR_THT	Input	Adjustment factor for inferred tight gas reserves	Tcf
INFARSV	Variable	Inferred AD gas reserves	Bcf
INFRESV	Variable	Inferred reserves, crude oil or natural gas	MMBbl, Bcf
INJ	Variable	Injectant cost	K$
INJ_OAM	Input	Process specific operating cost for injection	$/Bbl
INJ_RATE_FAC	Input	Injection rate increase	fraction
INTADD	Variable	Total intangible addback	K$
INTANG_M	Variable	Intangible cost multiplier	

INTCAP	Variable	Intangible to be capitalized	K$
INVCAP	Variable	Annual total capital investments constraints, used for constraining projects	MM$
IPDR	Input	Independent producer depletion rate	
IRA	Input	Max alternate minimum tax reduction for independents	K$
IREMRES	Variable	Remaining inferred crude oil reserves	MBbl
IUNDARES	Variable	Initial undiscovered resource	MMBbl/Tcf
IUNDRES	Variable	Initial undiscovered resource	MMBbl/Tcf
L48B4YR	Input	First year of analysis	
LA	Variable	Lease and acquisition cost	K$
LACTC	Input	Lease acquisition tangible depleted tax credit	K$
LACTCAB	Input	Lease acquisition tangible credit rate addback	%
LACTCR	Input	Lease acquisition tangible depleted tax credit rate	K$
LAETC	Input	Lease acquisition intangible expensed tax credit	K$
LAETCAB	Input	Lease acquisition intangible tax credit rate addback	%
LAETCR	Input	Lease acquisition intangible expensed tax credit rate	K$
LAST_ASR	Variable	Last year a decline reservoir will be considered for ASR	
LAST_DEC	Variable	Last year a decline reservoir will be considered for EOR	
LBC_FRAC	Input	Lease bonus fraction	Fraction
LEASCST	Variable	Lease cost by project	K$
LEASL48	Variable	Lease equipment costs	1987$/well
MARK_PEN_FAC	Input	Ultimate market penetration	
MAXWELL	Input	Maximum number of dryholes per play per year	
MAX_API_CASE	Input	Maximum API gravity	
MAX_DEPTH_CASE	Input	Maximum depth	
MAX_PERM_CASE	Input	Maximum permeability	
MAX_RATE_CASE	Input	Maximum production rate	
MIN_API_CASE	Input	Minimum API gravity	
MIN_DEPTH_CASE	Input	Minimum depth	
MIN_PERM_CASE	Input	Minimum permeability	
MIN_RATE_CASE	Input	Minimum production rate	
MOB_RAT_ FAC	Input	Change in mobility ratio	
MPRD	Input	Maximum depth range for new producer equations	Ft

N_CPI	Input	Number of years	
N2PRICE	Input	N_2 price	$/Mcf
NAT_AVAILCO2	Input	Annual CO_2 availability by region	Bcf
NAT_DMDGAS	Variable	Annual natural gas demand in region	Bcf/Yr
NAT_DRCAP_D	Variable	National dual use drilling footage for crude oil and natural gas development	Ft
NAT_DRCAP_G	Variable	National natural gas well drilling footage constraints	Ft
NAT_DRCAP_O	Variable	National crude oil well drilling footage constraints	Ft
NAT_DUAL	Variable	National dual use drilling footage for crude oil and natural gas development	Ft
NAT_EXP	Variable	National exploratory drilling constraint	Bcf/Yr
NAT_EXPC	Variable	National conventional exploratory drilling crude oil constraint	MBbl/Yr
NAT_EXPCDRCAP	Variable	National conventional exploratory drilling footage constraints	Ft
NAT_EXPCDRCAPG	Variable	National high-permeability natural gas exploratory drilling footage constraints	Ft
NAT_EXPCG	Variable	National conventional exploratory drilling natural gas constraint	Bcf/Yr
NAT_EXPG	Variable	National natural gas exploration drilling constraint	Bcf/Yr
NAT_EXPU	Variable	National continuous exploratory drilling crude oil constraint	MBbl/Yr
NAT_EXPUDRCAP	Variable	National continuous exploratory drilling footage constraints	Ft
NAT_EXPUDRCAPG	Variable	National continuous natural gas exploratory drilling footage constraints	Ft
NAT_EXPUG	Variable	National continuous exploratory drilling natural gas constraint	Bcf/Yr
NAT_GAS	Variable	National natural gas drilling constraint	Bcf/Yr
NAT_GDR	Variable	National natural gas dry drilling footage	Bcf/Yr

NAT_HGAS	Variable	Annual dry natural gas	MMcf
NAT_HOIL	Variable	Annual crude oil and lease condensates	MBbl
NAT_HOR	Variable	Horizontal drilling constraint	MBbl/Yr
NAT_INVCAP	Input	Annual total capital investment constraint	MM$
NAT_ODR	Variable	National crude oil dry drilling footage	MBbl/Yr
NAT_OIL	Variable	National crude oil drilling constraint	MBbl/Yr
NAT_SRCCO2	Input	Use natural source of CO_2?	
NAT_TOT	Variable	Total national footage	Ft
NET_REV	Variable	Net revenue	K$
NEW_ECAP	Variable	New environmental capital cost	K$
NEW_EOAM	Variable	New environmental O & M cost	K$
NEW_NRES	Variable	New total number of reservoirs	
NGLPRICE	Input	NGL price	$/Gal
NGLPROD	Variable	Annual NGL production	MBbl
NIAT	Variable	Net income after taxes	K$
NIBT	Variable	Net income before taxes	K$
NIBTA	Variable	Net operating income after adjustments before addback	K$
NIL	Input	Net income limitations	K$
NILB	Variable	Net income depletable base	K$
NILL	Input	Net income limitation limit	K$
NOI	Variable	Net operating income	K$
NOM_YEAR	Input	Year for nominal dollars	
NPR_W	Variable	Cost to equip a new producer	K$
NPRA	Estimated	Constant for new producer equipment	
NPRB	Estimated	Constant for new producer equipment	
NPRC	Estimated	Constant for new producer equipment	
NPRK	Estimated	Constant for new producer equipment	
NPRM	Input	Minimum depth range for new producer equations	Ft
NPROD	Variable	Well level NGL production	MMcf
NRDL48	Variable	Proved reserves added by new field discoveries	Oil-MMB Gas-BCF
NREG	Input	Number of regions	

NSHUT	Input	Number of years after economics life in which EOR can be considered	
NTECH	Input	Number of technology impacts	
NUMPACK	Input	Number of packages per play per year	
NWELL	Input	Number of wells in continuous exploration drilling package	
OAM	Variable	Variable O & M cost	K$
OAM_COMP	Variable	Compression O & M	K$
OAM_M	Variable	O & M cost multiplier	
OIA	Variable	Other intangible capital addback	K$
OIL_ADJ	Input	Fraction of annual crude oil drilling which is made available	Fraction
OIL_CASE	Input	Filter for all crude oil processes	
OIL_DWCA	Estimated	Constant for crude oil well drilling cost equations	
OIL_DWCB	Estimated	Constant for crude oil well drilling cost equations	
OIL_DWCC	Estimated	Constant for crude oil well drilling cost equations	
OIL_DWCD	Input	Maximum depth range for crude oil well drilling cost equations	Ft
OIL_DWCK	Estimated	Constant for crude oil well drilling cost equations	
OIL_DWCM	Input	Minimum depth range for crude oil well drilling cost equations	Ft
OIL_FILTER	Input	Filter for all crude oil processes	
OIL_OAM	Input	Process specific operating cost for crude oil production	$/Bbl
OIL_RAT_ FAC	Input	Change in crude oil production rate	
OIL_RAT_CHG	Variable	Change in crude oil production rate	
OIL_SALES	Input	Sell crude oil produced from the reservoir?	
OILA0	Estimated	Oil footage A0	
OILA1	Estimated	Oil footage A1	

OILCO2	Input	Fixed crude oil price used for economic pre-screening of industrial CO_2 projects	K$
OILD0	Input	Crude oil drywell footage A0	
OILD1	Input	Crude oil drywell footage A1	
OILPRICEC	Variable	Annual crude oil prices used by cashflow	K$
OILPRICED	Variable	Annual crude oil prices used in the drilling constraints	K$
OILPRICEO	Variable	Annual crude oil prices used by the model	K$
OILPROD	Variable	Annual crude oil production	MBbl
OINJ	Variable	Well level injection	MMcf
OITC	Input	Other intangible tax credit	K$
OITCAB	Input	Other intangible tax credit rate addback	%
OITCR	Input	Other intangible tax credit rate	K$
OMGA	Estimated	Fixed annual cost for natural gas	$/Well
OMGB	Estimated	Fixed annual cost for natural gas	$/Well
OMGC	Estimated	Fixed annual cost for natural gas	$/Well
OMGD	Input	Maximum depth range for fixed annual O & M natural gas cost	Ft
OMGK	Estimated	Constant for fixed annual O & M cost for natural gas	
OMGM	Input	Minimum depth range for fixed annual O & M cost for natural gas	Ft
OML_W	Variable	Variable annual operating cost for lifting	K$
OMLA	Estimated	Lifting cost	$/Well
OMLB	Estimated	Lifting cost	$/Well
OMLC	Estimated	Lifting cost	$/Well
OMLD	Input	Maximum depth range for fixed annual operating cost for crude oil	Ft
OMLK	Estimated	Constant for fixed annual operating cost for crude oil	
OMLM	Input	Minimum depth range for annual operating cost for crude oil	Ft
OMO_W	Variable	Fixed annual operating cost for crude oil	K$

OMOA	Estimated	Fixed annual cost for crude oil	$/Well
OMOB	Estimated	Fixed annual cost for crude oil	$/Well
OMOC	Estimated	Fixed annual cost for crude oil	$/Well
OMOD	Input	Maximum depth range for fixed annual operating cost for crude oil	Ft
OMOK	Estimated	Constant for fixed annual operating cost for crude oil	
OMOM	Input	Minimum depth range for fixed annual operating cost for crude oil	Ft
OMSWRA	Estimated	Secondary workover cost	$/Well
OMSWRB	Estimated	Secondary workover cost	$/Well
OMSWRC	Estimated	Secondary workover cost	$/Well
OMSWRD	Input	Maximum depth range for variable operating cost for secondary workover	Ft
OMSWRK	Estimated	Constant for variable operating cost for secondary workover	
OMSWRM	Input	Minimum depth range for variable operating cost for secondary workover	Ft
OMULT_INT	Input	Crude oil price adjustment factor, intangible costs	
OMULT_OAM	Input	Crude oil price adjustment factor, O & M	
OMULT_TANG	Input	Crude oil price adjustment factor, tangible costs	
OPCOST	Variable	AOAM by project	K$
OPERL48	Variable	Operating Costs	1987$/Well
OPINJ_W	Variable	Variable annual operating cost for injection	K$
OPINJA	Input	Injection cost	$/Well
OPINJB	Input	Injection cost	$/Well
OPINJC	Input	Injection cost	$/Well
OPINJD	Input	Maximum depth range for variable annual operating cost for injection	Ft
OPINJK	Input	Constant for variable annual operating cost for injection	
OPINJM	Input	Minimum depth range for variable annual operating cost for injection	Ft

OPROD	Variable	Well level crude oil production	MBbl
OPSEC_W	Variable	Fixed annual operating cost for secondary operations	K$
OPSECA	Estimated	Annual cost for secondary production	$/Well
OPSECB	Estimated	Annual cost for secondary production	$/Well
OPSECC	Estimated	Annual cost for secondary production	$/Well
OPSECD	Input	Maximum depth range for fixed annual operating cost for secondary operations	Ft
OPSECK	Estimated	Constant for fixed annual operating cost for secondary operations	
OPSECM	Input	Minimum depth range for fixed annual operating cost for secondary operations	Ft
OPT_RPT	Input	Report printing options	
ORECY	Variable	Well level recycled injectant	MBbl
OTC	Variable	Other tangible costs	K$
PATT_DEV	Input	Pattern development	
PATT_DEV_MAX	Input	Maximum pattern development schedule	
PATT_DEV_MIN	Input	Minimum pattern development schedule	
PATDEV	Variable	Annual number of patterns developed for base and advanced technology	
PATN	Variable	Patterns initiated each year	
PATNDCF	Variable	DCF by project	K$
PATTERNS	Variable	Shifted patterns initiated	
PAYCONT_ FAC	Input	Pay continuity factor	
PDR	Input	Percent depletion rate	%
PGGC	Input	Percent of G & G depleted	%
PIIC	Input	Intangible investment to capitalize	%
PLAC	Input	Percent of lease acquisition cost capitalized	%
PLAYNUM	Input	Play number	
PLY_F	Variable	Cost for a polymer handling plant	K$
PLYPA	Input	Polymer handling plant constant	
PLYPK	Input	Polymer handling plant constant	

POLY	Input	Polymer cost	
POLYCOST	Variable	Polymer cost	$/Lb
POTENTIAL	Variable	The number of reservoirs in the resource file	
PRICEYR	Input	First year of prices in price track	K$
PRO_REGEXP	Input	Regional exploration well drilling footage constraint	Ft
PRO_REGEXPG	Input	Regional exploration well drilling footage constraint	Ft
PRO_REGGAS	Input	Regional natural gas well drilling footage constraint	Ft
PRO_REGOIL	Input	Regional crude oil well drilling footage constraint	Ft
PROB_IMP_FAC	Input	Probability of industrial implementation	
PROB_RD_FAC	Input	Probability of successful R & D	
PROC_CST	Variable	Processing cost	$/Mcf
PROC_OAM	Variable	Processing and treating cost	K$
PROCESS_CASE	Input	Filter for crude oil and natural gas processes	
PROCESS_FILTER	Input	Filter for crude oil and natural gas processes	
PROD_IND_ FAC	Input	Production impact	
PROVACC	Input	Year file for resource access	
PROVNUM	Input	Province number	
PRRATL48	Variable	Production to reserves ratio	Fraction
PSHUT	Input	Number of years prior to economic life in which EOR can be considered	
PSI_W	Variable	Cost to convert a primary well to an injection well	K$
PSIA	Estimated	Cost to convert a producer to an injector	
PSIB	Estimated	Cost to convert a producer to an injector	
PSIC	Estimated	Cost to convert a producer to an injector	
PSID	Input	Maximum depth range for producer to injector	Ft
PSIK	Estimated	Constant for producer to injector	
PSIM	Input	Minimum depth range for producer to injector	Ft
PSW_W	Variable	Cost to convert a primary to secondary well	K$

PSWA	Estimated	Cost to convert a primary to secondary well	
PSWB	Estimated	Cost to convert a primary to secondary well	
PSWC	Estimated	Cost to convert a primary to secondary well	
PSWD	Input	Maximum depth range for producer to injector	Ft
PSWK	Estimated	Constant for primary to secondary	
PSWM	Input	Minimum depth range for producer to injector	Ft
PWHP	Input	Produced water handling plant multiplier	K$
PWP_F	Variable	Cost for a produced water handling plant	K$
RDEPTH	Variable	Reservoir depth	ft
RDR	Input	Depth interval	
RDR_FOOTAGE	Variable	Footage available in this interval	Ft
RDR_FT	Variable	Running total of footage used in this bin	Ft
REC_EFF_ FAC	Input	Recovery efficiency factor	
RECY_OIL	Input	Produced water recycling cost	K$
RECY_WAT	Input	Produced water recycling cost	
REG_DUAL	Variable	Regional dual use drilling footage for crude oil and natural gas development	Ft
REG_EXP	Variable	Regional exploratory drilling constraints	MBbl/Yr
REG_EXPC	Variable	Regional conventional crude oil exploratory drilling constraint	MBbl/Yr
REG_EXPCG	Variable	Regional conventional natural gas exploratory drilling constraint	Bcf/Yr
REG_EXPG	Variable	Regional exploratory natural gas drilling constraint	Bcf/Yr
REG_EXPU	Variable	Regional continuous crude oil exploratory drilling constraint	MBbl/Yr
REG_EXPUG	Variable	Regional continuous natural gas exploratory drilling constraint	Bcf/Yr
REG_GAS	Variable	Regional natural gas drilling constraint	Bcf/Yr
REG_HADG	Variable	Regional historical AD gas	MMcf
REG_HCBM	Variable	Regional historical CBM	MMcf

REG_HCNV	Variable	Regional historical high-permeability natural gas	MMcf
REG_HEOIL	Variable	Regional crude oil and lease condensates for continuing EOR	MBbl
REG_HGAS	Variable	Regional dry natural gas	MMcf
REG_HOIL	Variable	Regional crude oil and lease condensates	MBbl
REG_HSHL	Variable	Regional historical shale gas	MMcf
REG_HTHT	Variable	Regional historical tight gas	MMcf
REG_NAT	Input	Regional or national	
REG_OIL	Variable	Regional crude oil drilling constraint	MBbl/Yr
REGDRY	Variable	Regional dryhole rate	
REGDRYE	Variable	Exploration regional dryhole rate	
REGDRYG	Variable	Development natural gas regional dryhole rate	
REGDRYKD	Variable	Regional dryhole rate for discovered development	
REGDRYUD	Variable	Regional dryhole rate for undiscovered development	
REGDRYUE	Variable	Regional dryhole rate for undiscovered exploration	
REGION_CASE	Input	Filter for OLOGSS region	
REGION_FILTER	Input	Filter for OLOGSS region	
REGSCALE_CBM	Input	Regional historical daily CBM gas production for the last year of history	Bcf
REGSCALE_CNV	Input	Regional historical daily high-permeability natural gas production for the last year of history	Bcf
REGSCALE_GAS	Input	Regional historical daily natural gas production for the last year of history	Bcf
REGSCALE_OIL	Input	Regional historical daily crude oil production for the last year of history	MBbl
REGSCALE_SHL	Input	Regional historical daily shale gas production for the last year of history	Bcf
REGSCALE_THT	Input	Regional historical daily tight gas production for the last year of history	Bcf
REM_AMOR	Variable	Remaining amortization base	K$
REM_BASE	Variable	Remaining depreciation base	K$

REMRES	Variable	Remaining proven crude oil reserves	MBbl
RESADL48	Variable	Total additions to proved reserves	Oil-MMB Gas-BCF
RESBOYL48	Variable	End of year reserves for current year	Oil-MMB Gas-BCF
RES_CHR_ FAC	Input	Reservoir characterization cost	$/Cumulative BOE
RES_CHR_CHG	Variable	Reservoir characterization cost	$/Cumulative BOE
RESV_ADGAS	Input	Historical AD gas reserves	Tcf
RESV_CBM	Input	Historical coalbed methane reserves	Tcf
RESV_CONVGAS	Input	Historical high-permeability dry natural gas reserves	Tcf
RESV_OIL	Input	Historical crude oil and lease condensate reserves	BBbl
RESV_SHL	Input	Historical shale gas reserves	Tcf
RESV_THT	Input	Historical tight gas reserves	Tcf
RGR	Input	Annual drilling growth rate	
RIGSL48	Variable	Available rigs	Rigs
RNKVAL	Input	Ranking criteria for the projects	
ROR	Variable	Rate of return	K$
ROYALTY	Variable	Royalty	K$
RREG	Variable	Reservoir region	
RRR	Input	Annual drilling retirement rate	
RUNTYPE	Input	Resources selected to evaluate in the Timing subroutine	
RVALUE	Variable	Reservoir technical crude oil production	MBbl
SCALE_DAY	Input	Number of days in the last year of history	Days
SCALE_GAS	Input	Historical daily natural gas production for the last year of history	Bcf
SCALE_OIL	Input	Historical daily crude oil production for the last year of history	MBbl
SEV_PROC	Variable	Process code	
SEV_TAX	Variable	Severance tax	K$
SFIT	Variable	Alternative minimum tax	K$
SKIN_FAC	Input	Skin factor	
SKIN_CHG	Variable	Change in skin amount	
SMAR	Input	Six month amortization rate	%

SPLIT_ED	Input	Split exploration and development	
SPLIT_OG	Input	Split crude oil and natural gas constraints	
STARTPR	Variable	First year a pattern is initiated	
STATE_TAX	Variable	State tax	K$
STIM	Variable	Stimulation cost	K$
STIM_A, STIM_B	Input	Coefficients for natural gas/oil stimulation cost	K$
STIM_W	Variable	Natural gas well stimulation cost	K$
STIM_YR	Input	Number of years between stimulations of natural gas/oil wells	
STIMFAC	Input	Stimulation efficiency factor	
STL	Variable	State identification number	
STMGA	Input	Steam generator cost multiplier	
STMM_F	Variable	Cost for steam manifolds and generators	K$
STMMA	Input	Steam manifold/pipeline multiplier	
SUCCHDEV	Variable	Horizontal development well success rate by region	Fraction
SUCDEVE	Input	Developmental well dryhole rate by region	%
SUCDEVG	Variable	Final developmental natural gas well success rate by region	Fraction
SUCDEVO	Variable	Final developmental crude oil well success rate by region	Fraction
SUCEXP	Input	Undiscovered exploration well dryhole rate by region	%
SUCEXPD	Input	Exploratory well dryhole rate by region	%
SUCG	Variable	Initial developmental natural gas well success rate by region	Fraction
SUCO	Variable	Initial developmental crude oil well success by region	Fraction
SUCWELLL48	Variable	Successful Lower 48 onshore wells drilled	Wells
SUM_DRY	Variable	Developmental dryholes drilled	
SUM_GAS_CONV	Variable	High-permeability natural gas drilling	MMcf

SUM_GAS_UNCONV	Variable	Low-permeability natural gas drilling	MMcf
SUM_OIL_CONV	Variable	Conventional crude oil drilling	MBbl
SUM_OIL_UNCONV	Variable	Continuous crude oil drilling	MBbl
SUMP	Variable	Total cumulative patterns	
SWK_W	Variable	Secondary workover cost	K$
TANG_FAC_RATE	Input	Percentage of the well costs which are tangible	Percent
TANG_M	Variable	Tangible cost multiplier	
TANG_RATE	Input	Percentage of drilling costs which are tangible	Percent
TCI	Variable	Total capital investments	K$
TCIADJ	Variable	Adjusted capital investments	K$
TCOII	Input	Tax credit on intangible investments	K$
TCOTI	Input	Tax credit on tangible investments	K$
TDTC	Input	Tangible development tax credit	K$
TDTCAB	Input	Tangible development tax credit rate addback	%
TDTCR	Input	Tangible development tax credit rate	K$
TECH01_FAC	Input	WAG ratio applied to CO2EOR	
TECH02_FAC	Input	Recovery Limit	
TECH03_FAC	Input	Vertical Skin Factor for natural gas	
TECH04_FAC	Input	Fracture Half Length	Ft
TECH05_FAC	Input	Fracture Conductivity	Ft
TECH_CO2FLD	Variable	Technical production from CO_2 flood	MBbl
TECH_COAL	Variable	Annual technical coalbed methane gas production	MMcf
TECH_CURVE	Variable	Technology commercialization curve for market penetration	
TECH_CURVE_FAC	Input	Technology commercialization curve for market penetration	
TECH_DECLINE	Variable	Technical decline production	MBbl
TECH_GAS	Variable	Annual technical natural gas production	MMcf
TECH_HORCON	Variable	Technical production from horizontal continuity	MBbl

TECH_HORPRF	Variable	Technical production for horizontal profile	MBbl
TECH_INFILL	Variable	Technical production from infill drilling	MBbl
TECH_NGL	Variable	Annual technical NGL production	MBbl
TECH_OIL	Variable	Annual technical crude oil production	MBbl
TECH_PLYFLD	Variable	Technical production from polymer injection	MBbl
TECH_PRFMOD	Variable	Technical production from profile modification	MBbl
TECH_PRIMARY	Variable	Technical production from primary sources	MBbl
TECH_RADIAL	Variable	Technical production from conventional radial flow	MMcf
TECH_SHALE	Variable	Annual technical shale gas production	MMcf
TECH_STMFLD	Variable	Technical production from steam flood	MBbl
TECH_TIGHT	Variable	Annual technical tight gas production	MMcf
TECH_TIGHTG	Variable	Technical tight gas production	MMcf
TECH_UCOALB	Variable	Technical undiscovered coalbed methane production	MMcf
TECH_UCONTO	Variable	Technical undiscovered continuous crude oil production	MBbl
TECH_UCONVG	Variable	Technical low-permeability natural gas production	MMcf
TECH_UCONVO	Variable	Technical undiscovered conventional crude oil production	MBbl
TECH_UGCOAL	Variable	Annual technical developing coalbed methane gas production	MMcf
TECH_UGSHALE	Variable	Annual technical developing shale gas production	MMcf
TECH_UGTIGHT	Variable	Annual technical developing tight gas production	MMcf
TECH_USHALE	Variable	Technical undiscovered shale gas production	MMcf
TECH_UTIGHT	Variable	Technical undiscovered tight gas production	MMcf
TECH_WATER	Variable	Technical production from waterflood	MBbl

TECH_WTRFLD	Variable	Technical production from waterflood	MBbl
TGGLCD	Variable	Total G & G cost	K$
TI	Variable	Tangible costs	K$
TI_DRL	Variable	Tangible drilling cost	K$
TIMED	Variable	Timing flag	
TIMEDYR	Variable	Year in which the project is timed	
TOC	Variable	Total operating costs	K$
TORECY	Variable	Annual water injection	MBbl
TORECY_CST	Variable	Water injection cost	K$
TOTHWCAP	Variable	Total horizontal drilling footage constraint	Ft
TOTINJ	Variable	Annual water injection	MBbl
TOTMUL	Input	Total drilling constraint multiplier	
TOTSTATE	Variable	Total state severance tax	K$
UCNT	Variable	Number of undiscovered reservoirs	
UDEPTH	Variable	Reservoir depth	K$
UMPCO2	Input	CO_2 ultimate market acceptance	
UNAME	Variable	Reservoir identifier	
UNDARES	Variable	Undiscovered resource, AD gas or lease condensate	Bcf, MMBbl
UNDRES	Variable	Undiscovered resource	MMBbl, Bcf
UREG	Variable	Reservoir region	
USE_AVAILCO2	Variable	Used annual volume of CO_2 by region	Bcf
USE_RDR	Input	Use rig depth rating	
USEAVAIL	Variable	Used annual CO_2 volume by region across all sources	Bcf
USECAP	Variable	Annual total capital investment constraints, used by projects	MM$
UVALUE	Variable	Reservoir undiscovered crude oil production	MBbl
UVALUE2	Variable	Reservoir undiscovered natural gas production	MMcf
VEORCP	Input	Volumetric EOR cutoff	%
VIABLE	Variable	The number of economically viable reservoirs	
VOL_SWP_ FAC	Input	Sweep volume factor	
VOL_SWP_CHG	Variable	Change in sweep volume	
WAT_OAM	Input	Process specific operating cost for water production	$/Bbl
WATINJ	Variable	Annual water injection	MBbl

WATPROD	Variable	Annual water production	MBbl
WELLSL48	Variable	Lower 48 onshore wells drilled	Wells
WINJ	Variable	Well level water injection	MBbl
WPROD	Variable	Well level water production	MBbl
WRK_W	Variable	Cost for well workover	K$
WRKA	Estimated	Constant for workover cost equations	
WRKB	Estimated	Constant for workover cost equations	
WRKC	Estimated	Constant for workover cost equations	
WRKD	Input	Maximum depth range for workover cost	Ft
WRKK	Estimated	Constant for workover cost equations	
WRKM	Input	Minimum depth range for workover cost	Ft
XCAPBASE	Variable	Cumulative cap stream	
XCUMPROD	Variable	Cumulative production	MBbl
XPATN	Variable	Active patterns each year	
XPP1	Variable	Number of new producers drilled per pattern	
XPP2	Variable	Number of new injectors drilled per pattern	
XPP3	Variable	Number of producers converted to injectors	
XPP4	Variable	Number of primary wells converted to secondary wells	
XROY	Input	Royalty rate	Percent
YEARS_STUDY	Input	Number of years of analysis	
YR1	Input	Number of years for tax credit on tangible investments	
YR2	Input	Number of years for tax credit on intangible investments	
YRDI	Input	Years to develop infrastructure	
YRDT	Input	Years to develop technology	
YRMA	Input	Years to reach full capacity	

Appendix 2.B: Cost and Constraint Estimation

The major sections of OLOGSS consist of a series of equations that are used to calculate project economics and the development of crude oil and natural gas resources subject to the availability of regional development constraints. The cost and constraint calculation was assessed as unit costs per well. The product of the cost equation and cost adjustment factor is the actual cost. The actual cost reflects the influence on the resource, region and oil or gas price. The equations, the estimation techniques, and the statistical results for these equations are documented below. The statistical software included within Microsoft Excel was used for the estimations.

Drilling and Completion Costs for Crude Oil

The 2004 – 2007 Joint Association Survey (JAS) data was used to calculate the equation for vertical drilling and completion costs for crude oil. The data was analyzed at a regional level. The independent variables were depth, raised to powers of 1 through 3. Drilling cost is the cost of drilling on a per well basis. Depth is also on a per well basis. The method of estimation used was ordinary least squares. The form of the equation is given below. β1 (the coefficient for depth raised to the first power) is statistically insignificant and is therefore assumed zero.

$$\text{Drilling Cost} = \beta0 + \beta1 * \text{Depth} + \beta2 * \text{Depth}^2 + \beta3 * \text{Depth}^3 \qquad (2.B\text{-}1)$$

where Drilling Cost = DWC_W

β0 = OIL_DWCK

β1 = OIL_DWCA

β2 = OIL_DWCB

β3 = OIL_DWCC

from equations 2-17 and 2-18 in Chapter 2.

Northeast Region:

Regression Statistics	
Multiple R	0.836438789
R Square	0.699629848
Adjusted R Square	0.691168717
Standard Error	629377.1735
Observations	74

ANOVA

	df	*SS*	*MS*	*F*	*Significance F*
Regression	2	6.55076E+13	3.27538E+13	82.6875087	2.86296E-19
Residual	71	2.81242E+13	3.96116E+11		
Total	73	9.36318E+13			

	Coefficients	*Standard Error*	*t Stat*	*P-value*	*Lower 95%*	*Upper 95%*	*Lower 95.0%*	*Upper 95.0%*
β0	122428.578	126464.5594	0.968086068	0.336287616	-129734.7159	374591.8719	-129734.7159	374591.8719
β2	0.058292022	0.020819613	2.799860932	0.006580083	0.016778872	0.099805172	0.016778872	0.099805172
β3	5.68014E-07	2.56497E-06	0.221450391	0.825377435	-4.5464E-06	5.68243E-06	-4.5464E-06	5.68243E-06

Gulf Coast Region:

Regression Statistics	
Multiple R	0.927059199
R Square	0.859438758
Adjusted R Square	0.85771408
Standard Error	754021.7218
Observations	166

ANOVA

	df	SS	MS	F	Significance F
Regression	2	5.66637E+14	2.83318E+14	498.3184388	3.55668E-70
Residual	163	9.26734E+13	5.68549E+11		
Total	165	6.5931E+14			

	Coefficients	Standard Error	t Stat	P-value	Lower 95%	Upper 95%	Lower 95.0%	Upper 95.0%
β0	171596.0907	99591.43949	1.723000407	0.086784881	-25059.61405	368251.7955	-25059.61405	368251.7955
β2	0.026582707	0.005213357	5.098961204	9.38664E-07	0.016288283	0.036877131	0.016288283	0.036877131
β3	5.10946E-07	3.82305E-07	1.336488894	0.183252113	-2.43962E-07	1.26585E-06	-2.43962E-07	1.26585E-06

Mid-Continent Region:

Regression Statistics	
Multiple R	0.898305188
R Square	0.806952211
Adjusted R Square	0.803343841
Standard Error	865339.0638
Observations	110

ANOVA

	df	SS	MS	F	Significance F
Regression	2	3.34919E+14	1.67459E+14	223.6334505	6.06832E-39
Residual	107	8.01229E+13	7.48812E+11		
Total	109	4.15042E+14			

	Coefficients	Standard Error	t Stat	P-value	Lower 95%	Upper 95%	Lower 95.0%	Upper 95.0%
β0	44187.62539	135139.2151	0.326978556	0.744322892	-223710.0994	312085.3502	-223710.0994	312085.3502
β2	0.038468835	0.005870927	6.552429326	2.04023E-09	0.026830407	0.050107263	0.026830407	0.050107263
β3	-9.45921E-07	3.70017E-07	-2.556425591	0.011978314	-1.67944E-06	-2.12405E-07	-1.67944E-06	-2.12405E-07

Southwest Region:

Regression Statistics	
Multiple R	0.927059199
R Square	0.859438758
Adjusted R Square	0.85771408
Standard Error	754021.7218
Observations	166

ANOVA

	df	SS	MS	F	Significance F
Regression	2	5.66637E+14	2.83318E+14	498.3184388	3.55668E-70
Residual	163	9.26734E+13	5.68549E+11		
Total	165	6.5931E+14			

	Coefficients	Standard Error	t Stat	P-value	Lower 95%	Upper 95%	Lower 95.0%	Upper 95.0%
β0	171596.0907	99591.43949	1.723000407	0.086784881	-25059.61405	368251.7955	-25059.61405	368251.7955
β2	0.026582707	0.005213357	5.098961204	9.38664E-07	0.016288283	0.036877131	0.016288283	0.036877131
β3	5.10946E-07	3.82305E-07	1.336488894	0.183252113	-2.43962E-07	1.26585E-06	-2.43962E-07	1.26585E-06

Rocky Mountain Region:

Regression Statistics	
Multiple R	0.905358855
R Square	0.819674657
Adjusted R Square	0.81505093
Standard Error	1524859.577
Observations	81

ANOVA

	df	SS	MS	F	Significance F
Regression	2	8.24402E+14	4.12201E+14	177.2757561	9.68755E-30
Residual	78	1.81365E+14	2.3252E+12		
Total	80	1.00577E+15			

	Coefficients	Standard Error	t Stat	P-value	Lower 95%	Upper 95%	Lower 95.0%	Upper 95.0%
β0	85843.77642	334865.8934	0.256352702	0.798353427	-580822.9949	752510.5477	-580822.9949	752510.5477
β2	0.024046279	0.017681623	1.35995883	0.177760898	-0.011155127	0.059247685	-0.011155127	0.059247685
β3	3.11588E-06	1.35985E-06	2.291329746	0.024643617	4.08613E-07	5.82314E-06	4.08613E-07	5.82314E-06

West Coast Region:

Regression Statistics	
Multiple R	0.829042211
R Square	0.687310988
Adjusted R Square	0.66961161
Standard Error	1192282.08
Observations	57

ANOVA

	df	SS	MS	F	Significance F
Regression	3	1.65605E+14	5.52018E+13	38.83249387	2.05475E-13
Residual	53	7.53414E+13	1.42154E+12		
Total	56	2.40947E+14			

	Coefficients	Standard Error	t Stat	P-value	Lower 95%	Upper 95%	Lower 95.0%	Upper 95.0%
β0	416130.9988	739996.4118	0.562341914	0.576253925	-1068113.806	1900375.804	-1068113.806	1900375.804
β1	44.24458907	494.4626992	0.089480135	0.929037628	-947.5219666	1036.011145	-947.5219666	1036.011145
β2	0.032683532	0.091113678	0.35871159	0.721235869	-0.150067358	0.215434422	-0.150067358	0.215434422
β3	3.38129E-07	4.76464E-06	0.070966208	0.94369176	-9.21853E-06	9.89479E-06	-9.21853E-06	9.89479E-06

Northern Great Plains Region:

Regression Statistics	
Multiple R	0.847120174
R Square	0.71761259
Adjusted R Square	0.702750095
Standard Error	1967213.576
Observations	61

ANOVA

	df	SS	MS	F	Significance F
Regression	3	5.60561E+14	1.86854E+14	48.2834529	1.1626E-15
Residual	57	2.20586E+14	3.86993E+12		
Total	60	7.81147E+14			

	Coefficients	Standard Error	t Stat	P-value	Lower 95%	Upper 95%	Lower 95.0%	Upper 95.0%
β0	98507.54357	1384010.586	0.071175426	0.943507284	-2672925.83	2869940.917	-2672925.83	2869940.917
β1	478.7358996	548.203512	0.873281344	0.386173991	-619.0226893	1576.494489	-619.0226893	1576.494489
β2	-0.00832112	0.058193043	-0.142991666	0.886801051	-0.124850678	0.108208438	-0.124850678	0.108208438
β3	6.1159E-07	1.79131E-06	0.34142064	0.7340424	-2.97545E-06	4.19863E-06	-2.97545E-06	4.19863E-06

Drilling and Completion Cost for Oil - Cost Adjustment Factor

The cost adjustment factor for vertical drilling and completion costs for oil was calculated using JAS data through 2007. The initial cost was normalized at various prices from \$10 to \$200 per barrel. This led to the development of a series of intermediate equations and the calculation of costs at specific prices and fixed depths. The differentials between estimated costs across the price range and fixed costs at $50 per barrel were then calculated. The cost factor equation was then estimated using the differentials. The method of estimation used was ordinary least squares. The form of the equation is given below:

$$\text{Cost} = \beta 0 + \beta 1 * \text{Oil Price} + \beta 2 * \text{Oil Price}^2 + \beta 3 * \text{Oil Price}^3$$

Northeast Region:

Regression Statistics	
Multiple R	0.993325966
R Square	0.986696475
Adjusted R Square	0.986411399
Standard Error	0.029280014
Observations	144

ANOVA

	df	*SS*	*MS*	*F*	*Significance F*
Regression	3	8.901997029	2.967332343	3461.175482	4.4887E-131
Residual	140	0.120024694	0.000857319		
Total	143	9.022021723			

	Coefficients	*Standard Error*	*t Stat*	*P-value*	*Lower 95%*	*Upper 95%*	*Lower 95.0%*	*Upper 95.0%*
β0	0.309616442	0.009839962	31.46520591	2.3349E-65	0.290162308	0.329070576	0.290162308	0.329070576
β1	0.019837121	0.000434252	45.68110123	5.41725E-86	0.018978581	0.020695661	0.018978581	0.020695661
β2	-0.000142411	5.21769E-06	-27.29392193	6.44605E-58	-0.000152727	-0.000132095	-0.000152727	-0.000132095
β3	3.45898E-07	1.69994E-08	20.34770764	1.18032E-43	3.1229E-07	3.79507E-07	3.1229E-07	3.79507E-07

Gulf Coast Region:

Regression Statistics	
Multiple R	0.975220111
R Square	0.951054265
Adjusted R Square	0.950005428
Standard Error	0.054224144
Observations	144

ANOVA

	df	*SS*	*MS*	*F*	*Significance F*
Regression	3	7.998414341	2.666138114	906.7701736	1.76449E-91
Residual	140	0.411636098	0.002940258		
Total	143	8.410050438			

	Coefficients	*Standard Error*	*t Stat*	*P-value*	*Lower 95%*	*Upper 95%*	*Lower 95.0%*	*Upper 95.0%*
β0	0.404677859	0.01822279	22.2072399	1.01029E-47	0.368650426	0.440705292	0.368650426	0.440705292
β1	0.016335847	0.000804199	20.31319148	1.41023E-43	0.014745903	0.017925792	0.014745903	0.017925792
β2	-0.00010587	9.66272E-06	-10.95654411	1.47204E-20	-0.000124974	-8.67663E-05	-0.000124974	-8.67663E-05
β3	2.40517E-07	3.14814E-08	7.639970947	3.10789E-12	1.78277E-07	3.02758E-07	1.78277E-07	3.02758E-07

Mid-Continent Region:

Regression Statistics	
Multiple R	0.973577019
R Square	0.947852212
Adjusted R Square	0.94673476
Standard Error	0.058882142
Observations	144

ANOVA

	df	SS	MS	F	Significance F
Regression	3	8.822668656	2.940889552	848.2258794	1.4872E-89
Residual	140	0.485394925	0.003467107		
Total	143	9.308063582			

	Coefficients	Standard Error	t Stat	P-value	Lower 95%	Upper 95%	Lower 95.0%	Upper 95.0%
β0	0.309185338	0.019788175	15.62475232	1.738E-32	0.270063053	0.348307623	0.270063053	0.348307623
β1	0.019036286	0.000873282	21.79856116	7.62464E-47	0.017309761	0.020762811	0.017309761	0.020762811
β2	-0.000123667	1.04928E-05	-11.78593913	1.05461E-22	-0.000144412	-0.000102922	-0.000144412	-0.000102922
β3	2.60516E-07	3.41858E-08	7.620611936	3.45556E-12	1.92929E-07	3.28104E-07	1.92929E-07	3.28104E-07

Southwest Region:

Regression Statistics	
Multiple R	0.993452577
R Square	0.986948023
Adjusted R Square	0.986668338
Standard Error	0.030207623
Observations	144

ANOVA

	df	SS	MS	F	Significance F
Regression	3	9.66004438	3.220014793	3528.781511	1.1799E-131
Residual	140	0.127750066	0.0009125		
Total	143	9.787794446			

	Coefficients	Standard Error	t Stat	P-value	Lower 95%	Upper 95%	Lower 95.0%	Upper 95.0%
β0	0.293837119	0.010151698	28.944627	5.92751E-61	0.273766667	0.313907571	0.273766667	0.313907571
β1	0.020183122	0.00044801	45.05064425	3.35207E-85	0.019297383	0.021068861	0.019297383	0.021068861
β2	-0.000142936	5.38299E-06	-26.55334755	1.63279E-56	-0.000153579	-0.000132294	-0.000153579	-0.000132294
β3	3.44926E-07	1.75379E-08	19.66744699	4.04901E-42	3.10253E-07	3.796E-07	3.10253E-07	3.796E-07

Rocky Mountain Region:

Regression Statistics	
Multiple R	0.993622433
R Square	0.987285538
Adjusted R Square	0.987013086
Standard Error	0.029478386
Observations	144

ANOVA

	df	SS	MS	F	Significance F
Regression	3	9.446702681	3.148900894	3623.69457	1.8856E-132
Residual	140	0.121656535	0.000868975		
Total	143	9.568359216			

	Coefficients	Standard Error	t Stat	P-value	Lower 95%	Upper 95%	Lower 95.0%	Upper 95.0%
β0	0.297270516	0.009906628	30.00723517	7.63744E-63	0.27768458	0.316856451	0.27768458	0.316856451
β1	0.020126228	0.000437194	46.03497443	1.9664E-86	0.019261872	0.020990585	0.019261872	0.020990585
β2	-0.000143079	5.25304E-06	-27.23739215	8.23219E-58	-0.000153465	-0.000132693	-0.000153465	-0.000132693
β3	3.45557E-07	1.71145E-08	20.19080817	2.6538E-43	3.1172E-07	3.79393E-07	3.1172E-07	3.79393E-07

West Coast Region:

Regression Statistics	
Multiple R	0.993362569
R Square	0.986769193
Adjusted R Square	0.986485676
Standard Error	0.030158697
Observations	144

ANOVA

	df	SS	MS	F	Significance F
Regression	3	9.496912448	3.165637483	3480.455028	3.0585E-131
Residual	140	0.127336582	0.000909547		
Total	143	9.62424903			

	Coefficients	Standard Error	t Stat	P-value	Lower 95%	Upper 95%	Lower 95.0%	Upper 95.0%
β0	0.297702178	0.010135256	29.37293095	1.01194E-61	0.277664233	0.317740124	0.277664233	0.317740124
β1	0.020091425	0.000447284	44.91872099	4.92225E-85	0.019207121	0.02097573	0.019207121	0.02097573
β2	-0.000142627	5.37427E-06	-26.53879345	1.74092E-56	-0.000153252	-0.000132001	-0.000153252	-0.000132001
β3	3.44597E-07	1.75095E-08	19.68054067	3.78057E-42	3.0998E-07	3.79214E-07	3.0998E-07	3.79214E-07

Northern Great Plains Region:

Regression Statistics	
Multiple R	0.993744864
R Square	0.987528854
Adjusted R Square	0.987261615
Standard Error	0.029293844
Observations	144

ANOVA

	df	SS	MS	F	Significance F
Regression	3	9.513146663	3.171048888	3695.304354	4.8762E-133
Residual	140	0.1201381	0.000858129		
Total	143	9.633284764			

	Coefficients	Standard Error	t Stat	P-value	Lower 95%	Upper 95%	Lower 95.0%	Upper 95.0%
β0	0.292784596	0.00984461	29.74059899	2.25193E-62	0.273321274	0.312247919	0.273321274	0.312247919
β1	0.020415818	0.000434457	46.99153447	1.31433E-87	0.019556872	0.021274763	0.019556872	0.021274763
β2	-0.000146385	5.22015E-06	-28.04230529	2.6131E-59	-0.000156706	-0.000136065	-0.000156706	-0.000136065
β3	3.5579E-07	1.70074E-08	20.91972526	6.3186E-45	3.22166E-07	3.89415E-07	3.22166E-07	3.89415E-07

Drilling and Completion Costs for Natural Gas

The 2004 – 2007 JAS data was used to calculate the equation for vertical drilling and completion costs for natural gas. The data was analyzed at a regional level. The independent variable was depth. Drilling cost is the cost of drilling on a per well basis. Depth is also on a per well basis. The method of estimation used was ordinary least squares. The form of the equation is given below.

$$\text{Drilling Cost} = \beta 0 + \beta 1 * \text{Depth} + \beta 2 * \text{Depth}^2 + \beta 3 * \text{Depth}^3 \qquad (2.B\text{-}2)$$

where Drilling Cost = DWC_W
β0 = GAS_DWCK
β1 = GAS_DWCA
β2 = GAS_DWCB
β3 = GAS_DWCC
from equations 2-24 and 2-25 in Chapter 2.

Northeast Region:

Regression Statistics	
Multiple R	0.837701882
R Square	0.701744444
Adjusted R Square	0.694887994
Standard Error	1199562.042
Observations	90

ANOVA

	df	SS	MS	F	Significance F
Regression	2	2.94547E+14	1.47274E+14	102.3480792	1.39509E-23
Residual	87	1.25189E+14	1.43895E+12		
Total	89	4.19736E+14			

	Coefficients	Standard Error	t Stat	P-value	Lower 95%	Upper 95%	Lower 95.0%	Upper 95.0%
β0	197454.5012	290676.607	0.679292714	0.498755704	-380296.7183	775205.7207	-380296.7183	775205.7207
β1	19.31146768	128.263698	0.150560665	0.880670823	-235.6265154	274.2494508	-235.6265154	274.2494508
β2	0.040120878	0.009974857	4.022200679	0.000122494	0.020294769	0.059946987	0.020294769	0.059946987

Gulf Coast Region:

Regression Statistics	
Multiple R	0.842706997
R Square	0.710155083
Adjusted R Square	0.708248209
Standard Error	2573551.438
Observations	307

ANOVA

	df	SS	MS	F	Significance F
Regression	2	4.93318E+15	2.46659E+15	372.4183744	1.77494E-82
Residual	304	2.01344E+15	6.62317E+12		
Total	306	6.94662E+15			

	Coefficients	Standard Error	t Stat	P-value	Lower 95%	Upper 95%	Lower 95.0%	Upper 95.0%
β0	318882.7578	272026.272	1.172249855	0.242014577	-216410.0169	854175.5325	-216410.0169	854175.5325
β2	0.019032113	0.008289474	2.295937192	0.022359763	0.002720101	0.035344125	0.002720101	0.035344125
β3	1.12638E-06	4.6744E-07	2.409676918	0.016560642	2.06552E-07	2.04621E-06	2.06552E-07	2.04621E-06

Mid-Continent Region:

Regression Statistics	
Multiple R	0.92348831
R Square	0.852830659
Adjusted R Square	0.850494637
Standard Error	1309841.335
Observations	129

ANOVA

	df	SS	MS	F	Significance F
Regression	2	1.25272E+15	6.26359E+14	365.0782904	3.73674E-53
Residual	126	2.16176E+14	1.71568E+12		
Total	128	1.46889E+15			

	Coefficients	Standard Error	t Stat	P-value	Lower 95%	Upper 95%	Lower 95.0%	Upper 95.0%
β0	355178.8049	240917.4549	1.47427593	0.142901467	-121589.7497	831947.3594	-121589.7497	831947.3594
β1	54.21184769	45.96361807	1.17945127	0.240440741	-36.74880003	145.1724954	-36.74880003	145.1724954
β3	1.20269E-06	1.12352E-07	10.70467954	2.04711E-19	9.80347E-07	1.42503E-06	9.80347E-07	1.42503E-06

Southwest Region:

Regression Statistics	
Multiple R	0.915492169
R Square	0.838125912
Adjusted R Square	0.834866702
Standard Error	1386872.99
Observations	153

ANOVA

	df	SS	MS	F	Significance F
Regression	3	1.48386E+15	4.94618E+14	257.1561693	1.088E-58
Residual	149	2.86589E+14	1.92342E+12		
Total	152	1.77044E+15			

	Coefficients	Standard Error	t Stat	P-value	Lower 95%	Upper 95%	Lower 95.0%	Upper 95.0%
β0	91618.176	571133.886	0.160414534	0.872771817	-1036949.89	1220186.242	-1036949.89	1220186.242
β1	376.1968481	269.4896391	1.395960339	0.164802951	-156.3182212	908.7119175	-156.3182212	908.7119175
β2	-0.062403125	0.034837969	-1.791238896	0.075284827	-0.131243411	0.00643716	-0.131243411	0.00643716
β3	5.03882E-06	1.29778E-06	3.88265606	0.000154832	2.4744E-06	7.60325E-06	2.4744E-06	7.60325E-06

Rocky Mountain Region:

Regression Statistics	
Multiple R	0.936745489
R Square	0.877492112
Adjusted R Square	0.87539796
Standard Error	2403080.549
Observations	120

ANOVA

	df	SS	MS	F	Significance F
Regression	2	4.83951E+15	2.41976E+15	419.0202716	4.54566E-54
Residual	117	6.75651E+14	5.7748E+12		
Total	119	5.51516E+15			

	Coefficients	Standard Error	t Stat	P-value	Lower 95%	Upper 95%	Lower 95.0%	Upper 95.0%
β0	219733.2637	346024.9678	0.635021412	0.526654367	-465551.0299	905017.5572	-465551.0299	905017.5572
β2	0.032265399	0.013130355	2.457313594	0.015464796	0.00626142	0.058269377	0.00626142	0.058269377
β3	2.6019E-06	7.88034E-07	3.301759413	0.001274492	1.04124E-06	4.16256E-06	1.04124E-06	4.16256E-06

West Coast Region:

Regression Statistics	
Multiple R	0.901854712
R Square	0.813341922
Adjusted R Square	0.795564962
Standard Error	494573.0787
Observations	24

ANOVA

	df	SS	MS	F	Significance F
Regression	2	2.23824E+13	1.11912E+13	45.75258814	2.21815E-08
Residual	21	5.13665E+12	2.44603E+11		
Total	23	2.75191E+13			

	Coefficients	Standard Error	t Stat	P-value	Lower 95%	Upper 95%	Lower 95.0%	Upper 95.0%
β0	385532.8938	215673.5911	1.787575808	0.088286514	-62984.89058	834050.6782	-62984.89058	834050.6782
β2	0.01799366	0.016370041	1.099182335	0.284130777	-0.016049704	0.052037025	-0.016049704	0.052037025
β3	1.01127E-06	1.49488E-06	0.676491268	0.506112235	-2.0975E-06	4.12005E-06	-2.0975E-06	4.12005E-06

Northern Great Plains Region:

Regression Statistics	
Multiple R	0.856130745
R Square	0.732959853
Adjusted R Square	0.706255838
Standard Error	2157271.229
Observations	23

ANOVA

	df	SS	MS	F	Significance F
Regression	2	2.55472E+14	1.27736E+14	27.44755272	1.84402E-06
Residual	20	9.30764E+13	4.65382E+12		
Total	22	3.48548E+14			

	Coefficients	Standard Error	t Stat	P-value	Lower 95%	Upper 95%	Lower 95.0%	Upper 95.0%
β0	267619.9291	1118552.942	0.239255487	0.813342236	-2065640.615	2600880.473	-2065640.615	2600880.473
β1	30.61609506	550.5220307	0.055612843	0.956202055	-1117.752735	1178.984925	-1117.752735	1178.984925
β2	0.049406678	0.035529716	1.390573371	0.179635875	-0.024707012	0.123520367	-0.024707012	0.123520367

Drilling and Completion Cost for Gas - Cost Adjustment Factor

The cost adjustment factor for vertical drilling and completion costs for gas was calculated using JAS data through 2007. The initial cost was normalized at various prices from \$1 to \$20 per barrel. This led to the development of a series of intermediate equations and the calculation of costs at specific prices and fixed depths. The differentials between estimated costs across the price range and fixed costs at \$5 per barrel were then calculated. The cost factor equation was then estimated using the differentials. The method of estimation used was ordinary least squares. The form of the equation is given below:

$$\text{Cost} = \beta 0 + \beta 1 * \text{Gas Price} + \beta 2 * \text{Gas Price}^2 + \beta 3 * \text{Gas Price}^3$$

Northeast Region:

Regression Statistics	
Multiple R	0.988234523
R Square	0.976607472
Adjusted R Square	0.976106203
Standard Error	0.03924461
Observations	144

ANOVA

	df	SS	MS	F	Significance F
Regression	3	9.001833192	3.000611064	1948.272332	6.4218E-114
Residual	140	0.215619522	0.001540139		
Total	143	9.217452714			

	Coefficients	Standard Error	t Stat	P-value	Lower 95%	Upper 95%	Lower 95.0%	Upper 95.0%
β0	0.315932281	0.013188706	23.95476038	2.2494E-51	0.289857502	0.34200706	0.289857502	0.34200706
β1	0.195760743	0.005820373	33.63371152	6.11526E-69	0.184253553	0.207267932	0.184253553	0.207267932
β2	-0.013906425	0.000699337	-19.88514708	1.29788E-42	-0.015289053	-0.012523798	-0.015289053	-0.012523798
β3	0.000336178	2.27846E-05	14.75458424	2.61104E-30	0.000291131	0.000381224	0.000291131	0.000381224

Gulf Coast Region:

Regression Statistics	
Multiple R	0.976776879
R Square	0.954093072
Adjusted R Square	0.953109352
Standard Error	0.051120145
Observations	144

ANOVA

	df	SS	MS	F	Significance F
Regression	3	7.60369517	2.534565057	969.8828784	1.98947E-93
Residual	140	0.365857688	0.002613269		
Total	143	7.969552858			

	Coefficients	Standard Error	t Stat	P-value	Lower 95%	Upper 95%	Lower 95.0%	Upper 95.0%
β0	0.343645899	0.017179647	20.00308313	7.02495E-43	0.309680816	0.377610983	0.309680816	0.377610983
β1	0.190338822	0.007581635	25.10524794	1.08342E-53	0.175349523	0.205328121	0.175349523	0.205328121
β2	-0.013965513	0.000910959	-15.33056399	9.3847E-32	-0.015766527	-0.012164498	-0.015766527	-0.012164498
β3	0.000342962	2.96793E-05	11.55560459	4.15963E-22	0.000284285	0.00040164	0.000284285	0.00040164

Mid-continent Region:

Regression Statistics	
Multiple R	0.973577019
R Square	0.947852212
Adjusted R Square	0.94673476
Standard Error	0.058882142
Observations	144

ANOVA

	df	SS	MS	F	Significance F
Regression	3	8.822668656	2.940889552	848.2258794	1.4872E-89
Residual	140	0.485394925	0.003467107		
Total	143	9.308063582			

	Coefficients	Standard Error	t Stat	P-value	Lower 95%	Upper 95%	Lower 95.0%	Upper 95.0%
β0	0.309185338	0.019788175	15.62475232	1.738E-32	0.270063053	0.348307623	0.270063053	0.348307623
β1	0.019036286	0.000873282	21.79856116	7.62464E-47	0.017309761	0.020762811	0.017309761	0.020762811
β2	-0.000123667	1.04928E-05	-11.78593913	1.05461E-22	-0.000144412	-0.000102922	-0.000144412	-0.000102922
β3	2.60516E-07	3.41858E-08	7.620611936	3.45556E-12	1.92929E-07	3.28104E-07	1.92929E-07	3.28104E-07

Southwest Region:

Regression Statistics	
Multiple R	0.966438524
R Square	0.934003421
Adjusted R Square	0.932589209
Standard Error	0.06631093
Observations	144

ANOVA

	df	SS	MS	F	Significance F
Regression	3	8.712149531	2.904049844	660.4406967	2.13407E-82
Residual	140	0.615599523	0.004397139		
Total	143	9.327749054			

	Coefficients	Standard Error	t Stat	P-value	Lower 95%	Upper 95%	Lower 95.0%	Upper 95.0%
β0	0.323862308	0.022284725	14.53292844	9.46565E-30	0.279804211	0.367920404	0.279804211	0.367920404
β1	0.193832047	0.009834582	19.70923084	3.2532E-42	0.174388551	0.213275544	0.174388551	0.213275544
β2	-0.013820723	0.001181658	-11.69604336	1.80171E-22	-0.016156924	-0.011484522	-0.016156924	-0.011484522
β3	0.000334693	3.84988E-05	8.693602923	8.44808E-15	0.000258579	0.000410807	0.000258579	0.000410807

Rocky Mountains Region:

Regression Statistics	
Multiple R	0.985593617
R Square	0.971394777
Adjusted R Square	0.970781808
Standard Error	0.0421446
Observations	144

ANOVA

	df	SS	MS	F	Significance F
Regression	3	8.444274294	2.814758098	1584.737059	8.3614E-108
Residual	140	0.248663418	0.001776167		
Total	143	8.692937712			

	Coefficients	Standard Error	t Stat	P-value	Lower 95%	Upper 95%	Lower 95.0%	Upper 95.0%
β0	0.32536782	0.014163288	22.97261928	2.42535E-49	0.29736624	0.353369401	0.29736624	0.353369401
β1	0.194045615	0.006250471	31.04496067	1.21348E-64	0.181688099	0.206403131	0.181688099	0.206403131
β2	-0.01396687	0.000751015	-18.59732564	1.18529E-39	-0.015451667	-0.012482073	-0.015451667	-0.012482073
β3	0.000339698	2.44683E-05	13.88318297	4.22503E-28	0.000291323	0.000388073	0.000291323	0.000388073

West Coast Region:

Regression Statistics	
Multiple R	0.994143406
R Square	0.988321112
Adjusted R Square	0.98807085
Standard Error	0.026802603
Observations	144

ANOVA

	df	SS	MS	F	Significance F
Regression	3	8.510960152	2.836986717	3949.147599	4.9307E-135
Residual	140	0.100573131	0.00071838		
Total	143	8.611533284			

	Coefficients	Standard Error	t Stat	P-value	Lower 95%	Upper 95%	Lower 95.0%	Upper 95.0%
β0	0.325917293	0.009007393	36.18330938	6.29717E-73	0.308109194	0.343725393	0.308109194	0.343725393
β1	0.193657091	0.003975097	48.71757347	1.12458E-89	0.185798111	0.201516072	0.185798111	0.201516072
β2	-0.013893214	0.000477621	-29.08835053	3.2685E-61	-0.014837497	-0.012948932	-0.014837497	-0.012948932
β3	0.000337413	1.5561E-05	21.68318808	1.35414E-46	0.000306648	0.000368178	0.000306648	0.000368178

Northern Great Plains Region:

Regression Statistics	
Multiple R	0.970035104
R Square	0.940968103
Adjusted R Square	0.939703134
Standard Error	0.057035843
Observations	144

ANOVA

	df	SS	MS	F	Significance F
Regression	3	7.259587116	2.419862372	743.8663996	8.71707E-86
Residual	140	0.455432229	0.003253087		
Total	143	7.715019345			

	Coefficients	Standard Error	t Stat	P-value	Lower 95%	Upper 95%	Lower 95.0%	Upper 95.0%
β0	0.352772153	0.0191677	18.40451098	3.34838E-39	0.31487658	0.390667726	0.31487658	0.390667726
β1	0.189510541	0.008458993	22.40344064	3.85701E-48	0.172786658	0.206234423	0.172786658	0.206234423
β2	-0.014060192	0.001016376	-13.83364754	5.65155E-28	-0.016069622	-0.012050761	-0.016069622	-0.012050761
β3	0.000347364	3.31138E-05	10.49000322	2.34854E-19	0.000281896	0.000412832	0.000281896	0.000412832

Drilling and Completion Costs for Dryholes

The 2004 – 2007 JAS data was used to calculate the equation for vertical drilling and completion costs for dryholes. The data was analyzed at a regional level. The independent variable was depth. Drilling cost is the cost of drilling on a per well basis. Depth is also on a per well basis. The method of estimation used was ordinary least squares. The form of the equation is given bellow.

$$\text{Drilling Cost} = \beta0 + \beta1 * \text{Depth} + \beta2 * \text{Depth}^2 + \beta3 * \text{Depth}^3 \quad (2.B\text{-}3)$$

where Drilling Cost = DWC_W
β0 = DRY_DWCK
β1 = DRY_DWCA
β2 = DRY_DWCB
β3 = DRY_DWCC
from equations 2-19 and 2-20 in Chapter 2.

Northeast Region:

Regression Statistics	
Multiple R	0.913345218
R Square	0.834199487
Adjusted R Square	0.828851084
Standard Error	1018952.27
Observations	97

ANOVA

	df	*SS*	*MS*	*F*	*Significance F*
Regression	3	4.85819E+14	1.6194E+14	155.9716777	3.64706E-36
Residual	93	9.65585E+13	1.03826E+12		
Total	96	5.82378E+14			

	Coefficients	*Standard Error*	*t Stat*	*P-value*	*Lower 95%*	*Upper 95%*	*Lower 95.0%*	*Upper 95.0%*
β0	170557.6447	323739.1839	0.526836581	0.599561475	-472323.5706	813438.8601	-472323.5706	813438.8601
β1	256.9930321	233.0025772	1.102962187	0.272889552	-205.7034453	719.6895095	-205.7034453	719.6895095
β2	-0.043428533	0.043117602	-1.007211224	0.31644672	-0.129051459	0.042194394	-0.129051459	0.042194394
β3	5.9031E-06	2.11581E-06	2.789995653	0.006394574	1.70153E-06	1.01047E-05	1.70153E-06	1.01047E-05

Gulf Coast Region:

Regression Statistics	
Multiple R	0.868545327
R Square	0.754370985
Adjusted R Square	0.752096642
Standard Error	2529468.051
Observations	328

ANOVA

	df	*SS*	*MS*	*F*	*Significance F*
Regression	3	6.36662E+15	2.12221E+15	331.6874692	2.10256E-98
Residual	324	2.07302E+15	6.39821E+12		
Total	327	8.43964E+15			

	Coefficients	*Standard Error*	*t Stat*	*P-value*	*Lower 95%*	*Upper 95%*	*Lower 95.0%*	*Upper 95.0%*
β0	118790.7619	515360.6337	0.230500264	0.81784853	-895084.76	1132666.284	-895084.76	1132666.284
β1	126.2333724	241.1698405	0.523421055	0.601039076	-348.2231187	600.6898634	-348.2231187	600.6898634
β2	-0.001057252	0.0294162	-0.035941139	0.971351426	-0.058928115	0.056813612	-0.058928115	0.056813612
β3	2.32104E-06	1.0194E-06	2.276864977	0.02344596	3.15558E-07	4.32653E-06	3.15558E-07	4.32653E-06

Mid-Continent Region:

Regression Statistics	
Multiple R	0.80373002
R Square	0.645981944
Adjusted R Square	0.636056204
Standard Error	904657.9939
Observations	111

ANOVA

	df	SS	MS	F	Significance F
Regression	3	1.59789E+14	5.32631E+13	65.08149035	5.0095E-24
Residual	107	8.75695E+13	8.18406E+11		
Total	110	2.47359E+14			

	Coefficients	Standard Error	t Stat	P-value	Lower 95%	Upper 95%	Lower 95.0%	Upper 95.0%
β0	163849.8824	309404.7345	0.529564884	0.597510699	-449508.8999	777208.6646	-449508.8999	777208.6646
β1	17.95111978	155.7546455	0.115252548	0.908460959	-290.8142902	326.7165297	-290.8142902	326.7165297
β2	0.022715716	0.021144885	1.074288957	0.285109837	-0.019201551	0.064632983	-0.019201551	0.064632983
β3	-3.50301E-07	7.90957E-07	-0.442882115	0.658745077	-1.91828E-06	1.21768E-06	-1.91828E-06	1.21768E-06

Southwest Region:

Regression Statistics	
Multiple R	0.916003396
R Square	0.839062222
Adjusted R Square	0.835290243
Standard Error	734795.4183
Observations	132

ANOVA

	df	SS	MS	F	Significance F
Regression	3	3.60312E+14	1.20104E+14	222.4461445	1.40193E-50
Residual	128	6.91103E+13	5.39924E+11		
Total	131	4.29423E+14			

	Coefficients	Standard Error	t Stat	P-value	Lower 95%	Upper 95%	Lower 95.0%	Upper 95.0%
β0	22628.66985	252562.1046	0.089596457	0.928747942	-477108.2352	522365.5749	-477108.2352	522365.5749
β1	262.7649266	164.1391792	1.600866581	0.111871702	-62.01224262	587.5420958	-62.01224262	587.5420958
β2	-0.064989728	0.029352301	-2.21412721	0.02859032	-0.123068227	-0.006911229	-0.123068227	-0.006911229
β3	6.52693E-06	1.49073E-06	4.378340081	2.46095E-05	3.57727E-06	9.4766E-06	3.57727E-06	9.4766E-06

Rocky Mountain Region:

Regression Statistics	
Multiple R	0.908263682
R Square	0.824942917
Adjusted R Square	0.821295894
Standard Error	1868691.311
Observations	99

ANOVA

	df	SS	MS	F	Significance F
Regression	2	1.57976E+15	7.89879E+14	226.1962739	4.70571E-37
Residual	96	3.35233E+14	3.49201E+12		
Total	98	1.91499E+15			

	Coefficients	Standard Error	t Stat	P-value	Lower 95%	Upper 95%	Lower 95.0%	Upper 95.0%
β0	288056.5506	314517.8483	0.915867103	0.362031526	-336256.4285	912369.5298	-336256.4285	912369.5298
β2	0.018141347	0.017298438	1.048727458	0.296936644	-0.01619578	0.052478474	-0.01619578	0.052478474
β3	3.85847E-06	1.27201E-06	3.033362592	0.003110773	1.33355E-06	6.3834E-06	1.33355E-06	6.3834E-06

West Coast Region:

Regression Statistics	
Multiple R	0.853182771
R Square	0.727920841
Adjusted R Square	0.707514904
Standard Error	907740.218
Observations	44

ANOVA

	df	SS	MS	F	Significance F
Regression	3	8.81804E+13	2.93935E+13	35.67201271	2.18647E-11
Residual	40	3.29597E+13	8.23992E+11		
Total	43	1.2114E+14			

	Coefficients	Standard Error	t Stat	P-value	Lower 95%	Upper 95%	Lower 95.0%	Upper 95.0%
β0	106996.0572	512960.104	0.208585534	0.835830348	-929734.9747	1143727.089	-929734.9747	1143727.089
β1	687.3095347	329.4149478	2.086455212	0.043357214	21.53709715	1353.081972	21.53709715	1353.081972
β2	-0.15898723	0.058188911	-2.732259905	0.009317504	-0.276591406	-0.041383054	-0.276591406	-0.041383054
β3	1.14978E-05	2.91968E-06	3.938046272	0.000320309	5.59694E-06	1.73987E-05	5.59694E-06	1.73987E-05

Northern Great Plains Region:

Regression Statistics	
Multiple R	0.841621294
R Square	0.708326403
Adjusted R Square	0.687977082
Standard Error	2155533.512
Observations	47

ANOVA

	df	SS	MS	F	Significance F
Regression	3	4.85193E+14	1.61731E+14	34.80835607	1.41404E-11
Residual	43	1.99792E+14	4.64632E+12		
Total	46	6.84985E+14			

	Coefficients	Standard Error	t Stat	P-value	Lower 95%	Upper 95%	Lower 95.0%	Upper 95.0%
β0	122507.9534	1373015.289	0.089225484	0.929317007	-2646441.235	2891457.142	-2646441.235	2891457.142
β1	345.4371452	801.6324436	0.430917122	0.668681154	-1271.20873	1962.08302	-1271.20873	1962.08302
β2	-0.014734575	0.126273194	-0.11668807	0.907650548	-0.269388738	0.239919588	-0.269388738	0.239919588
β3	3.23748E-06	5.69952E-06	0.568026219	0.572971531	-8.2567E-06	1.47317E-05	-8.2567E-06	1.47317E-05

Drilling and Completion Cost for Dry - Cost Adjustment Factor

The cost adjustment factor for vertical drilling and completion costs for dryholes was calculated using JAS data through 2007. The initial cost was normalized at various prices from $10 to $200 per barrel. This led to the development of a series of intermediate equations and the calculation of costs at specific prices and fixed depths. The differentials between estimated costs across the price range and fixed costs at $50 per barrel were then calculated. The cost factor equation was then estimated using the differentials. The method of estimation used was ordinary least squares. The form of the equation is given below:

$$\text{Cost} = \beta 0 + \beta 1 * \text{Oil Price} + \beta 2 * \text{Oil Price}^2 + \beta 3 * \text{Oil Price}^3$$

Northeast Region:

Regression Statistics	
Multiple R	0.994846264
R Square	0.989719089
Adjusted R Square	0.989498783
Standard Error	0.026930376
Observations	144

ANOVA

	df	SS	MS	F	Significance F
Regression	3	9.774469405	3.258156468	4492.489925	6.5663E-139
Residual	140	0.101534319	0.000725245		
Total	143	9.876003725			

	Coefficients	Standard Error	t Stat	P-value	Lower 95%	Upper 95%	Lower 95.0%	Upper 95.0%
β0	0.290689859	0.009050333	32.11924425	1.85582E-66	0.272796865	0.308582854	0.272796865	0.308582854
β1	0.020261651	0.000399405	50.72962235	5.26469E-92	0.019472006	0.021051296	0.019472006	0.021051296
β2	-0.000143294	4.79898E-06	-29.85918012	1.391E-62	-0.000152782	-0.000133806	-0.000152782	-0.000133806
β3	3.45487E-07	1.56352E-08	22.09672004	1.74153E-47	3.14575E-07	3.76399E-07	3.14575E-07	3.76399E-07

Gulf Coast Region:

Regression Statistics	
Multiple R	0.993347128
R Square	0.986738516
Adjusted R Square	0.986454342
Standard Error	0.031666016
Observations	144

ANOVA

	df	SS	MS	F	Significance F
Regression	3	10.44539464	3.481798214	3472.296057	3.5967E-131
Residual	140	0.140383119	0.001002737		
Total	143	10.58577776			

	Coefficients	Standard Error	t Stat	P-value	Lower 95%	Upper 95%	Lower 95.0%	Upper 95.0%
β0	0.277940175	0.010641812	26.11774938	1.12431E-55	0.256900742	0.298979608	0.256900742	0.298979608
β1	0.020529977	0.000469639	43.71437232	1.71946E-83	0.019601475	0.021458479	0.019601475	0.021458479
β2	-0.000143466	5.64287E-06	-25.42421447	2.53682E-54	-0.000154622	-0.000132309	-0.000154622	-0.000132309
β3	3.43878E-07	1.83846E-08	18.70465533	6.66256E-40	3.07531E-07	3.80226E-07	3.07531E-07	3.80226E-07

Mid-Continent Region:

Regression Statistics	
Multiple R	0.984006541
R Square	0.968268874
Adjusted R Square	0.967588921
Standard Error	0.048034262
Observations	144

ANOVA

	df	SS	MS	F	Significance F
Regression	3	9.856909541	3.285636514	1424.023848	1.1869E-104
Residual	140	0.323020652	0.00230729		
Total	143	10.17993019			

	Coefficients	Standard Error	t Stat	P-value	Lower 95%	Upper 95%	Lower 95.0%	Upper 95.0%
β0	0.289971748	0.016142592	17.96314638	3.67032E-38	0.258056977	0.32188652	0.258056977	0.32188652
β1	0.020266191	0.000712397	28.44789972	4.71502E-60	0.018857744	0.021674637	0.018857744	0.021674637
β2	-0.000143007	8.55969E-06	-16.70702184	3.8001E-35	-0.00015993	-0.000126084	-0.00015993	-0.000126084
β3	3.44462E-07	2.78877E-08	12.35174476	3.63124E-24	2.89326E-07	3.99597E-07	2.89326E-07	3.99597E-07

Southwest Region:

Regression Statistics	
Multiple R	0.993309425
R Square	0.986663613
Adjusted R Square	0.986377833
Standard Error	0.031536315
Observations	144

ANOVA

	df	SS	MS	F	Significance F
Regression	3	10.30103457	3.43367819	3452.531986	5.3348E-131
Residual	140	0.139235479	0.000994539		
Total	143	10.44027005			

	Coefficients	Standard Error	t Stat	P-value	Lower 95%	Upper 95%	Lower 95.0%	Upper 95.0%
β0	0.278136296	0.010598224	26.24367047	6.42248E-56	0.257183038	0.299089554	0.257183038	0.299089554
β1	0.020381432	0.000467715	43.57656163	2.59609E-83	0.019456733	0.02130613	0.019456733	0.02130613
β2	-0.00014194	5.61976E-06	-25.25738215	5.41293E-54	-0.000153051	-0.00013083	-0.000153051	-0.00013083
β3	3.38578E-07	1.83093E-08	18.49210412	2.08785E-39	3.0238E-07	3.74777E-07	3.0238E-07	3.74777E-07

Rocky Mountain Region:

Regression Statistics	
Multiple R	0.9949703
R Square	0.9899658
Adjusted R Square	0.9897508
Standard Error	0.0266287
Observations	144

ANOVA

	df	SS	MS	F	Significance F
Regression	3	9.79418782	3.2647293	4604.11	1.199E-139
Residual	140	0.09927263	0.0007091		
Total	143	9.89346045			

	Coefficients	Standard Error	t Stat	P-value	Lower 95%	Upper 95%	Lower 95.0%	Upper 95.0%
β0	0.2902761	0.00894897	32.436833	5.504E-67	0.27258355	0.3079687	0.2725836	0.3079687
β1	0.0202676	0.00039493	51.319418	1.133E-92	0.01948684	0.0210484	0.0194868	0.0210484
β2	-0.0001433	4.7452E-06	-30.194046	3.595E-63	-0.0001527	-0.0001339	-0.0001527	-0.0001339
β3	3.454E-07	1.546E-08	22.340389	5.253E-48	3.1482E-07	3.76E-07	3.148E-07	3.76E-07

West Coast Region:

Regression Statistics	
Multiple R	0.992483684
R Square	0.985023864
Adjusted R Square	0.984702946
Standard Error	0.032081124
Observations	144

ANOVA

	df	SS	MS	F	Significance F
Regression	3	9.477071064	3.159023688	3069.401798	1.7868E-127
Residual	140	0.144087788	0.001029198		
Total	143	9.621158852			

	Coefficients	Standard Error	t Stat	P-value	Lower 95%	Upper 95%	Lower 95.0%	Upper 95.0%
β0	0.297817853	0.010781315	27.62351924	1.55941E-58	0.276502615	0.31913309	0.276502615	0.31913309
β1	0.020092432	0.000475796	42.22913162	1.54864E-81	0.019151759	0.021033105	0.019151759	0.021033105
β2	-0.000142719	5.71684E-06	-24.96465108	2.06229E-53	-0.000154021	-0.000131416	-0.000154021	-0.000131416
β3	3.44906E-07	1.86256E-08	18.51777816	1.81824E-39	3.08082E-07	3.81729E-07	3.08082E-07	3.81729E-07

Northern Great Plains Region:

Regression Statistics	
Multiple R	0.993525621
R Square	0.987093159
Adjusted R Square	0.986816584
Standard Error	0.031179889
Observations	144

ANOVA

	df	*SS*	*MS*	*F*	*Significance F*
Regression	3	10.40915184	3.469717279	3568.986978	5.3943E-132
Residual	140	0.136105966	0.000972185		
Total	143	10.5452578			

	Coefficients	*Standard Error*	*t Stat*	*P-value*	*Lower 95%*	*Upper 95%*	*Lower 95.0%*	*Upper 95.0%*
β0	0.281568556	0.010478442	26.87122338	4.04796E-57	0.260852113	0.302284998	0.260852113	0.302284998
β1	0.020437386	0.000462429	44.19569691	4.11395E-84	0.019523138	0.021351633	0.019523138	0.021351633
β2	-0.000142671	5.55624E-06	-25.67758357	8.07391E-55	-0.000153656	-0.000131686	-0.000153656	-0.000131686
β3	3.42012E-07	1.81024E-08	18.89319503	2.43032E-40	3.06223E-07	3.77802E-07	3.06223E-07	3.77802E-07

Drilling and Completion Costs for Horizontal Wells

The costs of horizontal drilling for crude oil, natural gas, and dryholes are based upon cost estimates developed for the Department of Energy's Comprehensive Oil and Gas Analysis Model. The form of the equation is as follows:

$$Cost = \beta 0 + \beta 1 * Depth^2 + \beta 2 * Depth^2 * nlat + \beta 3 * Depth^2 * nlat * latlen \qquad (2.B\text{-}4)$$

Where, nlat is the number of laterals per pattern and latlen is the length of those laterals. Parameter estimates and regression diagnostics are given below. The method of estimation used was ordinary least squares.

Regression Statistics	
Multiple R	1
R Square	1
Adjusted R Square	1
Standard Error	3.12352E-12
Observations	120

ANOVA

	df	*SS*	*MS*	*F*	*Significance F*
Regression	3	147,510,801.46	49,170,267.15	5.04E+30	0.00
Residual	116	0.00	0.00		
Total	119	147,510,801.46			

	Coefficients	*Standard Error*	*t Stat*	*P-value*	*Lower 95%*	*Upper 95%*	*Lower 95.0%*	*Upper 95.0%*
β0	172.88	4.37E-13	3.95E+14	0.00	172.88	172.88	172.88	172.88
β1	8.07E-06	8.81E-21	9.16E+14	0.00	8.07E-06	8.07E-06	8.07E-06	8.07E-06
β2	1.15E-06	3.20E-21	3.60E+14	0.00	1.15E-06	1.15E-06	1.15E-06	1.15E-06
β3	9.22E-10	1.48E-24	6.23E+14	0.00	9.22E-10	9.22E-10	9.22E-10	9.22E-10

Cost to Equip a Primary Producer

The cost to equip a primary producer was calculated using an average from 2004 – 2007 data from the most recent Cost and Indices data base provided by the U.S. Energy Information Administration (EIA). The cost to equip a primary producer is equal to the grand total cost minus the producing equipment subtotal. The data was analyzed on a regional level. The independent variable is depth. The form of the equation is given below:

$$\text{Cost} = \beta 0 + \beta 1 * \text{Depth} + \beta 2 * \text{Depth}^2 + \beta 3 * \text{Depth}^3 \quad (2.B\text{-}5)$$

where Cost = NPR_W
β0 = NPRK
β1 = NPRA
β2 = NPRB
β3 = NPRC
from equation 2-21 in Chapter 2.

The cost is on a per well basis. Parameter estimates and regression diagnostics are given below. The method of estimation used was ordinary least squares. β2 and β3 are statistically insignificant and are therefore zero.

West Texas, applied to OLOGSS regions 2 and 4:

Regression Statistics	
Multiple R	0.921
R Square	0.849
Adjusted R Square	0.697
Standard Error	621.17
Observations	3

ANOVA

	df	*SS*	*MS*	*F*	*Significance F*
Regression	1	2,163,010.81	2,163,010.81	5.61	0.254415
Residual	1	385,858.01	385,858.01		
Total	2	2,548,868.81			

	Coefficients	*Standard Error*	*t Stat*	*P-value*	*Lower 95%*	*Upper 95%*	*Lower 95.0%*	*Upper 95.0%*
β0	51,315.4034	760.7805	67.4510	0.0094	41,648.8117	60,981.9952	41,648.8117	60,981.9952
β1	0.3404	0.1438	2.3676	0.2544	-1.4864	2.1672	-1.4864	2.1672

Mid-Continent, applied to OLOGSS region 3:

Regression Statistics	
Multiple R	0.995
R Square	0.990
Adjusted R Square	0.981
Standard Error	1,193.14
Observations	3

ANOVA

	df	*SS*	*MS*	*F*	*Significance F*
Regression	1	145,656,740.81	145,656,740.81	102.32	0.06
Residual	1	1,423,576.87	1,423,576.87		
Total	2	147,080,317.68			

	Coefficients	*Standard Error*	*t Stat*	*P-value*	*Lower 95%*	*Upper 95%*	*Lower 95.0%*	*Upper 95.0%*
β0	45,821.717	1,461.289	31.357	0.020	27,254.360	64,389.074	27,254.360	64,389.074
β1	2.793	0.276	10.115	0.063	-0.716	6.302	-0.716	6.302

Rocky Mountains, applied to OLOGSS regions 1, 5, and 7:

Regression Statistics	
Multiple R	0.9998
R Square	0.9995
Adjusted R Square	0.9990
Standard Error	224.46
Observations	3

ANOVA

	df	*SS*	*MS*	*F*	*Significance F*
Regression	1	105,460,601.42	105,460,601.42	2,093.17	0.01
Residual	1	50,383.23	50,383.23		
Total	2	105,510,984.64			

	Coefficients	*Standard Error*	*t Stat*	*P-value*	*Lower 95%*	*Upper 95%*	*Lower 95.0%*	*Upper 95.0%*
β0	62,709.378	274.909	228.110	0.003	59,216.346	66,202.411	59,216.346	66,202.411
β1	2.377	0.052	45.751	0.014	1.717	3.037	1.717	3.037

West Coast, applied to OLOGSS regions 6:

Regression Statistics	
Multiple R	0.9095
R Square	0.8272
Adjusted R Square	0.7408
Standard Error	2,257.74
Observations	4

ANOVA

	df	*SS*	*MS*	*F*	*Significance F*
Regression	1	48,812,671.60	48,812,671.60	9.58	0.09
Residual	2	10,194,785.98	5,097,392.99		
Total	3	59,007,457.58			

	Coefficients	*Standard Error*	*t Stat*	*P-value*	*Lower 95%*	*Upper 95%*	*Lower 95.0%*	*Upper 95.0%*
β0	106,959.788	2,219.144	48.199	0.000	97,411.576	116,508.001	97,411.576	116,508.001
β1	0.910	0.294	3.095	0.090	-0.355	2.174	-0.355	2.174

Cost to Equip a Primary Producer - Cost Adjustment Factor

The cost adjustment factor for the cost to equip a primary producer was calculated using data through 2008 from the Cost and Indices data base provided by EIA. The initial cost was normalized at various prices from $10 to $200 per barrel. This led to the development of a series of intermediate equations and the calculation of costs at specific prices and fixed depths. The differentials between estimated costs across the price range and fixed costs at $50 per barrel were then calculated. The cost factor equation was then estimated using the differentials. The method of estimation used was ordinary least squares. The form of the equation is given below:

$$\text{Cost} = \beta 0 + \beta 1 * \text{Oil Price} + \beta 2 * \text{Oil Price}^2 + \beta 3 * \text{Oil Price}^3$$

Rocky Mountains, Applied to OLOGSS Regions 1, 5, and 7:

Regression Statistics	
Multiple R	0.994410537
R Square	0.988852316
Adjusted R Square	0.988613437
Standard Error	0.026443679
Observations	144

ANOVA

	df	SS	MS	F	Significance F
Regression	3	8.683975313	2.894658438	4139.554242	1.896E-136
Residual	140	0.097897541	0.000699268		
Total	143	8.781872854			

	Coefficients	Standard Error	t Stat	P-value	Lower 95%	Upper 95%	Lower 95.0%	Upper 95.0%
β0	0.31969898	0.008886772	35.97470366	1.30857E-72	0.302129355	0.337268604	0.302129355	0.337268604
β1	0.01951727	0.000392187	49.76527469	6.72079E-91	0.018741896	0.020292644	0.018741896	0.020292644
β2	-0.000139868	4.71225E-06	-29.68181785	2.86084E-62	-0.000149185	-0.000130552	-0.000149185	-0.000130552
β3	3.39583E-07	1.53527E-08	22.11882142	1.56166E-47	3.0923E-07	3.69936E-07	3.0923E-07	3.69936E-07

South Texas, Applied to OLOGSS Regions 2:

Regression Statistics	
Multiple R	0.994238324
R Square	0.988509845
Adjusted R Square	0.988263627
Standard Error	0.026795052
Observations	144

ANOVA

	df	SS	MS	F	Significance F
Regression	3	8.647535343	2.882511781	4014.781289	1.5764E-135
Residual	140	0.100516472	0.000717975		
Total	143	8.748051814			

	Coefficients	Standard Error	t Stat	P-value	Lower 95%	Upper 95%	Lower 95.0%	Upper 95.0%
β0	0.320349357	0.009004856	35.57517997	5.36201E-72	0.302546274	0.33815244	0.302546274	0.33815244
β1	0.019534419	0.000397398	49.15583863	3.4382E-90	0.018748742	0.020320096	0.018748742	0.020320096
β2	-0.000140302	4.77487E-06	-29.38344709	9.69188E-62	-0.000149742	-0.000130862	-0.000149742	-0.000130862
β3	3.41163E-07	1.55567E-08	21.9303828	3.96368E-47	3.10407E-07	3.7192E-07	3.10407E-07	3.7192E-07

Mid-Continent, Applied to OLOGSS Region 3:

Regression Statistics	
Multiple R	0.994150147
R Square	0.988334515
Adjusted R Square	0.98808454
Standard Error	0.026852947
Observations	144

ANOVA

	df	SS	MS	F	Significance F
Regression	3	8.552894405	2.850964802	3953.738464	4.5499E-135
Residual	140	0.100951309	0.000721081		
Total	143	8.653845713			

	Coefficients	Standard Error	t Stat	P-value	Lower 95%	Upper 95%	Lower 95.0%	Upper 95.0%
β0	0.322462264	0.009024312	35.73261409	3.07114E-72	0.304620715	0.340303814	0.304620715	0.340303814
β1	0.019485751	0.000398256	48.9276546	6.36471E-90	0.018698377	0.020273125	0.018698377	0.020273125
β2	-0.000140187	4.78518E-06	-29.29612329	1.3875E-61	-0.000149648	-0.000130727	-0.000149648	-0.000130727
β3	3.41143E-07	1.55903E-08	21.88177944	5.04366E-47	3.1032E-07	3.71966E-07	3.1032E-07	3.71966E-07

West Texas, Applied to OLOGSS Regions 4:

Regression Statistics	
Multiple R	0.99407047
R Square	0.988176099
Adjusted R Square	0.98792273
Standard Error	0.026915882
Observations	144

ANOVA

	df	SS	MS	F	Significance F
Regression	3	8.476544403	2.825514801	3900.141282	1.1696E-134
Residual	140	0.101425062	0.000724465		
Total	143	8.577969465			

	Coefficients	Standard Error	t Stat	P-value	Lower 95%	Upper 95%	Lower 95.0%	Upper 95.0%
β0	0.324216701	0.009045462	35.84302113	2.08007E-72	0.306333337	0.342100066	0.306333337	0.342100066
β1	0.019446254	0.00039919	48.71430741	1.1346E-89	0.018657034	0.020235473	0.018657034	0.020235473
β2	-0.000140099	4.7964E-06	-29.20929598	1.98384E-61	-0.000149582	-0.000130617	-0.000149582	-0.000130617
β3	3.41157E-07	1.56268E-08	21.8315363	6.47229E-47	3.10262E-07	3.72052E-07	3.10262E-07	3.72052E-07

West Coast, Applied to OLOGSS Regions 6:

Regression Statistics	
Multiple R	0.994533252
R Square	0.98909639
Adjusted R Square	0.988862741
Standard Error	0.026511278
Observations	144

ANOVA

	df	SS	MS	F	Significance F
Regression	3	8.92601569	2.975338563	4233.261276	4.0262E-137
Residual	140	0.098398698	0.000702848		
Total	143	9.024414388			

	Coefficients	Standard Error	t Stat	P-value	Lower 95%	Upper 95%	Lower 95.0%	Upper 95.0%
β0	0.314154129	0.008909489	35.26062149	1.64245E-71	0.296539591	0.331768668	0.296539591	0.331768668
β1	0.019671366	0.000393189	50.03029541	3.32321E-91	0.01889401	0.020448722	0.01889401	0.020448722
β2	-0.000140565	4.7243E-06	-29.75371308	2.13494E-62	-0.000149906	-0.000131225	-0.000149906	-0.000131225
β3	3.40966E-07	1.53919E-08	22.15229024	1.32417E-47	3.10535E-07	3.71397E-07	3.10535E-07	3.71397E-07

Primary Workover Costs

Primary workover costs were calculated using an average from 2004 – 2007 data from the most recent Cost and Indices data base provided by the U.S. Energy Information Administration (EIA). Workover costs consist of the total of workover rig services, remedial services, equipment repair and other costs. The data was analyzed on a regional level. The independent variable is depth. The form of the equation is given below:

$$Cost = \beta0 + \beta1 * Depth + \beta2 * Depth^2 + \beta3 * Depth^3 \qquad (2.B\text{-}6)$$

where Cost = WRK_W

β0 = WRKK

β1 = WRKA

β2 = WRKB

β3 = WRKC

from equation 2-22 in Chapter 2.

The cost is on a per well basis. Parameter estimates and regression diagnostics are given below. The method of estimation used was ordinary least squares. β2 and β3 are statistically insignificant and are therefore zero.

Rocky Mountains, Applied to OLOGSS Region 1, 5, and 7:

Regression Statistics	
Multiple R	0.9839
R Square	0.9681
Adjusted R Square	0.9363
Standard Error	1,034.20
Observations	3

ANOVA

	df	*SS*	*MS*	*F*	*Significance F*
Regression	1	32,508,694.98	32,508,694.98	30.39	0.11
Residual	1	1,069,571.02	1,069,571.02		
Total	2	33,578,265.99			

	Coefficients	*Standard Error*	*t Stat*	*P-value*	*Lower 95%*	*Upper 95%*	*Lower 95.0%*	*Upper 95.0%*
β0	1,736.081	1,266.632	1.371	0.401	-14,357.935	17,830.097	-14,357.935	17,830.097
β1	1.320	0.239	5.513	0.114	-1.722	4.361	-1.722	4.361

South Texas, Applied to OLOGSS Region 2:

Regression Statistics	
Multiple R	0.7558
R Square	0.5713
Adjusted R Square	0.4284
Standard Error	978.19
Observations	5

ANOVA

	df	*SS*	*MS*	*F*	*Significance F*
Regression	1	3,824,956.55	3,824,956.55	4.00	0.14
Residual	3	2,870,570.06	956,856.69		
Total	4	6,695,526.61			

	Coefficients	*Standard Error*	*t Stat*	*P-value*	*Lower 95%*	*Upper 95%*	*Lower 95.0%*	*Upper 95.0%*
β0	1,949.479	1,043.913	1.867	0.159	-1,372.720	5,271.678	-1,372.720	5,271.678
β1	0.364	0.182	1.999	0.139	-0.216	0.945	-0.216	0.945

Mid-Continent, Applied to OLOGSS Region 3:

Regression Statistics	
Multiple R	0.9762
R Square	0.9530
Adjusted R Square	0.9060
Standard Error	2,405.79
Observations	3

ANOVA

	df	*SS*	*MS*	*F*	*Significance F*
Regression	1	117,342,912.53	117,342,912.53	20.27	0.14
Residual	1	5,787,839.96	5,787,839.96		
Total	2	123,130,752.49			

	Coefficients	*Standard Error*	*t Stat*	*P-value*	*Lower 95%*	*Upper 95%*	*Lower 95.0%*	*Upper 95.0%*
β0	-2,738.051	2,946.483	-0.929	0.523	-40,176.502	34,700.400	-40,176.502	34,700.400
β1	2.507	0.557	4.503	0.139	-4.568	9.582	-4.568	9.582

West Texas, Applied to OLOGSS Region 4:

Regression Statistics	
Multiple R	0.9898
R Square	0.9798
Adjusted R Square	0.9595
Standard Error	747.71
Observations	3

ANOVA

	df	SS	MS	F	Significance F
Regression	1	27,074,389.00	27,074,389.00	48.43	0.09
Residual	1	559,069.20	559,069.20		
Total	2	27,633,458.19			

	Coefficients	Standard Error	t Stat	P-value	Lower 95%	Upper 95%	Lower 95.0%	Upper 95.0%
β0	389.821	915.753	0.426	0.744	-11,245.876	12,025.518	-11,245.876	12,025.518
β1	1.204	0.173	6.959	0.091	-0.995	3.403	-0.995	3.403

West Coast, Applied to OLOGSS Region 6:

Regression Statistics	
Multiple R	0.9985
R Square	0.9969
Adjusted R Square	0.9939
Standard Error	273.2
Observations	3

ANOVA

	df	SS	MS	F	Significance F
Regression	1	24,387,852.65	24,387,852.65	326.67	0.04
Residual	1	74,656.68	74,656.68		
Total	2	24,462,509.32			

	Coefficients	Standard Error	t Stat	P-value	Lower 95%	Upper 95%	Lower 95.0%	Upper 95.0%
β0	1,326.648	334.642	3.964	0.157	-2,925.359	5,578.654	-2,925.359	5,578.654
β1	1.143	0.063	18.074	0.035	0.339	1.947	0.339	1.947

Primary Workover Costs - Cost Adjustment Factor

The cost adjustment factor for primary workover costs was calculated using data through 2008 from the Cost and Indices data base provided by EIA. The initial cost was normalized at various prices from \$10 to \$200 per barrel. This led to the development of a series of intermediate equations and the calculation of costs at specific prices and fixed depths. The differentials between estimated costs across the price range and fixed costs at \$50 per barrel were then calculated. The cost factor equation was then estimated using the differentials. The method of estimation used was ordinary least squares. The form of the equation is given below:

$$\text{Cost} = \beta0 + \beta1 * \text{Oil Price} + \beta2 * \text{Oil Price}^2 + \beta3 * \text{Oil Price}^3$$

Rocky Mountains, Applied to OLOGSS Regions 1, 5, and 7:

Regression Statistics	
Multiple R	0.994400682
R Square	0.988832717
Adjusted R Square	0.988593418
Standard Error	0.02694729
Observations	144

ANOVA

	df	SS	MS	F	Significance F
Regression	3	9.001886791	3.00062893	4132.207262	2.1441E-136
Residual	140	0.101661902	0.000726156		
Total	143	9.103548693			

	Coefficients	Standard Error	t Stat	P-value	Lower 95%	Upper 95%	Lower 95.0%	Upper 95.0%
β0	0.312539579	0.009056017	34.51181296	2.43715E-70	0.294635346	0.330443812	0.294635346	0.330443812
β1	0.019707131	0.000399656	49.31028624	2.26953E-90	0.018916991	0.020497272	0.018916991	0.020497272
β2	-0.000140623	4.802E-06	-29.28428914	1.45673E-61	-0.000150117	-0.000131129	-0.000150117	-0.000131129
β3	3.40873E-07	1.5645E-08	21.78791181	8.03921E-47	3.09942E-07	3.71804E-07	3.09942E-07	3.71804E-07

South Texas, Applied to OLOGSS Region 2:

Regression Statistics	
Multiple R	0.994469633
R Square	0.98896985
Adjusted R Square	0.98873349
Standard Error	0.026569939
Observations	144

ANOVA

	df	SS	MS	F	Significance F
Regression	3	8.861572267	2.953857422	4184.161269	9.0291E-137
Residual	140	0.098834632	0.000705962		
Total	143	8.960406899			

	Coefficients	Standard Error	t Stat	P-value	Lower 95%	Upper 95%	Lower 95.0%	Upper 95.0%
β0	0.315903453	0.008929203	35.37868321	1.07799E-71	0.298249938	0.333556967	0.298249938	0.333556967
β1	0.019629392	0.000394059	49.81332121	5.91373E-91	0.018850316	0.020408468	0.018850316	0.020408468
β2	-0.000140391	4.73475E-06	-29.65123432	3.24065E-62	-0.000149752	-0.00013103	-0.000149752	-0.00013103
β3	3.40702E-07	1.5426E-08	22.08625878	1.83379E-47	3.10204E-07	3.712E-07	3.10204E-07	3.712E-07

Mid-Continent, Applied to OLOGSS Region 3:

Regression Statistics	
Multiple R	0.994481853
R Square	0.988994155
Adjusted R Square	0.988758316
Standard Error	0.026752366
Observations	144

ANOVA

	df	SS	MS	F	Significance F
Regression	3	9.003736634	3.001245545	4193.504662	7.7373E-137
Residual	140	0.100196473	0.000715689		
Total	143	9.103933107			

	Coefficients	Standard Error	t Stat	P-value	Lower 95%	Upper 95%	Lower 95.0%	Upper 95.0%
β0	0.312750341	0.00899051	34.78671677	9.00562E-71	0.294975619	0.330525063	0.294975619	0.330525063
β1	0.019699787	0.000396765	49.6510621	9.11345E-91	0.018915362	0.020484212	0.018915362	0.020484212
β2	-0.000140541	4.76726E-06	-29.480463	6.51147E-62	-0.000149966	-0.000131116	-0.000149966	-0.000131116
β3	3.40661E-07	1.55319E-08	21.93302302	3.91217E-47	3.09954E-07	3.71368E-07	3.09954E-07	3.71368E-07

West Texas, Applied to OLOGSS Regions 4:

Regression Statistics	
Multiple R	0.949969362
R Square	0.902441789
Adjusted R Square	0.900351256
Standard Error	0.090634678
Observations	144

ANOVA

	df	SS	MS	F	Significance F
Regression	3	10.63829925	3.546099748	431.6802228	1.59892E-70
Residual	140	1.150050289	0.008214645		
Total	143	11.78834953			

	Coefficients	Standard Error	t Stat	P-value	Lower 95%	Upper 95%	Lower 95.0%	Upper 95.0%
β0	0.281549378	0.030459064	9.243533578	3.55063E-16	0.221330174	0.341768582	0.221330174	0.341768582
β1	0.020360006	0.001344204	15.14651492	2.70699E-31	0.017702443	0.02301757	0.017702443	0.02301757
β2	-0.000140998	1.61511E-05	-8.729925387	6.86299E-15	-0.000172929	-0.000109066	-0.000172929	-0.000109066
β3	3.36972E-07	5.26206E-08	6.403797584	2.14112E-09	2.32938E-07	4.41006E-07	2.32938E-07	4.41006E-07

West Coast, Applied to OLOGSS Regions 6:

Regression Statistics	
Multiple R	0.994382746
R Square	0.988797046
Adjusted R Square	0.988556983
Standard Error	0.026729324
Observations	144

ANOVA

	df	SS	MS	F	Significance F
Regression	3	8.828330392	2.942776797	4118.9013	2.6803E-136
Residual	140	0.100023944	0.000714457		
Total	143	8.928354335			

	Coefficients	Standard Error	t Stat	P-value	Lower 95%	Upper 95%	Lower 95.0%	Upper 95.0%
β0	0.316566704	0.008982767	35.24155917	1.75819E-71	0.298807292	0.334326116	0.298807292	0.334326116
β1	0.019613748	0.000396423	49.47682536	1.45204E-90	0.018829998	0.020397497	0.018829998	0.020397497
β2	-0.000140368	4.76315E-06	-29.46957335	6.80842E-62	-0.000149785	-0.000130951	-0.000149785	-0.000130951
β3	3.40752E-07	1.55185E-08	21.95777375	3.46083E-47	3.10071E-07	3.71433E-07	3.10071E-07	3.71433E-07

Cost to Convert a Primary to Secondary Well

The cost to convert a primary to secondary well was calculated using an average from 2004 – 2007 data from the most recent Cost and Indices data base provided by the U.S. Energy Information Administration (EIA). Conversion costs for a primary to a secondary well consist of pumping equipment, rods and pumps, and supply wells. The data was analyzed on a regional level. The secondary operations costs for each region are determined by multiplying the costs in West Texas by the ratio of primary operating costs. This method was used in the National Petroleum Council's (NPC) EOR study of 1984. The independent variable is depth. The form of the equation is given below:

$$Cost = \beta0 + \beta1 * Depth + \beta2 * Depth^2 + \beta3 * Depth^3 \quad (2.B\text{-}7)$$

where Cost = PSW_W

β0 = PSWK

β1 = PSWA

β2 = PSWB

β3 = PSWC

from equation 2-35 in Chapter 2.

The cost is on a per well basis. Parameter estimates and regression diagnostics are given below. The method of estimation used was ordinary least squares. β_2 and β_3 are statistically insignificant and are therefore zero.

Rocky Mountains, Applied to OLOGSS Regions 1, 5, and 7:

Regression Statistics	
Multiple R	0.999208
R Square	0.998416
Adjusted R Square	0.996832
Standard Error	9968.98
Observations	3

ANOVA

	df	*SS*	*MS*	*F*	*Significance F*
Regression	1	62,643,414,406.49	62,643,414,406.49	630.34	0.03
Residual	1	99,380,639.94	99,380,639.94		
Total	2	62,742,795,046.43			

	Coefficients	*Standard Error*	*t Stat*	*P-value*	*Lower 95%*	*Upper 95%*	*Lower 95.0%*	*Upper 95.0%*
β_0	-115.557	12,209.462	-0.009	0.994	-155,250.815	155,019.701	-155,250.815	155,019.701
β_1	57.930	2.307	25.107	0.025	28.612	87.248	28.612	87.248

South Texas, Applied to OLOGSS Region 2:

Regression Statistics	
Multiple R	0.996760
R Square	0.993531
Adjusted R Square	0.991914
Standard Error	16909.05
Observations	6

ANOVA

	df	*SS*	*MS*	*F*	*Significance F*
Regression	1	175,651,490,230.16	175,651,490,230.16	614.35	0.00
Residual	4	1,143,664,392.16	285,916,098.04		
Total	5	176,795,154,622.33			

	Coefficients	*Standard Error*	*t Stat*	*P-value*	*Lower 95%*	*Upper 95%*	*Lower 95.0%*	*Upper 95.0%*
β_0	-10,733.7	14,643.670	-0.733	0.504	-51,391.169	29,923.692	-51,391.169	29,923.692
β_1	68.593	2.767	24.786	0.000	60.909	76.276	60.909	76.276

Mid-Continent, Applied to OLOGSS Region 3:

Regression Statistics	
Multiple R	0.999830
R Square	0.999660
Adjusted R Square	0.999320
Standard Error	4047.64
Observations	3

ANOVA

	df	*SS*	*MS*	*F*	*Significance F*
Regression	1	48,164,743,341	48,164,743,341	2,939.86	0.01
Residual	1	16,383,350	16,383,350		
Total	2	48,181,126,691			

	Coefficients	*Standard Error*	*t Stat*	*P-value*	*Lower 95%*	*Upper 95%*	*Lower 95.0%*	*Upper 95.0%*
β_0	-32,919.3	4,957.320	-6.641	0.095	-95,907.768	30,069.148	-95,907.768	30,069.148
β_1	50.796	0.937	54.220	0.012	38.893	62.700	38.893	62.700

West Texas, Applied to OLOGSS Region 4:

Regression Statistics	
Multiple R	1.00000
R Square	0.99999
Adjusted R Square	0.99999
Standard Error	552.23
Observations	3

ANOVA

	df	SS	MS	F	Significance F
Regression	1	44,056,261,873.48	44,056,261,873.48	144,469.3	0.00
Residual	1	304,952.52	304,952.52		
Total	2	44,056,566,825.99			

	Coefficients	Standard Error	t Stat	P-value	Lower 95%	Upper 95%	Lower 95.0%	Upper 95.0%
β0	-25,175.8	676.335	-37.224	0.017	-33,769.389	-16,582.166	-33,769.389	-16,582.166
β1	48.581	0.128	380.091	0.002	46.957	50.205	46.957	50.205

West Coast, Applied to OLOGSS Region 6:

Regression Statistics	
Multiple R	0.999970
R Square	0.999941
Adjusted R Square	0.999882
Standard Error	2317.03
Observations	3

ANOVA

	df	SS	MS	F	Significance F
Regression	1	90,641,249,203.56	90,641,249,203.56	16,883.5	0.00
Residual	1	5,368,613.99	5,368,613.99		
Total	2	90,646,617,817.55			

	Coefficients	Standard Error	t Stat	P-value	Lower 95%	Upper 95%	Lower 95.0%	Upper 95.0%
β0	-47,775.5	2,837.767	-16.836	0.038	-83,832.597	-11,718.412	-83,832.597	-11,718.412
β1	69.683	0.536	129.937	0.005	62.869	76.498	62.869	76.498

Cost to Convert a Primary to Secondary Well - Cost Adjustment Factor

The cost adjustment factor for the cost to convert a primary to secondary well was calculated using data through 2008 from the Cost and Indices data base provided EIA. The initial cost was normalized at various prices from \$10 to \$200 per barrel. This led to the development of a series of intermediate equations and the calculation of costs at specific prices and fixed depths. The differentials between estimated costs across the price range and fixed costs at \$50 per barrel were then calculated. The cost factor equation was then estimated using the differentials. The method of estimation used was ordinary least squares. The form of the equation is given below:

$$\text{Cost} = \beta 0 + \beta 1 * \text{Oil Price} + \beta 2 * \text{Oil Price}^2 + \beta 3 * \text{Oil Price}^3$$

Rocky Mountains, Applied to OLOGSS Regions 1, 5, and 7:

Regression Statistics	
Multiple R	0.994210954
R Square	0.988455421
Adjusted R Square	0.988208037
Standard Error	0.032636269
Observations	144

ANOVA

	df	SS	MS	F	Significance F
Regression	3	12.7675639	4.255854635	3995.634681	2.1943E-135
Residual	140	0.149117649	0.001065126		
Total	143	12.91668155			

	Coefficients	Standard Error	t Stat	P-value	Lower 95%	Upper 95%	Lower 95.0%	Upper 95.0%
β0	0.386844292	0.010967879	35.27065592	1.58464E-71	0.365160206	0.408528378	0.365160206	0.408528378
β1	0.023681158	0.000484029	48.92509151	6.40898E-90	0.022724207	0.024638109	0.022724207	0.024638109
β2	-0.000169861	5.81577E-06	-29.207048	2.00231E-61	-0.00018136	-0.000158363	-0.00018136	-0.000158363
β3	4.12786E-07	1.89479E-08	21.78527316	8.14539E-47	3.75325E-07	4.50247E-07	3.75325E-07	4.50247E-07

South Texas, Applied to OLOGSS Region 2:

Regression Statistics	
Multiple R	0.965088368
R Square	0.931395559
Adjusted R Square	0.929925464
Standard Error	0.077579302
Observations	144

ANOVA

	df	SS	MS	F	Significance F
Regression	3	11.43935934	3.813119781	633.5614039	3.21194E-81
Residual	140	0.842596733	0.006018548		
Total	143	12.28195608			

	Coefficients	Standard Error	t Stat	P-value	Lower 95%	Upper 95%	Lower 95.0%	Upper 95.0%
β0	0.403458143	0.02607162	15.4749932	4.09637E-32	0.351913151	0.455003136	0.351913151	0.455003136
β1	0.023030837	0.00115058	20.01672737	6.5441E-43	0.02075608	0.025305595	0.02075608	0.025305595
β2	-0.000167719	1.38246E-05	-12.13194348	1.34316E-23	-0.000195051	-0.000140387	-0.000195051	-0.000140387
β3	4.10451E-07	4.5041E-08	9.112847285	7.57277E-16	3.21403E-07	4.995E-07	3.21403E-07	4.995E-07

Mid-Continent, Applied to OLOGSS Region 3:

Regression Statistics	
Multiple R	0.930983781
R Square	0.866730801
Adjusted R Square	0.863875032
Standard Error	0.115716747
Observations	144

ANOVA

	df	SS	MS	F	Significance F
Regression	3	12.19199867	4.063999556	303.5017657	4.7623E-61
Residual	140	1.874651162	0.013390365		
Total	143	14.06664983			

	Coefficients	Standard Error	t Stat	P-value	Lower 95%	Upper 95%	Lower 95.0%	Upper 95.0%
β0	0.39376891	0.038888247	10.12565341	2.02535E-18	0.316884758	0.470653063	0.316884758	0.470653063
β1	0.023409924	0.001716196	13.6405849	1.759E-27	0.020016911	0.026802936	0.020016911	0.026802936
β2	-0.000169013	2.06207E-05	-8.196307608	1.41642E-13	-0.000209782	-0.000128245	-0.000209782	-0.000128245
β3	4.11972E-07	6.71828E-08	6.132113904	8.35519E-09	2.79148E-07	5.44796E-07	2.79148E-07	5.44796E-07

West Texas, Applied to OLOGSS Regions 4:

Regression Statistics	
Multiple R	0.930623851
R Square	0.866060752
Adjusted R Square	0.863190626
Standard Error	0.117705607
Observations	144

ANOVA

	df	SS	MS	F	Significance F
Regression	3	12.5418858	4.180628599	301.7500036	6.76263E-61
Residual	140	1.939645392	0.01385461		
Total	143	14.48153119			

	Coefficients	Standard Error	t Stat	P-value	Lower 95%	Upper 95%	Lower 95.0%	Upper 95.0%
β0	0.363067907	0.039556632	9.178433366	5.17966E-16	0.284862323	0.441273492	0.284862323	0.441273492
β1	0.024133277	0.001745693	13.82446554	5.96478E-28	0.020681947	0.027584606	0.020681947	0.027584606
β2	-0.000175479	2.09751E-05	-8.366057262	5.44112E-14	-0.000216948	-0.00013401	-0.000216948	-0.00013401
β3	4.28328E-07	6.83375E-08	6.267838182	4.24825E-09	2.93221E-07	5.63435E-07	2.93221E-07	5.63435E-07

West Coast, Applied to OLOGSS Regions 6:

Regression Statistics	
Multiple R	0.930187107
R Square	0.865248054
Adjusted R Square	0.862360512
Standard Error	0.116469162
Observations	144

ANOVA

	df	SS	MS	F	Significance F
Regression	3	12.19426209	4.06475403	299.6486777	1.03233E-60
Residual	140	1.899109212	0.013565066		
Total	143	14.0933713			

	Coefficients	Standard Error	t Stat	P-value	Lower 95%	Upper 95%	Lower 95.0%	Upper 95.0%
β0	0.393797507	0.039141107	10.06097011	2.96602E-18	0.316413437	0.471181577	0.316413437	0.471181577
β1	0.023409194	0.001727356	13.55204156	2.96327E-27	0.01999412	0.026824269	0.01999412	0.026824269
β2	-0.000168995	2.07548E-05	-8.142483197	1.91588E-13	-0.000210029	-0.000127962	-0.000210029	-0.000127962
β3	4.11911E-07	6.76196E-08	6.091589926	1.02095E-08	2.78223E-07	5.45599E-07	2.78223E-07	5.45599E-07

Cost to Convert a Producer to an Injector

The cost to convert a production well to an injection well was calculated using an average from 2004 – 2007 data from the most recent Cost and Indices data base provided by the U.S. Energy Information Administration (EIA). Conversion costs for a production to an injection well consist of tubing replacement, distribution lines and header costs. The data was analyzed on a regional level. The secondary operation costs for each region are determined by multiplying the costs in West Texas by the ratio of primary operating costs. This method was used in the National Petroleum Council's (NPC) EOR study of 1984. The independent variable is depth. The form of the equation is given below:

$$\text{Cost} = \beta0 + \beta1 * \text{Depth} + \beta2 * \text{Depth}^2 + \beta3 * \text{Depth}^3 \qquad (2.B\text{-}8)$$

where Cost = PSI_W

β0 = PSIK

β1 = PSIA

β2 = PSIB

β3 = PSIC

from equation 2-36 in Chapter 2.

The cost is on a per well basis. Parameter estimates and regression diagnostics are given below. The method of estimation used was ordinary least squares. β2 and β3 are statistically insignificant and are therefore zero.

West Texas, applied to OLOGSS region 4:

Regression Statistics	
Multiple R	0.994714
R Square	0.989456
Adjusted R Square	0.978913
Standard Error	3204.94
Observations	3

ANOVA

	df	SS	MS	F	Significance F
Regression	1	963,939,802.16	963,939,802.16	93.84	0.07
Residual	1	10,271,635.04	10,271,635.04		
Total	2	974,211,437.20			

	Coefficients	Standard Error	t Stat	P-value	Lower 95%	Upper 95%	Lower 95.0%	Upper 95.0%
β0	11,129.3	3,925.233	2.835	0.216	-38,745.259	61,003.937	-38,745.259	61,003.937
β1	7.186	0.742	9.687	0.065	-2.239	16.611	-2.239	16.611

South Texas, applied to OLOGSS region 2:

Regression Statistics	
Multiple R	0.988716
R Square	0.977560
Adjusted R Square	0.971950
Standard Error	4435.41
Observations	6

ANOVA

	df	SS	MS	F	Significance F
Regression	1	3,428,080,322.21	3,428,080,322.21	174.25	0.00
Residual	4	78,691,571.93	19,672,892.98		
Total	5	3,506,771,894.14			

	Coefficients	Standard Error	t Stat	P-value	Lower 95%	Upper 95%	Lower 95.0%	Upper 95.0%
β0	24,640.6	3,841.181	6.415	0.003	13,975.763	35,305.462	13,975.763	35,305.462
β1	9.582	0.726	13.201	0.000	7.567	11.598	7.567	11.598

Mid-Continent, applied to OLOGSS region 3:

Regression Statistics	
Multiple R	0.993556
R Square	0.987154
Adjusted R Square	0.974307
Standard Error	3770.13
Observations	3

ANOVA

	df	SS	MS	F	Significance F
Regression	1	1,092,230,257.01	1,092,230,257.01	76.84	0.07
Residual	1	14,213,917.83	14,213,917.83		
Total	2	1,106,444,174.85			

	Coefficients	Standard Error	t Stat	P-value	Lower 95%	Upper 95%	Lower 95.0%	Upper 95.0%
β0	9,356.411	4,617.453	2.026	0.292	-49,313.648	68,026.469	-49,313.648	68,026.469
β1	7.649	0.873	8.766	0.072	-3.438	18.737	-3.438	18.737

Rocky Mountains, applied to OLOGSS regions 1, 5, and 7:

Regression Statistics	
Multiple R	0.995436
R Square	0.990893
Adjusted R Square	0.981785
Standard Error	3266.39
Observations	3

ANOVA

	df	SS	MS	F	Significance F
Regression	1	1,160,837,008.65	1,160,837,008.65	108.80	0.06
Residual	1	10,669,310.85	10,669,310.85		
Total	2	1,171,506,319.50			

	Coefficients	Standard Error	t Stat	P-value	Lower 95%	Upper 95%	Lower 95.0%	Upper 95.0%
β0	24,054.311	4,000.496	6.013	0.105	-26,776.589	74,885.211	-26,776.589	74,885.211
β1	7.886	0.756	10.431	0.061	-1.720	17.492	-1.720	17.492

West Coast, applied to OLOGSS region 6:

Regression Statistics	
Multiple R	0.998023
R Square	0.996050
Adjusted R Square	0.992100
Standard Error	2903.09
Observations	3

ANOVA

	df	SS	MS	F	Significance F
Regression	1	2,125,305,559.02	2,125,305,559.02	252.17	0.04
Residual	1	8,427,914.12	8,427,914.12		
Total	2	2,133,733,473.15			

	Coefficients	Standard Error	t Stat	P-value	Lower 95%	Upper 95%	Lower 95.0%	Upper 95.0%
β0	11,125.846	3,555.541	3.129	0.197	-34,051.391	56,303.083	-34,051.391	56,303.083
β1	10.670	0.672	15.880	0.040	2.133	19.208	2.133	19.208

Cost to Convert a Producer to an Injector - Cost Adjustment Factor

The cost adjustment factor for the cost to convert a producer to an injector was calculated using data through 2008 from the Cost and Indices data base provided by EIA. The initial cost was normalized at various prices from \$10 to \$200 per barrel. This led to the development of a series of intermediate equations and the calculation of costs at specific prices and fixed depths. The differentials between estimated costs across the price range and fixed costs at \$50 per barrel were then calculated. The cost factor equation was then estimated using the differentials. The method of estimation used was ordinary least squares. The form of the equation is given below:

$$\text{Cost} = \beta0 + \beta1 * \text{Oil Price} + \beta2 * \text{Oil Price}^2 + \beta3 * \text{Oil Price}^3$$

Rocky Mountains, Applied to OLOGSS Regions 1, 5, and 7:

Regression Statistics	
Multiple R	0.99432304
R Square	0.988678308
Adjusted R Square	0.9884357
Standard Error	0.026700062
Observations	144

ANOVA

	df	SS	MS	F	Significance F
Regression	3	8.715578807	2.905192936	4075.214275	5.6063E-136
Residual	140	0.099805061	0.000712893		
Total	143	8.815383869			

	Coefficients	Standard Error	t Stat	P-value	Lower 95%	Upper 95%	Lower 95.0%	Upper 95.0%
β0	0.318906241	0.008972933	35.54091476	6.05506E-72	0.301166271	0.336646211	0.301166271	0.336646211
β1	0.019564167	0.000395989	49.40584281	1.75621E-90	0.018781276	0.020347059	0.018781276	0.020347059
β2	-0.000140323	4.75794E-06	-29.49235038	6.20216E-62	-0.00014973	-0.000130916	-0.00014973	-0.000130916
β3	3.40991E-07	1.55015E-08	21.9972576	2.84657E-47	3.10343E-07	3.71638E-07	3.10343E-07	3.71638E-07

South Texas, Applied to OLOGSS Region 2:

Regression Statistics	
Multiple R	0.994644466
R Square	0.989317613
Adjusted R Square	0.989088705
Standard Error	0.025871111
Observations	144

ANOVA

	df	SS	MS	F	Significance F
Regression	3	8.678119686	2.892706562	4321.895164	9.5896E-138
Residual	140	0.093704013	0.000669314		
Total	143	8.771823699			

	Coefficients	Standard Error	t Stat	P-value	Lower 95%	Upper 95%	Lower 95.0%	Upper 95.0%
β0	0.316208692	0.008694352	36.36943685	3.2883E-73	0.299019491	0.333397893	0.299019491	0.333397893
β1	0.01974618	0.000383695	51.46325116	7.80746E-93	0.018987594	0.020504765	0.018987594	0.020504765
β2	-0.000142963	4.61022E-06	-31.00997536	1.39298E-64	-0.000152077	-0.000133848	-0.000152077	-0.000133848
β3	3.4991E-07	1.50202E-08	23.29589312	5.12956E-50	3.20214E-07	3.79606E-07	3.20214E-07	3.79606E-07

Mid-Continent, Applied to OLOGSS Region 3:

Regression Statistics	
Multiple R	0.994321224
R Square	0.988674696
Adjusted R Square	0.988432011
Standard Error	0.026701262
Observations	144

ANOVA

	df	SS	MS	F	Significance F
Regression	3	8.713550392	2.904516797	4073.899599	5.7329E-136
Residual	140	0.099814034	0.000712957		
Total	143	8.813364425			

	Coefficients	Standard Error	t Stat	P-value	Lower 95%	Upper 95%	Lower 95.0%	Upper 95.0%
β0	0.318954549	0.008973336	35.54470092	5.97425E-72	0.301213782	0.336695317	0.301213782	0.336695317
β1	0.019563077	0.000396007	49.40087012	1.77978E-90	0.018780151	0.020346004	0.018780151	0.020346004
β2	-0.000140319	4.75815E-06	-29.49027089	6.25518E-62	-0.000149726	-0.000130912	-0.000149726	-0.000130912
β3	3.40985E-07	1.55022E-08	21.99592439	2.8654E-47	3.10337E-07	3.71634E-07	3.10337E-07	3.71634E-07

West Texas, Applied to OLOGSS Regions 4:

Regression Statistics	
Multiple R	0.994322163
R Square	0.988676564
Adjusted R Square	0.988433919
Standard Error	0.026700311
Observations	144

ANOVA

	df	SS	MS	F	Significance F
Regression	3	8.714383869	2.904794623	4074.579587	5.667E-136
Residual	140	0.099806922	0.000712907		
Total	143	8.814190792			

	Coefficients	Standard Error	t Stat	P-value	Lower 95%	Upper 95%	Lower 95.0%	Upper 95.0%
β0	0.318944377	0.008973016	35.54483358	5.97144E-72	0.301204242	0.336684512	0.301204242	0.336684512
β1	0.019563226	0.000395993	49.40300666	1.76961E-90	0.018780328	0.020346125	0.018780328	0.020346125
β2	-0.000140317	4.75798E-06	-29.49085218	6.24031E-62	-0.000149724	-0.00013091	-0.000149724	-0.00013091
β3	3.40976E-07	1.55017E-08	21.99610109	2.8629E-47	3.10328E-07	3.71624E-07	3.10328E-07	3.71624E-07

West Coast, Applied to OLOGSS Region 6:

Regression Statistics	
Multiple R	0.994041278
R Square	0.988118061
Adjusted R Square	0.987863448
Standard Error	0.027307293
Observations	144

ANOVA

	df	SS	MS	F	Significance F
Regression	3	8.681741816	2.893913939	3880.863048	1.6477E-134
Residual	140	0.104396354	0.000745688		
Total	143	8.78613817			

	Coefficients	Standard Error	t Stat	P-value	Lower 95%	Upper 95%	Lower 95.0%	Upper 95.0%
β0	0.31978359	0.009177001	34.84619603	7.26644E-71	0.301640166	0.337927015	0.301640166	0.337927015
β1	0.019531533	0.000404995	48.22662865	4.2897E-89	0.018730837	0.02033223	0.018730837	0.02033223
β2	-0.000140299	4.86615E-06	-28.83170535	9.47626E-61	-0.00014992	-0.000130679	-0.00014992	-0.000130679
β3	3.41616E-07	1.58541E-08	21.54755837	2.66581E-46	3.10272E-07	3.7296E-07	3.10272E-07	3.7296E-07

Facilities Upgrade Costs for Crude Oil Wells

The facilities upgrading cost for secondary oil wells was calculated using an average from 2004 – 2007 data from the most recent Cost and Indices data base provided by the U.S. Energy Information Administration (EIA). Facilities costs for a secondary oil well consist of plant costs and electrical costs. The data was analyzed on a regional level. The secondary operation costs for each region are determined by multiplying the costs in West Texas by the ratio of primary operating costs. This method was used in the National Petroleum Council's (NPC) EOR study of 1984. The independent variable is depth. The form of the equation is given below:

$$Cost = \beta0 + \beta1 * Depth + \beta2 * Depth^2 + \beta3 * Depth^3 \quad (2.B\text{-}9)$$

where Cost = FAC_W

β0 = FACUPK

β1 = FACUPA

β2 = FACUPB

β3 = FACUPC

from equation 2-23 in Chapter 2.

The cost is on a per well basis. Parameter estimates and regression diagnostics are given below. The method of estimation used was ordinary least squares. β2 and β3 are statistically insignificant and are therefore zero.

West Texas, applied to OLOGSS region 4:

Regression Statistics	
Multiple R	0.947660
R Square	0.898060
Adjusted R Square	0.796120
Standard Error	6332.38
Observations	3

ANOVA

	df	SS	MS	F	Significance F
Regression	1	353,260,332.81	353,260,332.81	8.81	0.21
Residual	1	40,099,063.51	40,099,063.51		
Total	2	393,359,396.32			

	Coefficients	Standard Error	t Stat	P-value	Lower 95%	Upper 95%	Lower 95.0%	Upper 95.0%
β0	20,711.761	7,755.553	2.671	0.228	-77,831.455	119,254.977	-77,831.455	119,254.977
β1	4.350	1.466	2.968	0.207	-14.273	22.973	-14.273	22.973

South Texas, applied to OLOGSS region 2:

Regression Statistics	
Multiple R	0.942744
R Square	0.888767
Adjusted R Square	0.851689
Standard Error	6699.62
Observations	5

ANOVA

	df	SS	MS	F	Significance F
Regression	1	1,075,905,796.72	1,075,905,796.72	23.97	0.02
Residual	3	134,654,629.89	44,884,876.63		
Total	4	1,210,560,426.61			

	Coefficients	Standard Error	t Stat	P-value	Lower 95%	Upper 95%	Lower 95.0%	Upper 95.0%
β0	33,665.6	7,149.747	4.709	0.018	10,911.921	56,419.338	10,911.921	56,419.338
β1	6.112	1.248	4.896	0.016	2.139	10.085	2.139	10.085

Mid-Continent, applied to OLOGSS region 3:

Regression Statistics	
Multiple R	0.950784
R Square	0.903990
Adjusted R Square	0.807980
Standard Error	6705.31
Observations	3

ANOVA

	df	SS	MS	F	Significance F
Regression	1	423,335,427.35	423,335,427.35	9.42	0.20
Residual	1	44,961,183.70	44,961,183.70		
Total	2	468,296,611.04			

	Coefficients	Standard Error	t Stat	P-value	Lower 95%	Upper 95%	Lower 95.0%	Upper 95.0%
β0	19,032.550	8,212.294	2.318	0.259	-85,314.094	123,379.194	-85,314.094	123,379.194
β1	4.762	1.552	3.068	0.201	-14.957	24.482	-14.957	24.482

Rocky Mountains, applied to OLOGSS regions 1, 5, and 7:

Regression Statistics	
Multiple R	0.90132
R Square	0.81238
Adjusted R Square	0.62476
Standard Error	8,531
Observations	3

ANOVA

	df	*SS*	*MS*	*F*	*Significance F*
Regression	1	315,132,483.91	315,132,483.91	4.33	0.29
Residual	1	72,780,134.04	72,780,134.04		
Total	2	387,912,617.95			

	Coefficients	*Standard Error*	*t Stat*	*P-value*	*Lower 95%*	*Upper 95%*	*Lower 95.0%*	*Upper 95.0%*
β0	37,322	10,448.454	3.572	0.174	-95,437.589	170,081.677	-95,437.589	170,081.677
β1	4.109	1.975	2.081	0.285	-20.980	29.198	-20.980	29.198

West Coast, applied to OLOGSS region 6:

Regression Statistics	
Multiple R	0.974616
R Square	0.949876
Adjusted R Square	0.899753
Standard Error	6,765.5
Observations	3

ANOVA

	df	*SS*	*MS*	*F*	*Significance F*
Regression	1	867,401,274.79	867,401,274.79	18.95	0.14
Residual	1	45,771,551.83	45,771,551.83		
Total	2	913,172,826.62			

	Coefficients	*Standard Error*	*t Stat*	*P-value*	*Lower 95%*	*Upper 95%*	*Lower 95.0%*	*Upper 95.0%*
β0	23,746.6	8,285.972	2.866	0.214	-81,536.251	129,029.354	-81,536.251	129,029.354
β1	6.817	1.566	4.353	0.144	-13.080	26.713	-13.080	26.713

Facilities Upgrade Costs for Oil Wells - Cost Adjustment Factor

The cost adjustment factor for facilities upgrade costs for oil wells was calculated using data through 2008 from the Cost and Indices data base provided by EIA. The initial cost was normalized at various prices from \$10 to \$200 per barrel. This led to the development of a series of intermediate equations and the calculation of costs at specific prices and fixed depths. The differentials between estimated costs across the price range and fixed costs at \$50 per barrel were then calculated. The cost factor equation was then estimated using the differentials. The method of estimation used was ordinary least squares. The form of the equation is given below:

$$\text{Cost} = \beta 0 + \beta 1 * \text{Oil Price} + \beta 2 * \text{Oil Price}^2 + \beta 3 * \text{Oil Price}^3$$

Rocky Mountains, Applied to OLOGSS Regions 1, 5, and 7:

Regression Statistics	
Multiple R	0.994217662
R Square	0.988468759
Adjusted R Square	0.988221661
Standard Error	0.026793237
Observations	144

ANOVA

	df	*SS*	*MS*	*F*	*Significance F*
Regression	3	8.615198936	2.871732979	4000.310244	2.0238E-135
Residual	140	0.100502859	0.000717878		
Total	143	8.715701795			

	Coefficients	*Standard Error*	*t Stat*	*P-value*	*Lower 95%*	*Upper 95%*	*Lower 95.0%*	*Upper 95.0%*
β0	0.321111529	0.009004246	35.66223488	3.93903E-72	0.303309651	0.338913406	0.303309651	0.338913406
β1	0.019515262	0.000397371	49.11095778	3.88014E-90	0.018729638	0.020300885	0.018729638	0.020300885
β2	-0.00014023	4.77454E-06	-29.37035185	1.02272E-61	-0.00014967	-0.00013079	-0.00014967	-0.00013079
β3	3.4105E-07	1.55556E-08	21.92459665	4.07897E-47	3.10296E-07	3.71805E-07	3.10296E-07	3.71805E-07

South Texas, Applied to OLOGSS Region 2:

Regression Statistics	
Multiple R	0.994217643
R Square	0.988468723
Adjusted R Square	0.988221624
Standard Error	0.026793755
Observations	144

ANOVA

	df	*SS*	*MS*	*F*	*Significance F*
Regression	3	8.615504692	2.871834897	4000.297521	2.0242E-135
Residual	140	0.100506746	0.000717905		
Total	143	8.716011438			

	Coefficients	*Standard Error*	*t Stat*	*P-value*	*Lower 95%*	*Upper 95%*	*Lower 95.0%*	*Upper 95.0%*
β0	0.321091731	0.00900442	35.65934676	3.9795E-72	0.30328951	0.338893953	0.30328951	0.338893953
β1	0.019515756	0.000397379	49.11125155	3.87707E-90	0.018730117	0.020301395	0.018730117	0.020301395
β2	-0.000140234	4.77464E-06	-29.37065243	1.02145E-61	-0.000149674	-0.000130794	-0.000149674	-0.000130794
β3	3.41061E-07	1.55559E-08	21.92486379	4.07357E-47	3.10306E-07	3.71816E-07	3.10306E-07	3.71816E-07

Mid-Continent, Applied to OLOGSS Region 3:

Regression Statistics	
Multiple R	0.994881087
R Square	0.989788377
Adjusted R Square	0.989569556
Standard Error	0.025598703
Observations	144

ANOVA

	df	*SS*	*MS*	*F*	*Significance F*
Regression	3	8.892246941	2.964082314	4523.289171	4.0903E-139
Residual	140	0.0917411	0.000655294		
Total	143	8.983988041			

	Coefficients	*Standard Error*	*t Stat*	*P-value*	*Lower 95%*	*Upper 95%*	*Lower 95.0%*	*Upper 95.0%*
β0	0.305413562	0.008602806	35.50162345	6.96151E-72	0.288405354	0.32242177	0.288405354	0.32242177
β1	0.019922983	0.000379655	52.47659224	5.82045E-94	0.019172385	0.020673581	0.019172385	0.020673581
β2	-0.000143398	4.56168E-06	-31.43544891	2.62249E-65	-0.000152417	-0.00013438	-0.000152417	-0.00013438
β3	3.48664E-07	1.48621E-08	23.45993713	2.3433E-50	3.1928E-07	3.78047E-07	3.1928E-07	3.78047E-07

West Texas, Applied to OLOGSS Region 4:

Regression Statistics	
Multiple R	0.994218671
R Square	0.988470767
Adjusted R Square	0.988223712
Standard Error	0.026793398
Observations	144

ANOVA

	df	SS	MS	F	Significance F
Regression	3	8.616820316	2.872273439	4001.015021	1.9993E-135
Residual	140	0.100504067	0.000717886		
Total	143	8.717324383			

	Coefficients	Standard Error	t Stat	P-value	Lower 95%	Upper 95%	Lower 95.0%	Upper 95.0%
β0	0.32105584	0.0090043	35.65583598	4.02926E-72	0.303253856	0.338857825	0.303253856	0.338857825
β1	0.019516684	0.000397373	49.11424236	3.84594E-90	0.018731056	0.020302312	0.018731056	0.020302312
β2	-0.00014024	4.77457E-06	-29.37236101	1.01431E-61	-0.00014968	-0.000130801	-0.00014968	-0.000130801
β3	3.4108E-07	1.55557E-08	21.92639924	4.0427E-47	3.10326E-07	3.71835E-07	3.10326E-07	3.71835E-07

West Coast, Applied to OLOGSS Region 6:

Regression Statistics	
Multiple R	0.994682968
R Square	0.989394207
Adjusted R Square	0.98916694
Standard Error	0.025883453
Observations	144

ANOVA

	df	SS	MS	F	Significance F
Regression	3	8.749810675	2.916603558	4353.444193	5.7951E-138
Residual	140	0.093793438	0.000669953		
Total	143	8.843604113			

	Coefficients	Standard Error	t Stat	P-value	Lower 95%	Upper 95%	Lower 95.0%	Upper 95.0%
β0	0.320979436	0.0086985	36.90055074	5.22609E-74	0.303782034	0.338176837	0.303782034	0.338176837
β1	0.019117244	0.000383878	49.80033838	6.12166E-91	0.018358297	0.019876191	0.018358297	0.019876191
β2	-0.000134273	4.61242E-06	-29.11109331	2.97526E-61	-0.000143392	-0.000125154	-0.000143392	-0.000125154
β3	3.21003E-07	1.50274E-08	21.36117616	6.78747E-46	2.91293E-07	3.50713E-07	2.91293E-07	3.50713E-07

Natural Gas Well Facilities Costs

Natural gas well facilities costs were calculated using an average from 2004 – 2007 data from the most recent Cost and Indices data base provided by the U.S. Energy Information Administration (EIA). Well facilities costs consist of flowlines and connections, production package costs, and storage tank costs. The data was analyzed on a regional level. The independent variables are depth and Q, which is the flow rate of natural gas in million cubic feet. The form of the equation is given below:

$$Cost = \beta0 + \beta1 * Depth + \beta2 * Q + \beta3 * Depth * Q \qquad (2.B\text{-}10)$$

where
Cost = FWC_W
β0 = FACGK
β1 = FACGA
β2 = FACGB
β3 = FACGC
Q = PEAKDAILY_RATE
from equation 2-28 in Chapter 2.

Parameter estimates and regression diagnostics are given below. The method of estimation used was ordinary least squares.

West Texas, applied to OLOGSS region 4:

Regression Statistics	
Multiple R	0.9834
R Square	0.9672
Adjusted R Square	0.9562
Standard Error	5,820.26
Observations	13

ANOVA

	df	*SS*	*MS*	*F*	*Significance F*
Regression	3	8,982,542,532.41	2,994,180,844.14	88.39	0.00
Residual	9	304,879,039.45	33,875,448.83		
Total	12	9,287,421,571.86			

	Coefficients	*Standard Error*	*t Stat*	*P-value*	*Lower 95%*	*Upper 95%*	*Lower 95.0%*	*Upper 95.0%*
β0	3,477.41	4,694.03	0.74	0.48	-7,141.24	14,096.05	-7,141.24	14,096.05
β1	5.04	0.40	12.51	0.00	4.13	5.95	4.13	5.95
β2	63.87	19.07	3.35	0.01	20.72	107.02	20.72	107.02
β3	0.00	0.00	-3.18	0.01	-0.01	0.00	-0.01	0.00

South Texas, applied to OLOGSS region 2:

Regression Statistics	
Multiple R	0.9621
R Square	0.9256
Adjusted R Square	0.9139
Standard Error	8,279.60
Observations	23

ANOVA

	df	*SS*	*MS*	*F*	*Significance F*
Regression	3	16,213,052,116.02	5,404,350,705.34	78.84	0.00
Residual	19	1,302,484,315.70	68,551,806.09		
Total	22	17,515,536,431.72			

	Coefficients	*Standard Error*	*t Stat*	*P-value*	*Lower 95%*	*Upper 95%*	*Lower 95.0%*	*Upper 95.0%*
β0	14,960.60	4,066.98	3.68	0.00	6,448.31	23,472.90	6,448.31	23,472.90
β1	4.87	0.47	10.34	0.00	3.88	5.85	3.88	5.85
β2	28.49	6.42	4.43	0.00	15.04	41.93	15.04	41.93
β3	0.00	0.00	-3.62	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00

Mid-Continent, applied to OLOGSS regions 3 and 6:

Regression Statistics	
Multiple R	0.9917
R Square	0.9835
Adjusted R Square	0.9765
Standard Error	4,030.43
Observations	11

ANOVA

	df	*SS*	*MS*	*F*	*Significance F*
Regression	3	6,796,663,629.62	2,265,554,543.21	139.47	0.00
Residual	7	113,710,456.60	16,244,350.94		
Total	10	6,910,374,086.22			

	Coefficients	*Standard Error*	*t Stat*	*P-value*	*Lower 95%*	*Upper 95%*	*Lower 95.0%*	*Upper 95.0%*
β0	10,185.92	3,441.41	2.96	0.02	2,048.29	18,323.54	2,048.29	18,323.54
β1	4.51	0.29	15.71	0.00	3.83	5.18	3.83	5.18
β2	55.38	14.05	3.94	0.01	22.16	88.60	22.16	88.60
β3	0.00	0.00	-3.78	0.01	-0.01	0.00	-0.01	0.00

Rocky Mountains, applied to OLOGSS regions 1, 5, and 7:

Regression Statistics	
Multiple R	0.9594
R Square	0.9204
Adjusted R Square	0.8806
Standard Error	7,894.95
Observations	10

ANOVA

	df	SS	MS	F	Significance F
Regression	3	4,322,988,996.06	1,440,996,332.02	23.12	0.00
Residual	6	373,981,660.54	62,330,276.76		
Total	9	4,696,970,656.60			

	Coefficients	Standard Error	t Stat	P-value	Lower 95%	Upper 95%	Lower 95.0%	Upper 95.0%
β0	7,922.48	8,200.06	0.97	0.37	-12,142.36	27,987.31	-12,142.36	27,987.31
β1	6.51	1.14	5.71	0.00	3.72	9.30	3.72	9.30
β2	89.26	28.88	3.09	0.02	18.59	159.94	18.59	159.94
β3	-0.01	0.00	-2.77	0.03	-0.01	0.00	-0.01	0.00

Gas Well Facilities Costs - Cost Adjustment Factor

The cost adjustment factor for gas well facilities cost was calculated using data through 2008 from the Cost and Indices data base provided by EIA. The initial cost was normalized at various prices from \$1 to \$20 per barrel. This led to the development of a series of intermediate equations and the calculation of costs at specific prices and fixed depths. The differentials between estimated costs across the price range and fixed costs at \$5 per barrel were then calculated. The cost factor equation was then estimated using the differentials. The form of the equation is given below:

$$\text{Cost} = \beta 0 + \beta 1 * \text{Gas Price} + \beta 2 * \text{Gas Price}^2 + \beta 3 * \text{Gas Price}^3$$

Rocky Mountains, Applied to OLOGSS Regions 1, 5, and 7:

Regression Statistics	
Multiple R	0.995733794
R Square	0.991485789
Adjusted R Square	0.991303341
Standard Error	0.025214281
Observations	144

ANOVA

	df	SS	MS	F	Significance F
Regression	3	10.3648558	3.454951933	5434.365566	1.2179E-144
Residual	140	0.089006392	0.00063576		
Total	143	10.45386219			

	Coefficients	Standard Error	t Stat	P-value	Lower 95%	Upper 95%	Lower 95.0%	Upper 95.0%
β0	0.276309237	0.008473615	32.60818851	2.86747E-67	0.259556445	0.293062029	0.259556445	0.293062029
β1	0.20599743	0.003739533	55.08640551	8.89871E-97	0.198604173	0.213390688	0.198604173	0.213390688
β2	-0.014457925	0.000449317	-32.17753015	1.48375E-66	-0.015346249	-0.0135696	-0.015346249	-0.0135696
β3	0.000347281	1.46389E-05	23.72318475	6.71084E-51	0.000318339	0.000376223	0.000318339	0.000376223

South Texas, Applied to OLOGSS Region 2:

Regression Statistics	
Multiple R	0.99551629
R Square	0.991052684
Adjusted R Square	0.990860956
Standard Error	0.025683748
Observations	144

ANOVA

	df	SS	MS	F	Significance F
Regression	3	10.22936837	3.409789455	5169.05027	3.9254E-143
Residual	140	0.092351689	0.000659655		
Total	143	10.32172006			

	Coefficients	Standard Error	t Stat	P-value	Lower 95%	Upper 95%	Lower 95.0%	Upper 95.0%
β0	0.280854163	0.008631386	32.5387085	3.73403E-67	0.263789449	0.297918878	0.263789449	0.297918878
β1	0.204879431	0.00380916	53.78599024	2.17161E-95	0.197348518	0.212410345	0.197348518	0.212410345
β2	-0.014391989	0.000457683	-31.44530093	2.52353E-65	-0.015296854	-0.013487125	-0.015296854	-0.013487125
β3	0.000345909	1.49115E-05	23.19753012	8.21832E-50	0.000316428	0.00037539	0.000316428	0.00037539

Mid-Continent, Applied to OLOGSS Regions 3 and 6:

Regression Statistics	
Multiple R	0.995511275
R Square	0.991042698
Adjusted R Square	0.990850756
Standard Error	0.025690919
Observations	144

ANOVA

	df	SS	MS	F	Significance F
Regression	3	10.22356717	3.407855722	5163.235345	4.2442E-143
Residual	140	0.092403264	0.000660023		
Total	143	10.31597043			

	Coefficients	Standard Error	t Stat	P-value	Lower 95%	Upper 95%	Lower 95.0%	Upper 95.0%
β0	0.280965064	0.008633796	32.5424714	3.68097E-67	0.263895586	0.298034543	0.263895586	0.298034543
β1	0.204856879	0.003810223	53.7650588	2.28751E-95	0.197323863	0.212389895	0.197323863	0.212389895
β2	-0.014391983	0.000457811	-31.43650889	2.61165E-65	-0.0152971	-0.013486865	-0.0152971	-0.013486865
β3	0.000345929	1.49156E-05	23.19242282	8.42221E-50	0.00031644	0.000375418	0.00031644	0.000375418

West Texas, Applied to OLOGSS Region 4:

Regression Statistics	
Multiple R	0.995452965
R Square	0.990926606
Adjusted R Square	0.990732176
Standard Error	0.025768075
Observations	144

ANOVA

	df	SS	MS	F	Significance F
Regression	3	10.15228252	3.384094173	5096.576002	1.0453E-142
Residual	140	0.092959113	0.000663994		
Total	143	10.24524163			

	Coefficients	Standard Error	t Stat	P-value	Lower 95%	Upper 95%	Lower 95.0%	Upper 95.0%
β0	0.282511839	0.008659725	32.62364879	2.704E-67	0.265391097	0.299632581	0.265391097	0.299632581
β1	0.204502598	0.003821666	53.51137044	4.3021E-95	0.196946958	0.212058237	0.196946958	0.212058237
β2	-0.014382652	0.000459186	-31.32206064	4.08566E-65	-0.015290487	-0.013474816	-0.015290487	-0.013474816
β3	0.000345898	1.49604E-05	23.12086258	1.18766E-49	0.00031632	0.000375475	0.00031632	0.000375475

Fixed Annual Costs for Crude Oil Wells

The fixed annual cost for crude oil wells was calculated using an average from 2004 – 2007 data from the most recent Cost and Indices data base provided by the U.S. Energy Information Administration (EIA). Fixed annual costs consist of supervision and overhead costs, auto usage costs, operative supplies, labor costs, supplies and services costs, equipment usage and other costs.

The data was analyzed on a regional level. The independent variable is depth. The form of the equation is given below:

$$Cost = \beta0 + \beta1 * Depth + \beta2 * Depth^2 + \beta3 * Depth^3 \quad (2.B\text{-}11)$$

where Cost = OMO_W
$\beta0$ = OMOK
$\beta1$ = OMOA
$\beta2$ = OMOB
$\beta3$ = OMOC
from equation 2-30 in Chapter 2.

The cost is on a per well basis. Parameter estimates and regression diagnostics are given below. The method of estimation used was ordinary least squares. $\beta2$ and $\beta3$ are statistically insignificant and are therefore zero.

West Texas, applied to OLOGSS region 4:

Regression Statistics	
Multiple R	0.9895
R Square	0.9792
Adjusted R Square	0.9584
Standard Error	165.6
Observations	3

ANOVA

	df	*SS*	*MS*	*F*	*Significance F*
Regression	1	1,290,021.8	1,290,021.8	47.0	0.1
Residual	1	27,419.5	27,419.5		
Total	2	1,317,441.3			

	Coefficients	*Standard Error*	*t Stat*	*P-value*	*Lower 95%*	*Upper 95%*	*Lower 95.0%*	*Upper 95.0%*
β0	6,026.949	202.804	29.718	0.021	3,450.097	8,603.802	3,450.097	8,603.802
β1	0.263	0.038	6.859	0.092	-0.224	0.750	-0.224	0.750

South Texas, applied to OLOGSS region 2:

Regression Statistics	
Multiple R	0.8631
R Square	0.7449
Adjusted R Square	0.6811
Standard Error	2,759.2
Observations	6

ANOVA

	df	*SS*	*MS*	*F*	*Significance F*
Regression	1	88,902,026.9	88,902,026.9	11.7	0.0
Residual	4	30,452,068.1	7,613,017.0		
Total	5	119,354,095.0			

	Coefficients	*Standard Error*	*t Stat*	*P-value*	*Lower 95%*	*Upper 95%*	*Lower 95.0%*	*Upper 95.0%*
β0	7,171.358	2,389.511	3.001	0.040	536.998	13,805.718	536.998	13,805.718
β1	1.543	0.452	3.417	0.027	0.289	2.797	0.289	2.797

Mid-Continent, applied to OLOGSS region 3:

Regression Statistics	
Multiple R	0.9888
R Square	0.9777
Adjusted R Square	0.9554
Standard Error	325.8
Observations	3

ANOVA

	df	*SS*	*MS*	*F*	*Significance F*
Regression	1	4,654,650.4	4,654,650.4	43.9	0.1
Residual	1	106,147.3	106,147.3		
Total	2	4,760,797.7			

	Coefficients	*Standard Error*	*t Stat*	*P-value*	*Lower 95%*	*Upper 95%*	*Lower 95.0%*	*Upper 95.0%*
β0	5,572.283	399.025	13.965	0.046	502.211	10,642.355	502.211	10,642.355
β1	0.499	0.075	6.622	0.095	-0.459	1.458	-0.459	1.458

Rocky Mountains, applied to OLOGSS regions 1, 5, and 7:

Regression Statistics	
Multiple R	0.9634
R Square	0.9282
Adjusted R Square	0.8923
Standard Error	455.6
Observations	4

ANOVA

	df	*SS*	*MS*	*F*	*Significance F*
Regression	1	5,368,949.5	5,368,949.5	25.9	0.0
Residual	2	415,138.5	207,569.2		
Total	3	5,784,088.0			

	Coefficients	*Standard Error*	*t Stat*	*P-value*	*Lower 95%*	*Upper 95%*	*Lower 95.0%*	*Upper 95.0%*
β0	6,327.733	447.809	14.130	0.005	4,400.964	8,254.501	4,400.964	8,254.501
β1	0.302	0.059	5.086	0.037	0.046	0.557	0.046	0.557

West Coast, applied to OLOGSS region 6:

Regression Statistics	
Multiple R	0.9908
R Square	0.9817
Adjusted R Square	0.9725
Standard Error	313.1
Observations	4

ANOVA

	df	*SS*	*MS*	*F*	*Significance F*
Regression	1	10,498,366.6	10,498,366.6	107.1	0.0
Residual	2	196,056.3	98,028.2		
Total	3	10,694,422.9			

	Coefficients	*Standard Error*	*t Stat*	*P-value*	*Lower 95%*	*Upper 95%*	*Lower 95.0%*	*Upper 95.0%*
β0	5,193.399	307.742	16.876	0.003	3,869.291	6,517.508	3,869.291	6,517.508
β1	0.422	0.041	10.349	0.009	0.246	0.597	0.246	0.597

Fixed Annual Costs for Oil Wells - Cost Adjustment Factor

The cost adjustment factor of the fixed annual cost for oil wells was calculated using data through 2008 from the Cost and Indices data base provided by EIA. The initial cost was normalized at various prices from $10 to $200 per barrel. This led to the development of a series of intermediate equations and the calculation of costs at specific prices and fixed depths. The differentials between estimated costs across the price range and fixed costs at $50 per barrel were then calculated. The cost factor equation was then estimated using the differentials. The method of estimation used was ordinary least squares. The form of the equation is given below:

$$\text{Cost} = \beta 0 + \beta 1 * \text{Oil Price} + \beta 2 * \text{Oil Price}^2 + \beta 3 * \text{Oil Price}^3$$

Rocky Mountains, Applied to OLOGSS Regions 1, 5, and 7:

Regression Statistics	
Multiple R	0.994014283
R Square	0.988064394
Adjusted R Square	0.987808631
Standard Error	0.026960479
Observations	144

ANOVA

	df	*SS*	*MS*	*F*	*Significance F*
Regression	3	8.424110153	2.808036718	3863.203308	2.2587E-134
Residual	140	0.101761442	0.000726867		
Total	143	8.525871595			

	Coefficients	*Standard Error*	*t Stat*	*P-value*	*Lower 95%*	*Upper 95%*	*Lower 95.0%*	*Upper 95.0%*
β0	0.325522735	0.00906045	35.9278779	1.54278E-72	0.30760974	0.343435731	0.30760974	0.343435731
β1	0.019415379	0.000399851	48.55651174	1.74247E-89	0.018624852	0.020205906	0.018624852	0.020205906
β2	-0.000139999	4.80435E-06	-29.14014276	2.63883E-61	-0.000149498	-0.000130501	-0.000149498	-0.000130501
β3	3.41059E-07	1.56527E-08	21.78917295	7.98896E-47	3.10113E-07	3.72006E-07	3.10113E-07	3.72006E-07

South Texas, Applied to OLOGSS Region 2:

Regression Statistics	
Multiple R	0.972995979
R Square	0.946721175
Adjusted R Square	0.945579485
Standard Error	0.052710031
Observations	144

ANOVA

	df	*SS*	*MS*	*F*	*Significance F*
Regression	3	6.91165462	2.303884873	829.2285185	6.67464E-89
Residual	140	0.388968632	0.002778347		
Total	143	7.300623252			

	Coefficients	*Standard Error*	*t Stat*	*P-value*	*Lower 95%*	*Upper 95%*	*Lower 95.0%*	*Upper 95.0%*
β0	0.305890757	0.01771395	17.26835352	1.6689E-36	0.270869326	0.340912188	0.270869326	0.340912188
β1	0.019637228	0.000781743	25.11979642	1.01374E-53	0.01809168	0.021182776	0.01809168	0.021182776
β2	-0.000147609	9.39291E-06	-15.71490525	1.03843E-32	-0.000166179	-0.000129038	-0.000166179	-0.000129038
β3	3.60127E-07	3.06024E-08	11.76795581	1.17387E-22	2.99625E-07	4.2063E-07	2.99625E-07	4.2063E-07

Mid-Continent, Applied to OLOGSS Region 3:

Regression Statistics	
Multiple R	0.993998856
R Square	0.988033725
Adjusted R Square	0.987777305
Standard Error	0.02698784
Observations	144

ANOVA

	df	SS	MS	F	Significance F
Regression	3	8.419321124	2.806440375	3853.182417	2.7032E-134
Residual	140	0.10196809	0.000728344		
Total	143	8.521289214			

	Coefficients	Standard Error	t Stat	P-value	Lower 95%	Upper 95%	Lower 95.0%	Upper 95.0%
β0	0.32545185	0.009069645	35.88363815	1.80273E-72	0.307520675	0.343383025	0.307520675	0.343383025
β1	0.019419103	0.000400257	48.51658921	1.94263E-89	0.018627774	0.020210433	0.018627774	0.020210433
β2	-0.000140059	4.80922E-06	-29.12303298	2.83205E-61	-0.000149567	-0.000130551	-0.000149567	-0.000130551
β3	3.41232E-07	1.56686E-08	21.77807458	8.44228E-47	3.10254E-07	3.72209E-07	3.10254E-07	3.72209E-07

West Texas, Applied to OLOGSS Region 4:

Regression Statistics	
Multiple R	0.977862049
R Square	0.956214186
Adjusted R Square	0.955275919
Standard Error	0.050111949
Observations	144

ANOVA

	df	SS	MS	F	Significance F
Regression	3	7.677722068	2.559240689	1019.127536	7.26235E-95
Residual	140	0.351569047	0.002511207		
Total	143	8.029291115			

	Coefficients	Standard Error	t Stat	P-value	Lower 95%	Upper 95%	Lower 95.0%	Upper 95.0%
β0	0.343679311	0.016840828	20.40750634	8.67459E-44	0.310384089	0.376974533	0.310384089	0.376974533
β1	0.020087054	0.000743211	27.02739293	2.04852E-57	0.018617686	0.021556422	0.018617686	0.021556422
β2	-0.000153877	8.92993E-06	-17.23164844	2.04504E-36	-0.000171532	-0.000136222	-0.000171532	-0.000136222
β3	3.91397E-07	2.9094E-08	13.45286338	5.31787E-27	3.33877E-07	4.48918E-07	3.33877E-07	4.48918E-07

West Coast, Applied to OLOGSS Region 6:

Regression Statistics	
Multiple R	0.993729589
R Square	0.987498496
Adjusted R Square	0.987230606
Standard Error	0.027203598
Observations	144

ANOVA

	df	SS	MS	F	Significance F
Regression	3	8.183798235	2.727932745	3686.217436	5.7808E-133
Residual	140	0.103605007	0.000740036		
Total	143	8.287403242			

	Coefficients	Standard Error	t Stat	P-value	Lower 95%	Upper 95%	Lower 95.0%	Upper 95.0%
β0	0.330961672	0.009142153	36.20171926	5.90451E-73	0.312887144	0.3490362	0.312887144	0.3490362
β1	0.019295414	0.000403457	47.82521879	1.29343E-88	0.018497758	0.02009307	0.018497758	0.02009307
β2	-0.000139784	4.84767E-06	-28.83529781	9.33567E-61	-0.000149368	-0.0001302	-0.000149368	-0.0001302
β3	3.4128E-07	1.57939E-08	21.60840729	1.96666E-46	3.10055E-07	3.72505E-07	3.10055E-07	3.72505E-07

Fixed Annual Costs for Natural Gas Wells

Fixed annual costs for natural gas wells were calculated using an average from 2004 – 2007 data from the most recent Cost and Indices data base provided by the U.S. Energy Information Administration (EIA). Fixed annual costs consist of the lease equipment costs for natural gas production for a given year. The data was analyzed on a regional level. The independent variables are depth and Q which is the flow rate of natural gas in million cubic feet. The form of the equation is given below:

$$Cost = \beta 0 + \beta 1 * Depth + \beta 2 * Q + \beta 3 * Depth * Q \quad (2.B\text{-}12)$$

where Cost = FOAMG_W
β0 = OMGK
β1 = OMGA
β2 = OMGB
β3 = OMGC
Q = PEAKDAILY_RATE
from equation 2-29 in Chapter 2.

Parameter estimates and regression diagnostics are given below. The method of estimation used was ordinary least squares.

West Texas, applied to OLOGSS region 4:

Regression Statistics	
Multiple R	0.928
R Square	0.861
Adjusted R Square	0.815
Standard Error	6,471.68
Observations	13

ANOVA

	df	*SS*	*MS*	*F*	*Significance F*
Regression	3	2,344,632,468.49	781,544,156.16	18.66	0.00
Residual	9	376,944,241.62	41,882,693.51		
Total	12	2,721,576,710.11			

	Coefficients	*Standard Error*	*t Stat*	*P-value*	*Lower 95%*	*Upper 95%*	*Lower 95.0%*	*Upper 95.0%*
β0	4,450.28	5,219.40	0.85	0.42	-7,356.84	16,257.40	-7,356.84	16,257.40
β1	2.50	0.45	5.58	0.00	1.49	3.51	1.49	3.51
β2	27.65	21.21	1.30	0.22	-20.33	75.63	-20.33	75.63
β3	0.00	0.00	-1.21	0.26	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00

South Texas, applied to OLOGSS region 2:

Regression Statistics	
Multiple R	0.913
R Square	0.834
Adjusted R Square	0.807
Standard Error	6,564.36
Observations	23

ANOVA

	df	*SS*	*MS*	*F*	*Significance F*
Regression	3	4,100,685,576.61	1,366,895,192.20	31.72	0.00
Residual	19	818,725,806.73	43,090,831.93		
Total	22	4,919,411,383.34			

	Coefficients	*Standard Error*	*t Stat*	*P-value*	*Lower 95%*	*Upper 95%*	*Lower 95.0%*	*Upper 95.0%*
β0	11,145.70	3,224.45	3.46	0.00	4,396.85	17,894.55	4,396.85	17,894.55
β1	2.68	0.37	7.17	0.00	1.90	3.46	1.90	3.46
β2	7.67	5.09	1.51	0.15	-2.99	18.33	-2.99	18.33
β3	0.00	0.00	-1.21	0.24	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00

Mid-Continent, applied to OLOGSS region 3 and 6:

Regression Statistics	
Multiple R	0.934
R Square	0.873
Adjusted R Square	0.830
Standard Error	6,466.88
Observations	13

ANOVA

	df	*SS*	*MS*	*F*	*Significance F*
Regression	3	2,578,736,610.45	859,578,870.15	20.55	0.00
Residual	9	376,384,484.71	41,820,498.30		
Total	12	2,955,121,095.16			

	Coefficients	*Standard Error*	*t Stat*	*P-value*	*Lower 95%*	*Upper 95%*	*Lower 95.0%*	*Upper 95.0%*
β0	8,193.82	5,410.04	1.51	0.16	-4,044.54	20,432.18	-4,044.54	20,432.18
β1	2.75	0.45	6.14	0.00	1.74	3.77	1.74	3.77
β2	21.21	18.04	1.18	0.27	-19.59	62.01	-19.59	62.01
β3	0.00	0.00	-1.12	0.29	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00

Rocky Mountains, applied to OLOGSS region 1, 5, and 7:

Regression Statistics	
Multiple R	0.945
R Square	0.893
Adjusted R Square	0.840
Standard Error	6,104.84
Observations	10

ANOVA

	df	*SS*	*MS*	*F*	*Significance F*
Regression	3	1,874,387,985.75	624,795,995.25	16.76	0.00
Residual	6	223,614,591.98	37,269,098.66		
Total	9	2,098,002,577.72			

	Coefficients	*Standard Error*	*t Stat*	*P-value*	*Lower 95%*	*Upper 95%*	*Lower 95.0%*	*Upper 95.0%*
β0	7,534.86	6,340.77	1.19	0.28	-7,980.45	23,050.17	-7,980.45	23,050.17
β1	3.81	0.88	4.33	0.00	1.66	5.97	1.66	5.97
β2	32.27	22.33	1.44	0.20	-22.38	86.92	-22.38	86.92
β3	0.00	0.00	-1.18	0.28	-0.01	0.00	-0.01	0.00

Fixed Annual Costs for Gas Wells - Cost Adjustment Factor

The cost adjustment factor of the fixed annual cost for gas wells was calculated using data through 2008 from the Cost and Indices data base provided by EIA. The initial cost was normalized at various prices from $1 to $20 per barrel. This led to the development of a series of intermediate equations and the calculation of costs at specific prices and fixed depths. The differentials between estimated costs across the price range and fixed costs at $5 per barrel were then calculated. The cost factor equation was then estimated using the differentials. The method of estimation used was ordinary least squares. The form of the equation is given below:

$$Cost = \beta0 + \beta1 * Gas\ Price + \beta2 * Gas\ Price^2 + \beta3 * Gas\ Price^3$$

Rocky Mountains, Applied to OLOGSS Region 1, 5, and 7:

Regression Statistics	
Multiple R	0.994836789
R Square	0.989700237
Adjusted R Square	0.989479527
Standard Error	0.029019958
Observations	144

ANOVA

	df	*SS*	*MS*	*F*	*Significance F*
Regression	3	11.32916798	3.776389326	4484.181718	7.4647E-139
Residual	140	0.117902114	0.000842158		
Total	143	11.44707009			

	Coefficients	*Standard Error*	*t Stat*	*P-value*	*Lower 95%*	*Upper 95%*	*Lower 95.0%*	*Upper 95.0%*
β0	0.234219858	0.009752567	24.01622716	1.68475E-51	0.21493851	0.253501206	0.21493851	0.253501206
β1	0.216761767	0.004303953	50.36340872	1.37772E-91	0.20825262	0.225270914	0.20825262	0.225270914
β2	-0.015234638	0.000517134	-29.45972427	7.08872E-62	-0.01625704	-0.014212235	-0.01625704	-0.014212235
β3	0.000365319	1.68484E-05	21.68270506	1.3574E-46	0.000332009	0.000398629	0.000332009	0.000398629

South Texas, Applied to OLOGSS Region 2:

Regression Statistics	
Multiple R	0.995657421
R Square	0.991333701
Adjusted R Square	0.991147994
Standard Error	0.02551118
Observations	144

ANOVA

	df	*SS*	*MS*	*F*	*Significance F*
Regression	3	10.42258156	3.474193854	5338.176859	4.2055E-144
Residual	140	0.091114842	0.00065082		
Total	143	10.5136964			

	Coefficients	*Standard Error*	*t Stat*	*P-value*	*Lower 95%*	*Upper 95%*	*Lower 95.0%*	*Upper 95.0%*
β0	0.276966489	0.008573392	32.30535588	9.09319E-67	0.260016432	0.293916546	0.260016432	0.293916546
β1	0.205740933	0.003783566	54.37751691	5.03408E-96	0.198260619	0.213221246	0.198260619	0.213221246
β2	-0.014407802	0.000454608	-31.6927929	9.63037E-66	-0.015306587	-0.013509017	-0.015306587	-0.013509017
β3	0.00034576	1.48113E-05	23.34441529	4.06714E-50	0.000316478	0.000375043	0.000316478	0.000375043

Mid-Continent, Applied to OLOGSS Region 3 and 6:

Regression Statistics	
Multiple R	0.995590124
R Square	0.991199695
Adjusted R Square	0.991011117
Standard Error	0.025596313
Observations	144

ANOVA

	df	SS	MS	F	Significance F
Regression	3	10.33109303	3.443697678	5256.179662	1.231E-143
Residual	140	0.091723972	0.000655171		
Total	143	10.42281701			

	Coefficients	Standard Error	t Stat	P-value	Lower 95%	Upper 95%	Lower 95.0%	Upper 95.0%
β0	0.278704883	0.008602002	32.40000063	6.33409E-67	0.261698262	0.295711504	0.261698262	0.295711504
β1	0.205373482	0.003796192	54.09986358	9.97995E-96	0.197868206	0.212878758	0.197868206	0.212878758
β2	-0.014404563	0.000456125	-31.58028284	1.49116E-65	-0.015306347	-0.013502779	-0.015306347	-0.013502779
β3	0.000345945	1.48607E-05	23.27919988	5.55628E-50	0.000316565	0.000375325	0.000316565	0.000375325

West Texas, Applied to OLOGSS Region 4:

Regression Statistics	
Multiple R	0.995548929
R Square	0.99111767
Adjusted R Square	0.990927334
Standard Error	0.02564864
Observations	144

ANOVA

	df	SS	MS	F	Significance F
Regression	3	10.27673171	3.425577238	5207.209824	2.3566E-143
Residual	140	0.092099383	0.000657853		
Total	143	10.3688311			

	Coefficients	Standard Error	t Stat	P-value	Lower 95%	Upper 95%	Lower 95.0%	Upper 95.0%
β0	0.279731342	0.008619588	32.45298388	5.17523E-67	0.262689954	0.296772729	0.262689954	0.296772729
β1	0.205151971	0.003803953	53.93125949	1.51455E-95	0.197631352	0.21267259	0.197631352	0.21267259
β2	-0.014402579	0.000457058	-31.51151347	1.94912E-65	-0.015306207	-0.013498952	-0.015306207	-0.013498952
β3	0.00034606	1.48911E-05	23.23943141	6.72233E-50	0.00031662	0.000375501	0.00031662	0.000375501

Fixed Annual Costs for Secondary Production

The fixed annual cost for secondary oil production was calculated an average from 2004 – 2007 data from the most recent Cost and Indices data base provided by the U.S. Energy Information Administration (EIA). The data was analyzed on a regional level. The secondary operations costs for each region were determined by multiplying the costs in West Texas by the ratio of primary operating costs. This method was used in the National Petroleum Council's (NPC) EOR study of 1984. The independent variable is depth. The form of the equation is given below:

$$Cost = \beta 0 + \beta 1 * Depth + \beta 2 * Depth^2 + \beta 3 * Depth^3 \qquad (2.B\text{-}13)$$

where Cost = OPSEC_W

β0 = OPSECK

β1 = OPSECA

β2 = OPSECB

β3 = OPSECC

from equation 2-31 in Chapter 2.

The cost is on a per well basis. Parameter estimates and regression diagnostics are given below. The method of estimation used was ordinary least squares. β2 and β3 are statistically insignificant and are therefore zero.

West Texas, applied to OLOGSS region 4:

Regression Statistics	
Multiple R	0.9972
R Square	0.9945
Adjusted R Square	0.9890
Standard Error	1,969.67
Observations	3

ANOVA

	df	*SS*	*MS*	*F*	*Significance F*
Regression	1	698,746,493.71	698,746,493.71	180.11	0.05
Residual	1	3,879,582.16	3,879,582.16		
Total	2	702,626,075.87			

	Coefficients	*Standard Error*	*t Stat*	*P-value*	*Lower 95%*	*Upper 95%*	*Lower 95.0%*	*Upper 95.0%*
β0	30,509.3	2,412.338	12.647	0.050	-142.224	61,160.827	-142.224	61,160.827
β1	6.118	0.456	13.420	0.047	0.326	11.911	0.326	11.911

South Texas, applied to OLOGSS region 2:

Regression Statistics	
Multiple R	0.935260
R Square	0.874710
Adjusted R Square	0.843388
Standard Error	8414.07
Observations	6

ANOVA

	df	*SS*	*MS*	*F*	*Significance F*
Regression	1	1,977,068,663.41	1,977,068,663.41	27.93	0.01
Residual	4	283,186,316.21	70,796,579.05		
Total	5	2,260,254,979.61			

	Coefficients	*Standard Error*	*t Stat*	*P-value*	*Lower 95%*	*Upper 95%*	*Lower 95.0%*	*Upper 95.0%*
β0	55,732.7	7,286.799	7.648	0.002	35,501.310	75,964.186	35,501.310	75,964.186
β1	7.277	1.377	5.285	0.006	3.454	11.101	3.454	11.101

Mid-Continent, applied to OLOGSS region 3:

Regression Statistics	
Multiple R	0.998942
R Square	0.997884
Adjusted R Square	0.995768
Standard Error	1329.04
Observations	3

ANOVA

	df	*SS*	*MS*	*F*	*Significance F*
Regression	1	833,049,989.02	833,049,989.02	471.62	0.03
Residual	1	1,766,354.45	1,766,354.45		
Total	2	834,816,343.47			

	Coefficients	*Standard Error*	*t Stat*	*P-value*	*Lower 95%*	*Upper 95%*	*Lower 95.0%*	*Upper 95.0%*
β0	28,208.7	1,627.738	17.330	0.037	7,526.417	48,890.989	7,526.417	48,890.989
β1	6.680	0.308	21.717	0.029	2.772	10.589	2.772	10.589

Rocky Mountains, applied to OLOGSS regions 1, 5, and 7:

Regression Statistics	
Multiple R	0.989924
R Square	0.979949
Adjusted R Square	0.959899
Standard Error	3639.10
Observations	3

ANOVA

	df	*SS*	*MS*	*F*	*Significance F*
Regression	1	647,242,187.96	647,242,187.96	48.87	0.09
Residual	1	13,243,073.43	13,243,073.43		
Total	2	660,485,261.39			

	Coefficients	*Standard Error*	*t Stat*	*P-value*	*Lower 95%*	*Upper 95%*	*Lower 95.0%*	*Upper 95.0%*
β0	53,857.06	4,456.973	12.084	0.053	-2,773.909	110,488.034	-2,773.909	110,488.034
β1	5.888	0.842	6.991	0.090	-4.814	16.591	-4.814	16.591

West Coast, applied to OLOGSS region 6:

Regression Statistics	
Multiple R	0.992089
R Square	0.984240
Adjusted R Square	0.968480
Standard Error	5193.40
Observations	3

ANOVA

	df	*SS*	*MS*	*F*	*Significance F*
Regression	1	1,684,438,248.88	1,684,438,248.88	62.45	0.08
Residual	1	26,971,430.96	26,971,430.96		
Total	2	1,711,409,679.84			

	Coefficients	*Standard Error*	*t Stat*	*P-value*	*Lower 95%*	*Upper 95%*	*Lower 95.0%*	*Upper 95.0%*
β0	35,893.465	6,360.593	5.643	0.112	-44,925.189	116,712.119	-44,925.189	116,712.119
β1	9.499	1.202	7.903	0.080	-5.774	24.773	-5.774	24.773

Fixed Annual Costs for Secondary Production - Cost Adjustment Factor

The cost adjustment factor of the fixed annual costs for secondary production was calculated using data through 2008 from the Cost and Indices data base provided by EIA. The initial cost was normalized at various prices from $10 to $200 per barrel. This led to the development of a series of intermediate equations and the calculation of costs at specific prices and fixed depths. The differentials between estimated costs across the price range and fixed costs at $50 per barrel were then calculated. The cost factor equation was then estimated using the differentials. The method of estimation used was ordinary least squares. The form of the equation is given below:

$$\text{Cost} = \beta 0 + \beta 1 * \text{Oil Price} + \beta 2 * \text{Oil Price}^2 + \beta 3 * \text{Oil Price}^3$$

Rocky Mountains, Applied to OLOGSS Regions 1, 5, and 7:

Regression Statistics	
Multiple R	0.994022382
R Square	0.988080495
Adjusted R Square	0.987825078
Standard Error	0.026956819
Observations	144

ANOVA

	df	SS	MS	F	Significance F
Regression	3	8.433336986	2.811112329	3868.484883	2.0551E-134
Residual	140	0.101733815	0.00072667		
Total	143	8.535070802			

	Coefficients	Standard Error	t Stat	P-value	Lower 95%	Upper 95%	Lower 95.0%	Upper 95.0%
β0	0.325311813	0.00905922	35.90947329	1.646E-72	0.307401249	0.343222377	0.307401249	0.343222377
β1	0.019419982	0.000399797	48.57461816	1.65866E-89	0.018629562	0.020210402	0.018629562	0.020210402
β2	-0.000140009	4.80369E-06	-29.14604996	2.57525E-61	-0.000149506	-0.000130512	-0.000149506	-0.000130512
β3	3.41057E-07	1.56506E-08	21.79195958	7.87903E-47	3.10115E-07	3.71999E-07	3.10115E-07	3.71999E-07

South Texas, Applied to OLOGSS Region 2:

Regression Statistics	
Multiple R	0.993830992
R Square	0.987700041
Adjusted R Square	0.987436471
Standard Error	0.027165964
Observations	144

ANOVA

	df	SS	MS	F	Significance F
Regression	3	8.296590955	2.765530318	3747.383987	1.8532E-133
Residual	140	0.103318541	0.00073799		
Total	143	8.399909496			

	Coefficients	Standard Error	t Stat	P-value	Lower 95%	Upper 95%	Lower 95.0%	Upper 95.0%
β0	0.321750317	0.009129506	35.24290662	1.74974E-71	0.303700794	0.33979984	0.303700794	0.33979984
β1	0.019369439	0.000402899	48.0752057	6.49862E-89	0.018572887	0.020165992	0.018572887	0.020165992
β2	-0.000140208	4.84096E-06	-28.96291516	5.49447E-61	-0.000149779	-0.000130638	-0.000149779	-0.000130638
β3	3.42483E-07	1.5772E-08	21.71459435	1.15795E-46	3.11301E-07	3.73665E-07	3.11301E-07	3.73665E-07

Mid-Continent, Applied to OLOGSS Region 3:

Regression Statistics	
Multiple R	0.994021683
R Square	0.988079106
Adjusted R Square	0.987823658
Standard Error	0.026959706
Observations	144

ANOVA

	df	SS	MS	F	Significance F
Regression	3	8.43414809	2.811382697	3868.028528	2.0719E-134
Residual	140	0.101755604	0.000726826		
Total	143	8.535903693			

	Coefficients	Standard Error	t Stat	P-value	Lower 95%	Upper 95%	Lower 95.0%	Upper 95.0%
β0	0.325281756	0.00906019	35.90231108	1.68802E-72	0.307369274	0.343194238	0.307369274	0.343194238
β1	0.019420568	0.00039984	48.57088177	1.67561E-89	0.018630063	0.020211072	0.018630063	0.020211072
β2	-0.000140009	4.80421E-06	-29.14305099	2.60734E-61	-0.000149507	-0.000130511	-0.000149507	-0.000130511
β3	3.41049E-07	1.56523E-08	21.7891193	7.99109E-47	3.10103E-07	3.71994E-07	3.10103E-07	3.71994E-07

West Texas, Applied to OLOGSS Region 4:

Regression Statistics	
Multiple R	0.994023418
R Square	0.988082555
Adjusted R Square	0.987827181
Standard Error	0.026956158
Observations	144

ANOVA

	df	SS	MS	F	Significance F
Regression	3	8.434398087	2.811466029	3869.161392	2.0304E-134
Residual	140	0.101728825	0.000726634		
Total	143	8.536126912			

	Coefficients	Standard Error	t Stat	P-value	Lower 95%	Upper 95%	Lower 95.0%	Upper 95.0%
β0	0.325293493	0.009058998	35.90833165	1.65262E-72	0.307383368	0.343203618	0.307383368	0.343203618
β1	0.019420405	0.000399787	48.57686713	1.64854E-89	0.018630005	0.020210806	0.018630005	0.020210806
β2	-0.000140009	4.80358E-06	-29.14672886	2.56804E-61	-0.000149505	-0.000130512	-0.000149505	-0.000130512
β3	3.41053E-07	1.56502E-08	21.792237	7.86817E-47	3.10111E-07	3.71994E-07	3.10111E-07	3.71994E-07

West Coast, Applied to OLOGSS Region 6:

Regression Statistics	
Multiple R	0.993899019
R Square	0.98783526
Adjusted R Square	0.987574587
Standard Error	0.027222624
Observations	144

ANOVA

	df	SS	MS	F	Significance F
Regression	3	8.42499532	2.808331773	3789.557133	8.5487E-134
Residual	140	0.103749972	0.000741071		
Total	143	8.528745292			

	Coefficients	Standard Error	t Stat	P-value	Lower 95%	Upper 95%	Lower 95.0%	Upper 95.0%
β0	0.327122709	0.009148547	35.75679345	2.81971E-72	0.30903554	0.345209878	0.30903554	0.345209878
β1	0.019283711	0.000403739	47.76280844	1.53668E-88	0.018485497	0.020081925	0.018485497	0.020081925
β2	-0.000138419	4.85106E-06	-28.53379985	3.28809E-60	-0.00014801	-0.000128828	-0.00014801	-0.000128828
β3	3.36276E-07	1.58049E-08	21.27670912	1.03818E-45	3.05029E-07	3.67523E-07	3.05029E-07	3.67523E-07

Lifting Costs

Lifting costs for crude oil wells were calculated using average an average from 2004 – 2007 data from the most recent Cost and Indices data base provided by the U.S. Energy Information Administration (EIA). Lifting costs consist of labor costs for the pumper, chemicals, fuel, power and water costs. The data was analyzed on a regional level. The independent variable is depth. The form of the equation is given below:

$$Cost = \beta0 + \beta1 * Depth + \beta2 * Depth^2 + \beta3 * Depth^3 \qquad (2.B\text{-}14)$$

where Cost = OML_W

β0 = OMLK

β1 = OMLA

β2 = OMLB

β3 = OMLC

from equation 2-32 in Chapter 2.

The cost is on a per well basis. Parameter estimates and regression diagnostics are given below. The method of estimation used was ordinary least squares. β2 and β3 are statistically insignificant and are therefore zero.

West Texas, applied to OLOGSS region 4:

Regression Statistics	
Multiple R	0.9994
R Square	0.9988
Adjusted R Square	0.9976
Standard Error	136.7
Observations	3

ANOVA

	df	SS	MS	F	Significance F
Regression	1	15,852,301	15,852,301	849	0
Residual	1	18,681	18,681		
Total	2	15,870,982			

	Coefficients	Standard Error	t Stat	P-value	Lower 95%	Upper 95%	Lower 95.0%	Upper 95.0%
β0	7,534.515	167.395	45.010	0.014	5,407.565	9,661.465	5,407.565	9,661.465
β1	0.922	0.032	29.131	0.022	0.520	1.323	0.520	1.323

South Texas, applied to OLOGSS region 2:

Regression Statistics	
Multiple R	0.8546
R Square	0.7304
Adjusted R Square	0.6764
Standard Error	2263.5
Observations	7

ANOVA

	df	SS	MS	F	Significance F
Regression	1	69,387,339	69,387,339	14	0
Residual	5	25,617,128	5,123,426		
Total	6	95,004,467			

	Coefficients	Standard Error	t Stat	P-value	Lower 95%	Upper 95%	Lower 95.0%	Upper 95.0%
β0	11,585.191	1,654.440	7.002	0.001	7,332.324	15,838.058	7,332.324	15,838.058
β1	0.912	0.248	3.680	0.014	0.275	1.549	0.275	1.549

Mid-Continent, applied to OLOGSS region 3:

Regression Statistics	
Multiple R	0.9997
R Square	0.9995
Adjusted R Square	0.9990
Standard Error	82.0
Observations	3

ANOVA

	df	SS	MS	F	Significance F
Regression	1	13,261,874	13,261,874	1,972	0
Residual	1	6,726	6,726		
Total	2	13,268,601			

	Coefficients	Standard Error	t Stat	P-value	Lower 95%	Upper 95%	Lower 95.0%	Upper 95.0%
β0	8,298.339	100.447	82.614	0.008	7,022.045	9,574.634	7,022.045	9,574.634
β1	0.843	0.019	44.403	0.014	0.602	1.084	0.602	1.084

Rocky Mountains, applied to OLOGSS region 1, 5, and 7:

Regression Statistics	
Multiple R	1.0000
R Square	1.0000
Adjusted R Square	0.9999
Standard Error	11.5
Observations	3

ANOVA

	df	SS	MS	F	Significance F
Regression	1	3,979,238	3,979,238	30,138	0
Residual	1	132	132		
Total	2	3,979,370			

	Coefficients	Standard Error	t Stat	P-value	Lower 95%	Upper 95%	Lower 95.0%	Upper 95.0%
β0	10,137.398	14.073	720.342	0.001	9,958.584	10,316.212	9,958.584	10,316.212
β1	0.462	0.003	173.603	0.004	0.428	0.495	0.428	0.495

West Coast, applied to OLOGSS region 6:

Regression Statistics	
Multiple R	0.9969
R Square	0.9937
Adjusted R Square	0.9874
Standard Error	1134.3
Observations	3

ANOVA

	df	SS	MS	F	Significance F
Regression	1	203,349,853	203,349,853	158	0
Residual	1	1,286,583	1,286,583		
Total	2	204,636,436			

	Coefficients	Standard Error	t Stat	P-value	Lower 95%	Upper 95%	Lower 95.0%	Upper 95.0%
β0	5,147.313	1,389.199	3.705	0.168	-12,504.063	22,798.689	-12,504.063	22,798.689
β1	3.301	0.263	12.572	0.051	-0.035	6.636	-0.035	6.636

Lifting Costs - Cost Adjustment Factor

The cost adjustment factor for lifting costs for was calculated using data through 2008 from the Cost and Indices data base provided by EIA. The initial cost was normalized at various prices from $10 to $200 per barrel. This led to the development of a series of intermediate equations and the calculation of costs at specific prices and fixed depths. The differentials between estimated costs across the price range and fixed costs at $50 per barrel were then calculated. The cost factor equation was then estimated using the differentials. The method of estimation used was ordinary least squares. The form of the equation is given below:

$$\text{Cost} = \beta0 + \beta1 * \text{Oil Price} + \beta2 * \text{Oil Price}^2 + \beta3 * \text{Oil Price}^3$$

Rocky Mountains, Applied to OLOGSS Region 1, 5, and 7:

Regression Statistics	
Multiple R	0.994419415
R Square	0.988869972
Adjusted R Square	0.988631472
Standard Error	0.026749137
Observations	144

ANOVA

	df	*SS*	*MS*	*F*	*Significance F*
Regression	3	8.900010642	2.966670214	4146.195026	1.6969E-136
Residual	140	0.100172285	0.000715516		
Total	143	9.000182927			

	Coefficients	*Standard Error*	*t Stat*	*P-value*	*Lower 95%*	*Upper 95%*	*Lower 95.0%*	*Upper 95.0%*
β0	0.314447949	0.008989425	34.97976138	4.49274E-71	0.296675373	0.332220525	0.296675373	0.332220525
β1	0.019667961	0.000396717	49.57683267	1.11119E-90	0.018883631	0.020452291	0.018883631	0.020452291
β2	-0.000140635	4.76668E-06	-29.50377541	5.91881E-62	-0.000150059	-0.000131211	-0.000150059	-0.000131211
β3	3.41221E-07	1.553E-08	21.97170644	3.23018E-47	3.10517E-07	3.71924E-07	3.10517E-07	3.71924E-07

South Texas, Applied to OLOGSS Region 2:

Regression Statistics	
Multiple R	0.994725637
R Square	0.989479094
Adjusted R Square	0.989253646
Standard Error	0.026400955
Observations	144

ANOVA

	df	*SS*	*MS*	*F*	*Significance F*
Regression	3	9.177423888	3.059141296	4388.946164	3.302E-138
Residual	140	0.097581462	0.00069701		
Total	143	9.275005349			

	Coefficients	*Standard Error*	*t Stat*	*P-value*	*Lower 95%*	*Upper 95%*	*Lower 95.0%*	*Upper 95.0%*
β0	0.307250046	0.008872414	34.62981435	1.58839E-70	0.289708807	0.324791284	0.289708807	0.324791284
β1	0.019843369	0.000391553	50.6786443	6.01683E-92	0.019069248	0.020617491	0.019069248	0.020617491
β2	-0.000141338	4.70464E-06	-30.04217841	6.6318E-63	-0.000150639	-0.000132036	-0.000150639	-0.000132036
β3	3.42235E-07	1.53279E-08	22.32765206	5.59173E-48	3.11931E-07	3.72539E-07	3.11931E-07	3.72539E-07

Mid-Continent, Applied to OLOGSS Region 3:

Regression Statistics	
Multiple R	0.994625665
R Square	0.989280214
Adjusted R Square	0.989050504
Standard Error	0.026521235
Observations	144

ANOVA

	df	*SS*	*MS*	*F*	*Significance F*
Regression	3	9.087590035	3.029196678	4306.653909	1.2247E-137
Residual	140	0.09847263	0.000703376		
Total	143	9.186062664			

	Coefficients	*Standard Error*	*t Stat*	*P-value*	*Lower 95%*	*Upper 95%*	*Lower 95.0%*	*Upper 95.0%*
β0	0.309274775	0.008912836	34.69993005	1.23231E-70	0.291653621	0.32689593	0.291653621	0.32689593
β1	0.019797213	0.000393337	50.33145871	1.49879E-91	0.019019565	0.020574861	0.019019565	0.020574861
β2	-0.000141221	4.72607E-06	-29.88132995	1.27149E-62	-0.000150565	-0.000131878	-0.000150565	-0.000131878
β3	3.42202E-07	1.53977E-08	22.22423366	9.29272E-48	3.1176E-07	3.72644E-07	3.1176E-07	3.72644E-07

West Texas, Applied to OLOGSS Region 4:

Regression Statistics	
Multiple R	0.994686146
R Square	0.98940053
Adjusted R Square	0.989173398
Standard Error	0.026467032
Observations	144

ANOVA

	df	SS	MS	F	Significance F
Regression	3	9.154328871	3.051442957	4356.069182	5.5581E-138
Residual	140	0.09807053	0.000700504		
Total	143	9.252399401			

	Coefficients	Standard Error	t Stat	P-value	Lower 95%	Upper 95%	Lower 95.0%	Upper 95.0%
β0	0.307664081	0.00889462	34.58990756	1.8356E-70	0.29007894	0.325249222	0.29007894	0.325249222
β1	0.019836272	0.000392533	50.53404116	8.79346E-92	0.019060214	0.020612331	0.019060214	0.020612331
β2	-0.000141357	4.71641E-06	-29.97123684	8.83426E-63	-0.000150681	-0.000132032	-0.000150681	-0.000132032
β3	3.42352E-07	1.53662E-08	22.27954719	7.08083E-48	3.11973E-07	3.72732E-07	3.11973E-07	3.72732E-07

West Coast, Applied to OLOGSS Region 6:

Regression Statistics	
Multiple R	0.993880162
R Square	0.987797777
Adjusted R Square	0.987536301
Standard Error	0.027114753
Observations	144

ANOVA

	df	SS	MS	F	Significance F
Regression	3	8.332367897	2.777455966	3777.77319	1.0603E-133
Residual	140	0.102929375	0.00073521		
Total	143	8.435297272			

	Coefficients	Standard Error	t Stat	P-value	Lower 95%	Upper 95%	Lower 95.0%	Upper 95.0%
β0	0.326854136	0.009112296	35.86957101	1.8943E-72	0.308838638	0.344869634	0.308838638	0.344869634
β1	0.019394839	0.000402139	48.22916512	4.26E-89	0.018599788	0.02018989	0.018599788	0.02018989
β2	-0.000140183	4.83184E-06	-29.01231258	4.47722E-61	-0.000149736	-0.00013063	-0.000149736	-0.00013063
β3	3.41846E-07	1.57423E-08	21.71513554	1.15483E-46	3.10722E-07	3.72969E-07	3.10722E-07	3.72969E-07

Secondary Workover Costs

Secondary workover costs were calculated using an average from 2004 – 2007 data from the most recent Cost and Indices data base provided by the U.S. Energy Information Administration (EIA). Secondary workover costs consist of workover rig services, remedial services and equipment repair. The data was analyzed on a regional level. The secondary operations costs for each region were determined by multiplying the costs in West Texas by the ratio of primary operating costs. This method was used in the National Petroleum Council's (NPC) EOR study of 1984. The independent variable is depth. The form of the equation is given below:

$$\text{Cost} = \beta0 + \beta1 * \text{Depth} + \beta2 * \text{Depth}^2 + \beta3 * \text{Depth}^3 \quad (2.B\text{-}15)$$

where Cost = SWK_W
β0 = OMSWRK
β1 = OMSWRA
β2 = OMSWRB
β3 = OMSWRC
from equation 2-33 in Chapter 2.

The cost is on a per well basis. Parameter estimates and regression diagnostics are given below. The method of estimation used was ordinary least squares. β2 and β3 are statistically insignificant and are therefore zero.

West Texas, applied to OLOGSS region 4:

Regression Statistics	
Multiple R	0.9993
R Square	0.9986
Adjusted R Square	0.9972
Standard Error	439.4
Observations	3

ANOVA

	df	*SS*	*MS*	*F*	*Significance F*
Regression	1	136,348,936	136,348,936	706	0
Residual	1	193,106	193,106		
Total	2	136,542,042			

	Coefficients	*Standard Error*	*t Stat*	*P-value*	*Lower 95%*	*Upper 95%*	*Lower 95.0%*	*Upper 95.0%*
β0	4,951.059	538.200	9.199	0.069	-1,887.392	11,789.510	-1,887.392	11,789.510
β1	2.703	0.102	26.572	0.024	1.410	3.995	1.410	3.995

South Texas, applied to OLOGSS region 2:

Regression Statistics	
Multiple R	0.9924
R Square	0.9849
Adjusted R Square	0.9811
Standard Error	1356.3
Observations	6

ANOVA

	df	*SS*	*MS*	*F*	*Significance F*
Regression	1	480,269,759	480,269,759	261	0
Residual	4	7,358,144	1,839,536		
Total	5	487,627,903			

	Coefficients	*Standard Error*	*t Stat*	*P-value*	*Lower 95%*	*Upper 95%*	*Lower 95.0%*	*Upper 95.0%*
β0	10,560.069	1,174.586	8.990	0.001	7,298.889	13,821.249	7,298.889	13,821.249
β1	3.587	0.222	16.158	0.000	2.970	4.203	2.970	4.203

Mid-Continent, applied to OLOGSS region 3:

Regression Statistics	
Multiple R	0.9989
R Square	0.9979
Adjusted R Square	0.9958
Standard Error	544.6
Observations	3

ANOVA

	df	*SS*	*MS*	*F*	*Significance F*
Regression	1	140,143,261	140,143,261	473	0
Residual	1	296,583	296,583		
Total	2	140,439,844			

	Coefficients	*Standard Error*	*t Stat*	*P-value*	*Lower 95%*	*Upper 95%*	*Lower 95.0%*	*Upper 95.0%*
β0	3,732.510	666.989	5.596	0.113	-4,742.355	12,207.375	-4,742.355	12,207.375
β1	2.740	0.126	21.738	0.029	1.138	4.342	1.138	4.342

Rocky Mountains, applied to OLOGSS region 1, 5, and 7:

Regression Statistics	
Multiple R	0.9996
R Square	0.9991
Adjusted R Square	0.9983
Standard Error	290.9
Observations	3

ANOVA

	df	SS	MS	F	Significance F
Regression	1	98,740,186	98,740,186	1,167	0
Residual	1	84,627	84,627		
Total	2	98,824,812			

	Coefficients	Standard Error	t Stat	P-value	Lower 95%	Upper 95%	Lower 95.0%	Upper 95.0%
β0	5,291.954	356.287	14.853	0.043	764.922	9,818.987	764.922	9,818.987
β1	2.300	0.067	34.158	0.019	1.444	3.155	1.444	3.155

West Coast, applied to OLOGSS region 6:

Regression Statistics	
Multiple R	0.9991
R Square	0.9983
Adjusted R Square	0.9966
Standard Error	454.7
Observations	3

ANOVA

	df	SS	MS	F	Significance F
Regression	1	120,919,119	120,919,119	585	0
Residual	1	206,762	206,762		
Total	2	121,125,881			

	Coefficients	Standard Error	t Stat	P-value	Lower 95%	Upper 95%	Lower 95.0%	Upper 95.0%
β0	4,131.486	556.905	7.419	0.085	-2,944.638	11,207.610	-2,944.638	11,207.610
β1	2.545	0.105	24.183	0.026	1.208	3.882	1.208	3.882

Secondary Workover Costs - Cost Adjustment Factor

The cost adjustment factor for secondary workover costs was calculated using data through 2008 from the Cost and Indices data base provided by EIA. The initial cost was normalized at various prices from \$10 to \$200 per barrel. This led to the development of a series of intermediate equations and the calculation of costs at specific prices and fixed depths. The differentials between estimated costs across the price range and fixed costs at \$50 per barrel were then calculated. The cost factor equation was then estimated using the differentials. The method of estimation used was ordinary least squares. The form of the equation is given below:

$$\text{Cost} = \beta0 + \beta1 * \text{Oil Price} + \beta2 * \text{Oil Price}^2 + \beta3 * \text{Oil Price}^3$$

Rocky Mountains, Applied to OLOGSS Region 1, 5, and 7:

Regression Statistics	
Multiple R	0.994646805
R Square	0.989322267
Adjusted R Square	0.989093459
Standard Error	0.026416612
Observations	144

ANOVA

	df	SS	MS	F	Significance F
Regression	3	9.051925882	3.017308627	4323.799147	9.3015E-138
Residual	140	0.097697232	0.000697837		
Total	143	9.149623114			

	Coefficients	Standard Error	t Stat	P-value	Lower 95%	Upper 95%	Lower 95.0%	Upper 95.0%
β0	0.312179978	0.008877675	35.1646082	2.31513E-71	0.294628337	0.329731619	0.294628337	0.329731619
β1	0.019705242	0.000391785	50.29605017	1.64552E-91	0.018930662	0.020479822	0.018930662	0.020479822
β2	-0.000140397	4.70743E-06	-29.82464336	1.6003E-62	-0.000149704	-0.000131091	-0.000149704	-0.000131091
β3	3.4013E-07	1.53369E-08	22.17714344	1.1716E-47	3.09808E-07	3.70452E-07	3.09808E-07	3.70452E-07

South Texas, Applied to OLOGSS Region 2:

Regression Statistics	
Multiple R	0.994648271
R Square	0.989325182
Adjusted R Square	0.989096436
Standard Error	0.026409288
Observations	144

ANOVA

	df	SS	MS	F	Significance F
Regression	3	9.049404415	3.016468138	4324.992582	9.1255E-138
Residual	140	0.097643067	0.00069745		
Total	143	9.147047482			

	Coefficients	Standard Error	t Stat	P-value	Lower 95%	Upper 95%	Lower 95.0%	Upper 95.0%
β0	0.31224985	0.008875214	35.18223288	2.17363E-71	0.294703075	0.329796624	0.294703075	0.329796624
β1	0.019703773	0.000391676	50.30624812	1.60183E-91	0.018929408	0.020478139	0.018929408	0.020478139
β2	-0.000140393	4.70612E-06	-29.83187838	1.55398E-62	-0.000149697	-0.000131088	-0.000149697	-0.000131088
β3	3.40125E-07	1.53327E-08	22.18299399	1.13834E-47	3.09811E-07	3.70439E-07	3.09811E-07	3.70439E-07

Mid-Continent, Applied to OLOGSS Region 3:

Regression Statistics	
Multiple R	0.994391906
R Square	0.988815263
Adjusted R Square	0.98857559
Standard Error	0.027366799
Observations	144

ANOVA

	df	SS	MS	F	Significance F
Regression	3	9.269694355	3.089898118	4125.685804	2.3918E-136
Residual	140	0.104851837	0.000748942		
Total	143	9.374546192			

	Coefficients	Standard Error	t Stat	P-value	Lower 95%	Upper 95%	Lower 95.0%	Upper 95.0%
β0	0.301399555	0.009196999	32.7715099	1.54408E-67	0.283216594	0.319582517	0.283216594	0.319582517
β1	0.020285999	0.000405877	49.980617	3.79125E-91	0.019483558	0.021088441	0.019483558	0.021088441
β2	-0.000145269	4.87675E-06	-29.78803686	1.85687E-62	-0.00015491	-0.000135627	-0.00015491	-0.000135627
β3	3.51144E-07	1.58886E-08	22.10035946	1.71054E-47	3.19731E-07	3.82556E-07	3.19731E-07	3.82556E-07

West Texas, Applied to OLOGSS Region 4:

Regression Statistics	
Multiple R	0.994645783
R Square	0.989320233
Adjusted R Square	0.989091381
Standard Error	0.026422924
Observations	144

ANOVA

	df	SS	MS	F	Significance F
Regression	3	9.054508298	3.018169433	4322.966602	9.4264E-138
Residual	140	0.097743924	0.000698171		
Total	143	9.152252223			

	Coefficients	Standard Error	t Stat	P-value	Lower 95%	Upper 95%	Lower 95.0%	Upper 95.0%
β0	0.312146343	0.008879797	35.15242029	2.41837E-71	0.294590508	0.329702178	0.294590508	0.329702178
β1	0.019706241	0.000391879	50.28658391	1.68714E-91	0.018931476	0.020481006	0.018931476	0.020481006
β2	-0.000140397	4.70855E-06	-29.81743751	1.64782E-62	-0.000149706	-0.000131088	-0.000149706	-0.000131088
β3	3.4012E-07	1.53406E-08	22.17121727	1.20629E-47	3.09791E-07	3.70449E-07	3.09791E-07	3.70449E-07

West Coast, Applied to OLOGSS Region 6:

Regression Statistics	
Multiple R	0.994644139
R Square	0.989316964
Adjusted R Square	0.989088042
Standard Error	0.026428705
Observations	144

ANOVA

	df	SS	MS	F	Significance F
Regression	3	9.05566979	3.018556597	4321.629647	9.6305E-138
Residual	140	0.097786705	0.000698476		
Total	143	9.153456495			

	Coefficients	Standard Error	t Stat	P-value	Lower 95%	Upper 95%	Lower 95.0%	Upper 95.0%
β0	0.312123671	0.00888174	35.14217734	2.50872E-71	0.294563994	0.329683347	0.294563994	0.329683347
β1	0.019707015	0.000391964	50.27755672	1.72782E-91	0.01893208	0.020481949	0.01893208	0.020481949
β2	-0.0001404	4.70958E-06	-29.81159891	1.68736E-62	-0.000149711	-0.000131089	-0.000149711	-0.000131089
β3	3.40124E-07	1.5344E-08	22.16666321	1.23366E-47	3.09789E-07	3.7046E-07	3.09789E-07	3.7046E-07

Additional Cost Equations and Factors

The model uses several updated cost equations and factors originally developed for DOE/NETL's Comprehensive Oil and Gas Analysis Model (COGAM). These are:

- The crude oil and natural gas investment factors for tangible and intangible investments as well as the operating costs. These factors were originally developed based upon the 1984 Enhanced Oil Recovery Study completed by the National Petroleum Council.
- The G&A factors for capitalized and expensed costs.
- The limits on impurities, such as N2, CO2, and H2S used to calculate natural gas processing costs.
- Cost equations for stimulation, the produced water handling plant, the chemical handling plant, the polymer handling plant, CO_2 recycling plant, and the steam manifolds and pipelines.

Natural and Industrial CO2 Prices

The model uses regional CO_2 prices for both natural and industrial sources of CO_2. The cost equation for natural CO_2 is derived from the equation used in COGAM and updated to reflect current dollar values. According to University of Wyoming, this equation is applicable to the natural CO_2 in the Permian basin (Southwest). The cost of CO_2 in other regions and states is calculated using state calibration factors which represent the additional cost of transportation.

The industrial CO_2 costs contain two components: cost of capture and cost of transportation. The capture costs are derived using data obtained from Denbury Resources, Inc. and other sources. CO_2 capture costs range between \$20 and \$63/ton. The transportation costs were derived using an external economic model which calculates pipeline tariff based upon average distance, compression rate, and volume of CO_2 transported.

National Crude Oil Drilling Footage Equation

The equation for crude oil drilling footage was estimated for the time period 1999 - 2008. The drilling footage data was compiled from EIA's Annual Energy Review 2008. The form of the estimating equation is given by:

$$\text{Oil Footage} = \beta 0 + \beta 1 * \text{Oil Price} \qquad (2.B\text{-}16)$$

where $\beta 0 = \text{OILA0}$

$\beta 1 = \text{OILA1}$

from equation 2-99 in Chapter 2.

Oil footage is the footage of total developmental crude oil wells drilled in the United States in thousands of feet. The crude oil price is a rolling five year average of crude oil prices from 1995 – 2008. The parameter estimates and regression diagnostics are given below. The method of estimation used was ordinary least squares.

Dependent variable: Oil Footage
Current sample: (1999 to 2008)

Regression Statistics	
Multiple R	0.9623
R Square	0.9259
Adjusted R Square	0.9167
Standard Error	5,108.20
Observations	10

ANOVA

	df	*SS*	*MS*	*F*	*Significance F*
Regression	1	2,609,812,096.02	2,609,812,096.02	100.02	0.00
Residual	8	208,749,712.88	26,093,714.11		
Total	9	2,818,561,808.90			

	Coefficients	*Standard Error*	*t Stat*	*P-value*	*Lower 95%*	*Upper 95%*	*Lower 95.0%*	*Upper 95.0%*
β0	3,984.11	4,377.97	0.91	0.39	-6,111.51	14,079.72	-6,111.51	14,079.72
β1	1,282.45	128.23	10.00	0.00	986.74	1,578.16	986.74	1,578.16

Regional Crude Oil Footage Distribution

The regional drilling distributions for crude oil were estimated using an updated EIA well count file. The percent allocations for each region are calculated using the average footage drilled from 2004 – 2008 for developed crude oil or natural gas fields.

Region Name	States Included	Oil
Northeast	IN,IL,KY,MI,NY,OH,PA,TN,VA,WV	7.6%
Gulf Coast	AL,FL,LA,MS,TX	29.3%
Midcontinent	AR,KS,MO,NE,OK,TX	16.8%
Southwest	TX,NM	18.3%
Rocky Mountains	CO,NV,UT,WY,NM	10.7%
West Coast	CA,WA	9.6%
Northern Great Plains	MT,ND,SD	7.6%

National Natural Gas Drilling Footage Equation

The equation for natural gas drilling footage was estimated for the time period 1999 - 2008. The drilling footage data was compiled from EIA's Annual Energy Review 2008. The form of the estimating equation is given by:

Gas Footage = $\beta 0 + \beta 1$ * Gas Price (2.B-17)

where $\beta 0$ = GASA0

$\beta 1$ = GASA1

from equation 2-100 in Chapter 2.

Gas footage is footage of total developmental natural gas wells drilled in the United States in thousands of feet. The gas price is a rolling five year average of natural gas prices from 1995 – 2008. The parameter estimates and regression diagnostics are given below. The method of estimation used was ordinary least squares.

Dependent variable: Gas Footage
Current sample: (1999 to 2008)

Regression Statistics	
Multiple R	0.9189
R Square	0.8444
Adjusted R Square	0.7666
Standard Error	9,554.63
Observations	4

ANOVA

	df	*SS*	*MS*	*F*	*Significance F*
Regression	1	990,785,019.79	990,785,019.79	10.85	0.08
Residual	2	182,581,726.21	91,290,863.10		
Total	3	1,173,366,746.00			

	Coefficients	*Standard Error*	*t Stat*	*P-value*	*Lower 95%*	*Upper 95%*	*Lower 95.0%*	*Upper 95.0%*
β0	2,793.29	53,884.13	0.05	0.96	-229,051.57	234,638.14	-229,051.57	234,638.14
β1	30,429.72	9,236.81	3.29	0.08	-9,313.08	70,172.52	-9,313.08	70,172.52

Regional Natural Gas Footage Distribution

The regional drilling distributions for natural gas were estimated using an updated EIA well count file. The percent allocations for each region are calculated using the average footage drilled from 2004 – 2008 for developed crude oil or natural gas fields.

Region Name	States Included	Gas
Northeast	IN,IL,KY,MI,NY,OH,PA,TN,VA,WV	13.2%
Gulf Coast	AL,FL,LA,MS,TX	18.7%
Midcontinent	AR,KS,MO,NE,OK,TX	13.4%
Southwest	TX,NM	34.5%
Rocky Mountains	CO,NV,UT,WY,NM	19.5%
West Coast	CA,WA	0.4%
Northern Great Plains	MT,ND,SD	0.4%

National Exploration Drilling Footage Equation

The equation for exploration well drilling footage was estimated for the time period 1999 - 2008. The drilling footage data was compiled from EIA's Annual Energy Review 2008. The form of the estimating equation is given by:

$$\text{Exploration Footage} = \beta 0 + \beta 1 * \text{Oil Price} \qquad (2.B\text{-}18)$$

where $\beta 0 = \text{EXPA0}$
$\beta 1 = \text{EXPA1}$

Exploration footage is footage of total exploratory crude oil, natural gas and dry wells drilled in the United States in thousands of feet. The crude oil price is a rolling five year average of oil prices from 1995 – 2008. The parameter estimates and regression diagnostics are given below. The method of estimation used was ordinary least squares.

Dependent variable: Exploration Footage
Current sample: (1999 to 2008)

Regression Statistics	
Multiple R	0.9467
R Square	0.8963
Adjusted R Square	0.8834
Standard Error	2,825.10
Observations	10

ANOVA

	df	SS	MS	F	Significance F
Regression	1	552,044,623.08	552,044,623.08	69.17	0.00
Residual	8	63,849,573.82	7,981,196.73		
Total	9	615,894,196.90			

	Coefficients	Standard Error	t Stat	P-value	Lower 95%	Upper 95%	Lower 95.0%	Upper 95.0%
β0	4,733.91	2,421.24	1.96	0.09	-849.49	10,317.31	-849.49	10,317.31
β1	589.83	70.92	8.32	0.00	426.28	753.37	426.28	753.37

Regional Exploration Footage Distribution

The regional distribution for drilled exploration projects is also estimated using the updated EIA well count file. The percent allocations for each corresponding region are calculated using a 2004 – 2008 average of footage drilled for exploratory fields for both crude oil and natural gas.

Region Name	States Included	Exploration
Northeast	IN,IL,KY,MI,NY,OH,PA,TN,VA,WV	22.3%
Gulf Coast	AL,FL,LA,MS,TX	9.0%
Midcontinent	AR,KS,MO,NE,OK,TX	28.8%
Southwest	TX,NM	14.3%
Rocky Mountains	CO,NV,UT,WY,NM	11.5%
West Coast	CA,WA	0.3%
Northern Great Plains	MT,ND,SD	13.8%

Regional Dryhole Rate for Discovered Projects

The percent allocation for existing regional dryhole rates was estimated using an updated EIA well count file. The percentage is determined by the average footage drilled from 2004 – 2008 for each corresponding region. Existing dryhole rates calculate the projects which have already been discovered. The formula for the percentage is given below:

Existing Dryhole Rate = Developed Dryhole / Total Drilling (2.B-19)

Region Name	States Included	Existing
Northeast	IN,IL,KY,MI,NY,OH,PA,TN,VA,WV	5.8%
Gulf Coast	AL,FL,LA,MS,TX	9.4%
Midcontinent	AR,KS,MO,NE,OK,TX	13.2%
Southwest	TX,NM	9.7%
Rocky Mountains	CO,NV,UT,WY,NM	4.3%
West Coast	CA,WA	1.5%
Northern Great Plains	MT,ND,SD	5.2%

Regional Dryhole Rate for First Exploration Well Drilled

The percent allocation for undiscovered regional exploration dryhole rates was estimated using an updated EIA well count file. The percentage is determined by the average footage drilled from 2004 – 2008 for each region. Undiscovered regional exploration dryhole rates calculate the rate for the first well drilled in an exploration project. The formula for the percentage is given below:

Undiscovered Exploration = Exploration Dryhole / (Exploration Gas + Exploration Oil)

Region Name	States Included	Undisc. Exp
Northeast	IN,IL,KY,MI,NY,OH,PA,TN,VA,WV	30.8%
Gulf Coast	AL,FL,LA,MS,TX	167.8%
Midcontinent	AR,KS,MO,NE,OK,TX	76.4%
Southwest	TX,NM	86.2%
Rocky Mountains	CO,NV,UT,WY,NM	74.0%
West Coast	CA,WA	466.0%
Northern Great Plains	MT,ND,SD	46.9%

Regional Dryhole Rate for Subsequent Exploration Wells Drilled

The percent allocation for undiscovered regional developed dryhole rates was estimated using an updated EIA well count file. The percentage is determined by the average footage drilled from 2004 – 2008 for each corresponding region. Undiscovered regional developed dryhole rates calculate the rate for subsequent wells drilled in an exploration project. The formula for the percentage is given below:

Undiscovered Developed = (Developed Dryhole + Explored Dryhole) / Total Drilling (2.B-20)

Region Name	States Included	Undisc. Dev
Northeast	IN,IL,KY,MI,NY,OH,PA,TN,VA,WV	7.3%
Gulf Coast	AL,FL,LA,MS,TX	11.6%
Midcontinent	AR,KS,MO,NE,OK,TX	16.8%
Southwest	TX,NM	10.8%
Rocky Mountains	CO,NV,UT,WY,NM	6.5%
West Coast	CA,WA	1.8%
Northern Great Plains	MT,ND,SD	10.5%

National Rig Depth Rating

The national rig depth rating schedule was calculated using a three year average based on the Smith Rig Count as reported by *Oil and Gas Journal*. Percentages are applied to determine the cumulative available rigs for drilling.

Appendix 2.C: Play-level Resource Assumptions for Tight Gas, Shale Gas, and Coalbed Methane

The detailed resource assumptions underlying the estimates of remaining unproved technically recoverable resources for tight gas, shale gas, and coalbed methane are presented in the following tables.

Table 2.C-1. Remaining Technically Recoverable Resources (TRR) – Tight Gas

REGION	BASIN	PLAY	AREA (mi^2)	WELL SPACING	DEPTH (ft)	EUR (bcf/well)	OFFICIAL NO ACCESS	TRR (bcf)
1	Appalachian	Berea Sandstone	51863	8	4000	0.18	0%	11401
1	Appalachian	Clinton/Medina High	14773	8	5900	0.25	0%	6786
1	Appalachian	Clinton/Medina Moderate/Low	27281	15	5200	0.08	0%	16136
1	Appalachian	Tuscarora Sandstone	42495	8	8000	0.69	0%	1485
1	Appalachian	Upper Devonian High	12775	10	4600	0.21	0%	10493
1	Appalachian	Upper Devonian Moderate/Low	29808	10	5400	0.06	0%	5492
2	East Texas	Cotton Valley/Bossier	2730	12	12500	1.39	0%	36447
2	Texas-Gulf	Olmos	2500	4	5000	0.44	0%	3624
2	Texas-Gulf	Vicksburg	600	8	11000	2.36	0%	4875
2	Texas-Gulf	Wilcox/Lobo	1500	8	9500	1.60	0%	8532
3	Anadarko	Cherokee/Redfork	1500	4	8500	0.90	0%	1168
3	Anadarko	Cleveland	1500	4	6500	0.91	0%	3690
3	Anadarko	Granite Wash/Atoka	1500	4	13000	1.72	0%	6871
3	Arkoma	Arkoma Basin	1000	8	8000	1.30	0%	2281
4	Permian	Abo	1500	8	3800	1.00	0%	9158
4	Permian	Canyon	6000	8	4500	0.22	0%	11535
5	Denver	Denver/Jules	3500	16	4999	0.24	1%	12953
5	Greater Green River	Deep Mesaverde	16416	4	15100	0.41	8%	2939
5	Greater Green River	Fort Union/Fox Hills	3858	8	5000	0.70	12%	1062
5	Greater Green River	Frontier (Deep)	15619	4	17000	2.58	9%	11303
5	Greater Green River	Frontier (Moxa Arch)	2334	8	9500	1.20	15%	3414
5	Greater Green River	Lance	5500	8	10000	6.60	11%	31541
5	Greater Green River	Lewis	5172	8	9500	1.32	6%	18893
5	Greater Green River	Shallow Mesaverde (1)	5239	4	9750	1.25	8%	12606
5	Greater Green River	Shallow Mesaverde (2)	6814	8	10500	0.67	8%	17874
5	Piceance	Iles/Mesaverde	972	8	8000	0.73	5%	1858
5	Piceance	North Williams Fork/Mesaverde	1008	8	8000	0.65	2%	4278
5	Piceance	South Williams Fork/Mesaverde	1008	32	7000	0.65	9%	22402
5	San Juan	Central Basin/Dakota	3918	6	6500	0.49	7%	15007
5	San Juan	Central Basin/Mesaverde	3689	8	4500	0.72	2%	8737
5	San Juan	Picture Cliffs	6558	4	3500	0.48	2%	4899
5	Uinta	Basin Flank Mesaverde	1708	8	8000	0.99	33%	5767
5	Uinta	Deep Synclinal Mesaverde	2893	8	18000	0.99	2%	3292
5	Uinta	Tertiary East	1600	16	6000	0.58	16%	5910
5	Uinta	Tertiary West	1603	8	6500	4.06	57%	10630
5	Williston	High Potential	2000	4	2300	0.61	4%	2960
5	Williston	Low Potential	3000	4	2500	0.21	1%	1886
5	Williston	Moderate Potential	2000	4	2300	0.33	4%	2071
5	Wind River	Fort Union/Lance Deep	2500	4	14500	0.54	9%	4261
5	Wind River	Fort Union/Lance Shallow	1500	8	11000	1.17	0%	13197
5	Wind River	Mesaverde/Frontier Deep	250	4	17000	1.99	9%	1221
5	Wind River	Mesaverde/Frontier Shallow	250	4	13500	1.25	0%	1037
6	Columbia	Basin Centered	1500	8	13100	1.26	0%	7508

Table 2.C-2. Remaining Technically Recoverable Resources (TRR) – Shale Gas

REGION	BASIN	PLAY	AREA (mi^2)	WELL SPACING	DEPTH (ft)	EUR (bcf/well)	OFFICIAL NO ACCESS	TRR (bcf)
1	Appalachian	Cincinatti Arch	6000	4	1800	0.12	0%	1435
1	Appalachian	Devonian Big Sandy - Active	8675	8	3800	0.32	0%	6490
1	Appalachian	Devonian Big Sandy - Undeveloped	1994	8	3800	0.32	0%	940
1	Appalachian	Devonian Greater Siltstone Area	22914	11	2911	0.20	0%	8463
1	Appalachian	Devonian Low Thermal Maturity	45844	7	3000	0.30	0%	13534
1	Appalachian	Marcellus - Active	10622	8	6750	3.49	0%	177931
1	Appalachian	Marcellus - Undeveloped	84271	8	6750	1.15	0%	232443
1	Illinois	New Albany	1600	8	2750	1.09	0%	10947
1	Michigan	Antrim	12000	7	1400	0.28	0%	20512
2	Black Warrior	Floyd-Neal/Conasauga	2429	2	8000	0.92	0%	4465
2	TX-LA-MS Salt	Haynesville - Active	3574	8	12000	6.48	0%	60615
2	TX-LA-MS Salt	Haynesville - Undeveloped	5426	8	12000	1.50	0%	19408
2	West Gulf Coast	Eagle Ford - Dry	200	4	7000	5.50	0%	4378
2	West Gulf Coast	Eagle Ford - Wet	890	8	7000	2.31	0%	16429
3	Anadarko	Cana Woodford	688	4	13500	3.42	0%	5718
3	Anadarko	Woodford - Central Oklahoma	1800	4	5000	1.01	0%	2946
3	Arkoma	Fayetteville - Central	4000	8	4000	2.29	0%	29505
3	Arkoma	Fayetteville - West	5000	8	4000	1.17	0%	4639
3	Arkoma	Woodford - Western Arkoma	2900	4	9500	4.06	0%	19771
4	Fort Worth	Barnett - Fort Worth Active	2649	5	7500	1.60	0%	15834
4	Fort Worth	Barnett - Fort Worth Undeveloped	477	8	7500	1.20	0%	4094
4	Permian	Barnett - Permian Active	1426	5	7500	1.60	0%	19871
4	Permian	Barnett - Permian Undeveloped	1906	8	7500	1.20	0%	15823
4	Permian	Barnett-Woodford	2691	4	10200	2.99	0%	32152
5	Greater Green River	Hilliard-Baxter-Mancos	16416	8	14750	0.18	0%	3770
5	San Juan	Lewis	7506	3	4500	1.53	0%	11638
5	Uinta	Mancos	6589	8	15250	1.00	0%	21021
5	Williston	Shallow Niobrara	10000	2	1000	0.46	4%	6757

Table 2.C-3. Remaining Technically Recoverable Resources (TRR) – Coalbed Methane

REGION	BASIN	PLAY	AREA (mi^2)	WELL SPACING	DEPTH (ft)	EUR (bcf/well)	OFFICIAL NO ACCESS	TRR (bcf)
1	Appalachian	Central Basin	3870	8	1900	0.18	0%	1709
1	Appalachian	North Appalachia - High	3817	12	1400	0.12	0%	532
1	Appalachian	North Appalachia - Mod/Low	8906	12	1800	0.08	0%	469
1	Illinois	Central Basin	1214	8	1000	0.12	0%	1161
2	Black Warrior	Extention Area	700	8	1900	0.08	0%	931
2	Black Warrior	Main Area	1000	12	1950	0.21	0%	2190
2	Cahaba	Cahaba Coal Field	387	8	3000	0.18	0%	379
3	Midcontinent	Arkoma	2998	8	1500	0.22	0%	3032
3	Midcontinent	Cherokee & Forest City	2750	8	1000	0.06	0%	1308
4	Raton	Southern	386	8	2000	0.37	2%	962
5	Greater Green River	Deep	3600	4	7000	0.60	15%	3879
5	Greater Green River	Shallow	720	8	1500	0.20	20%	1053
5	Piceance	Deep	2000	4	7000	0.60	3%	3677
5	Piceance	Divide Creek	144	8	3800	0.18	13%	194
5	Piceance	Shallow	2000	4	3500	0.30	9%	2230
5	Piceance	White River Dome	216	8	7500	0.41	8%	657
5	Powder River	Big George/Lower Fort Union	2880	16	1100	0.26	1%	5943
5	Powder River	Wasatch	216	8	1100	0.06	1%	92
5	Powder River	Wyodak/Upper Fort Union	3600	20	600	0.14	1%	18859
5	Raton	Northern	470	8	2500	0.35	0%	957
5	Raton	Purgatoire River	360	8	2000	0.31	0%	430
5	San Juan	Fairway NM	670	4	3250	1.14	7%	774
5	San Juan	North Basin	2060	4	3000	0.28	7%	1511
5	San Juan	North Basin CO	780	4	2800	1.51	7%	10474
5	San Juan	South Basin	1190	4	2000	0.20	7%	820
5	San Juan	South Menefee NM	7454	5	2500	0.10	7%	177
5	Uinta	Blackhawk	586	8	3250	0.16	5%	1864
5	Uinta	Ferron	400	8	3000	0.78	11%	1409
5	Uinta	Sego	534	4	3250	0.31	10%	417

3. Offshore Oil and Gas Supply Submodule

Introduction

The Offshore Oil and Gas Supply Submodule (OOGSS) uses a field-based engineering approach to represent the exploration and development of U.S. offshore oil and natural gas resources. The OOGSS simulates the economic decision-making at each stage of development from frontier areas to post-mature areas. Offshore petroleum resources are divided into 3 categories:

- **Undiscovered Fields.** The number, location, and size of the undiscovered fields is based on the Minerals Management Service's (MMS) 2006 hydrocarbon resource assessment.[1] MMS was renamed Bureau of Ocean Energy Management, Regulation and Enforcement (BOEMRE) in 2010.

- **Discovered, Undeveloped Fields.** Any discovery that has been announced but is not currently producing is evaluated in this component of the model. The first production year is an input and is based on announced plans and expectations.

- **Producing Fields.** The fields in this category have wells that have produced oil and/or gas by 2009. The production volumes are from the BOEMRE production database.

Resource and economic calculations are performed at an evaluation unit basis. An evaluation unit is defined as the area within a planning area that falls into a specific water depth category. Planning areas are the Western Gulf of Mexico (GOM), Central GOM, Eastern GOM, Pacific, and Atlantic. There are six water depth categories: 0-200 meters, 200-400 meters, 400-800 meters, 800-1600 meters, 1600-2400 meters, and greater than 2400 meters. The crosswalk between region and evaluation unit is shown in Table 3-1.

Supply curves for crude oil and natural gas are generated for three offshore regions: Pacific, Atlantic, and Gulf of Mexico. Crude oil production includes lease condensate. Natural gas production accounts for both nonassociated gas and associated-dissolved gas. The model is responsive to changes in oil and natural gas prices, royalty relief assumptions, oil and natural gas resource base, and technological improvements affecting exploration and development.

Undiscovered Fields Component

Significant undiscovered oil and gas resources are estimated to exist in the Outer Continental Shelf, particularly in the Gulf of Mexico. Exploration and development of these resources is projected in this component of the OOGSS.

Within each evaluation unit, a field size distribution is assumed based on BOEMRE's latest[1] resource assessment (Table 3-2). The volume of resource in barrels of oil equivalence by field size class as defined by the BOEMRE is shown in Table 3-3. In the OOGSS, the mean estimate represents the size of each field in the field size class. Water depth and field size class are used for specifying many of the technology assumptions in the OOGSS. Fields smaller than field size class 2 are assumed to be uneconomic to develop.

[1]U.S. Department of Interior, Minerals Management Service, *Report to Congress: Comprehensive Inventory of U.S.OCS Oil and Natural Gas Resources*, February 2006.

Table 3-1. Offshore Region and Evaluation Unit Crosswalk

No.	Region Name	Planning Area	Water Depth (meters)	Drilling Depth (feet)	Evaluation Unit Name	Region ID
1	Shallow GOM	Western GOM	0 - 200	< 15,000	WGOM0002	3
2	Shallow GOM	Western GOM	0 - 200	> 15,000	WGOMDG02	3
3	Deep GOM	Western GOM	201 - 400	All	WGOM0204	4
4	Deep GOM	Western GOM	401 - 800	All	WGOM0408	4
5	Deep GOM	Western GOM	801 - 1,600	All	WGOM0816	4
6	Deep GOM	Western GOM	1,601 - 2,400	All	WGOM1624	4
7	Deep GOM	Western GOM	> 2,400	All	WGOM2400	4
8	Shallow GOM	Central GOM	0 - 200	< 15,000	CGOM0002	3
9	Shallow GOM	Central GOM	0 - 200	> 15,000	CGOMDG02	3
10	Deep GOM	Central GOM	201 - 400	All	CGOM0204	4
11	Deep GOM	Central GOM	401 - 800	All	CGOM0408	4
12	Deep GOM	Central GOM	801 - 1,600	All	CGOM0816	4
13	Deep GOM	Central GOM	1,601 – 2,400	All	CGOM1624	4
14	Deep GOM	Central GOM	> 2,400	All	CGOM2400	4
15	Shallow GOM	Eastern GOM	0 - 200	All	EGOM0002	3
16	Deep GOM	Eastern GOM	201 - 400	All	EGOM0204	4
17	Deep GOM	Central GOM	401 - 800	All	EGOM0408	4
18	Deep GOM	Eastern GOM	801 - 1600	All	EGOM0816	4
19	Deep GOM	Eastern GOM	1601 - 2400	All	EGOM1624	4
20	Deep GOM	Eastern GOM	> 2400	All	EGOM2400	4
21	Deep GOM	Eastern GOM	> 200	All	EGOML181	4
22	Atlantic	North Atlantic	0 - 200	All	NATL0002	1
23	Atlantic	North Atlantic	201 - 800	All	NATL0208	1
24	Atlantic	North Atlantic	> 800	All	NATL0800	1
25	Atlantic	Mid Atlantic	0 - 200	All	MATL0002	1
26	Atlantic	Mid Atlantic	201 - 800	All	MATL0208	1
27	Atlantic	Mid Atlantic	> 800	All	MATL0800	1
28	Atlantic	South Atlantic	0 - 200	All	SATL0002	1
29	Atlantic	South Atlantic	201 - 800	All	SATL0208	1
30	Atlantic	South Atlantic	> 800	All	SATL0800	1
31	Atlantic	Florida Straits	0 – 200	All	FLST0002	1
32	Atlantic	Florida Straits	201 - 800	All	FLST0208	1
33	Atlantic	Florida Straits	> 800	All	FLST0800	1
34	Pacific	Pacific Northwest	0-200	All	PNW0002	2
35	Pacific	Pacific Northwest	201-800	All	PNW0208	2
36	Pacific	North California	0-200	All	NCA0002	2
37	Pacific	North California	201-800	All	NCA0208	2
38	Pacific	North California	801-1600	All	NCA0816	2
39	Pacific	North California	1600-2400	All	NCA1624	2
40	Pacific	Central California	0-200	All	CCA0002	2
41	Pacific	Central California	201-800	All	CCA0208	2
42	Pacific	Central California	801-1600	All	CCA0816	2
43	Pacific	South California	0-200	All	SCA0002	2
44	Pacific	South California	201-800	All	SCA0208	2
45	Pacific	South California	801-1600	All	SCA0816	2
46	Pacific	South California	1601-2400	All	SCA1624	2

Source: U.S. Energy Information Administration, Energy Analysis, Office of Petroleum, Gas, and Biofuels Analysis

Table 3-2. Number of Undiscovered Fields by Evaluation Unit and Field Size Class, as of January 1, 2003

Evaluation Unit	Field Size Class (FSC)																Number of Fields	Total Resource (BBOE)
	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17		
WGOM0002	1	5	11	14	20	23	24	27	30	8	6	8	2	0	0	0	179	4.348
WGOMDG02	0	0	2	4	5	6	8	9	9	3	2	2	1	0	0	0	51	1.435
WGOM0204	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	3	3	4	2	1	1	0	0	0	16	1.027
WGOM0408	0	0	0	0	0	1	3	3	7	7	3	2	1	0	0	0	27	1.533
WGOM0816	0	0	0	0	0	0	4	7	16	16	15	9	3	2	1	0	73	8.082
WGOM1624	0	0	0	1	2	6	10	14	18	18	14	10	6	4	1	0	104	10.945
WGOM2400	0	0	0	0	2	3	3	6	7	6	5	3	3	2	0	0	40	4.017
CGOM0002	1	1	6	11	28	52	79	103	81	53	20	1	0	0	0	0	436	8.063
CGOMDG02	0	0	1	1	4	4	4	6	7	6	5	3	1	0	0	0	42	3.406
CGOM0204	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	2	3	2	2	2	1	0	0	0	13	1.102
CGOM0408	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	4	4	4	1	1	1	1	0	0	18	1.660
CGOM0816	0	0	0	0	2	4	8	11	20	22	19	14	7	3	1	0	111	11.973
CGOM1624	0	0	0	1	2	5	9	15	18	19	15	13	8	4	1	0	110	12.371
CGOM2400	0	0	0	0	2	2	3	5	5	5	5	4	3	2	0	0	36	4.094
EGOM0002	4	6	7	11	16	18	18	16	13	10	6	1	0	0	0	0	126	1.843
EGOM0204	0	1	1	2	3	4	4	3	1	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	21	0.233
EGOM0408	0	1	2	3	5	5	5	4	3	2	1	0	0	0	0	0	31	0.348
EGOM0816	0	1	1	3	4	4	4	3	3	2	1	0	0	0	0	0	26	0.326
EGOM1624	0	0	0	0	2	1	1	1	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	7	0.250
EGOM2400	0	0	0	1	1	3	5	7	8	9	7	6	3	2	0	0	52	4.922
EGOML181	0	0	0	0	1	3	3	5	8	5	4	2	2	1	1	0	35	1.836
NATL0002	5	7	10	14	16	17	15	11	10	8	3	2	1	0	0	0	119	1.896
NATL0208	1	1	1	2	2	3	3	3	2	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	20	0.246
NATL0800	1	2	3	5	7	10	13	12	7	6	4	1	0	0	0	0	71	1.229
MATL0002	4	6	8	12	13	14	13	11	8	7	5	2	0	0	0	0	103	1.585
MATL0208	1	1	2	3	3	3	3	4	2	2	2	2	0	0	0	0	28	0.377
MATL0800	2	4	5	8	9	10	10	8	5	5	3	2	0	0	0	0	71	1.173
SATL0002	1	2	2	3	5	6	5	5	4	4	1	1	0	0	0	0	39	0.658
SATL0208	4	5	7	10	12	13	12	10	8	7	3	2	0	0	0	0	93	1.382
SATL0800	2	2	4	5	9	15	20	17	11	7	2	1	1	0	0	0	96	1.854
FLST0002	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0.012
FLST0208	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	0.009
FLST0800	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0.000
PNW0002	10	17	24	29	27	21	13	8	5	2	1	0	0	0	0	0	157	0.597
PNW0208	4	6	9	10	11	7	6	3	2	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	59	0.209
NCA0002	1	2	3	5	5	5	5	4	3	3	2	0	0	0	0	0	38	0.485
NCA0208	9	17	24	28	26	22	15	10	5	3	1	1	0	0	0	0	161	0.859
NCA0816	3	6	9	12	12	11	9	7	4	3	2	1	0	0	0	0	79	0.784
NCA1624	1	2	3	5	6	6	7	6	4	2	1	1	0	0	0	0	44	0.595
CCA0002	1	4	6	11	15	19	20	17	12	8	4	2	0	0	0	0	119	1.758
CCA0208	1	2	3	5	8	10	10	8	7	5	2	0	0	0	0	0	61	0.761
CCA0816	0	1	1	2	3	4	5	3	2	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	23	0.218
SCA0002	1	2	4	10	16	21	22	19	12	6	2	1	0	0	0	0	116	1.348
SCA0208	3	6	12	25	38	49	51	43	28	14	5	3	1	0	0	0	278	3.655
SCA0816	1	3	6	9	13	17	18	15	12	8	2	2	1	0	0	0	107	1.906
SCA1624	0	1	2	3	4	5	5	5	4	3	1	1	0	0	0	0	34	0.608

Source: U.S. Energy Information Administration, Energy Analysis, Office of Petroleum, Gas, and Biofuels Analysis

Table 3-3. BOEMRE Field Size Definition (MMBOE)

Field Size Class	Mean
2	0.083
3	0.188
4	0.356
5	0.743
6	1.412
7	2.892
8	5.919
9	11.624
10	22.922
11	44.768
12	89.314
13	182.144
14	371.727
15	690.571
16	1418.883
17	2954.129

Source: Bureau of Ocean Energy Management, Regulation, and Enforcement

Projection of Discoveries

The number and size of discoveries is projected based on a simple model developed by J. J. Arps and T. G. Roberts in 1958[2]. For a given evaluation unit in the OOGSS, the number of cumulative discoveries for each field size class is determined by

$$\text{DiscoveredFields}_{\text{EU,iFSC}} = \text{TotalFields}_{\text{EU,iFSC}} * (1 - e^{\gamma_{\text{EU,iFSC}} * \text{CumNFW}_{\text{EU}}}) \tag{3-1}$$

where,

TotalFields	=	Total number of fields by evaluation unit and field size class
CumNFW	=	Cumulative new field wildcats drilled in an evaluation unit
γ	=	search coefficient
EU	=	evaluation unit
iFSC	=	field size class.

The search coefficient (γ) was chosen to make the Equation 3-1 fit the data. In many cases, however, the sparse exploratory activity in an evaluation unit made fitting the discovery model problematic. To provide reasonable estimates of the search coefficient in every evaluation unit, the data in various field size classes within a region were grouped as needed to obtain enough data points to provide a reasonable fit to the discovery model. A polynomial was fit to all of the relative search coefficients in the region. The polynomial was fit to the resulting search coefficients as follows:

[2]Arps, J. J. and T. G. Roberts, *Economics of Drilling for Cretaceous Oil on the East Flank of the Denver-Julesburg Basin*, Bulletin of the American Association of Petroleum Geologists, November 1958.

$$\gamma_{\text{EU,iFSC}} = \beta 1 * \text{iFSC}^2 + \beta 2 * \text{iFSC} + \beta 3 * \gamma_{\text{EU,10}} \tag{3-2}$$

where

β1	=	0.0243 for Western GOM and 0.0399 for Central and Eastern GOM
β2	=	-0.3525 for Western GOM and -0.6222 for Central and Eastern GOM
β3	=	1.5326 for Western GOM and 2.2477 for Central and 3.0477 for Eastern GOM
iFSC	=	field size class
γ	=	search coefficient for field size class 10.

Cumulative new field wildcat drilling is determined by

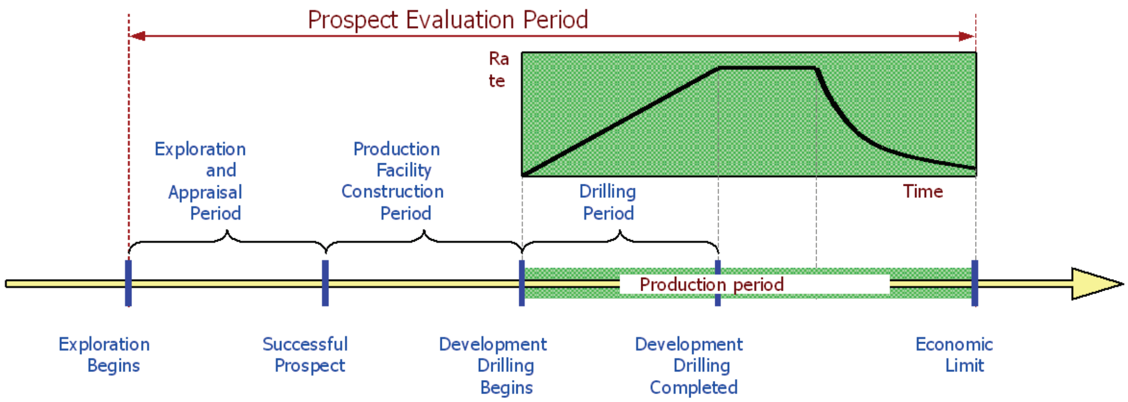
$$\text{CumNFW}_{\text{EU,t}} = \text{CumNFW}_{\text{EU,t-1}} + \alpha 1_{\text{EU}} + \beta_{\text{EU}} * (\text{OILPRICE}_{\text{t-nlag1}} * \text{GASPRICE}_{\text{t-nlag2}}) \tag{3-3}$$

where

OILPRICE	=	oil wellhead price
GASPRICE	=	natural gas wellhead price
α1, β	=	estimated parameter
nlag1	=	number of years lagged for oil price
nlag2	=	number of years lagged for gas price
EU	=	evaluation unit

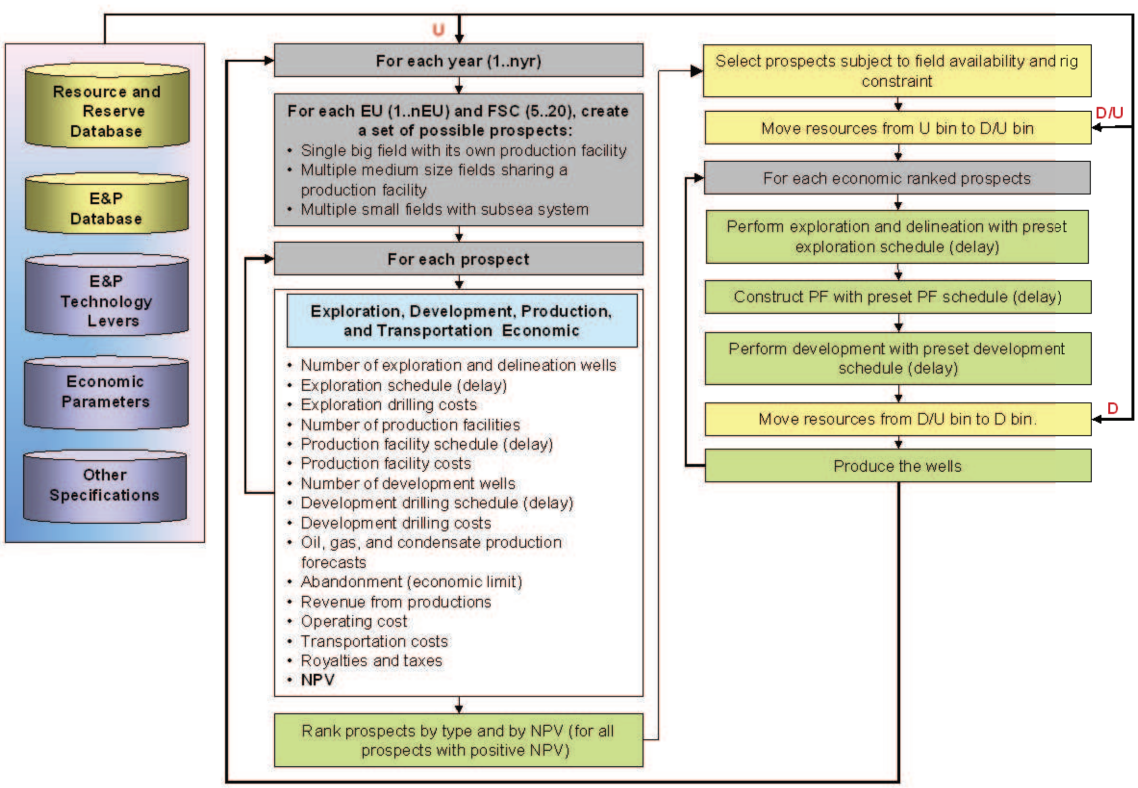
The decision for exploration and development of the discoveries determine from Equation 3-1 is performed at a prospect level that could involve more than one field. A prospect is defined as a potential project that covers exploration, appraisal, production facility construction, development, production, and transportation (Figure 3-1). There are three types of prospects: (1) a single field with its own production facility, (2) multiple medium size fields sharing a production facility, and (3) multiple small fields utilizing nearby production facility. The net present value (NPV) of each possible prospect is generated using the calculated exploration costs, production facility costs, development costs, completion costs, operating costs, flowline costs, transportation costs, royalties, taxes, and production revenues. Delays for exploration, production facility construction, and development are incorporated in this NPV calculation. The possible prospects are then ranked from best (highest NPV) to worst (lowest NPV). The best prospects are selected subject to field availability and rig constraint. The basic flowchart is presented in Figure 3-2.

Figure 3-1. Prospect Exploration, Development, and Production Schedule



Source: ICF Consulting

Figure 3-2. Flowchart for the Undiscovered Field Component of the OOGSS



Note: U = Undiscovered, D/U = Discovered/Undeveloped, D=Developed
Source: ICF Consulting

Calculation of Costs

The technology employed in the deepwater offshore areas to find and develop hydrocarbons can be significantly different than that used in shallower waters, and represents significant challenges for the companies and individuals involved in the deepwater development projects. In many situations in the deepwater OCS, the choice of technology used in a particular situation depends on the size of the prospect being developed. The following base costs are adjusted with the oil price to capture the variation in costs over time as activity level and demand for equipment and other supplies change. The adjustment factor is [1 + (oilprice/baseprice – 1)*0.4], where baseprice = $30/barrel.

Exploration Drilling

During the exploration phase of an offshore project, the type of drilling rig used depends on both economic and technical criteria. Offshore exploratory drilling usually is done using self-contained rigs that can be moved easily. Three types of drilling rigs are incorporated into the OOGSS. The exploration drilling costs per well for each rig type are a function of water depth (WD) and well drilling depth (DD), both in feet.

Jack-up rigs are limited to a water depth of about 600 feet or less. Jack-ups are towed to their location where heavy machinery is used to jack the legs down into the water until they rest on the ocean floor. When this is completed, the platform containing the work area rises above the water. After the platform has risen about 50 feet out of the water, the rig is ready to begin drilling.

$$\text{ExplorationDrillingCosts(\$/well)} = 2{,}000{,}000 + (5.0\text{E-}09)*WD*DD^3 \qquad (3\text{-}4)$$

Semi-submersible rigs are floating structures that employ large engines to position the rig over the hole dynamically. This extends the maximum operating depth greatly, and some of these rigs can be used in water depths up to and beyond 3,000 feet. The shape of a semisubmersible rig tends to dampen wave motion greatly regardless of wave direction. This allows its use in areas where wave action is severe.

$$\text{ExplorationDrillingCosts(\$/well)} = 2{,}500{,}000 + 200*(WD+DD) + WD*(400+(2.0\text{E-}05)*DD^2) \qquad (3\text{-}5)$$

Dynamically positioned drill ships are a second type of floating vessel used in offshore drilling. They are usually used in water depths exceeding 3,000 feet where the semi-submersible type of drilling rigs can not be deployed. Some of the drillships are designed with the rig equipment and anchoring system mounted on a central turret. The ship is rotated about the central turret using thrusters so that the ship always faces incoming waves. This helps to dampen wave motion.

$$\text{ExplorationDrillingCosts(\$/well)} = 7{,}000{,}000 + (1.0\text{E-}05)*WD*DD^2 \qquad (3\text{-}6)$$

Water depth is the primary criterion for selecting a drilling rig. Drilling in shallow waters (up to 1,500 feet) can be done with jack-up rigs. Drilling in deeper water (greater than 1,500 feet) can be done with semi-submersible drilling rigs or drill ships. The number of rigs available for exploration is limited and varies by water depth levels. Drilling rigs are allowed to move one water depth level lower if needed.

Production and Development Structure

Six different options for development/production of offshore prospects are currently assumed in OOGSS, based on those currently considered and/or employed by operators in Gulf of Mexico OCS. These are the conventional fixed platforms, the compliant towers, tension leg platforms, Spar platforms, floating production systems and subsea satellite well systems. Choice of platform tends to be a function of the size of field and water depth, though in reality other operational, environmental, and/or economic decisions influence the choice. Production facility costs are a function of water depth (WD) and number of slots per structure (SLT).

Conventional Fixed Platform (FP). A fixed platform consists of a jacket with a deck placed on top, providing space for crew quarters, drilling rigs, and production facilities. The jacket is a tall vertical section made of tubular steel members supported by piles driven into the seabed. The fixed platform is economical for installation in water depths up to 1,200 feet. Although advances in engineering design and materials have been made, these structures are not economically feasible in deeper waters.

$$\text{StructureCost}(\$) = 2{,}000{,}000 + 9{,}000 * \text{SLT} + 1{,}500 * \text{WD} * \text{SLT} + 40 * \text{WD}^2 \tag{3-7}$$

Compliant Towers (CT). The compliant tower is a narrow, flexible tower type of platform that is supported by a piled foundation. Its stability is maintained by a series of guy wires radiating from the ower and terminating on pile or gravity anchors on the sea floor. The compliant tower can withstand significant forces while sustaining lateral deflections, and is suitable for use in water depths of 1,200 to 3,000 feet. A single tower can accommodate up to 60 wells; however, the compliant tower is constrained by limited deck loading capacity and no oil storage capacity.

$$\text{StructureCost}(\$) = (\text{SLT} + 30) * (1{,}500{,}000 + 2{,}000 * (\text{WD} - 1{,}000)) \tag{3-8}$$

Tension Leg Platform (TLP). The tension leg platform is a type of semi-submersible structure which is attached to the sea bed by tubular steel mooring lines. The natural buoyancy of the platform creates an upward force which keeps the mooring lines under tension and helps maintain vertical stability. This type of platform becomes a viable alternative at water depths of 1,500 feet and is considered to be the dominant system at water depths greater than 2,000 feet. Further, the costs of the TLP are relatively insensitive to water depth. The primary advantages of the TLP are its applicability in ultra-deepwaters, an adequate deck loading capacity, and some oil storage capacity. In addition, the field production time lag for this system is only about 3 years.

$$\text{StructureCost}(\$) = (\text{SLT} + 30) * (3{,}000{,}000 + 750 * (\text{WD} - 1{,}000)) \tag{3-9}$$

Floating Production System (FPS). The floating production system, a buoyant structure, consists of a semi-submersible or converted tanker with drilling and production equipment anchored in place with wire rope and chain to allow for vertical motion. Because of the movement of this structure in severe environments, the weather-related production downtime is estimated to be about 10 percent. These structures can only accommodate a maximum of approximately 25 wells. The wells are completed subsea on the ocean floor and are connected to the production deck through a riser system designed to accommodate platform motion. This system is suitable for marginally economic fields in water depths up to 4,000 feet.

$$\text{StructureCost(\$)} = (\text{SLT} + 20) * (7{,}500{,}000 + 250 * (\text{WD} - 1{,}000)) \quad (3\text{-}10)$$

Spar Platform (SPAR). A Spar Platform consists of a large diameter single vertical cylinder supporting a deck. It has a typical fixed platform topside (surface deck with drilling and production equipment), three types of risers (production, drilling, and export), and a hull which is moored using a taut caternary system of 6 to 20 lines anchored into the seafloor. Spar platforms are presently used in water depths up to 3,000 feet, although existing technology is believed to be able to extend this to about 10,000 feet.

$$\text{StructureCost(\$)} = (\text{SLT} + 20) * (3{,}000{,}000 + 500 * (\text{WD} - 1{,}000)) \quad (3\text{-}11)$$

Subsea Wells System (SS). Subsea systems range from a single subsea well tied back to a nearby production platform (such as FPS or TLP) to a set of multiple wells producing through a common subsea manifold and pipeline system to a distant production facility. These systems can be used in water depths up to at least 7,000 feet. Since the cost to complete a well is included in the development well drilling and completion costs, no cost is assumed for the subsea well system. However, a subsea template is required for all development wells producing to any structure other than a fixed platform.

$$\text{SubseaTemplateCost(\$ / well)} = 2{,}500{,}000 \quad (3\text{-}12)$$

The type of production facility for development and production depends on water depth level as shown in Table 3-4.

Table 3-4. Production Facility by Water Depth Level

Water Depth Range (feet)		Production Facility Type					
Minimum	Maximum	FP	CT	TLP	FPS	SPAR	SS
0	656	X					X
656	2625		X				X
2625	5249			X			X
5249	7874				X	X	X
7874	10000				X	X	X

Source: ICF Consulting

Development Drilling

Pre-drilling of development wells during the platform construction phase is done using the drilling rig employed for exploration drilling. Development wells drilled after installation of the platform which also serves as the development structure is done using the platform itself. Hence, the choice of drilling rig for development drilling is tied to the choice of the production platform.

For water depths less than or equal to 900 meters,

$$\begin{aligned} \text{DevelopmentDrillingCost}(\$ / \text{well}) = {} & 1{,}500{,}000 + (1{,}500 + 0.04 * \text{DD}) * \text{WD} \\ & +(0.035 * \text{DD} - 300) * \text{DD} \end{aligned} \tag{3-13}$$

For water depths greater tan 900 meters,

$$\begin{aligned} \text{DevelopmentDrillingCost}(\$ / \text{well}) = {} & 4{,}500{,}000 + (150 + 0.004 * \text{DD}) * \text{WD} \\ & +(0.035 * \text{DD} - 250) * \text{DD} \end{aligned} \tag{3-14}$$

where

WD = water depth in feet
DD = drilling depth in feet.

Completion and Operating

Completion costs per well are a function of water depth range and drilling depth as shown in Table 3-5.

Table 3-5. Well Completion and Equipment Costs per Well

Water Depth (feet)	Development Drilling Depth (feet)		
	< 10,000	10,001 - 20,000	> 20,000
0 - 3,000	800,000	2,100,000	3,300,000
> 3,000	1,900,000	2,700,000	3,300,000

Platform operating costs for all types of structures are assumed to be a function of water depth (WD) and the number of slots (SLT). These costs include the following items:

- primary oil and gas production costs,
- labor,
- communications and safety equipment,
- supplies and catering services,
- routine process and structural maintenance,
- well service and workovers,
- insurance on facilities, and
- transportation of personnel and supplies.

Annual operating costs are estimated by

$$\text{OperatingCost}(\$ / \text{structure} / \text{year}) = 1{,}265{,}000 + 135{,}000 * \text{SLT} + 0.0588 * \text{SLT} * \text{WD}^2 \qquad (3\text{-}15)$$

Transportation

It is assumed in the model that existing trunk pipelines will be used and that the prospect economics must support only the gathering system design and installation. However, in case of small fields tied back to some existing neighboring production platform, a pipeline is assumed to be required to transport the crude oil and natural gas to the neighboring platform.

Structure and Facility Abandonment

The costs to abandon the development structure and production facilities depend on the type of production technology used. The model projects abandonment costs for fixed platforms and compliant towers assuming that the structure is abandoned. It projects costs for tension leg platforms, converted semi-submersibles, and converted tankers assuming that the structures are removed for transport to another location for reinstallation. These costs are treated as intangible capital investments and are expensed in the year following cessation of production. Based on historical data, these costs are estimated as a fraction of the initial structure costs, as follows:

	Fraction of Initial Platform Cost
Fixed Platform	0.45
Compliant Tower	0.45
Tension Leg Platform	0.45
Floating Production Systems	0.15
Spar Platform	0.15

Exploration, Development, and Production Scheduling

The typical offshore project development consists of the following phases:[3]

- Exploration phase,
    - Exploration drilling program
    - Delineation drilling program
- Development phase,
- Fabrication and installation of the development/production platform,
    - Development drilling program
    - Pre-drilling during construction of platform
    - Drilling from platform
    - Construction of gathering system
- Production operations, and
- Field abandonment.

[3] The pre-development activities, including early field evaluation using conventional geological and geophysical methods and the acquisition of the right to explore the field, are assumed to be completed before initiation of the development of the prospect.

The timing of each activity, relative to the overall project life and to other activities, affects the potential economic viability of the undiscovered prospect. The modeling objective is to develop an exploration, development, and production plan which both realistically portrays existing and/or anticipated offshore practices and also allows for the most economical development of the field. A description of each of the phases is provided below.

Exploration Phase

An undiscovered field is assumed to be discovered by a successful exploration well (i.e., a new field wildcat). Delineation wells are then drilled to define the vertical and areal extent of the reservoir.

Exploration drilling. The exploration success rate (ratio of the number of field discovery wells to total wildcat wells) is used to establish the number of exploration wells required to discover a field as follows:

number of exploratory wells = 1/ [exploration success rate]

For example, a 25 percent exploration success rate will require four exploratory wells: one of the four wildcat wells drilled finds the field and the other three are dry holes.

Delineation drilling. Exploratory drilling is followed by delineation drilling for field appraisal (1 to 4 wells depending on the size of the field). The delineation wells define the field location vertically and horizontally so that the development structures and wells may be set in optimal positions. All delineation wells are converted to production wells at the end of the production facility construction.

Development Phase

During this phase of an offshore project, the development structures are designed, fabricated, and installed; the development wells (successful and dry) are drilled and completed; and the product transportation/gathering system is installed.

Development structures. The model assumes that the design and construction of any development structure begins in the year following completion of the exploration and delineation drilling program. However, the length of time required to complete the construction and installation of these structures depends on the type of system used. The required time for construction and installation of the various development structures used in the model is shown in Table 3-6. This time lag is important in all offshore developments, but it is especially critical for fields in deepwater and for marginally economic fields.

Development drilling schedule. The number of development wells varies by water depth and field size class as follows.

$$\text{DevelopmentWells} = \frac{5}{\text{FSC}} * \text{FSIZE}^{\beta_{\text{DepthClass}}} \tag{3-16}$$

where

FSC = field size class
FSIZE = resource volume (MMBOE)

β = 0.8 for water depths < 200 meters; 0.7 for water depths 200-800 meters; 0.65 for water depths > 800 meters.

Table 3-6. Production Facility Design, Fabrication, and Installation Period (Years)

PLATFORMS	Water Depth (Feet)														
Number of Slots	**0**	**100**	**400**	**800**	**1000**	**1500**	**2000**	**3000**	**4000**	**5000**	**6000**	**7000**	**8000**	**9000**	**10000**
2	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	2	2	3	3	4	4	4
8	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	3	3	4	4	4
12	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	3	3	4	4	4
18	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	3	3	3	4	4	4
24	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	3	3	4	4	4	5
36	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	3	3	4	4	4	5
48	2	2	2	2	2	2	3	3	3	3	4	4	4	4	5
60	2	2	2	2	2	2	3	3	3	3	4	4	4	4	5
OTHERS															
SS	1	1	1	1	1	1	2	2	2	3	3	3	4	4	4
FPS								3	3	3	4	4	4	4	5

Source: ICF Consulting

The development drilling schedule is determined based on the assumed drilling capacity (maximum number of wells that could be drilled in a year). This drilling capacity varies by type of production facility and water depth. For a platform type production facility (FP, CT, or TLP), the development drilling capacity is also a function of the number of slots. The assumed drilling capacity by production facility type is shown in Table 3-7.

Production transportation/gathering system. It is assumed in the model that the installation of the gathering systems occurs during the first year of construction of the development structure and is completed within 1 year.

Production Operations

Production operations begin in the year after the construction of the structure is complete. The life of the production depends on the field size, water depth, and development strategy. First production is from delineation wells that were converted to production wells. Development drilling starts at the end of the production facility construction period.

Table 3-7. Development Drilling Capacity by Production Facility Type

Maximum Number of Wells Drilled (wells/platform/year, 1 rig)	
Drilling Depth (feet)	**Drilling Capacity (24 slots)**
0	24
6000	24
7000	24
8000	20
9000	20
10000	20
11000	20
12000	16
13000	16
14000	12
15000	8
16000	4
17000	2
18000	2
19000	2
20000	2
30000	2

Maximum Number of Wells Drilled (wells/field/year)			
Water Depth (feet)	**SS**	**FPS**	**FPSO**
0	4	[redacted]	4
1000	4	[redacted]	4
2000	4	[redacted]	4
3000	4	4	4
4000	4	4	4
5000	3	3	3
6000	2	2	2
7000	2	2	2
8000	1	1	1
9000	1	1	1
10000	1	1	1

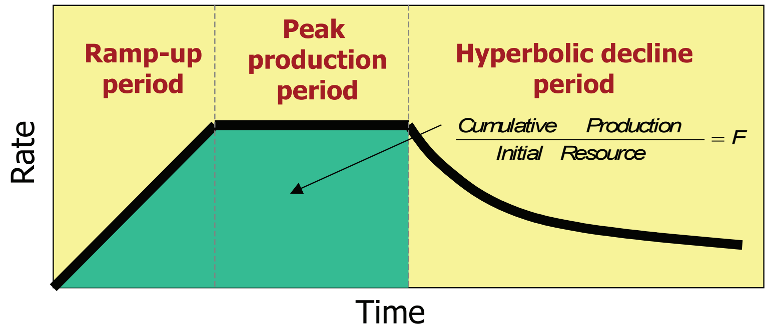
Source: ICF Consulting

Production profiles

The original hydrocarbon resource (in BOE) is divided between oil and natural gas using a user specified proportion. Due to the development drilling schedule, not all wells in the same field will produce at the same time. This yields a ramp-up profile in the early production period (Figure 3-3). The initial production rate is the same for all wells in the field and is constant for a period of time. Field production reaches its peak when all the wells have been drilled and start producing. The production will start to decline (at a user specified rate) when the ratio of cumulative production to initial resource equals a user specified fraction.

Gas (plus lease condensate) production is calculated based on gas resource, and oil (plus associated gas) production is calculated based on the oil resource. Lease condensate production is separated from the gas production using the user specified condensate yield. Likewise, associated-dissolved gas production is separated from the oil production using the user specified associated gas-to-oil ratio. Associated-dissolved gas production is then tracked separately from the nonassociated gas production throughout the projection. Lease condensate production is added to crude oil production and is not tracked separately.

Figure 3-3. Undiscovered Field Production Profile



Source: ICF Consulting

Field Abandonment

All wells in a field are assumed to be shut-in when the net revenue from the field is less than total State and Federal taxes. Net revenue is total revenue from production less royalties, operating costs, transportation costs, and severance taxes.

Discovered Undeveloped Fields Component

Announced discoveries that have not been brought into production by 2002 are included in this component of the OOGSS. The data required for these fields include location, field size class, gas percentage of BOE resource, condensate yield, gas to oil ratio, start year of production, initial production rate, fraction produced before decline, and hyperbolic decline parameters. The BOE resource for each field corresponds to the field size class as specified in Table 3-3.

The number of development wells is the same as that of an undiscovered field in the same water depth and of the same field size class (Equation 3-13). The production profile is also the same as that of an undiscovered field (Figure 3-3).

The assumed field size and year of initial production of the major announced deepwater discoveries that were not brought into production by 2009 are shown in Table 3-8. A field that is announced as an oil field is assumed to be 100 percent oil and a field that is announced as a gas field is assumed to be 100 percent gas. If a field is expected to produce both oil and gas, 70 percent is assumed to be oil and 30 percent is assumed to be gas.

Producing Fields Component

A separate database is used to track currently producing fields. The data required for each producing field include location, field size class, field type (oil or gas), total recoverable resources, historical production (1990-2002), and hyperbolic decline parameters.

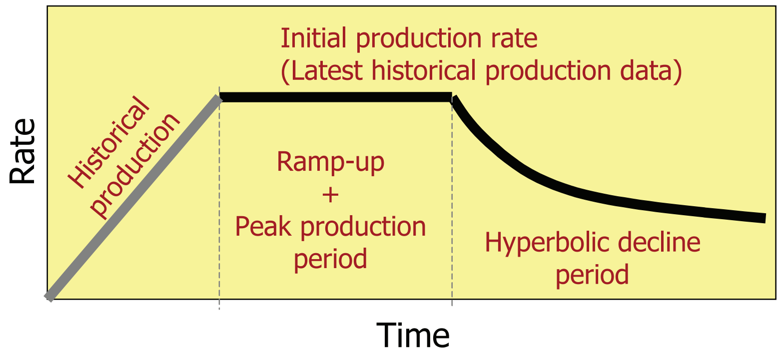
Projected production from the currently producing fields will continue to decline if, historically, production from the field is declining (Figure 3-4). Otherwise, production is held constant for a period of time equal to the sum of the specified number ramp-up years and number of years at peak production after which it will decline (Figure 3-5). The model assumes that production will decline according to a hyperbolic decline curve until the economic limit is achieved and the field is abandoned. Typical production profile data are shown in Table 3-9. Associated-dissolved gas and lease condensate production are determined the same way as in the undiscovered field component.

Table 3-8. Assumed Size and Initial Production Year of Major Announced Deepwater Discoveries

Field/Project Name	Block	Water Depth (feet)	Year of Discovery	Field Size Class	Field Size (MMBoe)	Start Year of Production
Great White	AC857	8717	2002	14	372	2010
Telemark	AT063	4457	2000	12	89	2010
Ozona	GB515	3000	2008	12	89	2011
West Tonga	GC726	4674	2007	12	89	2011
Gladden	MC800	3116	2008	12	89	2011
Pony	GC468	3497	2006	13	182	2013
Knotty Head	GC512	3557	2005	15	691	2013
Puma	GC823	4129	2003	14	372	2013
Big Foot	WR029	5235	2005	12	89	2013
Cascade	WR206	8143	2002	14	372	2013
Chinook	WR469	8831	2003	14	372	2013
Pyrenees	GB293	2100	2009	12	89	2014
Kaskida	KC292	5860	2006	15	691	2014
Appaloosa	MC503	2805	2008	14	372	2014
Jack	WR759	6963	2004	14	372	2014
Samurai	GC432	3400	2009	12	89	2015
Wide Berth	GC490	3700	2009	12	89	2015
Manny	MC199	2478	2010	13	182	2015
Kodiak	MC771	4986	2008	15	691	2015
St. Malo	WR678	7036	2003	14	372	2015
Mission Deep	GC955	7300	2006	13	182	2016
Tiber	KC102	4132	2009	16	1419	2016
Vito	MC984	4038	2009	13	182	2016
Stones	WR508	9556	2005	12	89	2016
Heidelberg	GB859	5000	2009	13	182	2017
Freedom	MC948	6095	2008	15	691	2017
Shenandoah	WR052	5750	2009	13	182	2017
Buckskin	KC872	6920	2009	13	182	2018
Julia	WR627	7087	2007	12	89	2018
Vicksburg	DC353	7457	2009	14	372	2019
Lucius	KC875	7168	2009	13	182	2019

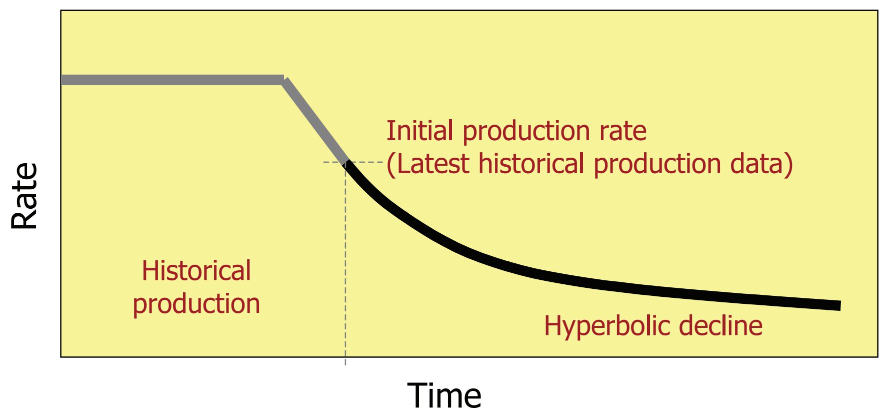
Source: U.S. Energy Information Administration, Energy Analysis, Office of Petroleum, Gas, and Biofuels Analysis

Figure 3-4. Production Profile for Producing Fields - Constant Production Case



Source: ICF Consulting

Figure 3-5. Production Profile for Producing Fields - Declining Production Case



Source: ICF Consulting

Table 3-9. Production Profile Data for Oil & Gas Producing Fields

	Crude Oil						Natural Gas					
	FSC 2 - 10			FSC 11 – 17			FSC 2 - 10			FSC 11 - 17		
Region	Ramp-up (years)	At Peak (years)	Initial Decline Rate	Ramp-up (years)	At Peak (years)	Initial Decline Rate	Ramp-up (years)	At Peak (years)	Initial Decline Rate	Ramp-up (years)	At Peak (years)	Initial Decline Rate
Shallow GOM	2	2	0.15	3	3	0.10	2	1	0.20	3	2	0.10
Deep GOM	2	2	0.20	2	3	0.15	2	2	0.25	3	2	0.20
Atlantic	2	2	0.20	3	3	0.20	2	1	0.25	3	2	0.20
Pacific	2	2	0.10	3	2	0.10	2	1	0.20	3	2	0.20

FSC = Field Size Class
Source: ICF Consulting

Generation of Supply Curves

As mentioned earlier, the OOGSS does not determine the actual volume of crude oil and nonassociated natural gas produced in a given projection year but rather provides the parameters for the short-term supply functions used to determine regional supply and demand market equilibration. For each year, t, and offshore region, r, the OGSM calculates the stock of proved reserves at the beginning of year t+1 and the expected production-to-reserves (PR) ratio for year t+1 as follows.

The volume of proved reserves in any year is calculated as

$$RESOFF_{r,k,t+1} = RESOFF_{r,k,t} - PRDOFF_{r,k,t} + NRDOFF_{r,k,t} + REVOFF_{r,k,t} \quad (3\text{-}17)$$

where

RESOFF	=	beginning- of-year reserves
PRDOFF	=	production
NRDOFF	=	new reserve discoveries
REVOFF	=	reserve extensions, revisions, and adjustments
r	=	region (1=Atlantic, 2=Pacific, 3=GOM)
k	=	fuel type (1=oil; 2=nonassociated gas)
t	=	year.

Expected production, EXPRDOFF, is the sum of the field level production determined in the undiscovered fields component, the discovered, undeveloped fields component, and the producing field component. The volume of crude oil production (including lease condensate), PRDOFF, passed to the PMM is equal to EXPRDOFF. Nonassociated natural gas production in year t is the market equilibrated volume passed to the OGSM from the NGTDM.

Reserves are added through new field discoveries as well as delineation and developmental drilling. Each newly discovered field not only adds proved reserves but also a much larger amount of inferred reserves. The allocation between proved and inferred reserves is based on historical reserves growth statistics provided by the Minerals Management Service. Specifically,

$$NRDOFF_{r,k,t} = NFDISC_{r,k,t-1} * \left(\frac{1}{RSVGRO_k} \right) \quad (3\text{-}18)$$

$$NIRDOFF_{r,k,t} = NFDISC_{r,k,t-1} * \left(1 - \frac{1}{RSVGRO_k} \right) \quad (3\text{-}19)$$

where

NRDOFF	=	new reserve discovery
NIRDOFF	=	new inferred reserve additions
NFDISC	=	new field discoveries
RSVGRO	=	reserves growth factor (8.2738 for oil and 5.9612 for gas)
r	=	region (1=Atlantic, 2=Pacific, 3=GOM)
k	=	fuel type (1=oil; 2=gas)

t = year.

Reserves are converted from inferred to proved with the drilling of other exploratory (or delineation) wells and developmental wells. Since the expected offshore PR ratio is assumed to remain constant at the last historical value, the reserves needed to support the total expected production, EXPRDOFF, can be calculated by dividing EXPRDOFF by the PR ratio. Solving Equation 3-1 for $REVOFF_{r,k,t}$ and writing

gives

$$REVOFF_{r,k,t} = \frac{EXPRDOFF_{r,k,t+1}}{PR_{r,k}} + PRDOFF_{r,k,t} - RESOFF_{r,k,t} - NRDOFF_{r,k,t} \qquad (3\text{-}20)$$

The remaining proved reserves, inferred reserves, and undiscovered resources are tracked throughout the projection period to ensure that production from offshore sources does not exceed the assumed resource base. Field level associated-dissolved gas is summed to the regional level and passed to the NGTDM.

Advanced Technology Impacts

Advances in technology for the various activities associated with crude oil and natural gas exploration, development, and production can have a profound impact on the costs associated with these activities. The OOGSS has been designed to give due consideration to the effect of advances in technology that may occur in the future. The specific technology levers and values are presented in Table 3-10.

Table 3-10. Offshore Exploration and Production Technology Levers

Technology Lever	Total Improvement (percent)	Number of Years
Exploration success rates	30	30
Delay to commence first exploration and between exploration	15	30
Exploration & development drilling costs	30	30
Operating cost	30	30
Time to construct production facility	15	30
Production facility construction costs	30	30
Initial constant production rate	15	30
Decline rate	0	30

Source: ICF Consulting

Appendix 3.A. Offshore Data Inventory

VARIABLES				
Variable Name				
Code	Text	Description	Unit	Classification
ADVLTXOFF	PRODTAX	Offshore ad valorem tax rates	Fraction	4 Lower 48 offshore subregions; Fuel (oil, gas)
CPRDOFF	COPRD	Offshore coproduct rate	Fraction	4 Lower 48 offshore subregions; Fuel (oil, gas)
CUMDISC	DiscoveredFields	Cumulative number of dicovered offshore fields	NA	Offshore evaluation unit: Field size class
CUMNFW	CumNFW	Cumulative number of new fields wildcats drilled	NA	Offshore evaluation unit: Field size class
CURPRROFF	omega	Offshore initial P/R ratios	Fraction	4 Lower 48 offshore subregions; Fuel (oil, gas)
CURRESOFF	R	Offshore initial reserves	MMB BCF	4 Lower 48 offshore subregions; Fuel (oil, gas)
DECLOFF	--	Offshore decline rates	Fraction	4 Lower 48 offshore subregions; Fuel (oil, gas)
DEVLCOST	DevelopmentDrilling Cost	Development drilling cost	$ per well	Offshore evaluation unit
DRILLOFF	DRILL	Offshore drilling cost	1987$	4 Lower 48 offshore subregions
DRYOFF	DRY	Offshore dry hole cost	1987$	Class (exploratory, developmental); 4 Lower 48 offshore subregions
DVWELLOFF	--	Offshore development project drilling schedules	wells per year	4 Lower 48 offshore subregions; Fuel (oil, gas)
ELASTOFF	--	Offshore production elasticity values	Fraction	4 Lower 48 offshore subregions
EXPLCOST	ExplorationDrillingC osts	Exploration well drilling cost	$ per wells	Offshore evaluation unit
EXWELLOFF	--	Offshore exploratory project drilling schedules	wells per year	4 Lower 48 offshore subregions
FLOWOFF	--	Offshore flow rates	bls, MCF per year	4 Lower 48 offshore subregions; Fuel (oil, gas)
FRMINOFF	FRMIN	Offshore minimum exploratory well finding rate	MMB BCF per well	4 Lower 48 offshore subregions; Fuel (oil, gas)
FR1OFF	FR1	Offshore new field wildcat well finding rate	MMB BCF per well	4 Lower 48 offshore subregions; Fuel (oil, gas)
FR2OFF	FR3	Offshore developmental well finding rate	MMB BCF per well	4 Lower 48 offshore subregions; Fuel (oil, gas)
FR3OFF	FR2	Offshore other exploratory well finding rate	MMB BCF per well	4 Lower 48 offshore subregions; Fuel (oil, gas)
HISTPRROFF	--	Offshore historical P/R ratios	fraction	4 Lower 48 offshore subregions; Fuel (oil, gas)
HISTRESOFF	--	Offshore historical beginning-of-year reserves	MMB BCF	4 Lower 48 offshore subregions; Fuel (oil, gas)
INFRSVOFF	I	Offshore inferred reserves	MMB BCF	4 Lower 48 offshore subregions; Fuel (oil, gas)
KAPFRCOFF	EXKAP	Offshore drill costs that are tangible & must be depreciated	fraction	Class (exploratory, developmental)
KAPSPNDOFF	KAP	Offshore other capital expenditures	1987$	Class (exploratory, developmental); 4 Lower 48 offshore subregions
LEASOFF	EQUIP	Offshore lease equipment cost	1987$ per project	Class (exploratory, developmental); 4 Lower 48 offshore subregions
NDEVWLS	DevelopmentWells	Number of development wells drilled	NA	Offshore evaluation unit
NFWCOSTOFF	COSTEXP	Offshore new field wildcat cost	1987$	Class (exploratory, developmental); 4 Lower 48 offshore subregions

VARIABLES				
Variable Name				
Code	Text	Description	Unit	Classification
NFWELLOFF	--	Offshore exploratory and developmental project drilling schedules	wells per project per year	Class (exploratory, developmental); r=1
NIRDOFF	NIRDOFF	Offshore new inferred reserves	Oil-MMB per well Gas-BCF per well	Offshore region; Offshore fuel(oil,gas)
NRDOFF	NRDOFF	Offshore new reserve discoveries	Oil-MMB per well Gas-BCF per well	Offshore region; Offshore fuel(oil,gas)
OPEROFF	OPCOST	Offshore operating cost	1987$ per well per year	Class (exploratory, developmental); 4 Lower 48 offshore subregions
OPRCOST	OperatingCost	Operating cost	$ per well	Offshore evaluation unit
PFCOST	StructureCost	Offshore production facility cost	$ per structure	Offshore evaluation unit
PRJOFF	N	Offshore project life	Years	Fuel (oil, gas)
RCPRDOFF	M	Offshore recovery period intangible & tangible drill cost	Years	Lower 48 Offshore
RESOFF	RESOFF	Offshore reserves	Oil-MMB per well Gas-BCF per well	Offshore region; Offshore fuel(oil,gas)
REVOFF	REVOFF	Offshore reserve revisions	Oil-MMB per well Gas-BCF per well	Offshore region; Offshore fuel(oil,gas)
SC	Γ	Search coefficient for discovery model	Fraction	Offshore evaluation unit: Field size class
SEVTXOFF	PRODTAX	Offshore severance tax rates	fraction	4 Lower 48 offshore subregions; Fuel (oil, gas)
SROFF	SR	Offshore drilling success rates	fraction	Class (exploratory, developmental); 4 Lower 48 offshore subregions; Fuel (oil, gas)
STTXOFF	STRT	State tax rates	fraction	4 Lower 48 offshore subregions
TECHOFF	TECH	Offshore technology factors applied to costs	fraction	Lower 48 Offshore
TRANSOFF	TRANS	Offshore expected transportation costs	NA	4 Lower 48 offshore subregions; Fuel (oil, gas)
UNRESOFF	Q	Offshore undiscovered resources	MMB BCF	4 Lower 48 offshore subregions; Fuel (oil, gas)
WDCFOFFIRKLAG	--	1989 offshore exploration & development weighted DCFs	1987$	Class (exploratory, developmental); 4 Lower 48 offshore subregions; Fuel (oil, gas)
WDCFOFFIRLAG	--	1989 offshore regional exploration & development weighted DCFs	1987$	Class (exploratory, developmental); 4 Lower 48 offshore subregions;
WDCFOFFLAG	--	1989 offshore exploration & development weighted DCFs	1987$	Class (exploratory, developmental)
WELLAGOFF	WELLSOFF	1989 offshore wells drilled	Wells per year	Class (exploratory, developmental); 4 Lower 48 offshore subregions; Fuel (oil, gas)
XDCKAPOFF	XDCKAP	Offshore intangible drill costs that must be depreciated	fraction	NA

PARAMETERS		
Parameter	Description	Value
nREG	Region ID (1: CENTRAL & WESTERN GOM; 2: EASTERN GOM; 3: ATLANTIC; 4: PACIFIC)	4
nPA	Planning Area ID (1: WESTERN GOM; 2: CENTRAL GOM; 3: EASTERN GOM; 4: NORTH ATLANTIC; 5: MID ATLANTIC; 6: SOUTH ATLANTIC; 7: FLORIDA STRAITS; 8: PACIFIC; NORTHWEST; 9: CENTRAL CALIFORNIA; 10: SANTA BARBARA - VENTURA BASIN; 11: LOS ANGELES BASIN; 12: INNER BORDERLAND; 13: OUTER BORDERLAND)	13
ntEU	Total number of evaluation units (43)	43
nMaxEU	Maximum number of EU in a PA (6)	6
TOTFLD	Total number of evaluation units	3600
nANN	Total number of announce discoveries	127

PARAMETERS		
Parameter	**Description**	**Value**
nPRD	Total number of producing fields	1132
nRIGTYP	Rig Type (1: JACK-UP 0-1500; 2: JACK-UP 0-1500 (Deep Drilling); 3: SUBMERSIBLE 0-1500; 4: SEMI-SUBMERSIBLE 1500-5000; 5: SEMI-SUBMERSIBLE 5000-7500; 6: SEMI-SUBMERSIBLE 7500-10000; 7: DRILL SHIP 5000-7500; 8: DRILL SHIP 7500-10000)	8
nPFTYP	Production facility type (1: FIXED PLATFORM (FP); 2: COMPLIANT TOWER (CT); 3: TENSION LEG PLATFORM (TLP); 4: FLOATING PRODUCTION SYSTEM (FPS); 5: SPAR; 6: FLOATING PRODUCTION STORAGE & OFFLOADING (FPSO); 7: SUBSEA SYSTEM (SS))	7
nPFWDR	Production facility water depth range (1: 0 - 656 FEET; 2: 656 - 2625 FEET; 3: 2625 - 5249 FEET; 4: 5249 - 7874 FEET; 5: 7874 - 9000 FEET)	5
NSLTIdx	Number of platform slot data points	8
NPFWD	Number of production facility water depth data points	15
NPLTDD	Number of platform water depth data points	17
NOPFWD	Number of other production facitlity water depth data points	11
NCSTWD	Number of water depth data points for production facility costs	39
NDRLWD	Number of water depth data points for well costs	15
NWLDEP	Number of well depth data points	30
TRNPPLNCSTNDIAM	Number of pipeline diameter data points	19
MAXNFIELDS	Maximum number of fields for a project/prospect	10
nMAXPRJ	Maximum number of projects to evaluate per year	500
PRJLIFE	Maximum project life in years	10

INPUT DATA			
Variable	**Description**	**Unit**	**Source**
ann_EU	Announced discoveries - Evaluation unit name	-	PGBA
ann_FAC	Announced discoveries - Type of production facility	-	BOEMRE
ann_FN	Announced discoveries - Field name	-	PGBA
ann_FSC	Announced discoveries - Field size class	integer	BOEMRE
ann_OG	Announced discoveries - fuel type	-	BOEMRE
ann_PRDSTYR	Announced discoveries - Start year of production	integer	BOEMRE
ann_WD	Announced discoveries - Water depth	feet	BOEMRE
ann_WL	Announced discoveries - Number of wells	integer	BOEMRE
ann_YRDISC	Announced discoveries - Year of discovery	integer	BOEMRE
beg_rsva	AD gas reserves	bcf	calculated in model
BOEtoMcf	BOE to Mcf conversion	Mcf/BOE	ICF
chgDrlCstOil	Change of Drilling Costs as a Function of Oil Prices	fraction	ICF
chgOpCstOil	Change of Operating Costs as a Function of Oil Prices	fraction	ICF
chgPFCstOil	Change of Production facility Costs as a Function of Oil Prices	fraction	ICF
cndYld	Condensate yield by PA, EU	Bbl/mmcf	BOEMRE
cstCap	Cost of capital	percent	BOEMRE
dDpth	Drilling depth by PA, EU, FSC	feet	BOEMRE
deprSch	Depreciation schedule (8 year schedule)	fraction	BOEMRE
devCmplCst	Completion costs by region, completion type (1=Single, 2=Dual), water depth range (1=0-3000Ft, 2=>3000Ft), drilling depth index	million 2003 dollars	BOEMRE
devDrlCst	Mean development well drilling costs by region, water depth index, drilling depth index	million 2003 dollars	BOEMRE
devDrlDly24	Maximum number of development wells drilled from a 24-slot PF by drilling depth index	Wells/PF/year	ICF
devDrlDlyOth	Maximum number of development wells drilled for other PF by PF type, water depth index	Wells/field/year	ICF

INPUT DATA			
Variable	Description	Unit	Source
devOprCst	Operating costs by region, water depth range (1=0-3000Ft, 2=>3000Ft), drilling depth index	2003 $/well/year	BOEMRE
devTangFrc	Development Wells Tangible Fraction	fraction	ICF
dNRR	Number of discovered producing fields by PA, EU, FSC	integer	BOEMRE
Drillcap	Drilling Capacity	wells/year/rig	ICF
duNRR	Number of discovered/undeveloped fields by PA, EU, FSC	integer	ICF
EUID	Evaluation unit ID	integer	ICF
EUname	Names of evaluation units by PA	integer	ICF
EUPA	Evaluation unit to planning area x-walk by EU_Total	integer	ICF
exp1stDly	Delay before commencing first exploration by PA, EU	number of years	ICF
exp2ndDly	Total time (Years) to explore and appraise a field by PA, EU	number of years	ICF
expDrlCst	Mean Exploratory Well Costs by region, water depth index, drilling depth index	million 2003 dollars	BOEMRE
expDrlDays	Drilling days/well by rig type	number of days/well	ICF
expSucRate	Exploration success rate by PA, EU, FSC	fraction	ICF
ExpTangFrc	Exploration and Delineation Wells Tangible Fraction	fraction	ICF
fedTaxRate	Federal Tax Rate	percent	ICF
fldExpRate	Maximum Field Exploration Rate	percent	ICF
gasprice	Gas wellhead price by region	2003$/mcf	NGTDM
gasSevTaxPrd	Gas production severance tax	2003$/mcf	ICF
gasSevTaxRate	Gas severance tax rate	percent	ICF
GOprop	Gas proportion of hydrocarbon resource by PA, EU	fraction	ICF
GOR	Gas-to-Oil ratio (Scf/Bbl) by PA, EU	Scf/Bbl	ICF
GORCutOff	GOR cutoff for oil/gas field determination	-	ICF
gRGCGF	Gas Cumulative Growth Factor (CGF) for gas reserve growth calculation by year index	-	BOEMRE
levDelWls	Exploration drilling technology (reduces number of delineation wells to justify development	percent	PGBA
levDrlCst	Drilling costs R&D impact (reduces exploration and development drilling costs)	percent	PGBA
levExpDly	Pricing impact on drilling delays (reduces delays to commence first exploration and between exploration	percent	PGBA
levExpSucRate	Seismic technology (increase exploration success rate)	percent	PGBA
levOprCst	Operating costs R&D impact (reduces operating costs)	percent	PGBA
levPfCst	Production facility cost R&D impact (reduces production facility construction costs	percent	PGBA
levPfDly	Production facility design, fabrication and installation technology (reduces time to construct production facility)	percent	PGBA
levPrdPerf1	Completion technology 1 (increases initial constant production facility)	percent	PGBA
levPrdPerf2	Completion technology 2 (reduces decile rates)	percent	PGBA
nDelWls	Number of delineation wells to justify a production facility by PA, EU, FSC	integer	ICF
nDevWls	Maximum number of development wells by PA, EU, FSC	integer	ICF
nEU	Number of evaluation units in each PA	integer	ICF
nmEU	Names of evaluation units by PA	-	ICF
nmPA	Names of planning areas by PA	-	ICF
nmPF	Name of production facility and subsea-system by PF type index	-	ICF
nmReg	Names of regions by region	-	ICF
ndiroff	Additions to inferred reserves by region and fuel type	oil: MBbls; gas: Bcf	calculated in model
nrdoff	New reserve discoveries by region and fuel type	oil: Mbbls; gas: Bcf	calculated in model
nRigs	Number of rigs by rig type	integer	ICF

INPUT DATA			
Variable	Description	Unit	Source
nRigWlsCap	Number of well drilling capacity (Wells/Rig)	wells/rig	ICF
nRigWlsUtl	Number of wells drilled (Wells/Rig)	wells/rig	ICF
nSlt	Number of slots by # of slots index	integer	ICF
oilPrcCstTbl	Oil price for cost tables	2003$/Bbl	ICF
oilprice	Oil wellhead price by region	2003$/Bbl	PMM
oilSevTaxPrd	Oil production severance tax	2003$/Bbl	ICF
oilSevTaxRate	Oil severance tax rate	percent	ICF
oRGCGF	Oil Cumulative Growth Factor (CGF) for oil reserve growth calculation by year index	fraction	BOEMRE
paid	Planning area ID	integer	ICF
PAname	Names of planning areas by PA	-	ICF
pfBldDly1	Delay for production facility design, fabrication, and installation (by water depth index, PF type index, # of slots index (0 for non platform)	number of years	ICF
pfBldDly2	Delay between production facility construction by water depth index	number of years	ICF
pfCst	Mean Production Facility Costs in by region, PF type, water depth index, # of slots index (0 for non-platform)	million 2003 $	BOEMRE
pfCstFrc	Production facility cost fraction matrix by year index, year index	fraction	ICF
pfMaxNFld	Maximum number of fields in a project by project option	integer	ICF
pfMaxNWls	Maximum number of wells sharing a flowline by project option	integer	ICF
pfMinNFld	Minimum number of fields in a project by project option	integer	ICF
pfOptFlg	Production facility option flag by water depth range index, FSC	-	ICF
pfTangFrc	Production Facility Tangible Fraction	fraction	ICF
pfTypFlg	Production facility type flag by water depth range index, PF type index	-	ICF
platform	Flag for platform production facility	-	ICF
prd_DEPTH	Producing fields - Total drilling depth	feet	BOEMRE
prd_EU	Producing fields - Evaluation unit name	-	ICF
prd_FLAG	Producing fields - Production decline flag	-	ICF
prd_FN	Producing fields - Field name	-	BOEMRE
prd_ID	Producing fields - BOEMRE field ID	-	BOEMRE
prd_OG	Producing fields - Fuel type	-	BOEMRE
prd_YRDISC	Producing fields - Year of discovery	year	BOEMRE
prdDGasDecRatei	Initial gas decline rate by PA, EU, FSC range index	fraction/year	ICF
prdDGasHyp	Gas hyperbolic decline coefficient by PA, EU, FSC range index	fraction	ICF
prdDOilDecRatei	Initial oil decline rate by PA, EU,	fraction/year	ICF
prdDOilHyp	Oil hyperbolic decline coefficient by PA, EU, FSC range index	fraction	ICF
prdDYrPeakGas	Years at peak production for gas by PA, EU, FSC, range index	number of years	ICF
prdDYrPeakOil	Years at peak production for oil by PA, EU, FSC, range index	number of years	ICF
prdDYrRampUpGas	Years to ramp up for gas production by PA, EU, FSC range index	number of years	ICF
prdDYrRampUpOil	Years to ramp up for oil production by PA, EU, FSC range index	number of years	ICF
prdGasDecRatei	Initial gas decline rate by PA, EU	fraction/year	ICF
prdGasFrc	Fraction of gas produced before decline by PA, EU	fraction	ICF
prdGasHyp	Gas hyperbolic decline coefficient by PA, EU	fraction	ICF
prdGasRatei	Initial gas production (Mcf/Day/Well) by PA, EU	Mcf/day/well	ICF
PR	Expected production to reserves ratio by fuel typ	fraction	PGBA
prdoff	Expected production by fuel type	oil:MBbls; gas: Bcf	calculated in model
prdOilDecRatei	Initial oil decline rate by PA, EU	fraction/year	ICF
prdOilFrc	Fraction of oil produced before decline by PA, EU	fraction	ICF

INPUT DATA			
Variable	Description	Unit	Source
prdOilHyp	Oil hyperbolic decline coefficient by PA, EU	fraction	ICF
prdOilRatei	Initial oil production (Bbl/Day/Well) by PA, EU	Bbl/day/well	ICF
prod	Producing fields - annual production by fuel type	oil:MBbls; gas:Mmcf	BOEMRE
prod_asg	AD gas production	bcf	calculated in model
revoff	Extensions, revisions, and adjustments by fuel type	oil:MBbls; gas:Bcf	
rigBldRatMax	Maximum Rig Build Rate by rig type	percent	ICF
rigIncrMin	Minimum Rig Increment by rig type	integer	ICF
RigUtil	Number of wells drilled	wells/rig	ICF
rigUtilTarget	Target Rig Utilization by rig type	percent	ICF
royRateD	Royalty rate for discovered fields by PA, EU, FSC	fraction	BOEMRE
royRateU	Royalty rate for undiscovered fields by PA, EU, FSC	fraction	BOEMRE
stTaxRate	Federal Tax Rate by PA, EU	percent	ICF
trnFlowLineLen	Flowline length by PA, EU	Miles/prospect	ICF
trnPpDiam	Oil pipeline diameter by PA, EU	inches	ICF
trnPplnCst	Pipeline cost by region, pipe diameter index, water depth index	million 2003 $/mile	BOEMRE
trnTrfGas	Gas pipeline tariff ($/Mcf) by PA, EU	2003 $/Bbl	ICF
trnTrfOil	Oil pipeline tariff ($/Bbl) by PA, EU	2003 $/Bbl	ICF
uNRR	Number of undiscovered fields by PA, EU, FSC	integer	calculated in model
vMax	Maximum MMBOE of FSC	MMBOE	BOEMRE
vMean	Geometric mean MMBOE of FSC	MMBOE	BOEMRE
vMin	Minimum MMBOE of FSC	MMBOE	BOEMRE
wDpth	Water depth by PA, EU, FSC	feet	BOEMRE
yrAvl	Year lease available by PA, EU	year	ICF
yrCstTbl	Year of cost tables	year	ICF
Sources: BOEMRE = Bureau of Ocean Energy Management, Regulation, and Enforcement (formerly the Minerals Management Service); ICF = ICF Consulting; PGBA = EIA, Office of Petroleum, Gas, and Biofuels Analysis			

4. Alaska Oil and Gas Supply Submodule

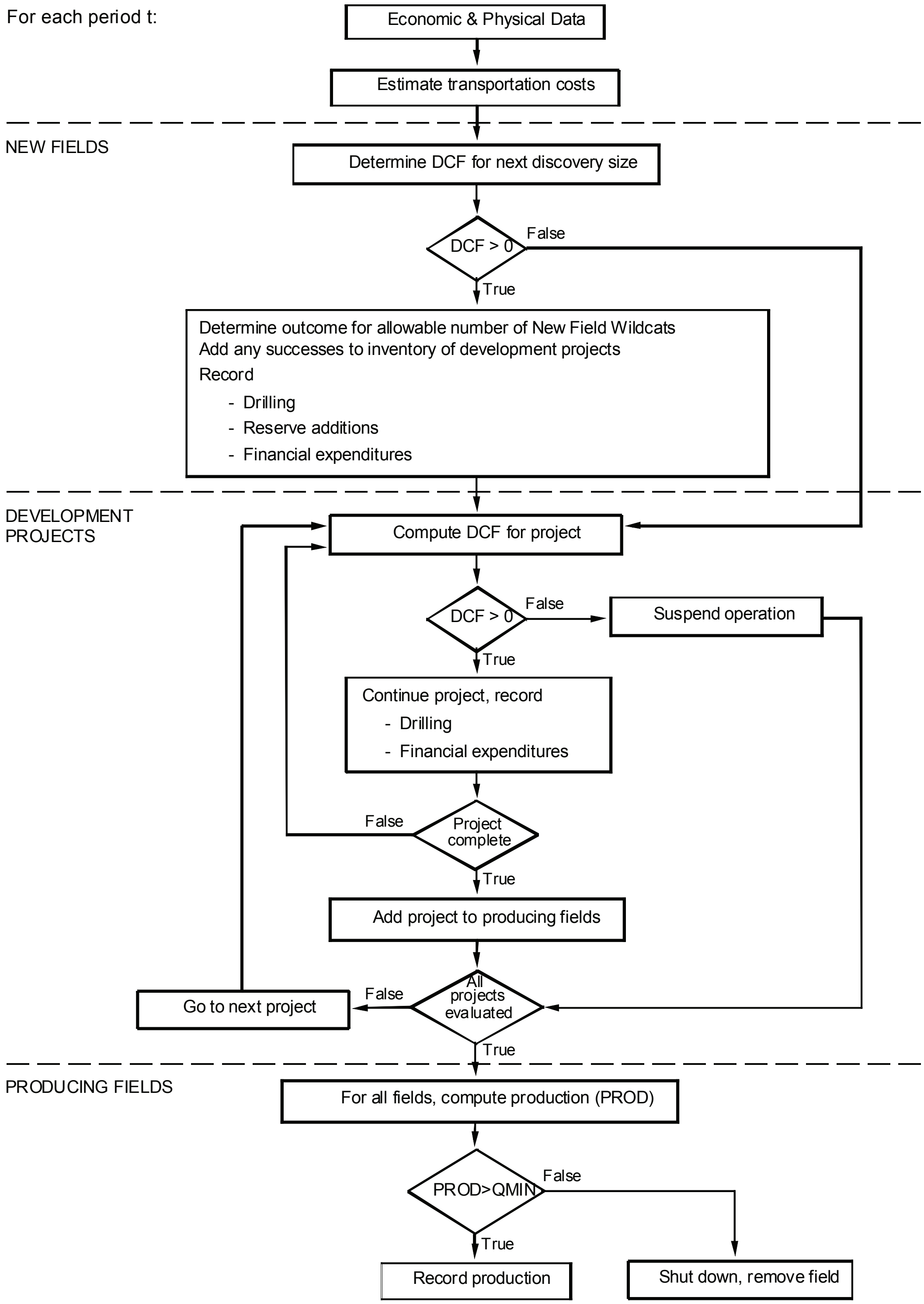
This section describes the structure for the Alaska Oil and Gas Supply Submodule (AOGSS). The AOGSS is designed to project field-specific oil production from the Onshore North Slope, Offshore North Slope, and Other Alaska areas (primarily the Cook Inlet area). The North Slope region encompasses the National Petroleum Reserve Alaska in the west, the State Lands in the middle, and the Arctic National Wildlife Refuge area in the east. This section provides an overview of the basic modeling approach, including a discussion of the discounted cash flow (DCF) method.

Alaska natural gas production is not projected by the AOGSS, but by Natural Gas Transmission and Distribution Module (NGTDM). The NGTDM projects Alaska gas consumption and whether an Alaska gas pipeline is projected to be built to carry Alaska North Slope gas into Canada and U.S. gas markets. As of January 1, 2009, Alaska was estimated to have 7.7 trillion cubic feet of proved reserves, 24.8 trillion cubic feet of inferred resources at existing fields (also known as field appreciation), and 257.5 trillion cubic feet of undiscovered resources, excluding the Arctic National Wildlife Refuge undiscovered gas resources. Over the long term, Alaska natural gas production is determined by and constrained by local consumption and by the capacity of a gas pipeline that might be built to serve Canada and U.S. lower-48 markets. The proven and inferred gas resources alone (i.e. 32.5 trillion cubic feet), plus known but undeveloped resources, are sufficient to satisfy at least 20 years of Alaska gas consumption and gas pipeline throughput. Moreover, large deposits of natural gas have been discovered (e.g., Point Thomson) but remain undeveloped due to a lack of access to gas consumption markets. Because Alaska natural gas production is best determined by projecting Alaska gas consumption and whether a gas pipeline is put into operation, the AOGSS does not attempt to project new gas field discoveries and their development or the declining production from existing fields.

AOGSS Overview

The AOGSS solely focuses on projecting the exploration and development of undiscovered oil resources, primarily with respect to the oil resources expected to be found onshore and offshore in North Alaska. The AOGSS is divided into three components: new field discoveries, development projects, and producing fields (Figure 4-1). Transportation costs are used in conjunction with the crude oil price to Southern California refineries to calculate an estimated wellhead (netback) oil price. A discounted cash flow (DCF) calculation is used to determine the economic viability of Alaskan drilling and production activities. Oil field investment decisions are modeled on the basis of discrete projects. The exploration, discovery, and development of new oil fields depend on the expected exploration success rate and new field profitability. Production is determined on the basis of assumed drilling schedules and production profiles for new fields and developmental projects, along with historical production patterns and announced plans for currently producing fields.

Figure 4-1. Flowchart of the Alaska Oil and Gas Supply Submodule



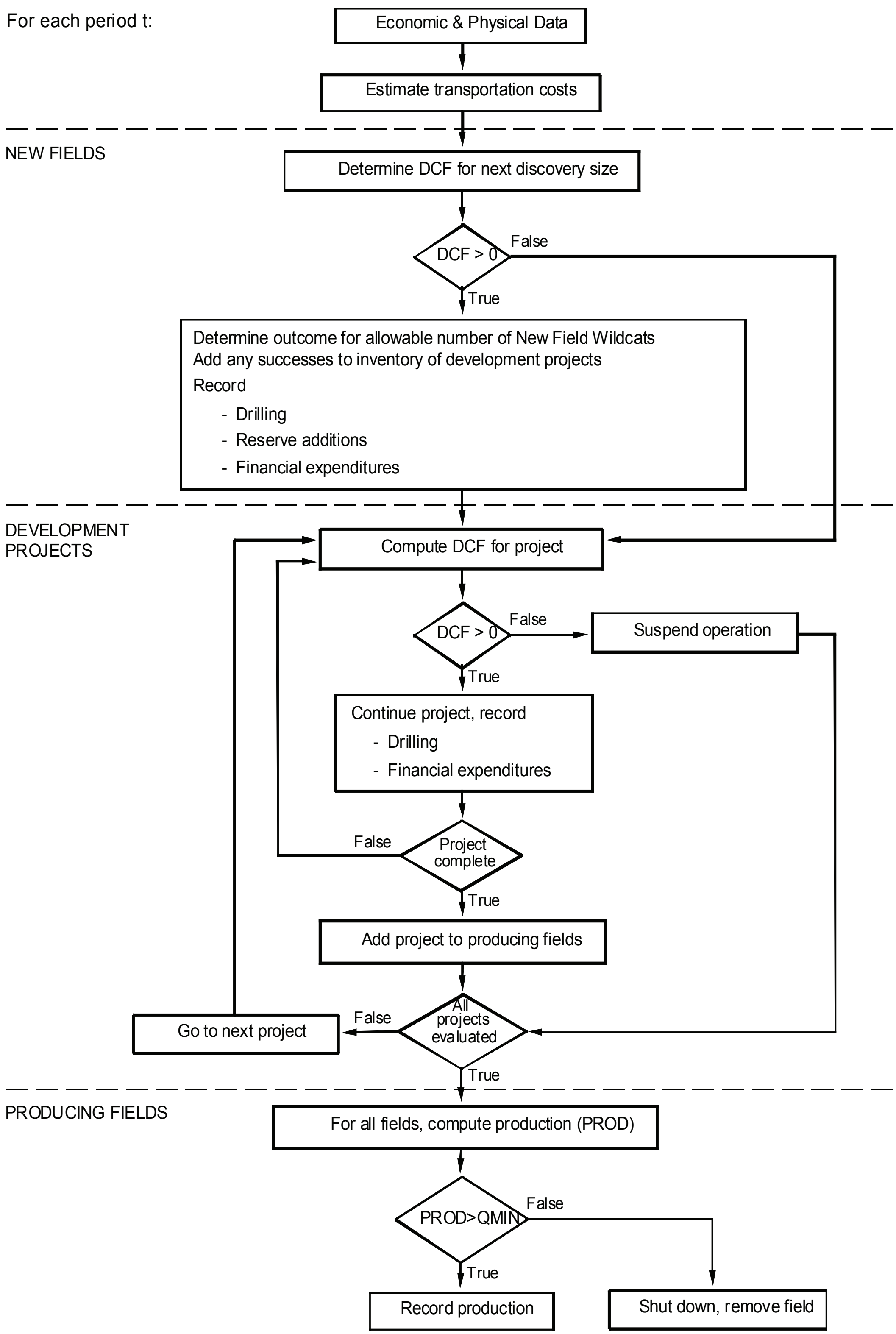
Calculation of Costs

Costs differ within the model for successful wells and dry holes. Costs are categorized functionally within the model as

- Drilling costs,
- Lease equipment costs, and
- Operating costs (including production facilities and general and administrative costs).

All costs in the model incorporate the estimated impact of environmental compliance. Environmental regulations that preclude a supply activity outright are reflected in other adjustments to the model. For example, environmental regulations that preclude drilling in certain locations within a region are modeled by reducing the recoverable resource estimates for that region.

Each cost function includes a variable that reflects the cost savings associated with technological improvements. As a result of technological improvements, average costs decline in real terms



relative to what they would otherwise be. The degree of technological improvement is a user specified option in the model. The equations used to estimate costs are similar to those used for the lower 48 but include cost elements that are specific to Alaska. For example, lease equipment includes gravel pads and ice roads.

Drilling Costs

Drilling costs are the expenditures incurred for drilling both successful wells and dry holes, and for equipping successful wells through the "Christmas tree," the valves and fittings assembled at the top of a well to control the fluid flow. Elements included in drilling costs are labor, material, supplies and direct overhead for site preparation, road building, erecting and dismantling derricks and drilling rigs, drilling, running and cementing casing, machinery, tool changes, and rentals. Drilling costs for exploratory wells include costs of support equipment such as ice pads. Lease equipment required for production is included as a separate cost calculation and covers equipment installed on the lease downstream from the Christmas tree.

The average cost of drilling a well in any field located within region r in year t is given by:

$$DRILLCOST_{i,r,k,t} = DRILLCOST_{i,r,k,T_b} * (1 - TECH1) ** (t - T_b) \qquad (4\text{-}1)$$

where

i	=	well class (exploratory=1, developmental=2)
r	=	region (Offshore North Slope = 1, Onshore North Slope = 2, Cook Inlet = 3)
k	=	fuel type (oil=1, gas=2 - but not used)
t	=	forecast year
DRILLCOST	=	drilling costs
T_b	=	base year of the forecast
TECH1	=	annual decline in drilling costs due to improved technology.

The above function specifies that drilling costs decline at the annual rate specified by TECH1. Drilling costs are not modeled as a function of the drilling rig activity level as they are in the Onshore Lower 48 methodology. Drilling rigs and equipment are designed specifically for the harsh Arctic weather conditions. Once drilling rigs are moved up to Alaska and reconfigured for Arctic conditions, they typically remain in Alaska. Company drilling programs in Alaska are planned to operate at a relatively constant level of activity because of the limited number of drilling rigs and equipment available for use. Most Alaska oil rig activity pertains to drilling in-fill wells intended to slow the rate of production decline in the largest Alaska oil fields.

For the *Annual Energy Outlook 2011*, Alaska onshore and offshore drilling and completion costs were updated based on the American Petroleum Institute's (API), *2007 Joint Association Survey on Drilling Costs*, dated December 2008. Based on these API drilling and completion costs and earlier work performed by Advanced Resources International, Inc. in 2002, the following oil well drilling and completion costs were incorporated into the AOGSS database (Table 4.1).

Table 4.1
AOGSS Oil Well Drilling and Completion Costs
By Location and Category
In millions of 2007 dollars

	New Field Wildcat Wells	New Exploration Wells	Developmental Wells
	In millions of 2007 dollars		
Offshore North Slope	206	103	98
Onshore North Slope	150	75	57
South Alaska	73	59	37
	In millions of 1990 dollars		
Offshore North Slope	140	70	67
Onshore North Slope	102	51	39
South Alaska	50	40	25

Table 1 provides both 1990 and 2007 well drilling and completion cost data because the former are used within the context of calculating AOGSS discounted cash flows, while the latter are comparable to the current price environment.

Lease Equipment Costs

Lease equipment costs include the cost of all equipment extending beyond the Christmas tree, directly used to obtain production from a developed lease. Costs include: producing equipment, the gathering system, processing equipment (e.g., oil/gas/water separation), and production related infrastructure such as gravel pads. Producing equipment costs include tubing, pumping equipment. Gathering system costs consist of flowlines and manifolds. The lease equipment cost estimate for a new oil well is given by:

$$EQUIP_{r,k,t} = EQUIP_{r,k,t} * (1 - TECH2)^{r-T_b} \tag{4-2}$$

where

r	=	region (Offshore North Slope = 1, Onshore North Slope = 2, Cook Inlet = 3)
k	=	fuel type (oil=1, gas=2 – not used)
t	=	forecast year
EQUIP	=	lease equipment costs
T_b	=	base year of the forecast
TECH2	=	annual decline in lease equipment costs due to improved technology.

Operating Costs

EIA operating cost data, which are reported on a per well basis for each region, include three main categories of costs: normal daily operations, surface maintenance, and subsurface maintenance. Normal daily operations are further broken down into supervision and overhead, labor, chemicals, fuel, water, and supplies. Surface maintenance accounts for all labor and materials necessary to keep the service equipment functioning efficiently and safely. Costs of stationary facilities, such as roads, also are included. Subsurface maintenance refers to the repair and services required to keep the downhole equipment functioning efficiently.

The estimated operating cost curve is:

$$OPCOST_{r,k,t} = OPCOST_{r,k,t} * (1 - TECH2)^{r - T_b} \quad (4\text{-}3)$$

where

r	=	region (Offshore North Slope = 1, Onshore North Slope = 2, Cook Inlet = 3)
k	=	fuel type (oil=1, gas=2 – not used)
t	=	forecast year
OPCOST	=	operating cost
T_b	=	base year of the forecast
TECH3	=	annual decline in operating costs due to improved technology.

Drilling costs, lease equipment costs, and operating costs are integral components of the following discounted cash flow analysis. These costs are assumed to be uniform across all fields within each of the three Alaskan regions.

Treatment of Costs in the Model for Income Tax Purposes

All costs are treated for income tax purposes as either expensed or capitalized. The tax treatment in the DCF reflects the applicable provisions for oil producers. The DCF assumptions are consistent with standard accounting methods and with assumptions used in similar modeling efforts. The following assumptions, reflecting current tax law, are used in the calculation of costs.

- All dry-hole costs are expensed.
- A portion of drilling costs for successful wells is expensed. The specific split between expensing and amortization is based on the tax code.
- Operating costs are expensed.
- All remaining successful field development costs are capitalized.
- The depletion allowance for tax purposes is not included in the model, because the current regulatory limitations for invoking this tax advantage are so restrictive as to be insignificant in the aggregate for future drilling decisions.

- Successful versus dry-hole cost estimates are based on historical success rates of successful versus dry-hole footage.

- Lease equipment for existing wells is in place before the first forecast year of the model.

Discounted Cash Flow Analysis

A discounted cash flow (DCF) calculation is used to determine the profitability of oil projects.[1] A positive DCF is necessary to initiate the development of a discovered oil field. With all else being equal, large oil fields are more profitable to develop than small and mid-size fields. In Alaska, where developing new oil fields is quite expensive, particularly in the Arctic, the profitable development of small and mid-size oil fields is generally contingent on the pre-existence of infrastructure that was paid for by the development of a nearby large field. Consequently, AOGSS assumes that the largest oil fields will be developed first, followed by the development of ever smaller oil fields. Whether these oil fields are developed, regardless of their size, is projected on the basis of the profitability index, which is measured as the ratio of the expected discounted cash flow to expected capital costs for a potential project.

A key variable in the DCF calculation is the oil transportation cost to southern California refineries. Transportation costs for Alaskan oil include both pipeline and tanker shipment costs. The oil transportation cost directly affects the expected revenues from the production of a field as follows:[2]

$$REV_{f,t} = Q_{f,t} * (MP_t - TRANS_t) \tag{4-4}$$

where

f	=	field
t	=	year
REV	=	expected revenues
Q	=	expected production volumes
MP	=	market price in the lower 48 states
TRANS	=	transportation cost.

The expected discounted cash flow associated with a potential oil project in field f at time t is given by

$$\begin{aligned} DCF_{f,t} = (&PVREV - PVROY - PVDRILLCOST - PVEQUIP - TRANSCAP \\ &- PVOPCOST - PVPRODTAX - PVSIT - PVFIT)_{f,t} \end{aligned} \tag{4-5}$$

where,

PVREV	=	present value of expected revenues

[1]See Appendix 3.A at the end of this chapter for a detailed discussion of the DCF methodology.

[2]This formulation assumes oil production only. It can be easily expanded to incorporate the sale of natural gas.

PVROY	=	present value of expected royalty payments
PVDRILLCOST	=	present value of all exploratory and developmental drilling expenditures
PVEQUIP	=	present value of expected lease equipment costs
TRANSCAP	=	cost of incremental transportation capacity
PVOPCOST	=	present value of operating costs
PVPRODTAX	=	present value of expected production taxes (ad valorem and severance taxes)
PVSIT	=	present value of expected state corporate income taxes
PVFIT	=	present value of expected federal corporate income taxes

The expected capital costs for the proposed field f located in region r are:

$$COST_{f,t} = (PVEXPCOST + PVDEVCOST + PVEQUIP + TRANSCAP)_{f,t} \tag{4-6}$$

where

PVEXPCOST	=	present value exploratory drilling costs
PVDEVCOST	=	present value developmental drilling costs
PVEQUIP	=	present value lease equipment costs
TRANSCAP	=	cost of incremental transportation capacity

The profitability indicator from developing the proposed field is therefore

$$PROF_{f,t} = \frac{DCF_{f,t}}{COST_{f,t}} \tag{4-7}$$

The model assumes that field with the highest positive PROF in time t is eligible for exploratory drilling in the same year. The profitability indices for Alaska also are passed to the basic framework module of the OGSM.

New Field Discovery

Development of estimated recoverable resources, which are expected to be in currently undiscovered fields, depends on the schedule for the conversion of resources from unproved to reserve status. The conversion of resources into field reserves requires both a successful new field wildcat well and a positive discounted cash flow of the costs relative to the revenues. The discovery procedure can be determined endogenously, based on exogenously determined data. The procedure requires the following exogenously determined data:

- new field wildcat success rate,
- any restrictions on the timing of drilling,
- the distribution of technically recoverable field sizes within each region.

The endogenous procedure generates:

- the new field wildcat wells drilled in any year,
- the set of individual fields to be discovered, specified with respect to size and location (relative to the 3 Alaska regions, i.e., offshore North Slope, onshore North Slope, and South-Central Alaska),
- an order for the discovery sequence, and
- a schedule for the discovery sequence.

The new field discovery procedure relies on the U.S. Geological Survey (USGS) and Bureau of Ocean Energy Management, Regulation, and Enforcement (BOEMRE) respective estimates of onshore and offshore technically recoverable oil resources as translated into the expected field size distribution of undiscovered fields. These onshore and offshore field size distributions are used to determine the field size and order of discovery in the AOGSS exploration and discovery process. Thus, the AOGSS oil field discovery process is consistent with the expected geology with respect to expected aggregate resource base and the relative frequency of field sizes.

AOGSS assumes that the largest fields in a region are found first, followed by successively smaller fields. This assumption is based on the following observations: 1) the largest volume fields typically encompass the greatest areal extent, thereby raising the probability of finding a large field relative to finding a smaller field, 2) seismic technology is sophisticated enough to be able to determine the location of the largest geologic structures that might possibly hold oil, 3) producers have a financial incentive to develop the largest fields first both because of their higher inherent rate of return and because the largest fields can pay for the development of expensive infrastructure that affords the opportunity to develop the smaller fields using that same infrastructure, and 4) historically, North Slope and Cook Inlet field development has generally progressed from largest field to smallest field.

Starting with the AEO2011, onshore and offshore North Slope new field wildcat drilling activity is a function of West Texas Intermediate crude oil prices from 1977 through 2008, expressed in 2008 dollars. The new field wildcat exploration function was statistically estimated based on West Texas Intermdiate crude oil prices from 1977 through 2008 and on exploration well drilling data obtained from the Alaska Oil and Gas Conservation Commission (AOGCC) data files for the same period.[3] The North Slope wildcat exploration drilling parameters were estimated using ordinary least squares methodology.

$$NAK\_NFW_t = (0.13856 * IT\_WOP_t) + 3.77 \tag{4-8}$$

where

t	=	year
NAK_NFW_t	=	North Slope Alaska field wildcat exploration wells
IT_WOP_t	=	World oil price in 2008 dollars

[3] A number of alternative functional formulations were tested (e.g., using Alaska crude oil prices, lagged oil prices, etc.), yet none of the alternative formations resulted in statistically more significant relationships.

The summary statistics for the statistical estimation are as follows:

```
Dependent variable: NSEXPLORE
Current sample:  1 to 32
Number of observations:  32

       Mean of dep. var. = 9.81250      LM het. test = .064580 [.799]
  Std. dev. of dep. var. = 4.41725     Durbin-Watson = 2.04186 [<.594]
Sum of squared residuals = 347.747  Jarque-Bera test = .319848 [.852]
   Variance of residuals = 11.5916   Ramsey's RESET2 = .637229E-04 [.994]
Std. error of regression = 3.40464   F (zero slopes) = 22.1824 [.000]
               R-squared = .425094    Schwarz B.I.C. = 87.0436
      Adjusted R-squared = .405930    Log likelihood = -83.5778

           Estimated    Standard
Variable  Coefficient     Error       t-statistic   P-value
C         3.77029       1.41706       2.66065       [.012]
WTIPRICE  .138559       .029419       4.70982       [.000]
```

Because very few offshore North Slope wells have been drilled since 1977, within AOGSS, the total number of exploration wells drilled on the North Slope are shared between the onshore and offshore regions, with the wells being predominantly drilled onshore in the early years of the projections with progressively more wells drilled offshore, such that after 20 years 50 percent of the exploration wells are drilled onshore and 50 percent are drilled offshore.

Based on the AOGCC data for 1977 through 2008, the drilling of South-Central Alaska new field wildcat exploration wells was statistically unrelated to oil prices. On average, 3 exploration wells per year were drilled in South-Central Alaska over the 1977 through 2008 timeframe, regardless of prevailing oil prices. This result probably stems from the fact that most of the South-Central Alaska drilling activity is focused on natural gas rather than oil, and that natural gas prices are determined by the Regulatory Commission of Alaska rather than being "market driven." Consequently, AOGSS specifies that 3 exploration wells are drilled each year.

The execution of the above procedure can be modified to reflect restrictions on the timing of discovery for particular fields. Restrictions may be warranted for enhancements such as delays necessary for technological development needed prior to the recovery of relatively small accumulations or heavy oil deposits. State and Federal lease sale schedules could also restrict the earliest possible date for beginning the development of certain fields. This refinement is implemented by declaring a start date for possible exploration. For example, AOGSS specifies that if Federal leasing in the Arctic National Wildlife Refuge were permitted in 2011, then the earliest possible date at which an ANWR field could begin oil production would be in 2021.[4] Another example is the wide-scale development of the West Sak field that is being delayed until a technology can be developed that will enable the heavy, viscous crude oil of that field to be economically extracted.

[4]The earliest ANWR field is assumed to go into production 10 years after the first projection year; so the first field comes on line in 2020 for the *Annual Energy Outlook 2010* projections. See also *Analysis of Crude Oil Production in the Arctic National Wildlife Refugee*, EIA, SR/OIAF/2008-03, (May 2008).

Development Projects

Development projects are those projects in which a successful new field wildcat has been drilled. As with the new field discovery process, the DCF calculation plays an important role in the timing of development and exploration of these multi-year projects.

Each model year, the DCF is calculated for each potential development project. Initially, the model assumes a drilling schedule determined by the user or by some set of specified rules. However, if the DCF for a given project is negative, then development of this project is suspended in the year in which the negative DCF occurs. The DCF for each project is evaluated in subsequent years for a positive value. The model assumes that development would resume when a positive DCF value is calculated.

Production from developing projects follows the generalized production profile developed for and described in previous work conducted by DOE staff.[5] The specific assumptions used in this work are as follows:

- a 2- to 4-year build-up period from initial production to the peak production rate,
- the peak production rate is sustained for 3 to 8 years, and
- after peak production, the production rate declines by 12 to 15 percent per year.

The production algorithm build-up and peak-rate period are based on the expected size of the undiscovered field, with larger fields having longer build-up and peak-rate periods than the smaller fields. The field production decline rates are also determined by the field size.

The pace of development and the ultimate number of wells drilled for a particular field is based on the historical field-level profile adjusted for field size and other characteristics of the field (e.g. API gravity.)

After all exploratory and developmental wells have been drilled for a given project, development of the project is complete. For this version of the AOGSS, no constraint is placed on the number of exploratory or developmental wells that can be drilled for any project. All completed projects are added to the inventory of producing fields.

Development fields include fields that have already been discovered but have not begun production. These fields include, for example, a series of expansion fields in both the Prudhoe Bay area, the National Petroleum Reserve - Alaska (NPRA), and for various offshore fields. For these fields, the starting date of production and their production rates were not determined by the discovery process outlined above, but are based on public announcements by the company(s) developing those fields.

[5] *Potential Oil Production from the Coastal Plain of the Arctic National Wildlife Refuge: Updated Assessment*, EIA (May 2000) and *Alaska Oil and Gas - Energy Wealth of Vanishing Opportunity?*, DOE/ID/0570-H1 (January 1991).

Producing Fields

Oil production from fields producing as of the initial projection year (e.g., Prudhoe Bay, Kuparuk, Lisburne, Endicott, and Milne Point) are based on historical production patterns, remaining estimated recovery, and announced development plans. The production decline rates of these fields are periodically recalibrated based on recent field-specific production rates.

Natural gas production from the North Slope for sale to end-use markets depends on the construction of a pipeline to transport natural gas to lower 48 markets.[6] North Slope natural gas production is determined by the carrying capacity of a natural gas pipeline to the lower 48.[7] The Prudhoe Bay Field is the largest known deposit of North Slope gas (24.5 Tcf)[8] and currently all of the gas produced from this field is re-injected to maximize oil production. Total known North Slope gas resources equal 35.4 Tcf.[9] Furthermore, the undiscovered onshore central North Slope and NPRA technically recoverable natural gas resource base are respectively estimated to be 33.3 Tcf[10] and 52.8 Tcf.[11] Collectively, these North Slope natural gas reserves and resources equal 121.5 Tcf, which would satisfy the 1.64 Tcf per year gas requirements of an Alaska gas pipeline for almost 75 years, well after the end of the *Annual Energy Outlook* projections. Consequently, North Slope natural gas resources, both discovered and undiscovered, are more than ample to supply natural gas to an Alaska gas pipeline during the *Annual Energy Outlook* projection period.

[6]Initial natural gas production from the North Slope for Lower 48 markets is affected by a delay reflecting a reasonable period for construction. Details of how this decision is made in NEMS are included in the Natural Gas Transmission and Distribution Module documentation.

[7] The determination of whether an Alaska gas pipeline is economically feasible is calculated within the Natural Gas Transmission and Distribution Model.

[8] *Alaska Oil and Gas Report 2009*, Alaska Department of Natural Resources, Division of Oil and Gas, Table I.I, page 8.

[9] Ibid.

[10] U.S. Geological Survey, *Oil and Gas Assessment of Central North Slope, Alaska, 2005*, Fact Sheet 2005-3043, April 2005, page 2 table – mean estimate total.

[11] U.S. Geological Survey, *2010 Updated Assessment of Undiscovered Oil and Gas Resources of the National Petroleum Reserve in Alaska (NPRA)*, Fact Sheet 2010-3102, October 2010, Table 1 – mean estimate total, page 4.

Appendix 4.A. Alaskan Data Inventory

Variable Name					
Code	Text	Description	Unit	Classification	Source
ANGTSMAX	--	ANGTS maximum flow	BCF/D	Alaska	NPC
ANGTSPRC	--	Minimum economic price for ANGTS start up	1987$/MCF	Alaska	NPC
ANGTSRES	--	ANGTS reserves	BCF	Alaska	NPC
ANGTSYR	--	Earliest start year for ANGTS flow	Year	NA	NPC
DECLPRO	--	Alaska decline rates for currently producing fields	Fraction	Field	OPNGBA
DEV_AK	--	Alaska drilling schedule for developmental wells	Wells per year	3 Alaska regions; Fuel (oil, gas)	OPNGBA
DRILLAK	DRILL	Alaska drilling cost (not including new field wildcats)	1990$/well	Class (exploratory, developmental); 3 Alaska regions; Fuel (oil, gas)	OPNGBA
DRLNFWAK	--	Alaska drilling cost of a new field wildcat	1990$/well	3 Alaska regions; Fuel (oil, gas)	OPNGBA
DRYAK	DRY	Alaska dry hole cost	1990$/hole	Class (exploratory, developmental); 3 Alaska regions; Fuel (oil, gas)	OPNGBA
EQUIPAK	EQUIP	Alaska lease equipment cost	1990$/well	Class (exploratory, developmental); 3 Alaska regions; Fuel (oil, gas)	USGS
EXP_AK	--	Alaska drilling schedule for other exploratory wells	wells per year	3 Alaska regions	OPNGBA
FACILAK	--	Alaska facility cost (oil field)	1990$/bls	Field size class	USGS
FSZCOAK	--	Alaska oil field size distributions	MMB	3 Alaska regions	USGS
FSZNGAK	--	Alaska gas field size distributions	BCF	3 Alaska regions	USGS
HISTPRDCO	--	Alaska historical crude oil production	MB/D	Field	AOGCC
KAPFRCAK	EXKAP	Alaska drill costs that are tangible & must be depreciated	fraction	Alaska	U.S. Tax Code
MAXPRO	--	Alaska maximum crude oil production	MB/D	Field	Announced Plans
NAK_NFW	--	Number of new field wildcat wells drilling in Northern AK	wells per year	NA	OPNGBA
NFW_AK	--	Alaska drilling schedule for new field wildcats	wells	NA	OPNGBA
PRJAK	n	Alaska oil project life	Years	Fuel (oil, gas)	OPNGBA
PROYR	--	Start year for known fields in Alaska	Year	Field	Announced Plans

Variable Name		Description	Unit	Classification	Source
Code	Text				
RCPRDAK	m	Alaska recovery period of intangible & tangible drill cost	Years	Alaska	U.S. Tax Code
RECRES	--	Alaska crude oil resources for known fields	MMB	Field	OFE, *Alaska Oil and Gas - Energy Wealth or Vanishing Opportunity*
ROYRT	ROYRT	Alaska royalty rate	fraction	Alaska	USGS
SEVTXAK	PRODTAX	Alaska severance tax rates	fraction	Alaska	USGS
SRAK	SR	Alaska drilling success rates	fraction	Alaska	OPNGBA
STTXAK	STRT	Alaska state tax rate	fraction	Alaska	USGS
TECHAK	TECH	Alaska technology factors	fraction	Alaska	OPNGBA
TRANSAK	TRANS	Alaska transportation cost	1990$	3 Alaska regions; Fuel (oil, gas)	OPNGBA
XDCKAPAK	XDCKAP	Alaska intangible drill costs that must be depreciated	fraction	Alaska	U.S. Tax Code

Source: National Petroleum Council (NPC), EIA Office of Petroleum, Natural Gas, & Biofuels Analysis (OPNGBA), United States Geologic Survey (USGS), Alaska Oil and Gas Conservation Commission (AOGCC)

5. Oil Shale Supply Submodule

Oil shale rock contains a hydrocarbon known as kerogen,[12] which can be processed into a synthetic crude oil (syncrude) by heating the rock. During the 1970s and early 1980s, petroleum companies conducted extensive research, often with the assistance of public funding, into the mining of oil shale rock and the chemical conversion of the kerogen into syncrude. The technologies and processes developed during that period are well understood and well documented with extensive technical data on demonstration plant costs and operational parameters, which were published in the professional literature. The oil shale supply submodule in OGSM relies extensively on this published technical data for providing the cost and operating parameters employed to model the "typical" oil shale syncrude production facility.

In the 1970s and 1980s, two engineering approaches to creating the oil shale syncrude were envisioned. In one approach, which the majority of the oil companies pursued, the producer mines the oil shale rock in underground mines. A surface facility the retorts the rock to create bitumen, which is then further processed into syncrude. Occidental Petroleum Corp. pursued the other approach known as "modified in-situ," in which some of the oil shale rock is mined in underground mines, while the remaining underground rock is "rubblized" using explosives to create large caverns filled with oil shale rock. The rubblized oil shale rock is then set on fire to heat the kerogen and convert it into bitumen, with the bitumen being pumped to the surface for further processing into syncrude. The modified in-situ approach was not widely pursued because the conversion of kerogen into bitumen could not be controlled with any precision and because the leaching of underground bitumen and other petroleum compounds might contaminate underground aquifers.

When oil prices dropped below $15 per barrel in the mid-1990s, demonstrating an abundance of conventional oil supply, oil shale petroleum production became untenable and project sponsors canceled their oil shale research and commercialization programs. Consequently, no commercial-scale oil shale production facilities were ever built or operated. Thus, the technical and economic feasibility of oil shale petroleum production remains untested and unproven.

In 1997, Shell Oil Company started testing a completely in-situ oil shale process, in which the oil shale rock is directly heated underground using electrical resistance heater wells, while petroleum products[13] are produced from separate production wells. The fully in-situ process has significant environmental and cost benefits relative to the other two approaches. The environmental benefits are lower water usage, no waste rock disposal, and the absence of hydrocarbon leaching from surface waste piles. As an example of the potential environmental impact on surface retorting, an industry using 25 gallon per ton oil shale rock to produce 2 million barrels per day would generate about 1.2 billion tons of waste rock per year, which is about 11 percent more than the weight of all the coal mined in the United States in 2010. Other advantages of the in-situ process include: 1) access to deeper oil shale resources, 2) greater oil and gas generated per acre because the process uses multiple oil shale seams within the resource column rather than just a single seam, and 3) direct production of petroleum products rather than

[12] Kerogen is a solid organic compound, which is also found in coal.

[13] Approximately, 30 percent naphtha, 30 percent jet fuel, 30 percent diesel, and 10 percent residual fuel oil.

a synthetic crude oil that requires more refinery processing. Lower production costs are expected for the in-situ approach because massive volumes of rock would not be moved, and because the drilling of heater wells, production wells, and freeze-wall wells can be done in a modular fashion, which allows for a streamlined manufacturing-like process. Personnel safety would be greater and accident liability lower. Moreover, the in-situ process reduces the capital risk, because it involves building self-contained modular production units that can be multiplied to reach a desired total production level. Although the technical and economic feasibility of the in-situ approach has not been commercially demonstrated, there is already a substantial body of evidence from field tests conducted by Shell Oil Co. that the in-situ process is technologically feasible.[14] The current Shell field research program is expected to conclude around the 2014 through 2017 timeframe with the construction of a small scale demonstration plant expected to begin shortly thereafter. The Oil Shale Supply Submodule (OSSS) assumes that the first commercial size oil shale plant cannot be built prior to 2017.

Given the inherent cost and environmental benefits of the in-situ approach, a number of other companies, such as Chevron and ExxonMobil are testing alternative in-situ oil shale techniques. Although small-scale mining and surface retorting of oil shale is currently being developed, by companies such as Red Leaf Resources, the large scale production of oil shale will most likely use the in-situ process. However, because in-situ oil shale projects have never been built, and because companies developing the in-situ process have not publicly released detailed technical parameters and cost estimates, the cost and operational parameters of such in-situ facilities is unknown. Consequently, the Oil Shale Supply Submodule (OSSS) relies on the project parameters and costs associated with the underground mining and surface retorting approach that were designed during the 1970s and 1980s. In this context, the underground mining and surface retorting facility parameters and costs are meant to be a surrogate for the in-situ oil shale facility that is more likely to be built. Although the in-situ process is expected to result in a lower cost oil shale product, this lower cost is somewhat mitigated by the fact that the underground mining and surface retorting processes developed in the 1970s and 1980s did not envision the strict environmental regulations that prevail today, and therefore embody an environmental compliance cost structure that is lower than what would be incurred today by a large-scale underground mining and surface retorting facility. Also, the high expected cost structure of the underground mining/surface retorting facility constrains the initiation of oil shale project production, which should be viewed as a more conservative approach to simulating the market penetration of in-situ oil projects. On the other hand, OSSS oil shale facility costs are reduced by 1 percent per year to reflect technological progress, especially with respect to the improvement of an in-situ oil shale process. Finally, public opposition to building any type of oil shale facility is likely to be great, regardless of the fact that the in-situ process is expected to be more environmentally benign than the predecessor technologies; the cost of building an in-situ oil shale facility is therefore likely to be considerably greater than would be determined strictly by the engineering parameters of such a facility.[15]

The Oil Shale Supply Submodule (OSSS) only represents economic decision making. In the absence of any existing commercial oil shale projects, it was impossible to determine the

[14] *See* "Shell's In-situ Conversion Process," a presentation by Harold Vinegar at the Colorado Energy Research Institute's 26th Oil Shale Symposium held on October 16 – 18, 2006 in Boulder, Colorado.

[15] Project delays due to public opposition can significantly increase project costs and reduce project rates of return.

potential environmental constraints and costs of producing oil on a large scale. Given the considerable technical and economic uncertainty of an oil shale industry based on an in-situ technology, and the infeasibility of the large-scale implementation of an underground mining/surface retorting technology, the oil shale syncrude production projected by the OSSS should be considered highly uncertain.

Given this uncertainty, the construction of commercial oil shale projects is constrained by a linear market penetration algorithm that restricts the oil production rate, which, at best, can reach a maximum of 2 million barrels per day by the end of a 40-year period after commercial oil shale facilities are deemed to be technologically feasible (starting in 2017). Whether domestic oil shale production actually reaches 2 million barrels per day at the end of the 40-year period depends on the relative profitability of oil shale facilities. If oil prices are too low to recover the weighted average cost of capital, no new facilities are built. However, if oil prices are sufficiently high to recover the cost of capital, then the rate of market penetration rises in direct proportion to facility profitability. So as oil prices rise and oil shale facility profitability increases, the model assumes that oil shale facilities are built in greater numbers, as dictated by the market penetration algorithm.

The 2 million barrel per day production limit is based on an assessment of what is feasible given both the oil shale resource base and potential environmental constraints.[16] The 40-year minimum market penetration timeframe is based on the observation that "…an oil shale production level of 1 million barrels per day is probably more than 20 years in the future…"[17] with a linear ramp-up to 2 million barrels per day equating to a 40-year minimum.

The actual rate of market penetration in the OSSS largely depends on projected oil prices, with low prices resulting in low rates of market penetration, and with the maximum penetration rate only occurring under high oil prices that result in high facility profitability. The development history of the Canadian oil sands industry is an analogous situation. The first commercial Canadian oil sands facility began operations in 1967; the second project started operation in 1978; and the third project initiated production in 2003.[18] So even though the Canadian oil sands resource base is vast, it took over 30 years before a significant number of new projects were announced. This slow penetration rate, however, was largely caused by both the low world oil prices that persisted from the mid-1980s through the 1990s and the lower cost of developing conventional crude oil supply.[19] The rise in oil prices that began in 2003 caused 17 new oil sands projects to be announced by year-end 2007.[20] Oil prices subsequently peaked in July 2008,

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[16] *See* U.S. Department of Energy, "Strategic Significance of America's Oil Shale Resource," March 2004, Volume I, page 23 – which speaks of an "aggressive goal" of 2 million barrels per day by 2020; and Volume II, page 7 – which concludes that the water resources in the Upper Colorado River Basin are "more than enough to support a 2 million barrel/day oil shale industry…"

[17] Source: RAND Corporation, "Oil Shale Development in the United States – Prospects and Policy Issues," MG-414, 2005, Summary page xi.

[18] The owner/operator for each of the 3 initial oil sands projects were respectively Suncor, Syncrude, and Shell Canada.

[19] The first Canadian commercial oil sands facility started operations in 1967. It took 30 years later until the mid to late 1990s for a building boom of Canadian oil sands facilities to materialize. Source: Suncor Energy, Inc. internet website at www.suncor.com, under "our business," under "oil sands."

[20] Source: Alberta Employment, Immigration, and Industry, "Alberta Oil Sands Industry Update," December 2007, Table 1, pages 17 – 21.

and declined significantly, such that a number of these new projects were put on hold at that time.

Extensive oil shale resources exist in the United States both in eastern Appalachian black shales and western Green River Formation shales. Almost all of the domestic high-grade oil shale deposits with 25 gallons or more of petroleum per ton of rock are located in the Green River Formation, which is situated in Northwest Colorado (Piceance Basin), Northeast Utah (Uinta Basin), and Southwest Wyoming. It has been estimated that over 400 billion barrels of syncrude potential exists in Green River Formation deposits that would yield at least 30 gallons of syncrude per ton of rock in zones at least 100 feet thick.[21] Consequently, the Oil Shale Supply Submodule assumes that future oil shale syncrude production occurs exclusively in the Rocky Mountains within the 2035 time frame of the projections. Moreover, the immense size of the western oil shale resource base precluded the need for the submodule to explicitly track oil shale resource depletion through 2035.

For each projection year, the oil shale submodule calculates the net present cash flow of operating a commercial oil shale syncrude production facility, based on that future year's projected crude oil price. If the calculated discounted net present value of the cash flow exceeds zero, the submodule assumes that an oil shale syncrude facility would begin construction, so long as the construction of that facility is not precluded by the construction constraints specified by the market penetration algorithm. So the submodule contains two major decision points for determining whether an oil shale syncrude production facility is built in any particular year: first, whether the discounted net present value of a facility's cash flow exceeds zero; second, by a determination of the number of oil shale projects that can be initiated in that year, based on the maximum total oil shale production level that is permitted by the market penetration algorithm.

In any one year, many oil shale projects can be initiated, raising the projected production rates in multiples of the rate for the standard oil shale facility, which is assumed to be 50,000 barrels per day, per project.

Oil Shale Facility Cost and Operating Parameter Assumptions

The oil shale supply submodule is based on underground mining and surface retorting technology and costs. During the late 1970s and early 1980s, when petroleum companies were building oil shale demonstration plants, almost all demonstration facilities employed this technology.[22] The facility parameter values and cost estimates in the OSSS are based on information reported for the Paraho Oil Shale Project, and which are inflated to constant 2004 dollars.[23] Oil shale rock mining costs are based on Western United States underground coal mining costs, which would be representative of the cost of mining oil shale rock, [24] because coal

[21] Source: Culbertson, W. J. and Pitman, J. K. "Oil Shale" in *United States Mineral Resources*, USGS Professional Paper 820, Probst and Pratt, eds. P 497-503, 1973.
[22] Out of the many demonstration projects in the 1970s only Occidental Petroleum tested a modified in-situ approach which used caved-in mining areas to perform underground retorting of the kerogen.
[23] Source: Noyes Data Corporation, *Oil Shale Technical Data Handbook*, edited by Perry Nowacki, Park Ridge, New Jersey, 1981, pages 89-97.
[24] Based on the coal mining cost per ton data provided in coal company 2004 annual reports, particularly those of

mining techniques and technology would be employed to mine oil shale rock. However, the OSSS assumes that oil shale production costs fall at a rate of 1 percent per year, starting in 2005, to reflect the role of technological progress in reducing production costs. This cost reduction assumption results in oil shale production costs being 26 percent lower in 2035 relative to the initial 2004 cost structure.

Although the Paraho cost structure might seem unrealistic, given that the application of the in-situ process is more likely than the application of the underground mining/surface retorting process, the Paraho cost structure is well documented, while there is no detailed public information regarding the expected cost of the in-situ process. Even though the in-situ process might be cheaper per barrel of output than the Paraho process, this should be weighted against the following facts 1) oil and gas drilling costs have increased dramatically since 2005, somewhat narrowing that cost difference, and 2) the Paraho costs were determined at a time when environmental requirements were considerably less stringent. Consequently, the environmental costs that an energy production project would incur today are considerably more than what was envisioned in the late-1970s and early-1980s. It should also be noted that the Paraho process produces about the same volumes of oil and natural gas as the in-situ process does, and requires about the same electricity consumption as the in-situ process. Finally, to the degree that the Paraho process costs reported here are greater than the in-situ costs, the use of the Paraho cost structure provides a more conservative facility cost assessment, which is warranted for a completely new technology.

Another implicit assumption in the OSSS is that the natural gas produced by the facility is sold to other parties, transported offsite, and priced at prevailing regional wellhead natural gas prices. Similarly, the electricity consumed on site is purchased from the local power grid at prevailing industrial prices. Both the natural gas produced and the electricity consumed are valued in the Net Present Value calculations at their respective regional prices, which are determined elsewhere in the NEMS. Although the oil shale facility owner has the option to use the natural gas produced on-site to generate electricity for on-site consumption, building a separate on-site/offsite power generation decision process within OSSS would unduly complicate the OSSS logic structure and would not necessarily provide a more accurate portrayal of what might actually occur in the future.[25] Moreover, this treatment of natural gas and electricity prices automatically takes into consideration any embedded carbon dioxide emission costs associated with a particular NEMS scenario, because a carbon emissions allowance cost is embedded in the regional natural gas and electricity prices and costs.

OSSS Oil Shale Facility Configuration and Costs

The OSSS facility parameters and costs are based on those reported for the Paraho Oil Shale

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Arch Coal, Inc, CONSOL Energy Inc, and Massey Energy Company. Reported underground mining costs per ton range for $14.50 per ton to $27.50 per ton. The high cost figures largely reflect higher union wage rates, than the low cost figures reflect non-union wage rates. Because most of the Western underground mines are currently non-union, the cost used in OSSS was pegged to the lower end of the cost range. For example, the $14.50 per ton cost represents Arch Coal's average western underground mining cost.

[25] The Colorado/Utah/Wyoming region has relatively low electric power generation costs due to 1) the low cost of mining Powder River Basin subbituminous coal, and 2) the low cost of existing electricity generation equipment, which is inherently lower than new generation equipment due cost inflation and facility depreciation.

project. Because the Paraho Oil Shale Project costs were reported in 1976 dollars, the OSSS costs were inflated to constant 2004 dollar values. Similarly, the OSSS converts NEMS oil prices, natural gas prices, electricity costs, and carbon dioxide costs into constant 2004 dollars, so that all facility net present value calculations are done in constant 2004 dollars. Based on the Paraho Oil Shale Project configuration, OSSS oil shale facility parameters and costs are listed in Table 5-1, along the OSSS variable names. For the *Annual Energy Outlook 2009* and subsequent *Outlooks*, oil shale facility construction costs were increased by 50 percent to represent the world-wide increase in steel and other metal prices since the OSSS was initially designed. For the *Annual Energy Outlook 2011*, the oil shale facility plant size was reduced from 100,000 barrels per day to 50,000 barrels per day, based on discussions with industry representatives who believe that the smaller configuration was more likely for in-situ projects because this size captures most of the economies of scale, while also reducing project risk.

Table 5-1. OSSS Oil Shale Facility Configuration and Cost Parameters

Facility Parameters	OSSS Variable Name	Parameter Value
Facility project size	OS_PROJ_SIZE	50,000 barrels per day
Oil shale syncrude per ton of rock	OS_GAL_TON	30 gallons
Plant conversion efficiency	OS_CONV_EFF	90 percent
Average facility capacity factor	OS_CAP_FACTOR	90 percent per year
Facility lifetime	OS_PRJ_LIFE	20 years
Facility construction time	OS_PRJ_CONST	3 year
Surface facility capital costs	OS_PLANT_INVEST	$2.4 billion (2004 dollars)
Surface facility operating costs	OS_PLANT_OPER_CST	$200 million per year (2004 dollars)
Underground mining costs	OS_MINE_CST_TON	$17.50 per ton (2004 dollars)
Royalty rate	OS_ROYALTY_RATE	12.5 percent of syncrude value
Carbon Dioxide Emissions Rate	OS_CO2EMISS	150 metric tons per 50,000 bbl/day of production[26]

The construction lead time for oil shale facilities is assumed to be 3 years, which is less than the 5-year construction time estimates developed for the Paraho Project. The shorter construction period is based on the fact that the drilling of shallow in-situ heating and production wells can be accomplished much more quickly than the erection of a surface retorting facility. Because it is not clear when during the year a new plant will begin operation and achieve full productive capacity, OSSS assumes that production in the first full year will be at half its rated output and that full capacity will be achieved in the second year of operation.

To mimic the fact that an industry's costs decline over time due to technological progress, better management techniques, and so on, the OSSS initializes the oil shale facility costs in the year 2005 at the values shown above (i.e., surface facility construction and operating costs, and underground mining costs). After 2005, these costs are reduced by 1 percent per year through 2035, which is consistent with the rate of technological progress witnessed in the petroleum industry over the last few decades.

[26] Based on the average of the Fischer Assays determined for four oil shale rock samples of varying kerogen content. Op. cit. Noyes Data Corporation, Table 3.8, page 20.

OSSS Oil Shale Facility Electricity Consumption and Natural Gas Production Parameters

Based on the Paraho Oil Shale Project parameters, Table 5-2 provides the level of annual gas production and annual electricity consumption for a 50,000 barrel per day, operating at 100 percent capacity utilization for a full calendar year.[27]

Table 5-2. OSSS Oil Shale Facility Electricity Consumption and Natural Gas Production Parameters and Their Prices and Costs

Facility Parameters	OSSS Variable Name	Parameter Value
Natural gas production	OS_GAS_PROD	16.1 billion cubic feet per year
Wellhead gas sales price	OS_GAS_PRICE	Dollars per Mcf (2004 dollars)
Electricity consumption	OS_ELEC_CONSUMP	0.83 billion kilowatt-hours per year
Electricity consumption price	OS_ELEC_PRICE	Dollars per kilowatt-hour (2004 dollars)

Project Yearly Cash Flow Calculations

The OSSS first calculates the annual revenues minus expenditures, including income taxes and depreciation expenses, which is then discounted to a net present value. In those future years in which the net present value exceeds zero, a new oil shale facility can begin construction, subject to the timing constraints outlined below.

The discounted cash flow algorithm is calculated for a 23 year period, composed of 3 years for construction and 20 years for a plant's operating life. During the first 3 years of the 23-year period, only plant construction costs are considered with the facility investment cost being evenly apportioned across the 3 years. In the fourth year, the plant goes into partial operation, and produces 50 percent of the rated output. In the fifth year, revenues and operating expenses are assumed to ramp up to the full-production values, based on a 90 percent capacity factor that allows for potential production outages. During years 4 through 23, total revenues equal oil production revenues plus natural gas production revenues.[28]

Discounted cash flow oil and natural gas revenues are calculated based on prevailing oil and natural gas prices projected for that future year. In other words, the OSSS assumes that the economic analysis undertaken by potential project sponsors is solely based on the prevailing price of oil and natural gas at that time in the future and is <u>not</u> based either on historical price trends or future expected prices. Similarly, industrial electricity consumption costs are also based on the prevailing price of electricity for industrial consumers in that region at that future time.

As noted earlier, during a plant's first year of operation (year 4), both revenues and costs are half the values calculated for year 5 through year 23.

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[27] Op. cit. Noyes Data Corporation, pages 89-97.

[28] Natural gas production revenues result from the fact that significant volumes of natural gas are produced when the kerogen is retorted in the surface facilities. See prior table regarding the volume of natural gas produced for a 50,000 barrel per day oil shale syncrude facility.

Oil revenues are calculated for each year in the discounted cash flow as follows:

$$\begin{aligned}OIL\_REVENUE_t = & OIT\_WOP_t * (1.083/0.732) * OS\_PRJ\_SIZE \\ & * OS\_CAP\_FACTOR * 365\end{aligned} \tag{5-8}$$

where

OIT_WOP_t	=	World oil price at time t in 1987 dollars
(1.083 / 0.732)	=	GDP chain-type price deflators to convert 1987 dollars into 2004 dollars
OS_PROJ_PRJ_SIZE	=	Facility project size in barrels per day
OS_CAP_FACTOR	=	Facility capacity factor
365	=	Days per year.

Natural gas revenues are calculated for each year in the discounted cash flow as follows:

$$\begin{aligned}GAS\_REVENUE_t = & OS\_GAS\_PROD * OGPRCL48_t * 1.083/0.732) \\ & *OS\_CAP\_FACTOR,\end{aligned} \tag{5-9}$$

where

OS_GAS_PROD	=	Annual natural gas production for 50,000 barrel per day facility
$OGPRCL48_t$	=	Natural gas price in Rocky Mtn. at time t in 1987 dollars
(1.083 / 0.732)	=	GDP chain-type price deflators to convert 1987 dollars into 2004 dollars
OS_CAP_FACTOR	=	Facility capacity factor.

Electricity consumption costs are calculated for each year in the discounted cash flow as follows:

$$\begin{aligned}ELECT\_COST_t = & OS\_ELEC\_CONSUMP * PELIN_t * (1.083/.732) * 0.003412 \\ & * OS\_CAP\_FACTOR\end{aligned} \tag{5-10}$$

where

OS_ELEC_CONSUMP	=	Annual electricity consumption for 50,000 barrel per day facility
$PELIN_t$	=	Electricity price Colorado/Utah/Wyoming at time t
(1.083 / .732)	=	GNP chain-type price deflators to convert 1987 dollars into 2004 dollars
OS_CAP_FACTOR	=	Facility capacity factor.

The carbon dioxide emission tax rate per metric ton is calculated as follows:

$$OS\_EMETAX_t = EMETAX_t(1) * 1000.0 * (12.0 / 44.0) * (1.083 / .732) \tag{5-11}$$

where,

$EMETAX_t(1)$ = Carbon emissions allowance price/tax per kilogram at time t

1,000 = Convert kilograms to metric tones

(12.0 / 44.0) = Atomic weight of carbon divided by atomic weight of carbon dioxide

(1.083 / .732) = GNP chain-type price deflators to convert 1987 dollars into 2004 dollars.

Annual carbon dioxide emission costs per plant are calculated as follows:

$$\mathrm{CO2\_COST}_t = \mathrm{OS\_EMETAX}_t * \mathrm{OS\_CO2EMISS} * 365 * \mathrm{OS\_CAP\_FACTOR} \tag{5-12}$$

where

$\mathrm{OS\_EMETAX}_t$ = Carbon emissions allowance price/tax per metric tonne at time t in 2004 dollars

OS_CO2EMISS = Carbon dioxide emissions in metric tonnes per day

365 = Days per year

OS_CAP_FACTOR = Facility capacity factor

In any given year, pre-tax project cash flow is:

$$\mathrm{PRETAX\_CASH\_FLOW}_t = \mathrm{TOT\_REVENUE}_t - \mathrm{TOTAL\_COST}_t \tag{5-13}$$

where

$\mathrm{TOT\_REVENUE}_t$ = Total project revenues at time t

$\mathrm{TOT\_COST}_t$ = Total project costs at time t.

Total project revenues are calculated as follows:

$$\mathrm{TOT\_REVENUE}_t = \mathrm{OIL\_REVENUE}_t + \mathrm{GAS\_REVENUE}_t \tag{5-14}$$

Total project costs are calculated as follows:

$$\begin{aligned}\mathrm{TOT\_COST}_t = {} & \mathrm{OS\_PLANT\_OPER\_CST} + \mathrm{ROYALTY}_t + \mathrm{PRJ\_MINE\_CST} \\ & + \mathrm{ELEC\_COST}_t + \mathrm{CO2\_COST}_t + \mathrm{INVEST}_t\end{aligned} \tag{5-15}$$

where

$$OS\_PLANT\_OPER\_CST = \text{Annual plant operating costs per year}$$
$$ROYALTY_t = \text{Annual royalty costs at time t}$$
$$PRJ\_MINE\_COST = \text{Annual plant mining costs}$$
$$ELEC\_COST_t = \text{Annual electricity costs at time t}$$
$$CO2\_COST_t = \text{Annual carbon dioxide emissions costs at time t}$$
$$INVEST_t = \text{Annual surface facility investment costs.}$$

While the plant is under construction (years 1 through 3) only INVEST has a positive value, while the other four cost elements equal zero. When the plant goes into operation (years 4 through 23), the capital costs (INVEST) are zero, while the other five operating costs take on positive values. The annual investment cost for the three years of construction is calculated as follows, under the assumption that the construction costs are evenly spread over the 3-year construction period:

$$INVEST = OS\_PLANT\_INVEST / OS\_PRJ\_CONST \tag{5-16}$$

where the variables are defined as in Table 5-1. Because the plant output is composed of both oil and natural gas, the annual royalty cost (ROYALTY) is calculated by applying the royalty rate to total revenues, as follows:

$$ROYALTY_t = OS\_ROYALTY\_RATE * TOT\_REVENUE_t \tag{5-17}$$

Annual project mining costs are calculated as the mining cost per barrel of syncrude multiplied by the number of barrels produced, as follows:

$$\begin{aligned} PRJ\_MINE\_COST = {} & OS\_MINE\_CST\_TON * \frac{42}{OS\_GALLON\_TON * OS\_CONV\_EFF} \\ & * OS\_PROJ\_SIZE * OS\_CAP\_FACTOR * 365 \end{aligned} \tag{5-18}$$

where

$$42 = \text{gallons per barrel}$$
$$365 = \text{days per year.}$$

After the plant goes into operation and after a pre-tax cash flow is calculated, then a post-tax cash flow has to be calculated based on income taxes and depreciation tax credits. When the prevailing world oil price is sufficiently high and the pre-tax cash flow is positive, then the following post-tax cash flow is calculated as

$$\begin{aligned} CASH\_FLOW_t = {} & \left(PRETAX\_CASH\_FLOW_t * (1 - OS\_CORP\_TAX\_RATE)\right) + \\ & (OS\_CORP\_TAX\_RATE * OS\_PLANT\_INVEST / OS\_PRJ\_LIFE) \end{aligned} \tag{5-19}$$

The above depreciation tax credit calculation assumes straight-line depreciation over the operating life of the investment (OS_PRJ_LIFE).

Discount Rate Financial Parameters

The discounted cash flow algorithm uses the following financial parameters to determine the discount rate used in calculating the net present value of the discounted cash flow.

Table 5-3. Discount Rate Financial Parameters

Financial Parameters	OSSS Variable Name	Parameter Value
Corporate income tax rate	OS_CORP_TAX_RATE	38 percent
Equity share of total facility capital	OS_EQUITY_SHARE	60 percent
Facility equity beta	OS_EQUITY_VOL	1.8
Expected market risk premium	OS_EQUITY_PREMIUM	6.5 percent
Facility debt risk premium	OS_DEBT_PREMIUM	0.5 percent

The corporate equity beta (OS_EQUITY_VOL) is the project risk beta, not a firm's volatility of stock returns relative to the stock market's volatility. Because of the technology and construction uncertainties associated with oil shale plants, the project's equity holder's risk is expected to be somewhat greater than the average industry firm beta. The median beta for oil and gas field exploration service firms is about 1.65. Because a project's equity holders' investment risk level is higher, the facility equity beta assumed for oil shale projects is 1.8.

The expected market risk premium (OS_EQUITY_PREMIUM), which is 6.5 percent, is the expected return on market (S&P 500) over the rate of 10-year Treasury note (risk-free rate). A Monte Carlo simulation methodology was used to estimate the expected market return.

Oil shale project bond ratings are expected to be in the Ba-rating range. Since the NEMS macroeconomic module endogenously determines the industrial Baa bond rates for the forecasting period, the cost of debt rates are different in each year. The debt premium (OS_DEBT_PREMIUM) adjusts the bond rating for the project from the Baa to the Ba range, which is assumed to be constant at the average historical differential over the forecasting period.

Discount Rate Calculation

A seminal parameter used in the calculation of the net present value of the cash flow is the discount rate. The calculation of the discount rate used in the oil shale submodule is consistent with the way the discount rate is calculated through the National Energy Modeling System. The discount rate equals the post-tax weighted average cost of capital, which is calculated in the OSSS as follows:

$$
\begin{aligned}
OS\_DISCOUNT\_RATE_t = (((& 1 - OS\_EQUITY\_SHARE) * (MC\_RMCORPBAA_t / 100 + \\
& OS\_DEBT\_PREMIUM)) * (1 - OS\_CORP\_TAX\_RATE) + \\
& (OS\_EQUITY\_SHARE * ((OS\_EQUITY\_PREMIUM * \\
& OS\_EQUITY\_VOL) + MC\_RMGFCM\_10NS_t / 100))
\end{aligned} \tag{5-20}
$$

where

OS_EQUITY_SHARE	=	Equity share of total facility capital
$MC\_RMCORPBAA_t / 100$	=	BAA corporate bond rate
OS_DEBT_PREMIUM	=	Facility debt risk premium
OS_CORP_TAX_RATE	=	Corporate income tax rate
OS_EQUITY_PREMIUM	=	Expected market risk premium
OS_EQUITY_VOL	=	Facility equity volatility beta
$MC\_RMGFCM\_10NS_t / 100$	=	10-year Treasury note rate.

In calculating the facility's cost of equity, the equity risk premium (which is a product of the expected market premium and the facility equity beta, is added to a "risk-free" rate of return, which is considered to be the 10-year Treasury note rate.

The nominal discount rate is translated into a constant, real discount rate using the following formula:

$$OS\_DISCOUNT\_RATE_t = ((1.0 + OS\_DISCOUNT\_RATE_t) / (1.0 + INFL_t)) - 1.0 \tag{5-21}$$

where

$INFL_t$ = Inflation rate at time t.

Net Present Value Discounted Cash Flow Calculation

So far a potential project's yearly cash flows have been calculated along with the appropriate discount rate. Using these calculated quantities, the net present value of the yearly cash flow values is calculated as follows:

$$NET\_CASH\_FLOW_{t-1} = \sum_{t=1}^{OS\_PRJ\_LIFE + OS\_PRJ\_CONST} \left[CASH\_FLOW_t * \left[\frac{1}{1 + OS\_DISCOUNT\_RATE_t} \right]^t \right] \tag{5-22}$$

If the net present value of the projected cash flows exceeds zero, then the potential oil shale facility is considered to be economic and begins construction, so long as this facility construction does not violate the construction timing constraints detailed below.

Oil Shale Facility Market Penetration Algorithm

As noted in the introduction, there is no empirical basis for determining how rapidly new oil shale facilities would be built, once the OSSS determines that surface-retorting oil shale facilities are economically viable, because no full-scale commercial facilities have ever been constructed. However, there are three primary constraints to oil shale facility construction. First, the construction of an oil shale facility cannot be undertaken until the in-situ technology has been sufficiently developed and tested to be deemed ready for its application to commercial size projects (i.e., 50,000 barrels per day). Second, oil shale facility construction is constrained by the maximum oil shale production limit. Third, oil shale production volumes cannot reach the maximum oil shale production limit any earlier than 40 years after the in-situ technology has been deemed to be feasible and available for commercial size facilities. Table 5-4 summarizes the primary market penetration parameters in the OSSS.

Table 5-4. Market Penetration Parameters

Market Penetration Parameters	OSSS Variable Name	Parameter Value
Earliest Facility Construction Start Date	OS_START_YR	2017
Maximum Oil Shale Production	OS_MAX_PROD	2 million barrels per year
Minimum Years to Reach Full Market Penetration	OS_PENETRATE_YR	40

Shell's in-situ oil shale RD&D program is considered to be the most advanced, having begun in 1997. Shell is most likely to be the first party to build and operate a commercial scale oil shale production facility. Based on conversations between Shell personnel and EIA personnel, Shell is likely to conclude its field experiments, which test the various components of a commercial facility sometime during the 2014 through 2017 timeframe. Consequently, the earliest likely initiation of a full-scale commercial plant would be 2017.[29]

As discussed earlier, a 2 million barrel per day oil shale production level at the end of 40-year market penetration period is considered to be reasonable and feasible based on the size of the resource base and the volume and availability of water needed to develop those resources. The actual rate of market penetration in the OSSS, however, is ultimately determined by the projected profitability of oil shale projects. At a minimum, oil and natural gas prices must be sufficiently high to produce a facility revenue stream (i.e., discounted cash flow) that covers all capital and operating costs, including the weighted average cost of capital. When the discounted cash flow exceeds zero (0), then the market penetration algorithm allows oil shale facility construction to commence.

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[29] Op. cit. EIA/OIAF/OGD memorandum entitled, "Oil Shale Project Size and Production Ramp-Up," and based on public information and private conversations subsequent to the development of that memorandum.

When project discounted cash flow is greater than zero, the relative project profitability is calculated as follows:

$$OS\_PROFIT_t = DCF_t \;/\; OS\_PLANT\_INVEST \tag{5-23}$$

where

DCF_t	=	Project discounted cash flow at time t
OS_PLANT_INVEST	=	Project capital investment

OS_PROFIT is an index of an oil project's expected profitability. The expectation is that, as OS_PROFIT increases, the relative financial attractiveness of producing oil shale also increases.

The level of oil shale facility construction that is permitted in any year depends on the maximum oil shale production that is permitted by the following market penetration algorithm:

$$\begin{aligned} MAX\_PROD_t = {} & OS\_MAX\_PROD * (OS\_PROFIT_t \;/\; (1 + OS\_PROFIT_t)) \\ & * ((T - (OS\_START\_YR - 1989)) \;/\; OS\_PENETRATE\_YR\,) \end{aligned} \tag{5-24}$$

where,

OS_MAX_PROD	=	Maximum oil shale production limit
OS_PROFIT_t	=	Relative oil shale project profitability at time t
T	=	Time t
OS_START_YR	=	First year that an oil shale facility can be built
OS_PENTRATE_YR	=	Minimum number of years during which the maximum oil shale production can be achieved.

The OS_PROFIT portion of the market penetration algorithm (5-24) rapidly increases market penetration as the DCF numerator of OS_PROFIT increases. However, as OS_PROFIT continues to increase, the rate of increase in market penetration slows as (OS_PROFIT / (1 + OS_PROFIT) asymptotically approaches one (1.0). As this term approaches 1.0, the algorithm's ability to build more oil shale plants is ultimately constrained by OS_MAX_PROD term, regardless of how financially attractive the construction of new oil shale facilities might be. This formulation also prevents MAX_PROD from exceeding OS_MAX_PROD.

The second portion of the market penetration algorithm specifies that market penetration increases linearly over the number of years specified by OS_PENETRATE_YR. As noted earlier OS_PENETRATE_YR specifies the minimum number of years over which the oil shale industry can achieve maximum penetration. The maximum number of years required to achieve full penetration is dictated by the speed at which the OS_PROFIT portion of the equation approaches one (1.0). If OS_PROFIT remains low, then it is possible that MAX_PROD never comes close to reaching the OS_MAX_PROD value.

The number of new oil shale facilities that start construction in any particular year is specified by the following equation:

(5-25)

$$OS\_PLANTS\_NEW_t = INT((MAX\_PROD_t - (OS\_PLANTS_t * OS\_PRJ\_SIZE * OS\_CAP\_FACTOR)) / (OS\_PRJ\_SIZE * OS\_CAP\_FACTOR))$$

where

MAX_PROD_t	=	Maximum oil shale production at time t
OS_PLANT_t	=	Number of existing oil shale plants at time t
OS_PRJ_SIZE	=	Standard oil shale plant size in barrels per day
OS_CAP_FACTOR	=	Annual capacity factor of an oil shale plant in percent per year.

The first portion of the above formula specifies the incremental production capacity that can be built in any year, based on the number of plants already in existence. The latter portion of the equation determines the integer number of new plants that can be initiated in that year, based on the expected annual production rate of an oil shale plant.

Because oil shale production is highly uncertain, not only from a technological and economic perspective, but also from an environmental perspective, an upper limit to oil shale production is assumed within the OSSS. The upper limit on oil shale production is 2 million barrels per day, which is equivalent to 44 facilities of 50,000 barrels per day operating at a 90 percent capacity factor. So the algorithm allows enough plants to be built to fully reach the oil shale production limit, based on the expected plant capacity factor. As noted earlier, the oil shale market penetration algorithm is also limited by the earliest commercial plant construction date, which is assumed to be no earlier than 2017.

While the OSSS costs and performance profiles are based on technologies evaluated in the 1970's and early 1980's, the complete absence of any current commercial-scale oil shale production makes its future economic development highly uncertain. If the technological, environmental, and economic hurdles are as high or higher than those experienced during the 1970's, then the prospects for oil shale development would remain weak throughout the projections. However, technological progress can alter the economic and environmental landscape in unanticipated ways. For example, if an in-situ oil shale process were to be demonstrated to be both technically feasible and commercially profitable, then the prospects for an oil shale industry would improve significantly, and add vast economically recoverable oil resources in the United States and possibly elsewhere in the world.

Appendix A. Discounted Cash Flow Algorithm

Introduction

The basic DCF methodology used in the Oil and Gas Supply Module (OGSM) is applied for a broad range of oil or natural gas projects, including single well projects or multiple well projects within a field. It is designed to capture the effects of multi-year capital investments (e.g., offshore platforms). The expected discounted cash flow value associated with exploration and/or development of a project with oil or gas as the primary fuel in a given region evaluated in year T may be presented in a stylized form (Equation A-1).

$$\begin{aligned} DCF_T = (&PVTREV - PVROY - PVPRODTAX - PVDRILLCOST - PVEQUIP \\ &- PVKAP - PVOPCOST - PVABANDON - PVSIT - PVFIT)_T \end{aligned} \qquad \text{(A-1)}$$

where

T	=	year of evaluation
PVTREV	=	present value of expected total revenues
PVROY	=	present value of expected royalty payments
PVPRODTAX	=	present value of expected production taxes (ad valorem and severance taxes)
PVDRILLCOST	=	present value of expected exploratory and developmental drilling expenditures
PVEQUIP	=	present value of expected lease equipment costs
PVKAP	=	present value of other expected capital costs (i.e., gravel pads and offshore platforms)
PVOPCOST	=	present value of expected operating costs
PVABANDON	=	present value of expected abandonment costs
PVSIT	=	present value of expected state corporate income taxes
PVFIT	=	present value of expected federal corporate income taxes.

Costs are assumed constant over the investment life but vary across both region and primary fuel type. This assumption can be changed readily if required by the user. Relevant tax provisions also are assumed unchanged over the life of the investment. Operating losses incurred in the initial investment period are carried forward and used against revenues generated by the project in later years.

The following sections describe each component of the DCF calculation. Each variable of Equation A.1 is discussed starting with the expected revenue and royalty payments, followed by the expected costs, and lastly the expected tax payments.

Present Value of Expected Revenues, Royalty Payments, and Production Taxes

Revenues from an oil or gas project are generated from the production and sale of both the primary fuel as well as any co-products. The present value of expected revenues measured at the wellhead from the production of a representative project is defined as the summation of yearly expected net wellhead price[1]

[1]The DCF methodology accommodates price expectations that are myopic, adaptive, or perfect. The default is myopic expectations, so prices are assumed to be constant throughout the economic evaluation period.

times expected production[2] discounted at an assumed rate. The discount rate used to evaluate private investment projects typically represents a weighted average cost of capital (WACC), i.e., a weighted average of both the cost of debt and the cost of equity.

Fundamentally, the formula for the WACC is straightforward.

$$WACC = \frac{D}{D+E} * R_D * (1-t) + \frac{E}{D+E} * R_E \tag{A-2}$$

where D = market value of debt, E = market value of equity, t = corporate tax rate, R_D = cost of debt, and R_E = cost of equity. Because the drilling projects being evaluated are long term in nature, the values for all variables in the WACC formula are long run averages.

The WACC calculated using the formula given above is a nominal one. The real value can be calculated by

$$disc = \frac{(1 + WACC)}{(1 + \pi_e)} - 1 \tag{A-3}$$

where π_e = expected inflation rate. The expected rate of inflation over the forecasting period is measured as the average annual rate of change in the U.S. GDP deflator over the forecasting period using the forecasts of the GDP deflator from the Macro Module (MC_JPGDP).

The present value of expected revenue for either the primary fuel or its co-product is calculated as follows:

$$PVREV_{T,k} = \sum_{t=T}^{T+n} \left[Q_{t,k} * \lambda * P_{t,k} * \left[\frac{1}{1+disc} \right]^{t-T} \right], \lambda = \begin{cases} 1 \text{ if primary fuel} \\ COPRD \text{ if secondary fuel} \end{cases} \tag{A-4}$$

where,

k	=	fuel type (oil or natural gas)
T	=	time period
n	=	number of years in the evaluation period
disc	=	discount rate
Q	=	expected production volumes
P	=	expected net wellhead price
COPRD	=	co-product factor.[3]

Net wellhead price is equal to the market price minus any transportation costs. Market prices for oil and gas are defined as follows: the price at the receiving refinery for oil, the first purchase price for onshore natural gas, the price at the coastline for offshore natural gas, and the price at the Canadian border for Alaskan gas.

[2]Expected production is determined outside the DCF subroutine. The determination of expected production is described in Chapter 3.

[3]The OGSM determines coproduct production as proportional to the primary product production. COPRD is the ratio of units of coproduct per unit of primary product.

The present value of the total expected revenue generated from the representative project is

$$PVTREV_T = PVREV_{T,1} + PVREV_{T,2} \tag{A-5}$$

where

$PVREV_{T,1}$ = present value of expected revenues generated from the primary fuel
$PVREV_{T,2}$ = present value of expected revenues generated from the secondary fuel.

Present Value of Expected Royalty Payments

The present value of expected royalty payments (PVROY) is simply a percentage of expected revenue and is equal to

$$PVROY_T = ROYRT_1 * PVREV_{T,1} + ROYRT_2 * PVREV_{T,2} \tag{A-6}$$

where

ROYRT = royalty rate, expressed as a fraction of gross revenues.

Present Value of Expected Production Taxes

Production taxes consist of ad valorem and severance taxes. The present value of expected production tax is given by

$$\begin{aligned} PVPRODTAX_T = {} & PRREV_{T,1} * (1 - ROYRT_1) * PRDTAX_1 + PVREV_{T,2} \\ & *(1 - ROYRT_2) * PRODTAX_2 \end{aligned} \tag{A-7}$$

where

PRODTAX = production tax rate.

PVPRODTAX is computed as net of royalty payments because the investment analysis is conducted from the point of view of the operating firm in the field. Net production tax payments represent the burden on the firm because the owner of the mineral rights generally is liable for his/her share of these taxes.

Present Value of Expected Costs

Costs are classified within the OGSM as drilling costs, lease equipment costs, other capital costs, operating costs (including production facilities and general/administrative costs), and abandonment costs. These costs differ among successful exploratory wells, successful developmental wells, and dry holes. The present value calculations of the expected costs are computed in a similar manner as PVREV (i.e., costs are discounted at an assumed rate and then summed across the evaluation period).

Present Value of Expected Drilling Costs

Drilling costs represent the expenditures for drilling successful wells or dry holes and for equipping successful wells through the Christmas tree installation.[4] Elements included in drilling costs are labor,

[4]The Christmas tree refers to the valves and fittings assembled at the top of a well to control the fluid flow.

material, supplies and direct overhead for site preparation, road building, erecting and dismantling derricks and drilling rigs, drilling, running and cementing casing, machinery, tool changes, and rentals. The present value of expected drilling costs is given by

$$
\begin{aligned}
PVDRILLCOST_T = \sum_{t=T}^{T+n} \Big[\big[& COSTEXP_T * SR_1 * NUMEXP_t + COSTDEV_T * SR_2 * NUMDEV_t \\
& + COSTDRY_{T,1} * (1 - SR_1) * NUMEXP_t \\
& + COSTDRY_{T,2} * (1 - SR_2) * NUMDEV_t \big] * \left(\frac{1}{1 + disc} \right)^{t-T} \Big]
\end{aligned} \tag{A-8}
$$

where

COSTEXP	=	drilling cost for a successful exploratory well
SR	=	success rate (1=exploratory, 2=developmental)
COSTDEV	=	drilling cost for a successful developmental well
COSTDRY	=	drilling cost for a dry hole (1=exploratory, 2=developmental).
NUMEXP	=	number of exploratory wells drilled in a given period
NUMDEV	=	number of developmental wells drilled in a given period.

The number and schedule of wells drilled for an oil or gas project are supplied as part of the assumed production profile. This is based on historical drilling activities.

Present Value of Expected Lease Equipment Costs

Lease equipment costs include the cost of all equipment extending beyond the Christmas tree, directly used to obtain production from a drilled lease. Three categories of costs are included: producing equipment, the gathering system, and processing equipment. Producing equipment costs include tubing, rods, and pumping equipment. Gathering system costs consist of flowlines and manifolds. Processing equipment costs account for the facilities utilized by successful wells.

The present value of expected lease equipment cost is

$$
PVEQUIP_T = \sum_{t=T}^{T+n} \left[EQUIP_t * (SR_1 * NUMEXP_t + SR_2 * NUMDEV_t) * \left[\frac{1}{1 + disc} \right]^{t-T} \right] \tag{A-9}
$$

where

EQUIP	=	lease equipment costs per well.

Present Value of Other Expected Capital Costs

Other major capital expenditures include the cost of gravel pads in Alaska, and offshore platforms. These costs are exclusive of lease equipment costs. The present value of other expected capital costs is calculated as

$$
PVKAP_T = \sum_{t=T}^{T+n} \left[KAP_t * \left[\frac{1}{1 + disc} \right]^{t-T} \right] \tag{A-10}
$$

where

KAP = other major capital expenditures, exclusive of lease equipment.

Present Value of Expected Operating Costs

Operating costs include three main categories of costs: normal daily operations, surface maintenance, and subsurface maintenance. Normal daily operations are further broken down into supervision and overhead, labor, chemicals, fuel, water, and supplies. Surface maintenance accounts for all labor and materials necessary to keep the service equipment functioning efficiently and safely. Costs of stationary facilities, such as roads, also are included. Subsurface maintenance refers to the repair and services required to keep the downhole equipment functioning efficiently.

Total operating cost in time t is calculated by multiplying the cost of operating a well by the number of producing wells in time t. Therefore, the present value of expected operating costs is as follows:

$$PVOPCOST_T = \sum_{t=T}^{T+n}\left[OPCOST_t * \sum_{k=1}^{t}\left[SR_1 * NUMEXP_k + SR_2 * NUMDEV_k\right] * \left(\frac{1}{1+disc}\right)^{t-T}\right] \quad (A-11)$$

where

OPCOST = operating costs per well.

Present Value of Expected Abandonment Costs

Producing facilities are eventually abandoned and the cost associated with equipment removal and site restoration is defined as

$$PVABANDON_T = \sum_{t=T}^{T+n}\left[COSTABN_t * \left[\frac{1}{1+disc}\right]^{t-T}\right] \quad (A-12)$$

where

COSTABN = abandonment costs.

Drilling costs, lease equipment costs, operating costs, abandonment costs, and other capital costs incurred in each individual year of the evaluation period are integral components of the following determination of State and Federal corporate income tax liability.

Present Value of Expected Income Taxes

An important aspect of the DCF calculation concerns the tax treatment. All expenditures are divided into depletable,[5] depreciable, or expensed costs according to current tax laws. All dry hole and operating costs are expensed. Lease costs (i.e., lease acquisition and geological and geophysical costs) are capitalized and then amortized at the same rate at which the reserves are extracted (cost depletion). Drilling costs are split between tangible costs (depreciable) and intangible drilling costs (IDC's) (expensed). IDC's include

[5]The DCF methodology does not include lease acquisition or geological & geophysical expenditures because they are not relevant to the incremental drilling decision.

wages, fuel, transportation, supplies, site preparation, development, and repairs. Depreciable costs are amortized in accord with schedules established under the Modified Accelerated Cost Recovery System (MACRS).

Key changes in the tax provisions under the tax legislation of 1988 include the following:

- Windfall Profits Tax on oil was repealed,
- Investment Tax Credits were eliminated, and
- Depreciation schedules shifted to a Modified Accelerated Cost Recovery System.

Tax provisions vary with type of producer (major, large independent, or small independent) as shown in Table A-1. A major oil company is one that has integrated operations from exploration and development through refining or distribution to end users. An independent is any oil and gas producer or owner of an interest in oil and gas property not involved in integrated operations. Small independent producers are those with less than 1,000 barrels per day of production (oil and gas equivalent). The present DCF methodology reflects the tax treatment provided by current tax laws for large independent producers.

The resulting present value of expected taxable income (PVTAXBASE) is given by:

$$\begin{aligned} PVTAXBASE_T = \sum_{t=T}^{T+n} \Big[\big(& TREV_t - ROY_t - PRODTAX_t - OPCOST_t - ABANDON_t - XIDC_t \\ & - AIDC_t - DEPREC_t - DHC_t\big) * \left(\frac{1}{1+disc}\right)^{t-T} \Big] \end{aligned} \qquad (A\text{-}13)$$

where

T	=	year of evaluation
t	=	time period
n	=	number of years in the evaluation period
TREV	=	expected revenues
ROY	=	expected royalty payments
PRODTAX	=	expected production tax payments
OPCOST	=	expected operating costs
ABANDON	=	expected abandonment costs
XIDC	=	expected expensed intangible drilling costs
AIDC	=	expected amortized intangible drilling costs[6]
DEPREC	=	expected depreciable tangible drilling, lease equipment costs, and other capital expenditures
DHC	=	expected dry hole costs
disc	=	expected discount rate.

$TREV_t$, ROY_t, $PRODTAX_t$, $OPCOST_t$, and $ABANDON_t$ are the undiscounted individual year values. The following sections describe the treatment of expensed and amortized costs for the purpose of determining corporate income tax liability at the State and Federal level.

[6]This variable is included only for completeness. For large independent producers, all intangible drilling costs are expensed.

Expected Expensed Costs

Expensed costs are intangible drilling costs, dry hole costs, operating costs, and abandonment costs. Expensed costs and taxes (including royalties) are deductible from taxable income.

Expected Intangible Drilling Costs

For large independent producers, all intangible drilling costs are expensed. However, this is not true across the producer category (as shown in Table A-1). In order to maintain analytic flexibility with respect to changes in tax provisions, the variable XDCKAP (representing the portion of intangible drilling costs that must be depreciated) is included.

Table A-1. Tax Treatment in Oil and Gas Production by Category of Company Under Current Tax Legislation

Costs by Tax Treatment	Majors	Large Independents	Small Independents
Depletable Costs	**Cost Depletion** G&G[a] Lease Acquisition	**Cost Depletion**[b] G&G Lease Acquisition	**Maximum of Percentage or Cost Depletion** G&G Lease Acquisition
Depreciable Costs	**MACRS**[c] Lease Acquisition Other Capital Expenditures Successful Well Drilling Costs Other than IDC=s **5-year SLM**[d] 20 percent of IDC=s	**MACRS** Lease Acquisition Other Capital Expenditures Successful Well Drilling Costs Other than IDC=s	**MACRS** Lease Acquisition Other Capital Expenditures Successful Well Drilling Costs Other than IDC=s
Expensed Costs	Dry Hole Costs 80 percent of IDC's Operating Costs	Dry Hole Costs 80 percent of IDC's Operating Costs	Dry Hole Costs 80 percent of IDC's Operating Costs

[a]Geological and geophysical.
[b]Applicable to marginal project evaluation; first 1,000 barrels per day depletable under percentage depletion.
[c]Modified Accelerated Cost Recovery System; the period of recovery for depreciable costs will vary depending on the type of depreciable asset.
[d]Straight Line Method.

Expected expensed IDC's are defined as follows:

$$\begin{aligned} XIDC_t = {} & COSTEXP_T * (1 - EXKAP) * (1 - XDCKAP) * SR_1 * NUMEXP_t \\ & + COSTDEV_T * (1 - DVKAP) * (1 - XDCKAP) * SR_2 * NUMDEV_t \end{aligned} \tag{A-14}$$

where

COSTEXP	=	drilling cost for a successful exploratory well
EXKAP	=	fraction of exploratory drilling costs that are tangible and must be depreciated
XDCKAP	=	fraction of intangible drilling costs that must be depreciated[7]
SR	=	success rate (1=exploratory, 2=developmental)
NUMEXP	=	number of exploratory wells
COSTDEV	=	drilling cost for a successful developmental well
DVKAP	=	fraction of developmental drilling costs that are tangible and must be depreciated
NUMDEV	=	number of developmental wells.

If only a portion of IDC's are expensed (as is the case for major producers), the remaining IDC's must be depreciated. The model assumes that these costs are recovered at a rate of 10 percent in the first year, 20 percent annually for four years, and 10 percent in the sixth year; this method of estimating the costs is referred to as the 5-year Straight Line Method (SLM) with half-year convention. If depreciable costs accrue when fewer than 6 years remain in the life of the project, the recovered costs are estimated using a simple straight line method over the remaining period.

Thus, the value of expected depreciable IDC's is represented by

$$\begin{aligned} AIDC_t = \sum_{j=\beta}^{t} \Big[& \big(COSTEXP_T * (1 - EXKAP) * XDCKAP * SR_1 * NUMEXP_j \\ & + COSTDEV_T * (1 - DVKAP) * XDCKAP * SR_2 * NUMDEV_j\big) \\ & * DEPIDC_t * \left(\frac{1}{1+infl}\right)^{t-j} * \left(\frac{1}{1+disc}\right)^{t-j}\Big], \end{aligned} \tag{A-15}$$

$$\beta = \begin{cases} T \ \text{ for } t \le T + m - 1 \\ t - m + 1 \ \text{ for } \ t > T + m - 1 \end{cases}$$

where,

j	=	year of recovery
β	=	index for write-off schedule
DEPIDC	=	for t # n+T-m, 5-year SLM recovery schedule with half year convention; otherwise, 1/(n+T-t) in each period
infl	=	expected inflation rate[8]
disc	=	expected discount rate
m	=	number of years in standard recovery period.

AIDC will equal zero by default since the DCF methodology reflects the tax treatment pertaining to large independent producers.

[7] The fraction of intangible drilling costs that must be depreciated is set to zero as a default to conform with the tax perspective of a large independent firm.

[8] The write-off schedule for the 5-year SLM give recovered amounts in nominal dollars. Therefore, recovered costs are adjusted for expected inflation to give an amount in expected constant dollars since the DCF calculation is based on constant dollar values for all other variables.

Expected Dry Hole Costs

All dry hole costs are expensed. Expected dry hole costs are defined as

$$DHC_t = COSTDRY_{T,1} * (1 - SR_1) * NUMEXP_t + COSTDRY_{T,2} * (1 - SR_2) * NUMDEV_t \qquad (A\text{-}16)$$

where

COSTDRY = drilling cost for a dry hole (1=exploratory, 2=developmental).

Total expensed costs in any year equals the sum of $XIDC_t$, $OPCOST_t$, $ABANDON_t$, and DHC_t.

Expected Depreciable Tangible Drilling Costs, Lease Equipment Costs and Other Capital Expenditures

Amortization of depreciable costs, excluding capitalized IDC's, conforms to the Modified Accelerated

Table A-2. MACRS Schedules
(Percent)

Year	3-year Recovery Period	5-year Recovery Period	7-year Recovery Period	10-year Recovery Period	15-year Recovery Period	20-year Recovery Period
1	33.33	20.00	14.29	10.00	5.00	3.750
2	44.45	32.00	24.49	18.00	9.50	7.219
3	14.81	19.20	17.49	14.40	8.55	6.677
4	7.41	11.52	12.49	11.52	7.70	6.177
5		11.52	8.93	9.22	6.93	5.713
6		5.76	8.92	7.37	6.23	5.285
7			8.93	6.55	5.90	4.888
8			4.46	6.55	5.90	4.522
9				6.56	5.91	4.462
10				6.55	5.90	4.461
11				3.28	5.91	4.462
12					5.90	4.461
13					5.91	4.462
14					5.90	4.461
15					5.91	4.462
16					2.95	4.461
17						4.462
18						4.461
19						4.462
20						4.461
21						2.231

Source: U.S. Master Tax Guide.

Cost Recovery System (MACRS) schedules. The schedules under differing recovery periods appear in Table A-2. The particular period of recovery for depreciable costs will conform to the specifications of the tax code. These recovery schedules are based on the declining balance method with half year convention. If depreciable costs accrue when fewer years remain in the life of the project than would allow for cost recovery over the standard period, then costs are recovered using a straight line method over the remaining period.

The expected tangible drilling costs, lease equipment costs, and other capital expenditures is defined as

$$
\begin{aligned}
DEPREC_t = \sum_{j=\beta}^{t} \Big[\big[& (COSTEXP_T * EXKAP + EQUIP_T) * SR_1 * NUMEXP_j \\
& + (COSTDEV_T * DVKAP + EQUIP_T) * SR_2 * NUMDEV_j + KAP_j \big] \\
& * DEP_{t-j+1} * \left(\frac{1}{1+infl}\right)^{t-j} * \left(\frac{1}{1+disc}\right)^{t-j} \Big],
\end{aligned}
\tag{A-17}
$$

$$
\beta = \begin{cases} T \ \text{ for } t \le T+m-1 \\ t-m+1 \ \text{ for } \ t > T+m-1 \end{cases}
$$

where

j	=	year of recovery
β	=	index for write-off schedule
m	=	number of years in standard recovery period
COSTEXP	=	drilling cost for a successful exploratory well
EXKAP	=	fraction of exploratory drilling costs that are tangible and must be depreciated
EQUIP	=	lease equipment costs per well
SR	=	success rate (1=exploratory, 2=developmental)
NUMEXP	=	number of exploratory wells
COSTDEV	=	drilling cost for a successful developmental well
DVKAP	=	fraction of developmental drilling costs that are tangible and must be depreciated
NUMDEV	=	number of developmental wells drilled in a given period
KAP	=	major capital expenditures such as gravel pads in Alaska or offshore platforms, exclusive of lease equipment
DEP	=	for t # n+T-m, MACRS with half year convention; otherwise, 1/(n+T-t) in each period
infl	=	expected inflation rate[9]
disc	=	expected discount rate.

Present Value of Expected State and Federal Income Taxes

The present value of expected state corporate income tax is determined by

$$PVSIT_T = PVTAXBASE_T * STRT \tag{A-18}$$

where

PVTAXBASE	=	present value of expected taxable income (Equation A.14)
STRT	=	state income tax rate.

[9]Each of the write-off schedules give recovered amounts in nominal dollars. Therefore, recovered costs are adjusted for expected inflation to give an amount in expected constant dollars since the DCF calculation is based on constant dollar values for all other variables.

The present value of expected federal corporate income tax is calculated using the following equation:

$$PVFIT_T = PVTAXBASE_T * (1 - STRT) * FDRT \tag{A-19}$$

where

FDRT = federal corporate income tax rate.

Summary

The discounted cash flow calculation is a useful tool for evaluating the expected profit or loss from an oil or gas project. The calculation reflects the time value of money and provides a good basis for assessing and comparing projects with different degrees of profitability. The timing of a project's cash inflows and outflows has a direct affect on the profitability of the project. As a result, close attention has been given to the tax provisions as they apply to costs.

The discounted cash flow is used in each submodule of the OGSM to determine the economic viability of oil and gas projects. Various types of oil and gas projects are evaluated using the proposed DCF calculation, including single well projects and multi-year investment projects. Revenues generated from the production and sale of co-products also are taken into account.

The DCF routine requires important assumptions, such as assumed costs and tax provisions. Drilling costs, lease equipment costs, operating costs, and other capital costs are integral components of the discounted cash flow analysis. The default tax provisions applied to the costs follow those used by independent producers. Also, the decision to invest does not reflect a firm's comprehensive tax plan that achieves aggregate tax benefits that would not accrue to the particular project under consideration.

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Appendix C. Model Abstract

1. Model Name
   Oil and Gas Supply Module

2. Acronym
   OGSM

3. Description
   OGSM projects the following aspects of the crude oil and natural gas supply industry:
   - production
   - reserves
   - drilling activity
   - natural gas imports and exports

4. Purpose
   OGSM is used by the Oil and Gas Division in the Office of Integrated Analysis and Forecasting as an analytic aid to support preparation of projections of reserves and production of crude oil and natural gas at the regional and national level. The annual projections and associated analyses appear in the *Annual Energy Outlook* (DOE/EIA-0383) of the U.S. Energy Information Administration. The projections also are provided as a service to other branches of the U.S. Department of Energy, the Federal Government, and non-Federal public and private institutions concerned with the crude oil and natural gas industry.

5. Date of Last Update
   2010

6. Part of Another Model
   National Energy Modeling System (NEMS)

7. Model Interface References
   Coal Module
   Electricity Module
   Industrial Module
   International Module
   Natural Gas Transportation and Distribution Model (NGTDM)
   Macroeconomic Module
   Petroleum Market Module (PMM)

8. Official Model Representative
   Office: Integrating Analysis and Forecasting
   Division: Oil and Gas Analysis
   Model Contact: Dana Van Wagener
   Telephone: (202) 586-4725

9. Documentation Reference
   U.S. Department of Energy. 2009. *Documentation of the Oil and Gas Supply Module (OGSM)*, DOE/EIA-M063, U.S. Energy Information Administration, Washington, DC.

10. Archive Media and Installation Manual
NEMS2010

11. Energy Systems Described
The OGSM projects oil and natural gas production activities for six onshore and three offshore regions as well as three Alaskan regions. Exploratory and developmental drilling activities are treated separately, with exploratory drilling further differentiated as new field wildcats or other exploratory wells. New field wildcats are those wells drilled for a new field on a structure or in an environment never before productive. Other exploratory wells are those drilled in already productive locations. Development wells are primarily within or near proven areas and can result in extensions or revisions. Exploration yields new additions to the stock of reserves, and development determines the rate of production from the stock of known reserves.

12. Coverage
Geographic: Six Lower 48 onshore supply regions, three Lower 48 offshore regions, and three Alaskan regions.
Time Units/Frequency: Annually 1990 through 2035
Product(s): Crude oil and natural gas
Economic Sector(s): Oil and gas field production activities

13. Model Features
Model Structure: Modular, containing four major components
- Onshore Lower 48 Oil and Gas Supply Submodule
- Offshore Oil and Gas Supply Submodule
- Alaska Oil and Gas Supply Submodule
- Oil Shale Supply Submodule

Modeling Technique: The OGSM is a hybrid econometric/discovery process model. Drilling activities in the United States are projected using the estimated discounted cash flow that measures the expected present value profits for the proposed effort and other key economic variables.
Special Features: Can run stand-alone or within the NEMS. Integrated NEMS runs employ short-term natural gas supply functions for efficient market equilibration.

14. Non-DOE Input Data
- Alaskan Oil and Gas Field Size Distributions - U.S. Geological Survey
- Alaska Facility Cost By Oil Field Size - U.S. Geological Survey
- Alaska Operating cost - U.S. Geological Survey
- Basin Differential Prices - Natural Gas Week, Washington, DC
- State Corporate Tax Rate - Commerce Clearing House, Inc. *State Tax Guide*
- State Severance Tax Rate - Commerce Clearing House, Inc. *State Tax Guide*
- Federal Corporate Tax Rate, Royalty Rate - U.S. Tax Code
- Onshore Drilling Costs - (1.) American Petroleum Institute. *Joint Association Survey of Drilling Costs (1970-2008)*, Washington, D.C.; (2.) Additional unconventional gas recovery drilling and operating cost data from operating companies
- Offshore Technically Recoverable Oil and Gas Undiscovered Resources - Department of Interior. Minerals Management Service (Correspondence from Gulf of Mexico and Pacific OCS regional offices)
- Offshore Exploration, Drilling, Platform, and Production Costs - Department of Interior. Minerals Management Service (Correspondence from Gulf of Mexico and Pacific OCS regional offices)
- Canadian Wells drilled - Canadian Association of Petroleum Producers. *Statistical Handbook*.

- Canadian Recoverable Resource Base - National Energy Board. *Canada's Conventional Natural Gas Resources: A Status Report,* Canada, April 2004.
- Canadian Reserves - Canadian Association of Petroleum Producers. *Statistical Handbook*.
- Unconventional Gas Resource Data - (1) USGS *1995 National Assessment of United States Oil and Natural Gas Resources*; (2) Additional unconventional gas data from operating companies
- Unconventional Gas Technology Parameters - (1) Advanced Resources International Internal studies; (2) Data gathered from operating companies

15. DOE Input Data
    - Onshore Lease Equipment Cost – U.S. Energy Information Administration. *Costs and Indexes for Domestic Oil and Gas Field Equipment and Production Operations (1980 - 2008)*, DOE/EIA-0815(80-08)
    - Onshore Operating Cost – U.S. Energy Information Administration. *Costs and Indexes for Domestic Oil and Gas Field Equipment and Production Operations (1980 - 2008)*, DOE/EIA-0815(80-08)
    - Emissions Factors – U.S. Energy Information Administration
    - Oil and Gas Well Initial Flow Rates – U.S. Energy Information Administration, Office of Oil and Gas
    - Wells Drilled – U.S. Energy Information Administration, Office of Oil and Gas
    - Expected Recovery of Oil and Gas Per Well – U.S. Energy Information Administration, Office of Oil and Gas
    - Oil and Gas Reserves – U.S. Energy Information Administration. *U.S. Crude Oil, Natural Gas, and Natural Gas Liquids Reserves*, (1977-2009), DOE/EIA-0216(77-09)

16. Computing Environment
    - Hardware Used: PC
    - Operating System: Windows 95/Windows NT/Windows XP
    - Language/Software Used: FORTRAN
    - Memory Requirement: Unknown
    - Storage Requirement: Unknown
    - Estimated Run Time: 287 seconds

17. Reviews conducted
    - Independent Expert Review of the Offshore Oil and Gas Supply Submodule - Turkay Ertekin from Pennsylvania State University; Bob Speir of Innovation and Information Consultants, Inc.; and Harry Vidas of Energy and Environmental Analysis , Inc., June 2004
    - Independent Expert Review of the Annual Energy Outlook 2003 - Cutler J. Cleveland and Robert K. Kaufmann of the Center for Energy and Environmental Studies, Boston University; and Harry Vidas of Energy and Environmental Analysis, Inc., June-July 2003
    - Independent Expert Reviews, Model Quality Audit; Unconventional Gas Recovery Supply Submodule - Presentations to Mara Dean (DOE/FE - Pittsburgh) and Ray Boswell (DOE/FE - Morgantown), April 1998 and DOE/FE (Washington, DC)

18. Status of Evaluation Efforts

    Not applicable

19. Bibliography

    See Appendix B of this document.

Appendix D. Output Inventory

Variable Name	Description	Unit	Classification	Passed To Module
OGANGTSMX	Maximum natural gas flow through ANGTS	BCF	NA	NGTDM
OGCCAPPRD	Coalbed Methane production from CCAP		17 OGSM/NGTDM regions	NGTDM
OGCOPRD	Crude production by oil category	MMbbl/day	10 OGSM reporting regions	Industrial
OGCOPRDGOM	Gulf of Mexico crude oil production	MMbbl/day	Shallow and deep water regions	Industrial
OGCOWHP	Crude wellhead price by oil category	87$/bbl	10 OGSM reporting regions	Industrial
OGCNQPRD	Canadian production of oil and gas	oil: MMB gas: BCF	Fuel (oil, gas)	NGTDM
OGCNPPRD	Canadian price of oil and gas	oil:87$/ bbl gas:87$/ BCF	Fuel (oil, gas)	NGTDM
OGCORSV	Crude reserves by oil category	Bbbl	5 crude production categories	Industrial
OGCRDSHR	Crude oil shares by OGSM region and crude type	percent	7 OLOGSS regions	PMM
OGDNGPRD	Dry gas production	BCF	57 Lower 48 onshore & 6 Lower 48 offshore districts	PMM
OGELSCO	Oil production elasticity	fraction	6 Lower 48 onshore & 3 Lower 48 offshore regions	PMM
OGELSHALE	Electricity consumed	Trillion Btu	NA	Industrial
OGELSNGOF	Offshore nonassociated dry gas production elasticity	fraction	3 Lower 48 offshore regions	NGTDM
OGELSNGON	Onshore nonassociated dry gas production elasticity	fraction	17 OGSM/NGTDM regions	NGTDM
OGEORFTDRL	Total footage drilled from CO2 projects	feet	7 OLOGSS regions 13 CO2 sources	Industrial
OGEORINJWLS	Number of injector wells from CO2 projects	wells	7 OLOGSS regions 13 CO2 sources	Industrial
OGEORNEWWLS	Number of new wells drilled from CO2 projects	wells	7 OLOGSS regions 13 CO2 sources	Industrial
OGEORPRD	EOR production from CO2 projects	Mbbl	7 OLOGSS regions 13 CO2 sources	Industrial
OGEORPRDWLS	Number of producing wells from CO2 projects	wells	7 OLOGSS regions 13 CO2 sources	Industrial
OGEOYAD	Unproved Associated-Dissolved gas resources	TCF	6 Lower 48 onshore regions	Industrial
OGEOYRSVON	Lower 48 Onshore proved reserves by gas category	TCF	6 Lower 48 onshore regions 5 gas categories	Industrial
OGEOYINF	Inferred oil and conventional NA gas reserves	Oil: Bbbl Gas: TCF	6 Lower 48 onshore & 3 Lower 48 offshore regions	Industrial

Variable Name	Description	Unit	Classification	Passed To Module
OGEOYRSV	Proved Crude oil and natural gas reserves	Oil: Bbbl Gas: TCF	6 Lower 48 onshore & 3 Lower 48 offshore regions	Industrial
OGEOYUGR	Technically recoverable unconventional gas resources	TCF	6 Lower 48 onshore & 3 Lower 48 offshore regions	Industrial
OGEOYURR	Undiscovered technically recoverable oil and conventional NA gas resources	Oil: Bbbl Gas: TCF	6 Lower 48 onshore & 3 Lower 48 offshore regions	Industrial
OGGROWFAC	Factor to reflect expected future cons growth		NA	NGTDM
OGJOBS			NA	Macro
OGNGLAK	Natural Gas Liquids from Alaska	Mbbl/day	NA	PMM
OGNGPRD	Natural Gas production by gas category	TCF	10 OGSM reporting regions	Industrial
OGNGPRDGOM	Gulf of Mexico Natural Gas production	TCF	Shallow and deep water regions	Industrial
OGNGRSV	Natural gas reserves by gas category	TCF	12 oil and gas categories	Industrial
OGNGWHP	Natural gas wellhead price by gas category	87$/MCF	10 OGSM reporting regions	Industrial
OGNOWELL	Wells completed	wells	NA	Industrial
OGPCRWHP	Crude average wellhead price	87$/bbl	NA	Industrial
OGPNGEXP	NG export price by border	87$/MCF	26 Natural Gas border crossings	NGTDM
OGPNGWHP	Natural gas average wellhead price	87$/MCF	NA	Industrial
OGPPNGIMP	NG import price by border	87$/MCF	26 Natural Gas border crossings	NGTDM
OGPRCEXP	Adjusted price to reflect different expectation		NA	NGTDM
OGPRCOAK	Alaskan crude oil production	Mbbl	3 Alaska regions	NGTDM
OGPRDADOF	Offshore AD gas production	BCF	3 Lower 48 offshore regions	NGTDM
OGPRDADON	Onshore AD gas production	BCF	17 OGSM/NGTDM regions	NGTDM
OGPRDUGR	Lower 48 unconventional natural gas production	BCF	6 Lower 48 regions and 3 unconventional gas types	NGTDM
OGPRRCAN	Canadian P/R ratio	fraction	Fuels (oil, gas)	NGTDM
OGPRRCO	Oil P/R ratio	fraction	6 Lower 48 onshore & 3 Lower 48 offshore regions	PMM
OGPRRNGOF	Offshore nonassociated dry gas P/R ratio	fraction	3 Lower 48 offshore regions	NGTDM
OGPRRNGON	Onshore nonassociated dry gas P/R ratio	fraction	17 OGSM/NGTDM regions	NGTDM
OGQANGTS	Gas flow at U.S. border from ANGTS	BCF	NA	NGTDM
OGQCRREP	Crude production by oil category	MMbbl	5 crude production categories	PMM
OGQCRRSV	Crude reserves	Bbbl	NA	Industrial
OGQNGEXP	Natural gas exports	BCF	6 US/Canada & 3 US/Mexico border crossings	NGTDM

Variable Name	Description	Unit	Classification	Passed To Module
OGQNGIMP	Natural gas imports	BCF	3 US/Mexico border crossings; 4 LNG terminals	NGTDM
OGQNGREP	Natural gas production by gas category	TCF	12 oil and gas categories	NGTDM
OGQNGRSV	Natural gas reserves	TCF	NA	Industrial
OGRADNGOF	Non Associated dry gas reserve additions, offshore	BCF	3 Lower 48 offshore regions	NGTDM
OGRADNGON	Non Associated dry gas reserve additions, onshore	BCF	17 OGSM/NGTDM regions	NGTDM
OGRESCAN	Canadian end-of-year reserves	oil: MMB gas: BCF	Fuel (oil, gas)	NGTDM
OGRESCO	Oil reserves	MMB	6 Lower 48 onshore & 3 Lower 48 offshore regions	PMM
OGRESNGOF	Offshore nonassociated dry gas reserves	BCF	3 Lower 48 offshore regions	NGTDM
OGRESNGON	Onshore nonassociated dry gas reserves	BCF	17 OGSM/NGTDM regions	NGTDM
OGSHALENG	Gas produced	BCF	NA	NGTDM
OGTAXPREM	Canadian tax premium	oil: MMB gas: BCF	Fuel (oil, gas)	NGTDM
OGTECHON	Technology factors	BCF	3 cost categories, 6 fuel types	Industrial
OGWPTDM	Natural Gas wellhead price	87$/MCF	17 OGSM/NGTDM regions	NGTDM

Secretary of Energy Advisory Board

Shale Gas Production Subcommittee Second Ninety Day Report

November 18, 2011

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF ENERGY

The SEAB Shale Gas Production Subcommittee Second Ninety Day Report – November 18, 2011

Executive Summary

The Shale Gas Subcommittee of the Secretary of Energy Advisory Board is charged with identifying measures that can be taken to reduce the environmental impact and to help assure the safety of shale gas production. Shale gas has become an important part of the nation's energy mix. It has grown rapidly from almost nothing at the beginning of the century to near 30 percent of natural gas production. Americans deserve assurance that the full economic, environmental and energy security benefits of shale gas development will be realized without sacrificing public health, environmental protection and safety. On August 18, 2011 the Subcommittee presented its initial Ninety-Day Report[1] including twenty recommendations that the Subcommittee believes, if implemented, would assure that the nation's considerable shale gas resources are being developed responsibly, in a way that protects human health and the environment and is most beneficial to the nation. The Secretary of Energy's charge to the Subcommittee is included in Annex A and members of the Subcommittee are given in Annex B.

In this report the Subcommittee focuses on implementation of the twenty recommendations presented in its Ninety-day report. The Executive Summary of these recommendations is presented in Annex C.

The Second Ninety-Day Report

The Subcommittee recommendations in its initial report were presented without indicating priority or how each recommendation might be implemented. Progress in achieving the Subcommittee's objective of continuous improvement in reducing the environmental impact of shale gas production depends upon implementation of the Subcommittee recommendation; hence this final report focuses on implementation. On October 31, 2011, the Subcommittee held a public meeting at DOE headquarters in Washington, D.C., to learn the views of the Department of Interior, the Environmental Protection Agency, and the Department of Energy about progress and barriers to implementation of the Subcommittee recommendations.

The Subcommittee is mindful that state and federal regulators and companies are already deeply involved in environmental management. Implementing the twenty Subcommittee recommendations will require a great deal of effort, and regulators, public officials, and companies need to decide how to allocate scarce human and financial resources to each recommendation, potentially shifting effort from other valuable existing activities. All of the Subcommittee recommendations in its Ninety-Day report involve actions by one or more parties: federal officials, state officials, and public and private sector entities.

Two criteria are important in deciding on the allocation: the importance and ease of implementation. Early success in implementing some recommendations may stimulate greater effort on other recommendations, which require greater time and effort for progress. Decisions about when, how and whether to proceed with our recommendations are the responsibility of the public and private participants in the process – not the Subcommittee. But, the Subcommittee can be helpful at identifying those recommendations that seem particularly important and particularly amendable to early action. Accordingly this report classifies the twenty recommendations into three categories:

(1) Recommendations ready for implementation, primarily by federal agencies;

(2) Recommendations ready for implementation, primarily by states;

(3) Recommendations that require new partnerships and mechanisms for success.

The Subcommittee recognizes that successful implementation of each of its recommendations will require cooperation among and leadership by federal, state and local entities. In its initial report, the Subcommittee called for a process of continuous improvement and said: "This process should involve discussions and other collaborative efforts among companies involved in shale gas production (including service companies), state and federal regulators, and affected communities and public interest groups."

The Subcommittee also believes it has a responsibility to assess and report progress in implementing the recommendations in its initial report. Too often advisory committee recommendations are ignored, not because of disagreement with substance, but because the implementation path is unclear or because of the press of more immediate matters on dedicated individuals who are over extended. The Subcommittee does not wish to see this happen to its recommendation, because it believes citizens expect prompt action. Absent action there will be little credible progress in toward reducing in the environmental impact of shale gas production, placing at risk the future of the enormous potential benefits of this domestic energy resource. At this early stage, it is reasonable to assess if initial, constructive, steps are underway; there is no expectation that any of the recommendations could be completely implemented in the three months since the Subcommittee issued its initial report.

(1) Recommendations for implementation, primarily by federal agencies.

The Subcommittee has identified nine recommendations where federal agencies have primary responsibility and that are ready for implementation; these are presented in Table I.

Recommendation #2 Two existing non-profit organizations – the State Review of Oil and Natural Gas Environmental Regulations (STONGER) and the Ground Water Protection Council (GWPC) are two existing organizations that work to share information to improve the quality of regulatory policy and practice in the states. The budgets for these organizations are small, and merit public support. Previously, federal agencies (DOE and EPA) provided funding for STRONGER and GWPC, but federal funding is currently not provided. To maintain credibility to have an ability to set their own agenda these organizations cannot rely exclusively on funding provided by companies of the regulated industry. The Subcommittee has recommended that $5 million per year would provide the resources to STRONGER and the GWCPC needed to strengthen and broaden its activities as discussed in the Subcommittees previous report, for example, updating hydraulic fracturing guidelines and well construction guidelines, and developing guidelines for water supply, air emissions and cumulative impacts. Additionally, DOE and/or EPA should consider making grants to those states that volunteer to have their regulations and practices peer-reviewed by STRONGER, as an incentive for states to undergo updated reviews and to implement recommended actions.

Table 1. Recommendations ready for immediate implementation		
Rec.#	**Recommendation**	**Comment & Status**
1.	Improve public information about shale gas operations	Federal responsibility to begin planning for public website. Some discussion between DOE and White House offices about possible hosting sites but no firm plan. States should also consider establishing sites.
2.	Improve communication among federal and state regulators and provide federal funding for STRONGER and the Ground Water Protection Council	Federal funding at $5m/y will allow state regulators/NGOs/industry to plan activities. Possible minor DOE FY2012 funding; no multi-year commitment. See discussion below.
3	Measures should be taken to reduce emissions of air pollutants, ozone precursors, and methane as quickly as practicable.	We encourage EPA to complete its current rule making as it applies to shale gas production quickly, and explicitly include methane, a greenhouse gas, and controls from existing shale gas production sources. Additionally, some states have taken action in this area, and others could do so as well. See discussion below.
4	Enlisting a subset of producers in different basins to design and field a system to collect air emissions data.	Industry initiative in advance of regulation. Several companies have shown interest. Possible start in Marcellus and Eagle Ford. See discussion below.
5	Immediately launching a federal interagency planning effort to acquire data and analyze the overall greenhouse gas footprint of natural gas use.	OSTP has not committed to leading an interagency effort, but the Administration is taking steps to collect additional data, including through the EPA air emissions rulemaking.
6	Encouraging shale-gas production companies and regulators to expand immediately efforts to reduce air emissions using proven technologies and practices.	A general statement of the importance the Subcommittee places on reducing air emissions. Federal funding at $5m/y for state regulators/NGOs/industry will encourage planning. Some states have taken action in this area, and others could do so as well.
11	Launch addition field studies on possible methane migration from shale gas wells to water reservoirs.	No new studies launched; funding required from fed agencies or from states.[2]
14	Disclosure of Fracturing fluid composition	DOI has announced its intent to propose requirement. Industry appears ready to agree to mandatory stricter disclosure. See discussion below.
15	Elimination of diesel use in fracturing fluids	EPA is developing permitting guidance under the UIC program. The Subcommittee reiterates its recommendation that diesel fuel should be eliminated in hydraulic fracturing fluids.
20	R&D needs	OMB/OSTP must define proper limits for unconventional gas R&D and budget levels for DOE, EPA, and USGS. See discussion below.

Funding for the GWPC would allow the association to extend and expand its *Risk Based Data Management System,* which helps states collected and publicly share data associated with their oil and gas regulatory programs – for example, sampling and monitoring programs for surface waters, water wells, sediments and isotopic activity in and around areas of shale gas operations. Likewise, funding could go toward integrating the RBDMS into the national data portal discussed in Recommendation #1. Funding would also allow GWPC to upgrade its fracturing fluid chemical disclosure registry, *Frac Focus*, so that information can be searched, sorted and aggregated by chemical, by well, by company and by geography – as recommended by the Subcommittee in its 90-Day report.

Recommendation #3 On July 28th the U.S. EPA proposed New Source Performance Standards and National Emissions Standards for Hazardous Air Pollutants (NSPS/NESHAPs) for the oil and natural gas sector. The proposed rules, which are currently under comment and review, are scheduled to be finalized by April 3, 2012, represent a critical step forward in reducing emissions of smog-forming pollutants and air toxics. The Subcommittee commends EPA for taking this important step and encourages timely implementation. However, the proposed rules fall short of the recommendations made in the Subcommittee's Ninety-Day Report because the rules do not directly control methane emissions and the NSPS rules as proposed do not cover existing shale gas sources except for fractured or re-fractured existing gas wells.

Additionally, in its Ninety-Day report the Subcommittee recommended that companies be required to measure and disclose air emissions from shale gas sources. Recently, in response to a challenge, the EPA took two final actions that compromise the ability to get accurate emissions data from the oil and gas sector under the Greenhouse Gas Reporting Rule.[3] The Subcommittee reiterates its recommendation that the federal government or state agencies require companies to measure and disclose air emissions from shale gas sources.

Recommendation #4 The Subcommittee is aware that operating companies are considering projects to collect and disclose air emissions data from shale gas production sites. Discussions are underway to define the data to be collected, appropriate instrumentation, and subsequent analysis and disclosure of the data. The Subcommittee welcomes this development and underscores its earlier recommendation for disclosure, including independent technical review of the methodology.

Recommendation #14 The Subcommittee welcomes the announcement of the DOI of its intent to require disclosure of fracturing fluid composition on federal lands. The Subcommittee was pleased to learn from the DOI at its October 31, 2011 public hearing that the agency intends to follow the disclosure recommendations in its Ninety-Day Report that disclosure should include all chemicals, not just those that appear on

Material Safety Data Sheets, and that chemicals should be reported on a well-by-well basis and posted on a publicly available website that includes tools for searching and aggregating data by chemical, by well, by company and by geography. The Subcommittee recognized the need for protection of legitimate trade secrets but believes that the bar for trade secret protection should be high. The Subcommittee believes the DOI disclosure policy should meet the Subcommittee's criteria and that it can serve as a model for the states. The Ground Water Protection Council and the Interstate Oil and Gas Compact Commission have taken an important step in announcing their intent to require disclosure of all chemicals by operators who utilize their voluntary chemical disclosure registry, FracFocus. The Subcommittee welcomes this progress and encourages those organizations to continue their work toward upgrading FracFocus to meet the Subcommittee's recommended disclosure criteria.

Recommendation #20 As set out in its Ninety-day report, the Subcommittee believes there is a legitimate role for the federal government in supporting R&D on shale gas, arguably the country's most important domestic energy resource. To be effective such an R&D program must be pursued for several years, at a relatively modest level. The Subcommittee is aware that discussions have taken place between OMB and the involved agencies, DOI/USGS, DOE, and EPA about funding for unconventional gas R&D. The Subcommittee understands that agreement has been reached that the administration will seek funding for "priority items" for FY2012 in its discussions with Congress, but the "priority items" and the level of this funding is not decided. The Subcommittee welcomes the agencies effort to coordinate their planned out-year research effort for FY2013 and beyond, as described by DOI, DOE, and EPA at its public meeting on October 31, 2011. But, as yet, there has been no agreement with OMB on the scale and composition of a continuing unconventional gas R&D program. Failure to provide adequate funding for R&D would be deleterious and undermine achieving the policy objectives articulated by the President.

Note: after the Subcommittee completed its deliberations the Office of Management and Budget sent a letter setting forth the efforts underway to find funding for the Subcommittee recommendations; **see Annex D**. While the letter does not settle the matter, it is an important and welcome, positive step.

(2) Recommendations ready for implementation, primarily by states.

The Subcommittee has identified four recommendations in this category; all address water quality related issues.

Table 2. Recommendations requiring cooperation between regulators and industry		
Rec.#	**Recommendation**	**Comment & Status**
8	Measure and publicly report the composition of water stocks and flow throughout the fracturing and cleanup process.	Awaits EPA's study underway on the Impacts of hydraulic fracturing on drinking water resources. See discussion below. States should also determine a way forward to measure and record data from flow back operations as many issues will be local issues.
9	Manifest all transfers of water among different locations	
10	Adopt best practices in well development and construction, especially casing, cementing, and pressure management	Widely recognized as a key practice by companies and regulators but no indication of a special initiative on field measurement and reporting.
12	Adopt requirements for background water quality measurements	The value of background measurements is recognized. Jurisdiction for access to private wells differs widely

Recommendation #8 and 9 EPA has a number of regulatory actions in process. On October 20, 2011 EPA announced a schedule setting waste water discharge standards that will affect some shale gas production activities.[4] Further water quality regulatory developments will benefit from the results of EPA's study on the impact of hydraulic fracturing on drinking water that will not be complete until 2014 and will likely initiate significant negotiation between EPA and state regulators on the scope and responsibility for water regulations. The Subcommittee observes that there will be a tremendous amount of activity in the field before EPA completes its study (and any potential regulatory actions that flow from it) and urges the EPA to take action as appropriate during the course of its process.

Recommendation #12 In its initial report, the Subcommittee called for background water measurements at wells surrounding planned production sites to establish an objective benchmark to assess potential damage to water resources. All stakeholders agree that such measurements can be helpful in establishing facts and verifying disputed contamination claims. The lack of a clear pattern of state, local, and federal authority for access to private water wells to make such measurements is an impediment to policy development.

(3) Recommendations that require new partnerships or mechanisms for success

The following recommendations require development of new partnerships or mechanisms and hence the implementation challenge can be quite significant. These recommendations do, however, signal significant concerns shared by members of the Subcommittee that are noted in Table 3. The challenge is to devise new mechanisms for addressing these significant environmental problems.

Table 3. Recommendations that require new mechanisms for success

Rec.#	Recommendation	Comment & Status
7	Protection of water quality through a systems approach.	At present neither EPA or the states are engaged in developing a systems/lifecycle approach to water management.
13	Agencies should review field experience and modernize rules and enforcement practices to ensure protection of drinking and surface waters.	Reflects Subcommittee unease that the present arrangement of shared federal and state responsibility for cradle-to-grave water quality is not working smoothly or as well as it should.
16	Managing short-term and cumulative impacts on communities, land use, wildlife, and ecologies.	No new studies launched; funding required from federal agencies or from states. See discussion below.
17	Organizing for best practice.	Industry intends to establish 'centers of excellence' regionally, that involve public interest groups, state and local regulatory and local colleges and universities.
18	Air	
19	Water	

Recommendation #16 Shale gas production brings both benefits and cost of economic development to a community, often rapidly and in a region that it is unfamiliar with oil and gas operations. Short and long term community impact range from traffic, noise, land use, disruption of wildlife and habitat, with little or no allowance for planning or effective mechanisms to bring companies, regulators, and citizens to deliberate about how best to deal with near term and cumulative impacts. The Subcommittee does not believe that these issues will solve themselves or be solved by prescriptive regulation or in the courts. State and local governments should take the lead in experimenting with different mechanisms for engaging these issues in a constructive way, seeking to be beyond discussion to practical mitigation. Successful models should be disseminated.

The U.S. Department of Interior, however, is somewhat unique in having tools at its disposal that could be used to address cumulative and community impacts. For example, Master Leasing and Development Plans, a relatively new tool, might help improve planning for production on federal lands through requirements for phased leasing and development, multi-well pad drilling, limitations on surface disturbance, centralization of infrastructure, land and roadway reclamation, etc.

Recommendation 17, 18 & 19 Industry has always been interested in best practices. The Subcommittee has called for industry to increase their best practices process for field engineering and environmental control activities by adopting the objective of continuous improvement, validated by measurement and disclosure of key operating metrics.[5] Leadership for this initiative lies with industry but also involves regulators and public interest groups. Best practices involves the entire range of shale gas operations including: (a) well design and siting, (b) drilling and well completion, including importantly casing and cementing, (c) hydraulic fracturing, (d) surface operations, (e) collection and distribution of gas and land liquids, (f) well abandonment and sealing, and (g) emergency response. Developing reliable metrics for best practices is a major task and must take into account regional differences of geology and regulatory practice. A properly trained work force is an important element in achieving best practice. Thus, organizing for best practice should include better mechanisms for training of oil field workers. Such training should utilize local community college and vocational education resources.

Industry is taking a regional approach to best practice, building on local organizations, such as the Marcellus Shale Coalition. Shale companies understand the importance of involving non-industry stakeholders in their efforts and are beginning to take initiatives that engage the public in a meaningful way. Industry is showing increased interest in engineering practice as indicated by the recent workshop on hydraulic fracturing sponsored by the American Petroleum Institute on October 4 and 5, 2011 in Pittsburgh PA.[6] The Subcommittee urges leading companies to adopt a more visible commitment to using quantitative measures as a means of achieving best practice and demonstrating to the public that there is continuous improvement in reducing the environmental impact of shale gas production.

Concluding remarks

The Subcommittee was gratified with the generally favorable, but not universally favorable, response to its initial report. In particular there was overwhelming agreement on two points: (1) If the country is to enjoy the economic and other benefits of shale gas production over the coming years disciplined attention must be devoted to reducing the environmental impact that accompanies this development, and (2) a prudent balance between development and environmental protection is best struck by establishing a strong foundation of regulation and enforcement, and adopting a policy and practice that measures, discloses, and continuously improves shale gas operations.

The Subcommittee believes that if action is not taken to reduce the environmental impact accompanying the very considerable expansion of shale gas production expected across the country – perhaps as many as 100,000 wells over the next several decades – there is a real risk of serious environmental consequences causing a loss of public confidence that could delay or stop this activity. Thus, the Subcommittee has an interest in assessing and reporting on, the progress that is being made on implementing its recommendations or some sensible variations of these recommendations.

The Subcommittee has the impression that its initial report stimulated interest in taking action to reduce the environmental impact of shale gas production by the administration, state governments, industry, and public interest groups. However, the progress to date is less than the Subcommittee hoped and it is not clear how to catalyze action at a time when everyone's attention is focused on economic issues, the press of daily business, and an upcoming election. The Subcommittee cautions that whether its approach is followed or not, some concerted and sustained action is needed to avoid excessive environmental impacts of shale gas production and the consequent risk of public opposition to its continuation and expansion.

ANNEX A – CHARGE TO THE SUBCOMMITTEE

From: Secretary Chu

To: William J. Perry, Chairman, Secretary's Energy Advisory Board (SEAB)

On March 30, 2011, President Obama announced a plan for U.S. energy security, in which he instructed me to work with other agencies, the natural gas industry, states, and environmental experts to improve the safety of shale gas development. The President also issued the Blueprint for a Secure Energy Future ("Energy Blueprint"), which included the following charge:

> **"Setting the Bar for Safety and Responsibility:** To provide recommendations from a range of independent experts, the Secretary of Energy, in consultation with the EPA Administrator and Secretary of Interior, should task the Secretary of Energy Advisory Board (SEAB) with establishing a subcommittee to examine fracking issues. The subcommittee will be supported by DOE, EPA and DOI, and its membership will extend beyond SEAB members to include leaders from industry, the environmental community, and states. The subcommittee will work to identify, within 90 days, any immediate steps that can be taken to improve the safety and environmental performance of fracking and to develop, within six months, consensus recommended advice to the agencies on practices for shale extraction to ensure the protection of public health and the environment." *Energy Blueprint (page 13).*

The President has charged us with a complex and urgent responsibility. I have asked SEAB and the Natural Gas Subcommittee, specifically, to begin work on this assignment immediately and to give it the highest priority.

This memorandum defines the task before the Subcommittee and the process to be used.

Membership:

In January of 2011, the SEAB created a Natural Gas Subcommittee to evaluate what role natural gas might play in the clean energy economy of the future. Members of the Subcommittee include John Deutch (chair), Susan Tierney, and Dan Yergin. Following consultation with the Environmental Protection Agency and the Department of the Interior, I have appointed the following additional members to the Subcommittee: Stephen Holditch, Fred Krupp, Kathleen McGinty, and Mark Zoback.

The varied backgrounds of these members satisfies the President's charge to include individuals with industry, environmental community, and state expertise. To facilitate an expeditious start, the Subcommittee will consist of this small group, but additional members may be added as appropriate.

Consultation with other Agencies:

The President has instructed DOE to work in consultation with EPA and DOI, and has instructed all three agencies to provide support and expertise to the Subcommittee. Both agencies have independent regulatory authority over certain aspects of natural gas production, and considerable expertise that can inform the Subcommittee's work.

- The Secretary and Department staff will manage an interagency working group to be available to consult and provide information upon request of the Subcommittee.
- The Subcommittee will ensure that opportunities are available for EPA and DOI to present information to the Subcommittee.
- The Subcommittee should identify and request any resources or expertise that lies within the agencies that is needed to support its work.
- The Subcommittee's work should at all times remain independent and based on sound science and other expertise held from members of the Subcommittee.
- The Subcommittee's deliberations will involve only the members of the Subcommittee.
- The Subcommittee will present its final report/recommendations to the full SEAB Committee.

Public input:

In arriving at its recommendations, the Subcommittee will seek timely expert and other advice from industry, state and federal regulators, environmental groups, and other stakeholders.

- To assist the Subcommittee, DOE's Office of Fossil Energy will create a website to describe the initiative and to solicit public input on the subject.
- The Subcommittee will meet with representatives from state and federal regulatory agencies to receive expert information on subjects as the Subcommittee deems necessary.
- The Subcommittee or the DOE (in conjunction with the other agencies) may hold one or more public meetings when appropriate to gather input on the subject.

Scope of work of the Subcommittee:

The Subcommittee will provide the SEAB with recommendations as to actions that can be taken to improve the safety and environmental performance of shale gas extraction processes, and other steps to ensure protection of public health and safety, on topics such as:

- well design, siting, construction and completion;
- controls for field scale development;
- operational approaches related to drilling and hydraulic fracturing;
- risk management approaches;
- well sealing and closure;
- surface operations;
- waste water reuse and disposal, water quality impacts, and storm water runoff;
- protocols for transparent public disclosure of hydraulic fracturing chemicals and other information of interest to local communities;
- optimum environmentally sound composition of hydraulic fracturing chemicals, reduced water consumption, reduced waste generation, and lower greenhouse gas emissions;

- emergency management and response systems;
- metrics for performance assessment; and
- mechanisms to assess performance relating to safety, public health and the environment.

The Subcommittee should identify, at a high level, the best practices and additional steps that could enhance companies' safety and environmental performance with respect to a variety of aspects of natural gas extraction. Such steps may include, but not be limited to principles to assure best practices by the industry, including companies' adherence to these best practices. Additionally, the Subcommittee may identify high-priority research and technological issues to support prudent shale gas development.

Delivery of Recommendations and Advice:

- Within 90 days of its first meeting, the Subcommittee will report to SEAB on the "immediate steps that can be taken to improve the safety and environmental performance of fracking."
- Within 180 days of its first meeting, the Subcommittee will report to SEAB "consensus recommended advice to the agencies on practices for shale extraction to ensure the protection of public health and the environment."
- At each stage, the Subcommittee will report its findings to the full Committee and the SEAB will review the findings.
- The Secretary will consult with the Administrator of EPA and the Secretary of the Interior, regarding the recommendations from SEAB.

Other:

- The Department will provide staff support to the Subcommittee for the purposes of meeting the requirements of the Subcommittee charge. The Department will also engage the services of other agency Federal employees or contractors to provide staff services to the Subcommittee, as it may request.
- DOE has identified $700k from the Office of Fossil Energy to fund this effort, which will support relevant studies or assessments, report writing, and other costs related to the Subcommittee's process.
- The Subcommittee will avoid activity that creates or gives the impression of giving undue influence or financial advantage or disadvantage for particular companies involved in shale gas exploration and development.
- The President's request specifically recognizes the unique technical expertise and scientific role of the Department and the SEAB. As an agency not engaged in regulating this activity, DOE is expected to provide a sound, highly credible evaluation of the best practices and best ideas for employing these practices safely that can be made available to companies and relevant regulators for appropriate action. Our task does not include making decisions about regulatory policy.

ANNEX B – MEMBERS OF THE SUBCOMMITTEE

John Deutch, Institute Professor at MIT (Chair) **-** John Deutch served as Director of Energy Research, Acting Assistant Secretary for Energy Technology and Under Secretary of Energy for the U.S. Department of Energy in the Carter Administration and Undersecretary of Acquisition & Technology, Deputy Secretary of Defense and Director of Central Intelligence during the first Clinton Administration. Dr. Deutch also currently serves on the Board of Directors of Raytheon and Cheniere Energy and is a past director of Citigroup, Cummins Engine Company and Schlumberger. A chemist who has published more than 140 technical papers in physical chemistry, he has been a member of the MIT faculty since 1970, and has served as Chairman of the Department of Chemistry, Dean of Science and Provost. He is a member of the Secretary of Energy Advisory Board.

Stephen Holditch, Head of the Department of Petroleum Engineering at Texas A&M University and has been on the faculty since 1976 - Stephen Holditch, who is a member of the National Academy of Engineering, serves on the Boards of Directors of Triangle Petroleum Corporation and Matador Resources Corporation. In 1977, Dr. Holditch founded S.A. Holditch & Associates, a petroleum engineering consulting firm that specialized in the analysis of unconventional gas reservoirs. Dr. Holditch was the 2002 President of the Society of Petroleum Engineers. He was the Editor of an SPE Monograph on hydraulic fracturing treatments, and he has taught short courses for 30 years on the design of hydraulic fracturing treatments and the analyses of unconventional gas reservoirs. Dr. Holditch worked for Shell Oil Company prior to joining the faculty at Texas A&M University.

Fred Krupp, President, Environmental Defense Fund **-** Fred Krupp has overseen the growth of EDF into a recognized worldwide leader in the environmental movement. Krupp is widely acknowledged as the foremost champion of harnessing market forces for environmental ends. He also helped launch a corporate coalition, the U.S. Climate Action Partnership, whose Fortune 500 members - Alcoa, GE, DuPont and dozens more - have called for strict limits on global warming pollution. Mr. Krupp is coauthor, with Miriam Horn, of New York Times Best Seller, *Earth: The Sequel*. Educated at Yale and the University of Michigan Law School, Krupp was among 16 people named as America's Best Leaders by U.S. News and World Report in 2007.

Kathleen McGinty, Kathleen McGinty is a respected environmental leader, having served as President Clinton's Chair of the White House Council on Environmental Quality and Legislative Assistant and Environment Advisor to then-Senator Al Gore. More recently, she served as Secretary of the Pennsylvania Department of Environmental Protection. Ms. McGinty also has a strong background in energy. She is Senior Vice President of Weston Solutions where she leads the company's clean energy development business. She also is an Operating Partner at Element Partners, an investor in efficiency and renewables. Previously, Ms. McGinty was Chair of the Pennsylvania Energy Development Authority, and currently she is a Director at NRG Energy and Iberdrola USA.

Susan Tierney, Managing Principal, Analysis Group **-** Susan Tierney is a consultant on energy and environmental issues to public agencies, energy companies, environmental organizations, energy consumers, and tribes. She chairs the Board of the Energy Foundation, and serves on the Boards of Directors of the World Resources Institute, the Clean Air Task Force, among others. She recently, co-chaired the National Commission on Energy Policy, and chairs the Policy Subgroup of the National Petroleum Council's study of North American natural gas and oil resources. Dr. Tierney served as Assistant Secretary for Policy at the U.S. Department of Energy during the Clinton Administration. In Massachusetts, she served as Secretary of Environmental Affairs, Chair of the Board of the Massachusetts Water Resources Agency, Commissioner of the Massachusetts Department of Public Utilities and executive director of the Massachusetts Energy Facilities Siting Council.

Daniel Yergin, Chairman, IHS Cambridge Energy Research Associates **-** Daniel Yergin is the co-founder and chairman of IHS Cambridge Energy Research Associates. He is a member of the U.S. Secretary of Energy Advisory Board, a board member of the Board of the United States Energy Association and a member of the U.S. National Petroleum Council. He was vice chair of the 2007 National Petroleum Council study, *Hard Truths* and is vice chair of the new National Petroleum Council study of North American natural gas and oil resources. He chaired the U.S. Department of Energy's Task Force on Strategic Energy Research and Development. Dr. Yergin currently chairs the Energy Security Roundtable at the Brookings Institution, where he is a trustee, and is member of the advisory board of the MIT Energy Initiative. Dr. Yergin is also CNBC's Global Energy Expert. He is the author of the Pulitzer Prize-winning book, *The Prize: The Epic Quest for Oil, Money and Power.* His new book – *The Quest: Energy, Security, and the Remaking of the Modern World* – will be published in September 2011..

Mark Zoback, Professor of Geophysics, Stanford University - Mark Zoback is the Benjamin M. Page Professor of Geophysics at Stanford University. He is the author of a textbook, *Reservoir Geomechanics*, and author or co-author of over 300 technical research papers. He was co-principal investigator of the San Andreas Fault Observatory at Depth project (SAFOD) and has been serving on a National Academy of Engineering committee investigating the Deepwater Horizon accident. He was the chairman and co-founder of GeoMechanics International and serves as a senior adviser to Baker Hughes, Inc. Prior to joining Stanford University, he served as chief of the Tectonophysics Branch of the U.S. Geological Survey Earthquake Hazards Reduction Program.

Annex C – Subcommittee Recommendations

A list of the Subcommittee's findings and recommendations follows.

1. Improve public information about shale gas operations: Create a portal for access to a wide range of public information on shale gas development, to include current data available from state and federal regulatory agencies. The portal should be open to the public for use to study and analyze shale gas operations and results.

2. Improve communication among state and federal regulators: Provide continuing annual support to STRONGER (the State Review of Oil and Natural Gas Environmental Regulation) and to the Ground Water Protection Council for expansion of the *Risk Based Data Management System* and similar projects that can be extended to all phases of shale gas development.

3. Improve air quality: Measures should be taken to reduce emissions of air pollutants, ozone precursors, and methane as quickly as practicable. The Subcommittee supports adoption of rigorous standards for new and existing sources of methane, air toxics, ozone precursors and other air pollutants from shale gas operations. The Subcommittee recommends:

    4. Enlisting a subset of producers in different basins to design and rapidly implement measurement systems to collect comprehensive methane and other air emissions data from shale gas operations and make these data publically available;

    5. Immediately launching a federal interagency planning effort to acquire data and analyze the overall greenhouse gas footprint of shale gas operations throughout the lifecycle of natural gas use in comparison to other fuels; and

    6. Encouraging shale-gas production companies and regulators to expand immediately efforts to reduce air emissions using proven technologies and practices.

7. Protection of water quality: The Subcommittee urges adoption of a systems approach to water management based on consistent measurement and public disclosure of the flow and composition of water at every stage of the shale gas production process. The Subcommittee recommends the following actions by shale gas companies and regulators – to the extent that such actions have not already been undertaken by particular companies and regulatory agencies:

    8. Measure and publicly report the composition of water stocks and flow throughout the fracturing and clean-up process.

    9. Manifest all transfers of water among different locations.

    10. Adopt best practices in well development and construction, especially casing, cementing, and pressure management. Pressure testing of cemented casing and state-of-the-art cement bond logs should be used to confirm formation isolation. Microseismic surveys should be carried out to assure that

hydraulic fracture growth is limited to the gas producing formations. Regulations and inspections are needed to confirm that operators have taken prompt action to repair defective cementing jobs. The regulation of shale gas development should include inspections at safety-critical stages of well construction and hydraulic fracturing.

11. Additional field studies on possible methane leakage from shale gas wells to water reservoirs.

12. Adopt requirements for background water quality measurements (e.g., existing methane levels in nearby water wells prior to drilling for gas) and report in advance of shale gas production activity.

13. Agencies should review field experience and modernize rules and enforcement practices to ensure protection of drinking and surface waters.

14. Disclosure of fracturing fluid composition: The Subcommittee shares the prevailing view that the risk of fracturing fluid leakage into drinking water sources through fractures made in deep shale reservoirs is remote.[7] Nevertheless the Subcommittee believes there is no economic or technical reason to prevent public disclosure of all chemicals in fracturing fluids, with an exception for genuinely proprietary information. While companies and regulators are moving in this direction, progress needs to be accelerated in light of public concern.

15. Reduction in the use of diesel fuel: The Subcommittee believes there is no technical or economic reason to use diesel in shale gas production and recommends reducing the use of diesel engines for surface power in favor of natural gas engines or electricity where available.

16. Managing short-term and cumulative impacts on communities, land use, wildlife, and ecologies. Each relevant jurisdiction should pay greater attention to the combination of impacts from multiple drilling, production and delivery activities (e.g., impacts on air quality, traffic on roads, noise, visual pollution), and make efforts to plan for shale development impacts on a regional scale. Possible mechanisms include:

(1) Use of multi-well drilling pads to minimize transport traffic and need for new road construction.

(2) Evaluation of water use at the scale of affected watersheds.

(3) Formal notification by regulated entities of anticipated environmental and community impacts.

(4) Preservation of unique and/or sensitive areas as off-limits to drilling and support infrastructure as determined through an appropriate science-based process.

(5) Undertaking science-based characterization of important landscapes, habitats and corridors to inform planning, prevention, mitigation and reclamation of surface impacts.

(6) Establishment of effective field monitoring and enforcement to inform on-going assessment of cumulative community and land use impacts.

The process for addressing these issues must afford opportunities for affected communities to participate and respect for the rights of surface and mineral rights owners.

17. Organizing for best practice: The Subcommittee believes the creation of a shale gas industry production organization dedicated to continuous improvement of best practice, defined as improvements in techniques and methods that rely on measurement and field experience, is needed to improve operational and environmental outcomes. The Subcommittee favors a national approach including regional mechanisms that recognize differences in geology, land use, water resources, and regulation. The Subcommittee is aware that several different models for such efforts are under discussion and the Subcommittee will monitor progress during its next ninety days. The Subcommittee has identified several activities that deserve priority attention for developing best practices:

    18. Air: (a) Reduction of pollutants and methane emissions from all shale gas production/delivery activity. (b) Establishment of an emission measurement and reporting system at various points in the production chain.

    19. Water: (a) Well completion – casing and cementing including use of cement bond and other completion logging tools. (b) Minimizing water use and limiting vertical fracture growth.

20. Research and Development needs. The public should expect significant technical advances associated with shale gas production that will significantly improve the efficiency of shale gas production and that will reduce environmental impact. The move from single well to multiple-well pad drilling is one clear example. Given the economic incentive for technical advances, much of the R&D will be performed by the oil and gas industry. Nevertheless the federal government has a role especially in basic R&D, environment protection, and safety. The current level of federal support for unconventional gas R&D is small, and the Subcommittee recommends that the Administration and the Congress set an appropriate mission for R&D and level funding.

Annex D Letter from the Office of Management and Budget

EXECUTIVE OFFICE OF THE PRESIDENT
OFFICE OF MANAGEMENT AND BUDGET
WASHINGTON, D.C. 20503

THE DIRECTOR

November 8, 2011

Dr. John Deutch
Chairman
Secretary of Energy Advisory Board on Natural Gas
Washington, DC 20585

Dear John:

Thank you for your letter on Tuesday, November 1 about the Subcommittee of the Secretary of Energy Advisory Board on Natural Gas (SEAB). I am sorry that I could not attend the SEAB meeting earlier this week. Your work on this issue has been very helpful and it is a high priority of the Administration.

As you are aware, the Office of Management and Budget (OMB) is running an interagency working group to coordinate the research budget proposals on hydraulic fracturing and has received some preliminary suggestions from the agencies for FY 2013 activities. Over the course of the next few weeks, the interagency budget working group will review agencies' research proposals taking into consideration core competencies, which I understand was discussed with you on Monday, October 31. We will be looking carefully at the research and development (R&D) recommendations of the SEAB report as we put together the President's FY 2013 Budget.

As you know, all discretionary funding is capped in FY 2012 and FY 2013. Hydraulic fracturing R&D is a priority that we are seeking to fund as we make tough choices within these constraints. As your report acknowledges, the industry has a strong incentive to fund and carry out production-related R&D. To the degree that environmental constraints could impede continued growth, industry also has an interest in R&D to improve environmental performance and safety. Thus, finding the correct balance between public and private investment, within the broader Federal budget constraints is challenging, but important. As part of the R&D budget review, we are identifying existing programs across the government to avoid redundancies and to optimize budgetary resources. As a general matter, OMB does not announce budget decisions prior to the full presentation to the Congress in February of each year.

I am concerned there has been some confusion around OMB's position on funding this research. The Administration has opposed subsidies for conventional fossil energy exploration and production, just as the Bush Administration did. But hydraulic fracturing R&D that adheres to the framework set forth in the SEAB 90-day interim report – for air, water, induced seismicity or other public information needed to set appropriate regulatory boundaries – we strongly support, and we agree that the Environmental Protection Agency, Department of the Interior, and Department of Energy all have roles to play. However, we need to carefully articulate those roles and structure the President's Budget to most efficiently deliver the R&D funding needed to address environmental and safety concerns.

The SEAB 90-day interim report supports the existing Ultradeepwater and Unconventional Natural Gas and Other Petroleum Research Program (Sec. 999) which is funded through mandatory appropriations authorized by the Energy Policy Act of 2005. On this point, we disagree. Mandatory R&D funding from Sec. 999 is too inflexible a mechanism to adequately address environmental and safety concerns in the dynamic and rapidly evolving hydraulic fracturing space, and the President's Budgets have proposed eliminating this mandatory R&D program. Absent Congressional action to repeal Sec. 999, the Administration has sought to refocus this funding to support R&D with significant potential public benefits, including activities consistent with the SEAB recommendations.

Thank you again for reaching out to me on this important issue. Please do not assume that because we are busy, that this issue is not important to the Administration, and feel free to be in touch moving forward.

Hope all is well with you and would look forward to catching up.

Best regards,

Jacob J. Lew

Massachusetts Institute of Technology
77 Massachusetts Avenue
Building 6-215
Cambridge, Massachusetts 02139

John Deutch Institute Professor
Department of Chemistry
Tel: 617 253 1479
Fax: 617 258 6700
Email: jmd@mit.edu

To: Jack Lew, Director Office of Management and Budget

Dear Jack, November 1, 2011

In March, President Obama directed Steve Chu to establish a Subcommittee of the Secretary of Energy Advisory Board on Hydraulic Fracturing tasked to identify steps that should be taken to reduce the environmental impact of shale gas production. I am the chair of this Subcommittee, which released its initial report on August 18, 2011.

One of the Subcommittee's twenty recommendations called on the administration to adopt a unconventional gas R&D program to perform R&D that merits public funding such as environmental studies on methane leakage, assessing the relative greenhouse gas foot print of natural gas production, seismicity, inventing new techniques for real time monitoring and control of hydraulic fluid injection, and development of environmentally friendly stimulation fluids. The Subcommittee did not ask for "new" money, or suggest a particular level of funding, or how responsibilities should be distributed between the DOE, EPA, and the USGS.

On October 5, 2011, I wrote to you requesting that you or a designated representative come and speak with the Subcommittee (in open or closed session) about this matter. You designated Sally Ericsson, Associate Director for Natural Resources, who I understand participated in an interagency meeting on this subject and agreed to attend the Subcommittee's October 31 meeting. Unfortunately, Ms Ericsson had to cancel her attendance, inevitably leaving the Subcommittee, as it prepares its second and final report, with the impression that the administration has not yet been able to formulate a position on the level of distribution of federal support for unconventional gas R&D, arguably the most important near term domestic energy supply option for the country. The Subcommittee did learn that the administration will seek funds for "priority" items for FY2012 in its discussions with Congress and that EPA, DOE, and DOI are coordinating their research plans, but evidently an effective R&D program requires consistent multi-year funding.

I know that you are totally consumed by the budget deficit and countless other matters. Nevertheless, I urge you to devote a few minutes to resolving the issue of federal support for R&D on unconventional gas. President Obama in his *Blue Print for Secure Energy Future* recognized that realizing the enormous economic benefits of shale case requires improving the environmental performance of shale gas production and the *Blue Print* explicitly identified a role for federally sponsored research. It will be a shame if the administration does not take the initial steps necessary to establish a modest, but steady R&D effort by the participating agencies.

Sincerely

John Deutch

John Deutch

Cc: Steven Chu,
Heather Zichal,
Michael Froman

ENDNOTES

[1] The Subcommittee report is available at: http://www.shalegas.energy.gov/resources/081811_90_day_report_final.pdf

[2] Duke University has launched a follow-on study effort to its initial methane migration study. NETL, in cooperation with other federal agencies and with PA state agencies, Penn State, and major producers is launching a study limited to two wells. More needs to be done by federal agencies.

[3] First, EPA has finalized a deferral that will prevent the agency from collecting inputs to emissions equations data until 2015 for Subpart W sources. These inputs are critical to verify emissions information calculated using emission equations. Second, EPA has finalized a rule allowing more widespread use of Best Available Monitoring Methods ("BAMM") in 2011 and beyond. This action allows reporters to use more relaxed, non-standard methods when monitoring under Subpart W.
See: Change to the Reporting Date for Certain Data Elements Required Under the Mandatory Reporting of Greenhouse Gases Rule, 76 Fed. Reg. 53,057 (Aug. 25, 2011); and Mandatory Reporting of Greenhouse Gases: Petroleum and Natural Gas Systems: Revisions to Best Available Monitoring Method Provisions, 76 Fed. Reg. 59,533 (Sept. 27, 2011).

[4] The EPA announcement of the schedule to Develop Natural Gas Wastewater Standards can be found on the EPA home web site: http://www.epa.gov/newsroom/. It states:

> **Shale Gas Standards:** Currently, wastewater associated with shale gas extraction is prohibited from being directly discharged to waterways and other waters of the U.S. While some of the wastewater from shale gas extraction is reused or re-injected, a significant amount still requires disposal. As a result, some shale gas wastewater is transported to treatment plants, many of which are not properly equipped to treat this type of wastewater. EPA will consider standards based on demonstrated, economically achievable technologies, for shale gas wastewater that must be met before going to a treatment facility.

[5] Since the release of the Subcommittee's Ninety-Day Report, the National Petroleum Council issued its "Prudent Development" report on September 15, 2011, with its recommendation that:

> "Natural gas and oil companies should establish regionally focused council(s) of excellence in effective environmental, health, and safety practices. These councils should be forums in which companies could identify and disseminate effective environmental, health, and safety practices and technologies that are appropriate to the particular region. These may include operational risk management approaches, better environmental management techniques, and methods for measuring environmental performance. The governance structures, participation processes, and transparency should be designed to: promote engagement of industry and other interested parties; and enhance the credibility of a council's products and the likelihood they can be relied upon by regulators at the state and federal level."

NPC, "Prudent Development: Realizing the Potential of North America's Abundant Natural Gas and Oil Resources," Executive Summary Section II.A.1.

[6] See: http://www.energyfromshale.org/commitment-excellence-hydraulic-fracturing-workshop

[7] An interesting Society of Petroleum Engineers paper sheds light on this point: *Hydraulic Fracture-Height Growth: Real Data,* Kevin Fisher and Norm Warpinski, SPE 145949 available at:
http://www.spe.org/atce/2011/pages/schedule/tech_program/documents/spe145949%201.pdf .

Secretary of Energy Advisory Board

Source: U.S. Energy Information Administration based on data from various published studies. Canada and Mexico plays from ARI.
Updated: May 9, 2011

Shale Gas Production Subcommittee 90-Day Report

August 18, 2011

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF
ENERGY

The SEAB Shale Gas Production Subcommittee
Ninety-Day Report – August 18, 2011

Executive Summary

The Shale Gas Subcommittee of the Secretary of Energy Advisory Board is charged with identifying measures that can be taken to reduce the environmental impact and improve the safety of shale gas production.

Natural gas is a cornerstone of the U.S. economy, providing a quarter of the country's total energy. Owing to breakthroughs in technology, production from shale formations has gone from a negligible amount just a few years ago to being almost 30 percent of total U.S. natural gas production. This has brought lower prices, domestic jobs, and the prospect of enhanced national security due to the potential of substantial production growth. But the growth has also brought questions about whether both current and future production can be done in an environmentally sound fashion that meets the needs of public trust.

This 90-day report presents recommendations that if implemented will reduce the environmental impacts from shale gas production. The Subcommittee stresses the importance of a process of continuous improvement in the various aspects of shale gas production that relies on best practices and is tied to measurement and disclosure. While many companies are following such a process, much-broader and more extensive adoption is warranted. The approach benefits all parties in shale gas production: regulators will have more complete and accurate information; industry will achieve more efficient operations; and the public will see continuous, measurable improvement in shale gas activities.

A list of the Subcommittee's findings and recommendations follows.

- Improve public information about shale gas operations: Create a portal for access to a wide range of public information on shale gas development, to include current data available from state and federal regulatory agencies. The portal should be open to the public for use to study and analyze shale gas operations and results.

- Improve communication among state and federal regulators: Provide continuing annual support to STRONGER (the State Review of Oil and Natural Gas Environmental Regulation) and to the Ground Water Protection Council for expansion of the *Risk Based Data Management System* and similar projects that can be extended to all phases of shale gas development.

- Improve air quality: Measures should be taken to reduce emissions of air pollutants, ozone precursors, and methane as quickly as practicable. The Subcommittee supports adoption of rigorous standards for new and existing sources of methane, air toxics, ozone precursors and other air pollutants from shale gas operations. The Subcommittee recommends:

  (1) Enlisting a subset of producers in different basins to design and rapidly implement measurement systems to collect comprehensive methane and other air emissions data from shale gas operations and make these data publically available;

  (2) Immediately launching a federal interagency planning effort to acquire data and analyze the overall greenhouse gas footprint of shale gas operations through out the lifecycle of natural gas use in comparison to other fuels; and

  (3) Encouraging shale-gas production companies and regulators to expand immediately efforts to reduce air emissions using proven technologies and practices.

- Protection of water quality: The Subcommittee urges adoption of a systems approach to water management based on consistent measurement and public disclosure of the flow and composition of water at every stage of the shale gas production process. The Subcommittee recommends the following actions by shale gas companies and regulators – to the extent that such actions have not already been undertaken by particular companies and regulatory agencies:

  (1) Measure and publicly report the composition of water stocks and flow throughout the fracturing and clean-up process.

  (2) Manifest all transfers of water among different locations.

  (3) Adopt best practices in well development and construction, especially casing, cementing, and pressure management. Pressure testing of cemented casing and state-of-the-art cement bond logs should be used to confirm formation isolation. Microseismic surveys should be carried out to assure that hydraulic fracture growth is limited to the gas producing formations. Regulations and inspections are needed to confirm that operators

have taken prompt action to repair defective cementing jobs. The regulation of shale gas development should include inspections at safety-critical stages of well construction and hydraulic fracturing.

(4) Additional field studies on possible methane leakage from shale gas wells to water reservoirs.

(5) Adopt requirements for background water quality measurements (e.g., existing methane levels in nearby water wells prior to drilling for gas) and report in advance of shale gas production activity.

(6) Agencies should review field experience and modernize rules and enforcement practices to ensure protection of drinking and surface waters.

- Disclosure of fracturing fluid composition: The Subcommittee shares the prevailing view that the risk of fracturing fluid leakage into drinking water sources through fractures made in deep shale reservoirs is remote. Nevertheless the Subcommittee believes there is no economic or technical reason to prevent public disclosure of all chemicals in fracturing fluids, with an exception for genuinely proprietary information. While companies and regulators are moving in this direction, progress needs to be accelerated in light of public concern.

- Reduction in the use of diesel fuel: The Subcommittee believes there is no technical or economic reason to use diesel in shale gas production and recommends reducing the use of diesel engines for surface power in favor of natural gas engines or electricity where available.

- Managing short-term and cumulative impacts on communities, land use, wildlife, and ecologies. Each relevant jurisdiction should pay greater attention to the combination of impacts from multiple drilling, production and delivery activities (e.g., impacts on air quality, traffic on roads, noise, visual pollution), and make efforts to plan for shale development impacts on a regional scale. Possible mechanisms include:

  (1) Use of multi-well drilling pads to minimize transport traffic and need for new road construction.

  (2) Evaluation of water use at the scale of affected watersheds.

  (3) Formal notification by regulated entities of anticipated environmental and community impacts.

(4) Preservation of unique and/or sensitive areas as off-limits to drilling and support infrastructure as determined through an appropriate science-based process.

(5) Undertaking science-based characterization of important landscapes, habitats and corridors to inform planning, prevention, mitigation and reclamation of surface impacts.

(6) Establishment of effective field monitoring and enforcement to inform on-going assessment of cumulative community and land use impacts.

The process for addressing these issues must afford opportunities for affected communities to participate and respect for the rights of surface and mineral rights owners.

- Organizing for best practice: The Subcommittee believes the creation of a shale gas industry production organization dedicated to continuous improvement of best practice, defined as improvements in techniques and methods that rely on measurement and field experience, is needed to improve operational and environmental outcomes. The Subcommittee favors a national approach including regional mechanisms that recognize differences in geology, land use, water resources, and regulation. The Subcommittee is aware that several different models for such efforts are under discussion and the Subcommittee will monitor progress during its next ninety days. The Subcommittee has identified several activities that deserve priority attention for developing best practices:

  Air: (a) Reduction of pollutants and methane emissions from all shale gas production/delivery activity. (b) Establishment of an emission measurement and reporting system at various points in the production chain.

  Water: (a) Well completion – casing and cementing including use of cement bond and other completion logging tools. (b) Minimizing water use and limiting vertical fracture growth.

- Research and Development needs. The public should expect significant technical advances associated with shale gas production that will significantly improve the efficiency of shale gas production and that will reduce environmental impact. The move from single well to multiple-well pad drilling is one clear example. Given the economic incentive for technical advances, much of the R&D will be performed by the oil and gas industry. Nevertheless the federal government has a role especially in basic R&D, environment protection, and safety. The current level of federal support for unconventional gas R&D is small, and the Subcommittee recommends that the Administration and the Congress set an appropriate mission for R&D and level funding.

The Subcommittee believes that these recommendations, combined with a continuing focus on and clear commitment to measurable progress in implementation of best practices based on technical innovation and field experience, represent important steps toward meeting public concerns and ensuring that the nation's resources are responsibly being responsibly developed.

Introduction

On March 31, 2011, President Barack Obama declared that "recent innovations have given us the opportunity to tap large reserves – perhaps a century's worth" of shale gas. In order to facilitate this development, ensure environmental protection, and meet public concerns, he instructed Secretary of Energy Steven Chu to form a subcommittee of the Secretary of Energy Advisory Board (SEAB) to make recommendations to address the safety and environmental performance of shale gas production.[1] The Secretary's charge to the Subcommittee, included in Annex A, requested that:

> Within 90 days of its first meeting, the Subcommittee will report to SEAB on the "immediate steps that can be taken to improve the safety and environmental performance of fracturing.

This is the 90-day report submitted by the Subcommittee to SEAB in fulfillment of its charge. There will be a second report of the Subcommittee after 180 days. Members of the Subcommittee are given in Annex B.

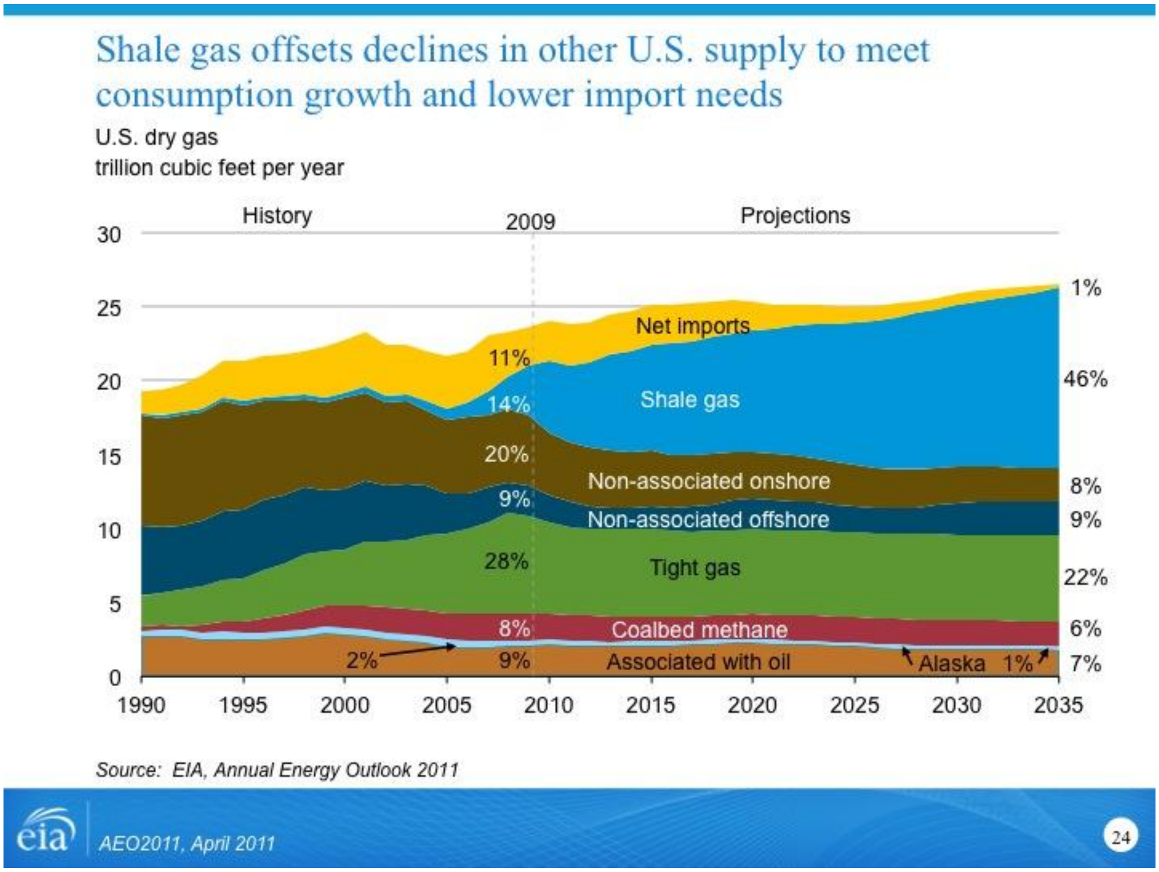
Context for the Subcommittee's deliberations

The Subcommittee believes that the U.S. shale gas resource has enormous potential to provide economic and environmental benefits for the county. Shale gas is a widely distributed resource in North America that can be relatively cheaply produced, creating jobs across the country. Natural gas – if properly produced and transported – also offers climate change advantages because of its low carbon content compared to coal.

Source: U.S. Energy Information Administration based on data from various published studies. Canada and Mexico plays from ARI.
Updated: May 9, 2011

Domestic production of shale gas also has the potential over time to reduce dependence on imported oil for the United States. International shale gas production will increase the diversity of supply for other nations. Both these developments offer important national security benefits.[2]

The development of shale gas in the United States has been very rapid. Natural gas from all sources is one of America's major fuels, providing about 25 percent of total U.S. energy. Shale gas, in turn, was less than two percent of total U.S. natural gas production in 2001. Today, it is approaching 30 percent.[3] But it was only around 2008 that the significance of shale gas began to be widely recognized. Since then, output has increased four-fold. It has brought new regions into the supply mix. Output from the Haynesville shale, mostly in Louisiana, for example, was negligible in 2008; today, the Haynesville shale alone produces eight percent of total U.S. natural gas output. According to the U.S. Energy Information Administration (EIA), the rapid expansion of shale gas production is expected to continue in the future. The EIA projects shale gas to be 46 percent of domestic production by 2035. The following figure shows the stunning change.



The economic significance is potentially very large. While estimates vary, well over 200,000 of jobs (direct, indirect, and induced) have been created over the last several years by the development of domestic production of shale gas, and tens of thousands more will be created in the future.[4] As late as 2007, before the impact of the shale gas revolution, it was assumed that the United States would be importing large amounts of liquefied natural gas from the Middle East and other areas. Today, the United States is essentially self-sufficient in natural gas, with the only notable imports being from Canada, and expected to remain so for many decades. The price of natural gas has fallen by more than a factor of two since 2008, benefiting consumers in the lower cost of home heating and electricity.

The rapid expansion of production is rooted in change in applications of technology and field practice. It had long been recognized that substantial supplies of natural gas were embedded in shale rock. But it was only in 2002 and 2003 that the combination of two technologies working together – hydraulic fracturing and horizontal drilling – made shale gas commercial.

These factors have brought new regions into the supply mix. Parts of the country, such as regions of the Appalachian mountain states where the Marcellus Shale is located, which have not experienced significant oil and gas development for decades, are now undergoing significant development pressure. Pennsylvania, for example, which produced only one percent of total dry gas production in 2009, is one of the most active new areas of development. Even states with a history of oil and gas development, such as Wyoming and Colorado, have experienced significant development pressures in new areas of the state where unconventional gas is now technically and economically accessible due to changes in drilling and development technologies.

The urgency of addressing environmental consequences

As with all energy use, shale gas must be produced in a manner that prevents, minimizes and mitigates environmental damage and the risk of accidents and protects public health and safety. Public concern and debate about the production of shale gas has grown as shale gas output has expanded.

The Subcommittee identifies four major areas of concern: (1) Possible pollution of drinking water from methane and chemicals used in fracturing fluids; (2) Air pollution; (3) Community disruption during shale gas production; and (4) Cumulative adverse impacts that intensive shale production can have on communities and ecosystems.

There are serious environmental impacts underlying these concerns and these adverse environmental impacts need to be prevented, reduced and, where possible, eliminated as soon as possible. Absent effective control, public opposition will grow, thus putting continued production at risk. Moreover, with anticipated increase in U.S. hydraulically fractured wells, if effective environmental action is not taken today, the potential environmental consequences will grow to a point that the country will be faced a more serious problem. Effective action requires both strong regulation and a shale gas industry in which all participating companies are committed to continuous improvement.

The rapid expansion of production and rapid change in technology and field practice, requires federal and state agencies to adapt and evolve their regulations. Industry's pursuit of more efficient operations often has environmental as well as economic benefits, including waste minimization, greater gas recovery, less water usage, and a reduced operating footprint. So there are many reasons to be optimistic that continuous improvement of shale gas production in reducing existing and potential undesirable impacts can be a cooperative effort among the public, companies in the industry, and regulators.

Subcommittee scope, procedure and outline of this report

Scope: The Subcommittee has focused exclusively on production of natural gas (and some liquid hydrocarbons) from shale formations with hydraulic fracturing stimulation in either vertical or horizontal wells. The Subcommittee is aware that some of the observations and recommendations in this report could lead to extension of its findings to other oil and gas operations, but our intention is to focus singularly on issues related to shale gas development. We caution against applying our findings to other areas, because the Subcommittee has not considered the different development practices and other types of geology, technology, regulation and industry practice.

These shale plays in different basins have different geological characteristics and occur in areas with very different water resources. In the Eagle Ford, in Texas, there is almost no flow-back water from an operating well following hydraulic fracturing, while in the Marcellus, primarily in Ohio, New York, Pennsylvania and West Virginia, the flow-back water is between 20 and 40 percent of the injected volume. This geological diversity means that engineering practice and regulatory oversight will differ widely among regions of the country.

The Subcommittee describes in this report a comprehensive and collaborative approach to managing risk in shale gas production. The Subcommittee believes that a more systematic commitment to a process of *continuous improvement* to identify and implement best practices is needed, and should be embraced by all companies in the shale gas industry. Many companies already demonstrate their commitment to the kind of process we describe here, but the public should be confident that this is the practice across the industry.

This process should involve discussions and other collaborative efforts among companies involved in shale gas production (including service companies), state and federal regulators, and affected communities and public interests groups. The process should identify best practices that evolve as operational experience increases, knowledge of environmental effects and effective mitigation grows, and know-how and technology changes. It should also be supported by technology peer reviews that report on individual companies' performance and should be seen as a compliment to, not a substitute for, strong regulation and effective enforcement. There will be three benefits:

- For industry: As all firms move to adopt identified best practices, continuous improvement has the potential to both enhance production efficiency and reduce environmental impacts over time.
- For regulators: Sharing data and best practices will better inform regulators and help them craft policies and regulations that will lead to sounder and more efficient environmental practices than are now in place.
- For the public: Continuous improvement coupled with rigorous regulatory oversight can provide confidence that processes are in place that will result in improved safety and less environmental and community impact.

The realities of regional diversity of shale gas resources and rapid change in production practices and technology mean that a single best engineering practice cannot set for all locations and for all time. Rather, the appropriate starting point is to understand what are regarded as "best practices" today, how the current regulatory system works in the context of those operating in different parts of the country, and establishing a culture of continuous improvement.

The Subcommittee has considered the safety and environmental impact of all steps in shale gas production, not just hydraulic fracturing.[5] Shale gas production consists of several steps, from well design and surface preparation, to drilling and cementing steel casing at multiple stages of well construction, to well completion. The various steps include perforation, water and fracturing fluid preparation, multistage hydraulic fracturing, collection and handling of flow-back and produced water, gas collection, processing and pipeline transmission, and site remediation.[6] Each of these activities has safety and environmental risks that are addressed by operators and by regulators in different ways according to location. In light of these processes, the Subcommittee interprets its charge to assess this entire system, rather than just hydraulic fracturing.

The Subcommittee's charge is not to assess the balance of the benefits of shale gas use against these environmental costs. Rather, the Subcommittee's charge is to identify steps that can be taken to reduce the environmental and safety risks associated with shale gas development and, importantly, give the public concrete reason to believe that environmental impacts will be reduced and well managed on an ongoing basis, and that problems will be mitigated and rapidly corrected, if and when they occur.

It is not within the scope of the Subcommittee's 90-day report to make recommendations about the proper regulatory roles for state and federal governments. However, the Subcommittee emphasizes that effective and capable regulation is essential to protect the public interest. The challenges of protecting human health and the environment in light of the anticipated rapid expansion of shale gas production require the joint efforts of state and federal regulators. This means that resources dedicated to oversight of the industry must be sufficient to do the job and that there is adequate regulatory staff at the state and federal level with the technical expertise to issue, inspect, and enforce regulations. Fees, royalty payments and severance taxes are appropriate sources of funds to finance these needed regulatory activities.

The nation has important work to do in strengthening the design of a regulatory system that sets the policy and technical foundation to provide for continuous improvement in the protection of human health and the environment. While many states and several federal agencies regulate aspects of these operations, the efficacy of the regulations is far from clear. Raw statistics about enforcement actions and compliance are not sufficient to draw conclusions about regulatory effectiveness. Informed conclusions about the state of shale gas operations require analysis of the vast amount of data that is publically available, but there are surprisingly few published studies of this publically available data. Benchmarking is needed for the efficacy of existing regulations and consideration of additional mechanisms for assuring compliance such as disclosure of company performance and enforcement history, and operator certification of performance subject to stringent fines, if violated.

Subcommittee Procedure: In the ninety days since its first meeting, the Subcommittee met with representatives of industry, the environmental community, state regulators, officials of the Environmental Protection Agency, the Department of Energy, the Department of the Interior, both the United States Geologic Survey (USGS) and the Bureau of Land Management (BLM), which has responsibility for public land regulation,[7] and a number of individuals from industry and not-for-profit groups with relevant expertise and interest. The Subcommittee held a public meeting attended by over four hundred citizens in Washington Country, PA, and visited several Marcellus shale gas sites. The Subcommittee strove to hold all of its meeting in public although the Subcommittee held several private working sessions to review what it had learned and to deliberate on its course of action. A website is available that contains the Subcommittee meeting agendas, material presented to the Subcommittee, and numerous public comments.[8]

Outline of this report: The Subcommittee findings and recommendations are organized in four sections:

- Making information about shale gas production operations more accessible to the public – an immediate action.

- Immediate and longer term actions to reduce environmental and safety risks of shale gas operations

- Creation of a Shale Gas Industry Operation organization, on national and/or regional basis, committed to continuous improvement of best operating practices.

- R&D needs to improve safety and environmental performance – immediate and long term opportunities for government and industry.

The common thread in all these recommendations is that measurement and disclosure are fundamental elements of good practice and policy for all parties. Data enables companies to identify changes that improve efficiency and environmental performance and to benchmark against the performance of different companies. Disclosure of data permits regulators to identify cost/effective regulatory measures that better protect the environment and public safety, and disclosure gives the public a way to measure progress on reducing risks.

Making shale gas information available to the public

The Subcommittee has been struck by the enormous difference in perception about the consequences of shale gas activities. Advocates state that fracturing has been performed safety without significant incident for over 60 years, although modern shale gas fracturing of two mile long laterals has only been done for something less than a decade. Opponents point to failures and accidents and other environmental impacts, but these incidents are typically unrelated to hydraulic fracturing *per se* and sometimes lack supporting data about the relationship of shale gas development to incidence and consequences.[9] An industry response that hydraulic fracturing has been performed safely for decades rather than engaging the range of issues concerning the public will not succeed.

Some of this difference in perception can be attributed to communication issues. Many in the concerned public use the word “fracking” to describe all activities associated with shale gas development, rather than just the hydraulic fracturing process itself. Public concerns extend to accidents and failures associated with poor well construction and operation, surface spills, leaks at pits and impoundments, truck traffic, and the cumulative impacts of air pollution, land disturbance and community disruption.

The Subcommittee believes there is great merit to creating a national database to link as many sources of public information as possible with respect to shale gas development and production. Much information has been generated over the past ten years by state and federal regulatory agencies. Providing ways to link various databases and, where possible, assemble data in a comparable format, which are now in perhaps a hundred different locations, would permit easier access to data sets by interested parties.

Members of the public would be able to assess the current state of environmental protection and safety and inform the public of these trends. Regulatory bodies would be better able to assess and monitor the trends in enforcement activities. Industry would be able to analyze data on production trends and comparative performance in order to identify effective practices.

The Subcommittee recommends creation of this national database. A rough estimate for the initial cost is $20 million to structure and construct the linkages necessary for assembling this virtual database, and about $5 million annual cost to maintain it. This recommendation is not aimed at establishing new reporting requirements. Rather, it focuses on creating linkages among information and data that is currently collected and technically and legally capable of being made available to the public. What analysis of the data should be done is left entirely for users to decide.[10]

There are other important mechanisms for improving the availability and usefulness of shale gas information among various constituencies. The Subcommittee believes two such mechanisms to be exceptionally meritorious (and would be relatively inexpensive to expand).

The first is an existing organization known as STRONGER – the State Review of Oil and Natural Gas Environmental Regulation. STRONGER is a not-for-profit organization whose purpose is to accomplish genuine peer review of state regulatory activities. The peer reviews (conducted by a panel of state regulators, industry representatives, and environmental organization representatives with respect to the processes and policies of the state under review) are published publicly, and provide a means to share information about environmental protection strategies, techniques, regulations, and measures for program improvement. Too few states participate in STRONGER's voluntary review of state regulatory programs. The reviews allow for learning to be shared by states and the expansion of the STRONGER process should be encouraged. The Department of Energy, the Environmental Protection Agency, and the American Petroleum Institute have supported STRONGER over time.[11]

The second is the Ground Water Protection Council's project to extend and expand the *Risk Based Data Management System, which* allows states to exchange information about defined parameters of importance to hydraulic fracturing operations.[12]

The Subcommittee recommends that these two activities be funded at the level of $5 million per year beginning in FY2012. Encouraging these multi-stakeholder mechanisms will help provide greater information to the public, enhancing regulation and improving the efficiency of shale gas production. It will also provide support for STRONGER to expand its activities into other areas such as air quality, something that the Subcommittee encourages the states to do as part of the scope of STRONGER peer reviews.

Recommendations for immediate and longer term actions to reduce environmental and safety risks of shale gas operations

1. Improvement in air quality by reducing emissions of regulated pollutants and methane.

Shale gas production, including exploration, drilling, venting/flaring, equipment operation, gathering, accompanying vehicular traffic, results in the emission of ozone precursors (volatile organic compounds (VOCs), and nitrogen oxides), particulates from diesel exhaust, toxic air pollutants and greenhouse gases (GHG), such as methane.

As shale gas operations expand across the nation these air emissions have become an increasing matter of concern at the local, regional and national level. Significant air quality impacts from oil and gas operations in Wyoming, Colorado, Utah and Texas are well documented, and air quality issues are of increasing concern in the Marcellus region (in parts of Ohio, Pennsylvania, West Virginia and New York).[13]

The Environmental Protection Agency has the responsibility to regulate air emissions and in many cases delegate its authority to states. On July 28, 2011, EPA proposed amendments to its regulations for air emissions for oil and gas operations. If finalized and fully implemented, its proposal will reduce emissions of VOCs, air toxics and, collaterally, methane. EPA's proposal does not address many existing types of sources in the natural gas production sector, with the notable exception of hydraulically fractured well re-completions, at which "green" completions must be used. ("Green" completions use equipment that will capture methane and other air contaminants, avoiding its release.) EPA is under court order to take final action on these clean air measures in 2012. In addition, a number of states – notably, Wyoming and Colorado – have taken proactive steps to address air emissions from oil and gas activities.

The Subcommittee supports adoption of emission standards for both new and existing sources for methane, air toxics, ozone-forming pollutants, and other major airborne contaminants resulting from natural gas exploration, production, transportation and distribution activities. The Subcommittee also believes that companies should be required, as soon as practicable, to measure and disclose air pollution emissions, including greenhouse gases, air toxics, ozone precursors and other pollutants. Such disclosure should include direct measurements wherever feasible; include characterization of chemical composition of the natural gas measured; and be reported on a publically accessible website that allows for searching and aggregating by pollutant, company, production activity and geography.

Methane emissions from shale gas drilling, production, gas processing, transmission and storage are of particular concern because methane is a potent greenhouse gas: 25 to 72 times greater warming potential than carbon dioxide on 100-year and 20-year time scales respectively.[14] Currently, there is great uncertainty about the scale of methane emissions.

The Subcommittee recommends three actions to address the air emissions issue.

First, inadequate data are available about how much methane and other air pollutants are emitted by the consolidated production activities of a shale gas operator in a given area, with such activities encompassing drilling, fracturing, production, gathering, processing of gas and liquids, flaring, storage, and dispatch into the pipeline transmission and distribution network. Industry reporting of greenhouse gas emissions in 2012 pursuant to EPA's reporting rule will provide new insights, but will not eliminate key uncertainties about the actual amount and variability in emissions.

The Subcommittee recommends enlisting a subset of producers in different basins, on a voluntary basis, to immediately launch projects to design and rapidly implement measurement systems to collect comprehensive methane and other air emissions data.

These pioneering data sets will be useful to regulators and industry in setting benchmarks for air emissions from this category of oil and gas production, identifying cost-effective procedures and equipment changes that will reduce emissions; and guiding practical regulation and potentially avoid burdensome and contentious regulatory procedures. Each project should be conducted in a transparent manner and the results should be publicly disclosed.

There needs to be common definitions of the emissions and other parameters that should be measured and measurement techniques, so that comparison is possible between the data collected from the various projects. Provision should be made for an independent technical review of the methodology and results to establish their credibility. The Subcommittee will report progress on this proposal during its next phase.

The second recommendation regarding air emissions concerns the need for a thorough assessment of the greenhouse gas footprint for cradle-to-grave use of natural gas. This effort is important in light of the expectation that natural gas use will expand and substitute for other fuels. There have been relatively few analyses done of the question of the greenhouse gas footprint over the entire fuel-cycle of natural gas production, delivery and use, and little data are available that bear on the question. A recent peer-reviewed article reaches a pessimistic conclusion about the greenhouse gas footprint of shale gas production and use – a conclusion not widely accepted.[15] DOE's National Energy Technology Laboratory has given an alternative analysis.[16] Work has also been done for electric power, where natural gas is anticipated increasingly to substitute for coal generation, reaching a more favorable conclusion that natural gas results in about one-half the equivalent carbon dioxide emissions.[17]

The Subcommittee believes that additional work is needed to establish the extent of the footprint of the natural gas fuel cycle in comparison to other fuels used for electric power and transportation because it is an important factor that will be considered when formulating policies and regulations affecting shale gas development. These data will help answer key policy questions such as the time scale on which natural gas fuel switching strategies would produce real climate benefits through the full fuel cycle and the level of methane emission reductions that may be necessary to ensure such climate benefits are meaningful.

The greenhouse footprint of the natural gas fuel cycle can be either estimated indirectly by using surrogate measures or preferably by collecting actual data where it is practicable to do so. In the selection of methods to determine actual emissions, preference should be given to direct measurement wherever feasible, augmented by emissions factors that have been empirically validated. Designing and executing a comprehensive greenhouse gas footprint study based on actual data – the Subcommittee's recommended approach -- is a major project. It requires agreement on measurement equipment, measurement protocols, tools for integrating and analyzing data from different regions, over a multiyear period. Since producer, transmission and distribution pipelines, end-use storage and natural gas many different companies will necessarily be involved. A project of this scale will be expensive. Much of the cost will be borne by firms in the natural gas enterprise that are or will be required to collect and report air emissions. These measurements should be made as rapidly as practicable. Aggregating, assuring quality control and analyzing these data is a substantial task involving significant costs that should be underwritten by the federal government.

It is not clear which government agency would be best equipped to manage such a project. The Subcommittee recommends that planning for this project should begin immediately and that the Office of Science and Technology Policy, should be asked to coordinate an interagency effort to identify sources of funding and lead agency responsibility. This is a pressing question so a clear blueprint and project timetable should be produced within a year.

Third, the Subcommittee recommends that industry and regulators immediately expand efforts to reduce air emissions using proven technologies and practices. Both methane and ozone precursors are of concern. Methane leakage and uncontrolled venting of methane and other air contaminants in the shale gas production should be eliminated except in cases where operators demonstrate capture is technically infeasible, or where venting is necessary for safety reasons and where there is no alternative for capturing emissions. When methane emissions cannot be captured, they should be flared whenever volumes are sufficient to do so.

Ozone precursors should be reduced by using cleaner engine fuel, deploying vapor recovery and other control technologies effective on relevant equipment." Wyoming's emissions rules represent a good starting point for establishing regulatory frameworks and for encouraging industry best practices.

2. Protecting water supply and water quality.

The public understandably wants implementation of standards to ensure shale gas production does not risk polluting drinking water or lakes and streams. The challenge to proper understanding and regulation of the water impacts of shale production is the great diversity of water use in different regional shale gas plays and the different pattern of state and federal regulation of water resources across the country. The U.S. EPA has certain authorities to regulate water resources and it is currently undertaking a two-year study under congressional direction to investigate the potential impacts of hydraulic fracturing on drinking water resources.[18]

Water use in shale gas production passes through the following stages: (1) water acquisition, (2) drilling and hydraulic fracturing (surface formulation of water, fracturing chemicals and sand followed by injection into the shale producing formation at various locations), (3) collection of return water, (4) water storage and processing, and (5) water treatment and disposal.

The Subcommittee offers the following observations with regard to these water issues:

(1) Hydraulic fracturing stimulation of a shale gas well requires between 1 and 5 million gallons of water. While water availability varies across the country, in most regions water used in hydraulic fracturing represents a small fraction of total water consumption. Nonetheless, in some regions and localities there are significant concerns about consumptive water use for shale gas development.[19] There is considerable debate about the water intensity of natural gas compared to other fuels for particular applications such as electric power production.[20]

One of the commonly perceived risks from hydraulic fracturing is the possibility of leakage of fracturing fluid through fractures into drinking water. Regulators and geophysical experts agree that the likelihood of properly injected fracturing fluid reaching drinking water through fractures is remote where there is a large depth separation between drinking water sources and the producing zone. In the great majority of regions where shale gas is being produced, such separation exists and there are few, if any, documented examples of such migration. An improperly executed fracturing fluid injection can, of course, lead to surface spills and leakage into surrounding shallow drinking water formations. Similarly, a well with poorly cemented casing could potentially leak, regardless of whether the well has been hydraulically fractured.

With respect to stopping surface spills and leakage of contaminated water, the Subcommittee observes that extra measures are now being taken by some operators and regulators to address the public's concern that water be protected. The use of mats, catchments and groundwater monitors as well as the establishment of buffers around surface water resources help ensure against water pollution and should be adopted.

Methane leakage from producing wells into surrounding drinking water wells, exploratory wells, production wells, abandoned wells, underground mines, and natural migration is a greater source of concern. The presence of methane in wells surrounding a shale gas production site is not *ipso facto* evidence of methane leakage from the fractured producing well since methane may be present in surrounding shallow methane deposits or the result of past conventional drilling activity.

However, a recent, credible, peer-reviewed study documented the higher concentration of methane originating in shale gas deposits (through isotopic abundance of C-13 and the presence of trace amounts of higher hydrocarbons) into wells surrounding a producing shale production site in northern Pennsylvania.[21] <u>The Subcommittee recommends several studies be commissioned to confirm the validity of this study and the extent of methane migration that may take place in this and other regions</u>.

(2) Industry experts believe that methane migration from shale gas production, when it occurs, is due to one or another factors: drilling a well in a geological unstable location; <u>loss of well integrity as a result of poor well completion (cementing or casing) or poor production pressure management</u>. Best practice can reduce the risk of this failure mechanism (as discussed in the following section). Pressure tests of the casing and state-of-the-art cement bond logs should be performed to confirm that the methods being used achieve the desired degree of

formation isolation. Similarly, frequent microseismic surveys should be carried out to assure operators and service companies that hydraulic fracture growth is limited to the gas-producing formations. Regulations and inspections are needed to confirm that operators have taken prompt action to repair defective cementing (squeeze jobs).

(3) A producing shale gas well yields flow-back and other produced water. The flow-back water is returned fracturing water that occurs in the early life of the well (up to a few months) and includes residual fracturing fluid as well as some solid material from the formation. Produced water is the water displaced from the formation and therefore contains substances that are found in the formation, and may include brine, gases (e.g. methane, ethane), trace metals, naturally occurring radioactive elements (e.g. radium, uranium) and organic compounds. Both the amount and the composition of the flow-back and produced water vary substantially among shale gas plays – for example, in the Eagle Ford area, there is very little returned water after hydraulic fracturing whereas, in the Marcellus, 20 to 40 percent of the fracturing fluid is produced as flow-back water. In the Barnett, there can significant amounts of saline water produced with shale gas if hydraulic fractures propagate downward into the Ellenburger formation.

(4) The return water (flow-back + produced) is collected (frequently from more than a single well), processed to remove commercially viable gas and stored in tanks or an impoundment pond (lined or unlined). For pond storage evaporation will change the composition. Full evaporation would ultimately leave precipitated solids that must be disposed in a landfill. <u>Measurement of the composition of the stored return water should be a routine industry practice</u>.

(5) There are four possibilities for disposal of return water: <u>reuse</u> as fracturing fluid in a new well (several companies, operating in the Marcellus are recycling over 90 percent of the return water); <u>underground injection into disposal wells</u> (this mode of disposal is regulated by the EPA); <u>waste water treatment</u> to produce clean water (though at present, most waste water treatment plants are not equipped with the capability to treat many of the contaminants associated with shale gas waste water); and <u>surface runoff</u> which is forbidden.

Currently, the approach to water management by regulators and industry is not on a "systems basis" where all aspect of activities involving water use is planned, analyzed, and managed on an integrated basis. The difference in water use and regulation in different shale plays means that there will not be a single water management integrated system applicable in all locations. Nevertheless, the Subcommittee believes certain common principles should guide the development of integrated water management and identifies three that are especially important:

- Adoption of a life cycle approach to water management from the beginning of the production process (acquisition) to the end (disposal): all water flows should be tracked and reported quantitatively throughout the process.
- Measurement and public reporting of the composition of water stocks and flow throughout the process (for example, flow-back and produced water, in water ponds and collection tanks).
- Manifesting of all transfers of water among locations.

Early case studies of integrated water management are desirable so as to provide better bases for understanding water use and disposition and opportunities for reduction of risks related to water use. The Subcommittee supports EPA's retrospective and prospective case studies that will be part of the EPA study of hydraulic fracturing impacts on drinking water resources, but these case studies focus on identification of possible consequences rather than the definition of an integrated water management system, including the measurement needs to support it. The Subcommittee believes that development and use of an integrated water management system has the potential for greatly reducing the environmental footprint and risk of water use in shale gas production and recommends that regulators begin working with industry and other stakeholders to develop and implement such systems in their jurisdictions and regionally.

Additionally, agencies should review field experience and modernize rules and enforcement practices – especially regarding well construction/operation, management of flow back and produced water, and prevention of blowouts and surface spills – to ensure robust protection of drinking and surface waters. Specific best practice matters that should receive priority attention from regulators and industry are described below.

3. Background water quality measurements.

At present there are widely different practices for measuring the water quality of wells in the vicinity of a shale gas production site. Availability of measurements in advance of drilling would provide an objective baseline for determining if the drilling and hydraulic fracturing activity introduced any contaminants in surrounding drinking water wells.

The Subcommittee is aware there is great variation among states with respect to their statutory authority to require measurement of water quality of private wells, and that the process of adopting practical regulations that would be broadly acceptable to the public would be difficult. Nevertheless, the value of these measurements for reassuring communities about the impact of drilling on their community water supplies leads the Subcommittee to recommend that states and localities adopt systems for measurement and reporting of background water quality in advance of shale gas production activity. These baseline measurements should be publicly disclosed, while protecting landowner's privacy.

4. Disclosure of the composition of fracturing fluids.

There has been considerable debate about requirements for reporting all chemicals (both composition and concentrations) used in fracturing fluids. Fracturing fluid refers to the slurry prepared from water, sand, and some added chemicals for high pressure injection into a formation in order to create fractures that open a pathway for release of the oil and gases in the shale. Some states (such as Wyoming, Arkansas and Texas) have adopted disclosure regulations for the chemicals that are added to fracturing fluid, and the U.S. Department of Interior has recently indicated an interest in requiring disclosure for fracturing fluids used on federal lands.

The DOE has supported the establishment and maintenance of a relatively new website, FracFocus.org (operated jointly by the Ground Water Protection Council and the Interstate Oil and Gas Compact Commission) to serve as a voluntary chemical registry for individual companies to report all chemicals that would appear on Material Safety Data Sheets (MSDS) subject to certain provisions to protect "trade secrets." While FracFocus is off to a good start with voluntary reporting growing rapidly, the restriction to MSDS data means that a large universe of chemicals frequently used in hydraulic fracturing treatments goes unreported. MSDS only report chemicals that have been deemed to be hazardous in an occupational setting under standards adopted by OSHA (the Occupational Safety and Health Administration); MSDA reporting does not include other chemicals that might be hazardous if human exposure occurs through environmental pathways. Another limitation of FracFocus is that the information is not maintained as a database. As a result, the ability to search for data is limited and there are no tools for aggregating data.

The Subcommittee believes that the high level of public concern about the nature of fracturing chemicals suggests that the benefit of immediate and complete disclosure of all chemical components and composition of fracturing fluid completely outweighs the restriction on company action, the cost of reporting, and any intellectual property value of proprietary chemicals. The Subcommittee believes that public confidence in the safety of fracturing would be significantly improved by complete disclosure and that the barrier to shield chemicals based on trade secret should be set very high. Therefore the Subcommittee recommends that regulatory entities immediately develop rules to require disclosure of all chemicals used in hydraulic fracturing fluids on both public and private lands. Disclosure should include all chemicals, not just those that appear on MSDS. It should be reported on a well-by-well basis and posted on a publicly available website that includes tools for searching and aggregating data by chemical, well, by company, and by geography.

5. Reducing the use of diesel in shale gas development

Replacing diesel with natural gas or electric power for oil field equipment will decrease harmful air emissions and improve air quality. Although fuel substitution will likely happen over time because of the lower cost of natural gas compared diesel and because of likely future emission restrictions, the Subcommittee recommends conversion from diesel to natural gas for equipment fuel or to electric power where available, as soon as practicable. The process of conversion may be slowed because manufacturers of compression ignition or spark ignition engines may not have certified the engine operating with natural gas fuel for off-road use as required by EPA air emission regulations.[22]

Eliminating the use of diesel as an additive to hydraulic fracturing fluid**.** The Subcommittee believes there is no technical or economic reason to use diesel as a stimulating fluid. Diesel is a refinery product that consists of several components possibly including some toxic impurities such as benzene and other aromatics. (EPA is currently considering permitting restrictions of the use of diesel fuels in hydraulic fracturing under Safe Drinking Water Act (SDWA) Underground Injection Control (UIC) Class II.) Diesel is convenient to use in the oil field because it is present for use fuel for generators and compressors.

Diesel has two uses in hydraulic fracturing and stimulation. In modest quantities diesel is used to solubilize other fracturing chemical such as guar. Mineral oil (a synthetic mixture of C-10 to C-40 hydrocarbons) is as effective at comparable cost. Infrequently, diesel is use as a fracturing fluid in water sensitive clay and shale reservoirs. In these cases, light crude oil that is free of aromatic impurities picked up in the refining process, can be used as a substitute of equal effectiveness and lower cost compared to diesel, as a non-aqueous fracturing fluid.

6. Managing short-term and cumulative impacts on communities, land use, wildlife and ecologies.

Intensive shale gas development can potentially have serious impacts on public health, the environment and quality of life – even when individual operators conduct their activities in ways that meet and exceed regulatory requirements. The combination of impacts from multiple drilling and production operations, support infrastructure (pipelines, road networks, etc.) and related activities can overwhelm ecosystems and communities.

The Subcommittee believes that federal, regional, state and local jurisdictions need to place greater effort on examining these cumulative impacts in a more holistic manner; discrete permitting activity that focuses narrowly on individual activities does not reach to these issues. Rather than suggesting a simple prescription that every jurisdiction should follow to assure adequate consideration of these impacts, the Subcommittee believes that each relevant jurisdiction should develop and implement processes for community engagement and for preventing, mitigating and remediating surface impacts and community impacts from production activities. <u>There are a number of threshold mechanisms that should be considered:</u>

- Optimize use of multi-well drilling pads to minimize transport traffic and needs for new road construction.
- Evaluate water use at the scale of affected watersheds.
- Provide formal notification by regulated entities of anticipated environmental and community impacts.
- Declare unique and/or sensitive areas off-limits to drilling and support infrastructure as determined through an appropriate science-based process.
- Undertake science-based characterization of important landscapes, habitats and corridors to inform planning, prevention, mitigation and reclamation of surface impacts.
- Establish effective field monitoring and enforcement to inform on-going assessment of cumulative community and land use impacts.
- Mitigate noise, air and visual pollution.

The process for addressing these issues must afford opportunities for affected communities to participate and respect for the rights of mineral rights owners.

Organizing for continuous improvement of "best practice"

In this report, the term "Best Practice" refers to industry <u>techniques or methods</u> that have proven over time to accomplish given tasks and objectives in a manner that most acceptably balances desired outcomes and avoids undesirable consequences. Continuous best practice in an industry refers to the evolution of best practice by adopting process improvements as they are identified, thus progressively improving the level and narrowing the distribution of performance of firms in the industry. Best practice is a particularly helpful management approach in a field that is growing rapidly, where technology is changing rapidly, and involves many firms of different size and technical capacity.

Best practice does not necessarily imply a single process or procedure; it allows for a range of practice that is believed to be equally effective at achieving desired out comes. This flexibility is important because it acknowledges the possibility that different operators in different regions will select different solutions.

The Subcommittee believes the creation of a shale gas industry production organization dedicated to continuous improvement of best practice through development of standards, diffusion of these standards, and assessing compliance among its members can be an important mechanism for improving shale gas companies' commitment to safety and environmental protection as it carries out its business. The Subcommittee envisions that the industry organization would be governed by a board of directors composed of member companies, on a rotating basis, along with external members, for example from non-governmental organizations and academic institutions, as determined by the board.

Strong regulations and robust enforcement resources and practices are a prerequisite to protecting health, safety and the environment, but the job is easier where companies are motivated and committed to adopting best engineering and environmental practice. Companies have economic incentives to adopt best practice, because it improves operational efficiency and, if done properly, improves safety and environmental protection.

Achievement of best practice requires management commitment, adoption and dissemination of standards that are widely disseminated and periodically updated on the basis of field experience and measurements. A trained work force, motivated to adopt best practice, is also necessary. Creation of an industry organization dedicated to excellence in shale gas operations intended to advance knowledge about best practice and improve the interactions among companies, regulators and the public would be a major step forward.

The Subcommittee is aware that shale gas producers and other groups recognize the value of a best practice management approach and that industry is considering creating a mechanism for encouraging best practice. The design of such a mechanism involves many considerations including the differences in the shale production and regulations in different basins, making most effective use of mechanisms that are currently in place, and respecting the different capabilities of large and smaller operators. The Subcommittee will monitor progress on this important matter and continue to make its views known about the characteristics that such a mechanism and supporting organization should possess to maximize its effectiveness.

It should be stressed that any industry best practice mechanism would need to comply with anti-trust laws and would not replace any existing state or federal regulatory authority.

Priority best practice topics

Air

- Measurement and disclosure of air emissions including VOCs, methane, air toxics, and other pollutants.
- Reduction of methane emission from all shale gas operations

Water

- Integrated water management systems
- Well completion – casing and cementing
- Characterization and disclosure of flow back and other produced water

<u>The Subcommittee has identified a number of promising best practice opportunities</u>. Five examples are given in the call-out box. Two examples are discussed below to give a sense of the opportunities that presented by best practice focus.

<u>Well integrity: an example</u>. Well integrity is an example of the potential power of best practice for shale gas production. Well integrity encompasses the planning, design and execution of a well completion (cementing, casing and well head placement). It is fundamental to good outcomes in drilling oil and gas wells.

Methane leakage to water reservoirs is widely believed to be due to poor well completion, especially poor casing and cementing. Casing and cementing programs should be designed to provide optimal isolation of the gas-producing zone from overlaying formations. The number of cemented casings and the depth ranges covered will depend on local geologic and hydrologic conditions. However, there need to be multiple engineered barriers to prevent communication between hydrocarbons and potable aquifers. In addition, the casing program needs to be designed to optimize the potential success of cementing operations. Poorly cemented cased wells offer pathways for leakage; properly cemented and cased wells do not.

Well integrity is an ideal example of where a best practice approach, adopted by the industry, can stress best practice and collect data to validate continuous improvement. The American Petroleum Institute, for example, has focused on well completion in its standards activity for shale gas production.[23]

At present, however, there is a wide range in procedures followed in the field with regard to casing placement and cementing for shale gas drilling. There are different practices with regard to completion testing and different regulations for monitoring possible gas leakage from the annulus at the wellhead. In some jurisdictions, regulators insist that gas leakage can be vented; others insist on containment with periodic pressure testing. There are no common leakage criteria for intervention in a well that exhibits damage or on the nature of the intervention. It is very likely that over time a focus on best practice in well completion will result in safer operations and greater environmental protection. The best practice will also avoid costly interruptions to normal operations. The regulation of shale gas development should also include inspections at safety-critical stages of well construction and hydraulic fracturing.

<u>Limiting water use by controlling vertical fracture growth</u>: – a second example. While the vertical growth of hydraulic fractures does not appear to have been a causative factor in reported cases where methane from shale gas formations has migrated to the near surface, it is in the best interest of operators and the public to limit the vertical extent of hydraulic fractures to the gas bearing shale formation being exploited. By improving the efficiency of hydraulic fractures, more gas will be produced using less water for fracturing – which has economic value to operators and environmental value for the public.

The vertical propagation of hydraulic fractures results from the variation of earth stress with depth and the pumping pressure during fracturing. The variation of earth stress with depth is difficult to predict, but easy to measure in advance of hydraulic fracturing operations. Operators and service companies should assure that through periodic direct measurement of earth stresses and microseismic monitoring of hydraulic fracturing operations, everything possible is being done to limit the amount of water and additives used in hydraulic fracturing operations.

<u>Evolving best practices must be accompanied by metrics that permit tracking of the progress in improving shale gas operations performance and environmental impacts</u>. The Subcommittee has the impression that the current standard- setting processes do not utilize metrics. Without such metrics and the collection of relevant measured data,

operators lack the ability to track objectively the progress of the extensive process of setting and updating standards.

Research and development needs

The profitability, rapid expansion, and the growing recognition of the scale of the resource mean that oil and gas companies will mount significant R&D efforts to improve performance and lower cost of shale gas exploration and production. In general the oil and gas industry is a technology-focused and technology-driven industry, and it is safe to assume that there will be a steady advance of technology over the coming years.

In these circumstances the federal government has a limited role in supporting R&D. The proper focus should be on sponsoring R&D and analytic studies that address topics that benefit the public or the industry but which do not permit individual firms to attain a proprietary position. Examples are environmental and safety studies, risk assessments, resource assessments, and longer-term R&D (such as research on methane hydrates). Across many administrations, the Office of Management and Budget (OMB) has been skeptical of any federal support for oil and gas R&D, and many Presidents' budget have not included any request for R&D for oil and gas. Nonetheless Congress has typically put money into the budget for oil & gas R&D.

The following table summarizes the R&D outlays of the DOE, EPA, and USGS for unconventional gas:

Unconventional Gas R&D Outlays for Various Federal Agencies ($ millions)					
	FY2008	**FY2009**	**FY2010**	**FY2011**	**FY2012 request**
DOE Unconventional Gas					
EPAct Section 999 Program Funds					
RPSEA Administered	$14	$14	$14	$14	0
NETL Complementary	$9	$9	$9	$4	0
Annual Appropriated Program Funds					
Environmental	$2	$4	$2	0	0
Unconventional Fossil Energy	0	0	$6	0	0
Methane Hydrate projects	$15	$15	$15	$5	$10
Total Department of Energy	$40	$42	$46	$23	$10
Environmental Protection Agency	$0	$0	$1.9	$4.3	$6.1
USGS	$4.5	$4.6	$5.9	$7.4	$7.6
Total Federal R&D	**$44.5**	**$46.6**	**$53.8**	**$34.7**	**$23.7**

Near Term Actions:

The Subcommittee believes that given the scale and rapid growth of the shale gas resource in the nation's energy mix, the federal government should sponsor some R&D for unconventional gas, focusing on areas that have public and industry wide benefit and addresses public concern. The Subcommittee, at this point, is only in a position to offer some initial recommendations, not funding levels or to assignment of responsibility to particular government agencies. The DOE, EPA, the USGS, and DOI Bureau of Land Management all have mission responsibility that justify a continuing, tailored, federal R&D effort.

RPSEA is the Research Partnership to Secure Energy for America, a public/private research partnership authorized by the 2005 Energy Policy Act at a level of $50 million from offshore royalties. Since 2007, the RPSEA program has focused on unconventional gas. The Subcommittee strongly supports the RPSEA program at its authorized level.[24]

The Subcommittee recommends that the relevant agencies, the Office of Science and Technology Policy (OSTP), and OMB discuss and agree on an appropriate mission and level of funding for unconventional natural gas R&D. If requested, the Subcommittee, in the second phase of its work, could consider this matter in greater detail and make recommendations for the Administration's consideration.

In addition to the studies mentioned in the body of the report, the Subcommittee mentions several additional R&D projects where results could reduce safety risk and environmental damage for shale gas operations:

1. Basic research on the relationship of fracturing and micro-seismic signaling.
2. Determination of the chemical interactions between fracturing fluids and different shale rocks – both experimental and predictive.
3. Understanding induced seismicity triggered by hydraulic fracturing and injection well disposal.[25]
4. Development of "green" drilling and fracturing fluids.
5. Development of improved cement evaluation and pressure testing wireline tools assuring casing and cementing integrity.

Longer term prospects for technical advance

The public should expect significant technical advance on shale gas production that will substantially improve the efficiency of shale gas production and that will in turn reduce environmental impact. The expectation of significant production expansion in the future offers a tremendous incentive for companies to undertake R&D to improve efficiency and profitability. The history of the oil and gas industry supports such innovation, in particular greater extraction of the oil and gas in place and reduction in the unit cost of drilling and production.

The original innovations of directional drilling and formation fracturing plausibly will be extended by much more accurate placement of fracturing fluid guided by improved interpretation of micro-seismic signals and improved techniques of reservoir testing. As an example, oil services firms are already offering services that provide near-real-time monitoring to avoid excessive vertical fracturing growth, thus affording better control of fracturing fluid placement. Members of the Subcommittee estimate that an improvement in in efficiency of water use could be between a factor of two and four. There will be countless other innovations as well.

There has already been a major technical innovation – the switch from single well to pad-based drilling and production of multiple wells (up to twenty wells per pad have been drilled). The multi-well pad system allows for enhanced efficiency because of repeating operations at the same site and a much smaller footprint (e.g. concentrated gas gathering systems; many fewer truck trips associated with drilling and completion, especially related to equipment transport; decreased needs for road and pipeline constructions, etc.). It is worth noting that these efficiencies may require pooling acreage into large blocks.

Conclusion

The public deserves assurance that the full economic, environmental and energy security benefits of shale gas development will be realized without sacrificing public health, environmental protection and safety. Nonetheless, accidents and incidents have occurred with shale gas development, and uncertainties about impacts need to be quantified and clarified. Therefore the Subcommittee has highlighted important steps for more thorough information, implementation of best practices that make use of technical innovation and field experience, regulatory enhancement, and focused R&D, to ensure that shale operations proceed in the safest way possible, with enhanced efficiency and minimized adverse impact. If implemented these measures will give the public reason to believe that the nation's considerable shale gas resources are being developed in a way that is most beneficial to the nation.

ANNEX A – CHARGE TO THE SUBCOMMITTEE

From: Secretary Chu

To: William J. Perry, Chairman, Secretary's Energy Advisory Board (SEAB)

On March 30, 2011, President Obama announced a plan for U.S. energy security, in which he instructed me to work with other agencies, the natural gas industry, states, and environmental experts to improve the safety of shale gas development. The President also issued the Blueprint for a Secure Energy Future ("Energy Blueprint"), which included the following charge:

> **"Setting the Bar for Safety and Responsibility:** To provide recommendations from a range of independent experts, the Secretary of Energy, in consultation with the EPA Administrator and Secretary of Interior, should task the Secretary of Energy Advisory Board (SEAB) with establishing a subcommittee to examine fracking issues. The subcommittee will be supported by DOE, EPA and DOI, and its membership will extend beyond SEAB members to include leaders from industry, the environmental community, and states. The subcommittee will work to identify, within 90 days, any immediate steps that can be taken to improve the safety and environmental performance of fracking and to develop, within six months, consensus recommended advice to the agencies on practices for shale extraction to ensure the protection of public health and the environment." *Energy Blueprint (page 13).*

The President has charged us with a complex and urgent responsibility. I have asked SEAB and the Natural Gas Subcommittee, specifically, to begin work on this assignment immediately and to give it the highest priority.

This memorandum defines the task before the Subcommittee and the process to be used.

Membership:

In January of 2011, the SEAB created a Natural Gas Subcommittee to evaluate what role natural gas might play in the clean energy economy of the future. Members of the Subcommittee include John Deutch (chair), Susan Tierney, and Dan Yergin. Following consultation with the Environmental Protection Agency and the Department of the Interior, I have appointed the following additional members to the Subcommittee: Stephen Holditch, Fred Krupp, Kathleen McGinty, and Mark Zoback.

The varied backgrounds of these members satisfies the President's charge to include individuals with industry, environmental community, and state expertise. To facilitate an expeditious start, the Subcommittee will consist of this small group, but additional members may be added as appropriate.

Consultation with other Agencies:

The President has instructed DOE to work in consultation with EPA and DOI, and has instructed all three agencies to provide support and expertise to the Subcommittee. Both agencies have independent regulatory authority over certain aspects of natural gas production, and considerable expertise that can inform the Subcommittee's work.

- The Secretary and Department staff will manage an interagency working group to be available to consult and provide information upon request of the Subcommittee.
- The Subcommittee will ensure that opportunities are available for EPA and DOI to present information to the Subcommittee.
- The Subcommittee should identify and request any resources or expertise that lies within the agencies that is needed to support its work.
- The Subcommittee's work should at all times remain independent and based on sound science and other expertise held from members of the Subcommittee.
- The Subcommittee's deliberations will involve only the members of the Subcommittee.
- The Subcommittee will present its final report/recommendations to the full SEAB Committee.

Public input:

In arriving at its recommendations, the Subcommittee will seek timely expert and other advice from industry, state and federal regulators, environmental groups, and other stakeholders.

- To assist the Subcommittee, DOE's Office of Fossil Energy will create a website to describe the initiative and to solicit public input on the subject.
- The Subcommittee will meet with representatives from state and federal regulatory agencies to receive expert information on subjects as the Subcommittee deems necessary.
- The Subcommittee or the DOE (in conjunction with the other agencies) may hold one or more public meetings when appropriate to gather input on the subject.

Scope of work of the Subcommittee:

The Subcommittee will provide the SEAB with recommendations as to actions that can be taken to improve the safety and environmental performance of shale gas extraction processes, and other steps to ensure protection of public health and safety, on topics such as:

- well design, siting, construction and completion;
- controls for field scale development;
- operational approaches related to drilling and hydraulic fracturing;
- risk management approaches;
- well sealing and closure;
- surface operations;
- waste water reuse and disposal, water quality impacts, and storm water runoff;

- protocols for transparent public disclosure of hydraulic fracturing chemicals and other information of interest to local communities;
- optimum environmentally sound composition of hydraulic fracturing chemicals, reduced water consumption, reduced waste generation, and lower greenhouse gas emissions;
- emergency management and response systems;
- metrics for performance assessment; and
- mechanisms to assess performance relating to safety, public health and the environment.

The Subcommittee should identify, at a high level, the best practices and additional steps that could enhance companies' safety and environmental performance with respect to a variety of aspects of natural gas extraction. Such steps may include, but not be limited to principles to assure best practices by the industry, including companies' adherence to these best practices. Additionally, the Subcommittee may identify high-priority research and technological issues to support prudent shale gas development.

Delivery of Recommendations and Advice:

- Within 90 days of its first meeting, the Subcommittee will report to SEAB on the "immediate steps that can be taken to improve the safety and environmental performance of fracking."
- Within 180 days of its first meeting, the Subcommittee will report to SEAB "consensus recommended advice to the agencies on practices for shale extraction to ensure the protection of public health and the environment."
- At each stage, the Subcommittee will report its findings to the full Committee and the SEAB will review the findings.
- The Secretary will consult with the Administrator of EPA and the Secretary of the Interior, regarding the recommendations from SEAB.

Other:

- The Department will provide staff support to the Subcommittee for the purposes of meeting the requirements of the Subcommittee charge. The Department will also engage the services of other agency Federal employees or contractors to provide staff services to the Subcommittee, as it may request.
- DOE has identified $700k from the Office of Fossil Energy to fund this effort, which will support relevant studies or assessments, report writing, and other costs related to the Subcommittee's process.
- The Subcommittee will avoid activity that creates or gives the impression of giving undue influence or financial advantage or disadvantage for particular companies involved in shale gas exploration and development.
- The President's request specifically recognizes the unique technical expertise and scientific role of the Department and the SEAB. As an agency not engaged in regulating this activity, DOE is expected to provide a sound, highly credible evaluation of the best practices and best ideas for employing these practices safely that can be made available to companies and relevant regulators for appropriate action. Our task does not include making decisions about regulatory policy.

ANNEX B – MEMBERS OF THE SUBCOMMITTEE

John Deutch, Institute Professor at MIT (Chair) **-** John Deutch served as Director of Energy Research, Acting Assistant Secretary for Energy Technology and Under Secretary of Energy for the U.S. Department of Energy in the Carter Administration and Undersecretary of Acquisition & Technology, Deputy Secretary of Defense and Director of Central Intelligence during the first Clinton Administration. Dr. Deutch also currently serves on the Board of Directors of Raytheon and Cheniere Energy and is a past director of Citigroup, Cummins Engine Company and Schlumberger. A chemist who has published more than 140 technical papers in physical chemistry, he has been a member of the MIT faculty since 1970, and has served as Chairman of the Department of Chemistry, Dean of Science and Provost. He is a member of the Secretary of Energy Advisory Board.

Stephen Holditch, Head of the Department of Petroleum Engineering at Texas A&M University and has been on the faculty since 1976 - Stephen Holditch, who is a member of the National Academy of Engineering, serves on the Boards of Directors of Triangle Petroleum Corporation and Matador Resources Corporation. In 1977, Dr. Holditch founded S.A. Holditch & Associates, a petroleum engineering consulting firm that specialized in the analysis of unconventional gas reservoirs. Dr. Holditch was the 2002 President of the Society of Petroleum Engineers. He was the Editor of an SPE Monograph on hydraulic fracturing treatments, and he has taught short courses for 30 years on the design of hydraulic fracturing treatments and the analyses of unconventional gas reservoirs. Dr. Holditch worked for Shell Oil Company prior to joining the faculty at Texas A&M University.

Fred Krupp, President, Environmental Defense Fund **-** Fred Krupp has overseen the growth of EDF into a recognized worldwide leader in the environmental movement. Krupp is widely acknowledged as the foremost champion of harnessing market forces for environmental ends. He also helped launch a corporate coalition, the U.S. Climate Action Partnership, whose Fortune 500 members - Alcoa, GE, DuPont and dozens more - have called for strict limits on global warming pollution. Mr. Krupp is coauthor, with Miriam Horn, of New York Times Best Seller, *Earth: The Sequel*. Educated at Yale and the University of Michigan Law School, Krupp was among 16 people named as America's Best Leaders by U.S. News and World Report in 2007.

Kathleen McGinty, Kathleen McGinty is a respected environmental leader, having served as President Clinton's Chair of the White House Council on Environmental Quality and Legislative Assistant and Environment Advisor to then-Senator Al Gore.

More recently, she served as Secretary of the Pennsylvania Department of Environmental Protection. Ms. McGinty also has a strong background in energy. She is Senior Vice President of Weston Solutions where she leads the company's clean energy development business. She also is an Operating Partner at Element Partners, an investor in efficiency and renewables. Previously, Ms. McGinty was Chair of the Pennsylvania Energy Development Authority, and currently she is a Director at NRG Energy and Iberdrola USA.

Susan Tierney, Managing Principal, Analysis Group **-** Susan Tierney is a consultant on energy and environmental issues to public agencies, energy companies, environmental organizations, energy consumers, and tribes. She chairs the Board of the Energy Foundation, and serves on the Boards of Directors of the World Resources Institute, the Clean Air Task Force, among others. She recently, co-chaired the National Commission on Energy Policy, and chairs the Policy Subgroup of the National Petroleum Council's study of North American natural gas and oil resources. Dr. Tierney served as Assistant Secretary for Policy at the U.S. Department of Energy during the Clinton Administration. In Massachusetts, she served as Secretary of Environmental Affairs, Chair of the Board of the Massachusetts Water Resources Agency, Commissioner of the Massachusetts Department of Public Utilities and executive director of the Massachusetts Energy Facilities Siting Council.

Daniel Yergin, Chairman, IHS Cambridge Energy Research Associates **-** Daniel Yergin is the co-founder and chairman of IHS Cambridge Energy Research Associates. He is a member of the U.S. Secretary of Energy Advisory Board, a board member of the Board of the United States Energy Association and a member of the U.S. National Petroleum Council. He was vice chair of the 2007 National Petroleum Council study, *Hard Truths* and is vice chair of the new National Petroleum Council study of North American natural gas and oil resources. He chaired the U.S. Department of Energy's Task Force on Strategic Energy Research and Development. Dr. Yergin currently chairs the Energy Security Roundtable at the Brookings Institution, where he is a trustee, and is member of the advisory board of the MIT Energy Initiative. Dr. Yergin is also CNBC's Global Energy Expert. He is the author of the Pulitzer Prize-winning book, *The Prize: The Epic Quest for Oil, Money and Power.* His new book – *The Quest: Energy, Security, and the Remaking of the Modern World* – will be published in September 2011..

Mark Zoback, Professor of Geophysics, Stanford University - Mark Zoback is the Benjamin M. Page Professor of Geophysics at Stanford University. He is the author of a textbook, *Reservoir Geomechanics*, and author or co-author of over 300 technical research papers. He was co-principal investigator of the San Andreas Fault Observatory at Depth project (SAFOD) and has been serving on a National Academy of Engineering committee investigating the Deepwater Horizon accident. He was the chairman and co-founder of GeoMechanics International and serves as a senior adviser to Baker Hughes, Inc. Prior to joining Stanford University, he served as chief of the Tectonophysics Branch of the U.S. Geological Survey Earthquake Hazards Reduction Program.

ENDNOTES

[1] http://www.whitehouse.gov/sites/default/files/blueprint_secure_energy_future.pdf
[2] The James Baker III Institute for Public Policy at Rice University has recently released a report on *Shale Gas and U.S. National Security,* Available at: http://bakerinstitute.org/publications/EF-pub-DOEShaleGas-07192011.pdf.

[3] As a shale of total dry gas production in the "lower '48", shale gas was 6 percent in 2006, 8 percent in 2007, at which time its share began to grow rapidly – reaching 12 percent in 2008, 16 percent in 2009, and 24 percent in 2010. In June 2011, it reached 29 percent. Source: Energy Information Adminstration and Lippman Consulting.

[4] Timothy Considine, Robert W. Watson, and Nicholas B. Considine, "The Economy Opportunities of Shale Energy Development," Manhattan Institute, May 2011, Table 2, page 6.

[5] Essentially all fracturing currently uses water at the working fluid. The possibility exists of using other fluids, such as nitrogen, carbon dioxide or foams as the working fluid.

[6] The Department of Energy has a shale gas technology primer available on the web at: http://www.netl.doe.gov/technologies/oil-gas/publications/brochures/Shale_Gas_March_2011.pdf

[7] See the Bureau of Land Management *Gold Book* for a summary description of the DOI's approach:
http://www.blm.gov/pgdata/etc/medialib/blm/wo/MINERALS__REALTY__AND_RESOURCE_PROTECTION_/energy/oil_and_gas.Par.18714.File.dat/OILgas.pdf
[8] http://www.shalegas.energy.gov/

[9] The 2011 *MIT Study on the Future of Natural Gas,* gives an estimate of about 50 widely reported incidents between 2005 and 2009 involving groundwater contamination, surface spills, off-site disposal issues, water issues, air quality and blow outs, Table 2.3 and Appendix 2E. http://web.mit.edu/mitei/research/studies/naturalgas.html

[10] The Ground Water Protection Council and the Interstate Oil and Gas Compact Commission are considering a project to create a *National Oil and Gas Data Portal* with similar a objective, but broader scope to encompass all oil and gas activities.

[11] Information about STRONGER can be found at: http://www.strongerinc.org/

[12] The RBMS project is supported by the DOE Office of Fossil Energy, DOE grant #DE-FE0000880 at a cost of $1.029 million. The project is described at:
http://www.netl.doe.gov/technologies/oil-gas/publications/ENVreports/FE0000880_GWPC_Kickoff.pdf

[13] See, for example: John Corra, "Emissions from Hydrofracking Operations and General Oversight Information for Wyoming," presented to the U.S. Department of Energy Natural Gas Subcommittee of the Secretary of Energy Advisory Board, July 13, 2011; Al Armendariz, "Emissions from Natural Gas Production in the Barnett Shale Area and Opportunities for Cost-Effective Improvements," Southern Methodist University, January 2009; Colorado Air Quality Control Commission, "Denver Metro Area & North Front Range Ozone Action Plan," December 12, 2008; Utah Department of Environmental Quality, "2005 Uintah Basin Oil and Gas Emissions Inventory," 2005.

[14] IPCC 2007 –The Physical Science Basis, Section 2.10.2).

[15] Robert W. Howarth, Renee Santoro, and Anthony Ingraffea, *Methane and the greenhouse-gas*

footprint of natural gas from shale formations, Climate Change, The online version of this article (doi:10.1007/s10584-011-0061-5) contains supplementary material.

[16] Timothy J. Skone, *Life Cycle Greenhouse Gas Analysis of Natural Gas Extraction & Delivery in the United States,* DOE, NETL, May 2011, available at: http://www.netl.doe.gov/energy-analyses/pubs/NG_LC_GHG_PRES_12MAY11.pdf

[17] Paulina Jaramillo, W. Michael Griffin, and H. Scott Mathews, *Comparative Life-Cycle Air Emissions of Coal, Domestic Natural Gas, LNG, and SNG for Electricity Generation*, Environmental Science & Technology, 41, 6290-6296 (2007).

[18] The EPA draft hydraulic fracturing study plan is available along with other information about EPA hydraulic fracturing activity at: http://water.epa.gov/type/groundwater/uic/class2/hydraulicfracturing/index.cfm

[19] See, for example, “South Texas worries over gas industry’s water use during drought,” Platts, July 5, 2011, found at: http://www.platts.com/RSSFeedDetailedNews/RSSFeed/NaturalGas/3555776; “Railroad Commission, Halliburton officials say amount of water used for fracking is problematic,” Abeline Reporter News, July 15, 2011, found at: http://www.reporternews.com/news/2011/jul/15/railroad-commission-halliburton-officials-say-of/?print=1; “Water Use in the Barnett Shale,” Texas Railroad Commission Website, updated January 24, 2011, found at: http://www.rrc.state.tx.us/barnettshale/wateruse_barnettshale.php.

[20] See, for example, *Energy Demands on Water Resources, DOE Report to Congress,* Dec 2006, http://www.sandia.gov/energy-water/docs/121-RptToCongress-EWwEIAcomments-FINAL.pdf

[21] Stephen G. Osborna, Avner Vengoshb, Nathaniel R. Warnerb, and Robert B. Jackson, *Methane contamination of drinking water accompanying gas-well drilling and hydraulic fracturing*, Proceedings of the National Academy of Science, 108, 8172-8176, (2011).

[22] See EPA Certification Guidance for Engines Regulated Under: 40 CFR Part 86 (On-Highway Heavy-Duty Engines) and 40 CFR Part 89 (Nonroad CI Engines); available at: http://www.epa.gov/oms/regs/nonroad/equip-hd/420b98002.pdf

[23] API standards documents addressing hydraulic fracturing are: API HF1, Hydraulic Fracturing Operations-Well Construction and Integrity Guidelines, First Edition/October 2009, API HF2, Water Management Associated with Hydraulic Fracturing, First Edition/June 2010, API HF3, Practices for Mitigating Surface Impacts Associated with Hydraulic Fracturing, First Edition/January 2011, available at: http://www.api.org/policy/exploration/hydraulicfracturing/index.cfm

[24] Professor Steven Holditch, one of the Subcommittee members, is chair of the RPSEA governing committee.

[25] Extremely small microearthquakes are triggered as an integral part of shale gas development. While essentially all of these earthquakes are so small as to pose no hazard to the public or facilities (they release energy roughly equivalent to a gallon of milk falling of a kitchen counter), earthquakes of larger (but still small) magnitude have been triggered during hydraulic fracturing operations and by the injection of flow-back water after hydraulic fracturing. It is important to develop a hazard assessment and remediation protocol for triggered earthquakes to allow operators and regulators to know what steps need to be taken to assess risk and modify, as required, planned field operations.

United States Environmental Protection Agency

Oil and Natural Gas Sector: Standards of Performance for Crude Oil and Natural Gas Production, Transmission, and Distribution.

Background Technical Support Document for Proposed Standards

EPA-453/R-11-002
July 2011

Oil and Natural Gas Sector: Standards of Performance for Crude Oil and Natural Gas Production, Transmission, and Distribution.

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Office of Air and Radiation
Office of Air Quality Planning and Standards
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This report has been reviewed by EPA's Office of Air Quality Planning and Standards and has been approved for publication. Mention of trade names or commercial products is not intended to constitute endorsement or recommendation for use.

FOREWORD

This background technical support document (TSD) provides information relevant to the proposal of New Source Performance Standards (NSPS) for limiting VOC emissions from the Oil and Natural Gas Sector. The proposed standards were developed according to section 111(b)(1)(B) under the Clean Air Act, which requires EPA to review and revise, is appropriate, NSPS standards. The NSPS review allows EPA to identify processes in the oil and natural sector that are not regulated under the existing NSPS but may be appropriate to regulate under NSPS based on new information. This would include processes that emit the current regulated pollutants, VOC and SO_2, as well as any additional pollutants that are identified. This document is the result of that review process. Chapter 1 provides introduction on NSPS regulatory authority. Chapter 2 presents an overview of the oil and natural gas sector. Chapter 3 discusses the entire NSPS review process undertaken for this review. Finally, Chapters 4-8 provide information on previously unregulated emissions sources. Each chapter describes the emission source, the estimated emissions (on average) from these sources, potential control options identified to reduce these emissions and the cost of each control option identified. In addition, secondary impacts are estimated and the rationale for the proposed NSPS for each emission source is provided.

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1.0 NEW SOURCE PERFORMANCE STANDARD BACKGROUND

Standards of performance for new stationary sources are established under section 111 of the Clean Air Act (42 U.S.C. 7411), as amended in 1977. Section 111 directs the Administrator to establish standards of performance for any category of new stationary sources of air pollution which "…causes or contributes significantly to air pollution which may reasonably be anticipated to endanger public health or welfare." This technical support document (TSD) supports the proposed standards, which would control volatile organic compounds (VOC) and sulfur dioxide (SO_2) emissions from the oil and natural gas sector.

1.1 Statutory Authority

Section 111 of the Clean Air Act (CAA) requires the Environmental Protection Agency Administrator to list categories of stationary sources, if such sources cause or contribute significantly to air pollution which may reasonably be anticipated to endanger public health or welfare. The EPA must then issue performance standards for such source categories. A performance standard reflects the degree of emission limitation achievable through the application of the "best system of emission reduction" (BSER) which the EPA determines has been adequately demonstrated. The EPA may consider certain costs and nonair quality health and environmental impact and energy requirements when establishing performance standards. Whereas CAA section 112 standards are issued for existing and new stationary sources, standards of performance are issued for new and modified stationary sources. These standards are referred to as new source performance standards (NSPS). The EPA has the authority to define the source categories, determine the pollutants for which standards should be developed, identify the facilities within each source category to be covered and set the emission level of the standards.

CAA section 111(b)(1)(B) requires the EPA to "at least every 8 years review and, if appropriate, revise" performance standards unless the "Administrator determines that such review is not appropriate in light of readily available information on the efficacy" of the standard. When conducting a review of an existing performance standard, the EPA has discretion to revise that standard to add emission limits for pollutants or emission sources not currently regulated for that source category.

In setting or revising a performance standard, CAA section 111(a)(1) provides that performance standards are to "reflect the degree of emission limitation achievable through the application of the best system of emission reduction which (taking into account the cost of achieving such reduction and any non-air quality health and environmental impact and energy requirements) the Administrator determines has been adequately demonstrated." This level of control is referred to as the best system of emission reduction (BSER). In determining BSER, a technology review is conducted that identifies what emission reduction systems exist and how much the identified systems reduce air pollution in practice. For each control system identified, the costs and secondary air benefits (or disbenefits) resulting from energy requirements and non-air quality impacts such as solid waste generation are also evaluated. This analysis determines BSER. The resultant standard is usually a numerical emissions limit, expressed as a performance level (i.e., a rate-based standard or percent control), that reflects the BSER. Although such standards are based on the BSER, the EPA may not prescribe a particular technology that must be used to comply with a performance standard, except in instances where the Administrator determines it is not feasible to prescribe or enforce a standard of performance. Typically, sources remain free to elect whatever control measures that they choose to meet the emission limits. Upon promulgation, a NSPS becomes a national standard to which all new, modified or reconstructed sources must comply.

1.2 History of Oil and Natural Gas Source Category

In 1979, the EPA listed crude oil and natural gas production on its priority list of source categories for promulgation of NSPS (44 FR 49222, August 21, 1979). On June 24, 1985 (50 FR 26122), the EPA promulgated a NSPS for the source category that addressed volatile organic compound (VOC) emissions from leaking components at onshore natural gas processing plants (40 CFR part 60, subpart KKK). On October 1, 1985 (50 FR 40158), a second NSPS was promulgated for the source category that regulates sulfur dioxide (SO_2) emissions from natural gas processing plants (40 CFR part 60, subpart LLL). Other than natural gas processing plants, EPA has not previously set NSPS for a variety of oil and natural gas operations. These NSPS are relatively narrow in scope as they address emissions only at natural gas processing plants. Specifically, subpart KKK addresses VOC emissions from leaking equipment at onshore natural gas processing plants, and subpart LLL addresses SO_2 emissions from natural gas processing plants.

1.3 NSPS Review Process Overview

CAA section 111(b)(1)(B) requires EPA to review and revise, if appropriate, NSPS standards. First, the existing NSPS were evaluated to determine whether it reflects BSER for the emission affected sources. This review was conducted by examining control technologies currently in use and assessing whether these technologies represent advances in emission reduction techniques compared to the technologies upon which the existing NSPS are based. For each new control technology identified, the potential emission reductions, costs, secondary air benefits (or disbenefits) resulting from energy requirements and non-air quality impacts such as solid waste generation are evaluated. The second step is evaluating whether there are additional pollutants emitted by facilities in the oil and natural gas sector that contribute significantly to air pollution and may reasonably be anticipated to endanger public health or welfare. The final review step is to identify additional processes in the oil and natural gas sector that are not covered under the existing NSPS but may be appropriate to develop NSPS based on new information. This would include processes that emit the current regulated pollutants, VOC and SO_2, as well as any additional pollutants that are identified. The entire review process is described in Chapter 3.

2.0 OIL AND NATURAL GAS SECTOR OVERVIEW

The oil and natural gas sector includes operations involved in the extraction and production of oil and natural gas, as well as the processing, transmission and distribution of natural gas. Specifically for oil, the sector includes all operations from the well to the point of custody transfer at a petroleum refinery. For natural gas, the sector includes all operations from the well to the customer. The oil and natural gas operations can generally be separated into four segments: (1) oil and natural gas production, (2) natural gas processing, (3) natural gas transmission and (4) natural gas distribution. Each of these segments is briefly discussed below.

Oil and natural gas production includes both onshore and offshore operations. Production operations include the wells and all related processes used in the extraction, production, recovery, lifting, stabilization, separation or treating of oil and/or natural gas (including condensate). Production components may include, but are not limited to, wells and related casing head, tubing head and "Christmas tree" piping, as well as pumps, compressors, heater treaters, separators, storage vessels, pneumatic devices and dehydrators. Production operations also include well drilling, completion and recompletion processes; which includes all the portable non-self-propelled apparatus associated with those operations. Production sites include not only the "pads" where the wells are located, but also include stand-alone sites where oil, condensate, produced water and gas from several wells may be separated, stored and treated. The production sector also includes the low pressure, small diameter, gathering pipelines and related components that collect and transport the oil, gas and other materials and wastes from the wells to the refineries or natural gas processing plants. None of the operations upstream of the natural gas processing plant (i.e. from the well to the natural gas processing plant) are covered by the existing NSPS. Offshore oil and natural gas production occurs on platform structures that house equipment to extract oil and gas from the ocean or lake floor and that process and/or transfer the oil and gas to storage, transport vessels or onshore. Offshore production can also include secondary platform structures connected to the platform structure, storage tanks associated with the platform structure and floating production and offloading equipment.

There are three basic types of wells: Oil wells, gas wells and associated gas wells. Oil wells can have "associated" natural gas that is separated and processed or the crude oil can be the only product processed. Once the crude oil is separated from the water and other impurities, it is essentially ready to be transported to the refinery via truck, railcar or pipeline. The oil refinery sector is considered separately from the oil and natural gas sector. Therefore, at the point of custody transfer at the refinery, the oil leaves the oil and natural gas sector and enters the petroleum refining sector.

Natural gas is primarily made up of methane. However, whether natural gas is associated gas from oil wells or non-associated gas from gas or condensate wells, it commonly exists in mixtures with other hydrocarbons. These hydrocarbons are often referred to as natural gas liquids (NGL). They are sold separately and have a variety of different uses. The raw natural gas often contains water vapor, hydrogen sulfide (H_2S), carbon dioxide (CO_2), helium, nitrogen and other compounds. Natural gas processing consists of separating certain hydrocarbons and fluids from the natural gas to produced "pipeline quality" dry natural gas. While some of the processing can be accomplished in the production segment, the complete processing of natural gas takes place in the natural gas processing segment. Natural gas processing operations separate and recover natural gas liquids or other non-methane gases and liquids from a stream of produced natural gas through components performing one or more of the following processes: Oil and condensate separation, water removal, separation of natural gas liquids, sulfur and CO_2 removal, fractionation of natural gas liquid and other processes, such as the capture of CO_2 separated from natural gas streams for delivery outside the facility. Natural gas processing plants are the only operations covered by the existing NSPS.

The pipeline quality natural gas leaves the processing segment and enters the transmission segment. Pipelines in the natural gas transmission segment can be interstate pipelines that carry natural gas across state boundaries or intrastate pipelines, which transport the gas within a single state. While interstate pipelines may be of a larger diameter and operated at a higher pressure, the basic components are the same. To ensure that the natural gas flowing through any pipeline remains pressurized, compression of the gas is required periodically along the pipeline. This is accomplished by compressor stations usually placed between 40 and 100 mile intervals along the pipeline. At a compressor station, the natural gas enters the station, where it is compressed by reciprocating or centrifugal compressors.

In addition to the pipelines and compressor stations, the natural gas transmission segment includes underground storage facilities. Underground natural gas storage includes subsurface storage, which typically consists of depleted gas or oil reservoirs and salt dome caverns used for storing natural gas. One purpose of this storage is for load balancing (equalizing the receipt and delivery of natural gas). At an underground storage site, there are typically other processes, including compression, dehydration and flow measurement.

The distribution segment is the final step in delivering natural gas to customers. The natural gas enters the distribution segment from delivery points located on interstate and intrastate transmission pipelines to business and household customers. The delivery point where the natural gas leaves the transmission segment and enters the distribution segment is often called the "citygate." Typically, utilities take ownership of the gas at the citygate. Natural gas distribution systems consist of thousands of miles of piping, including mains and service pipelines to the customers. Distribution systems sometimes have compressor stations, although they are considerably smaller than transmission compressor stations. Distribution systems include metering stations, which allow distribution companies to monitor the natural gas in the system. Essentially, these metering stations measure the flow of gas and allow distribution companies to track natural gas as it flows through the system.

Emissions can occur from a variety of processes and points throughout the oil and natural gas sector. Primarily, these emissions are organic compounds such as methane, ethane, VOC and organic hazardous air pollutants (HAP). The most common organic HAP are n-hexane and BTEX compounds (benzene, toluene, ethylbenzene and xylenes). Hydrogen sulfide and SO_2 are emitted from production and processing operations that handle and treat sour gas[i]

In addition, there are significant emissions associated with the reciprocating internal combustion engines and combustion turbines that power compressors throughout the oil and natural gas sector. However, emissions from internal combustion engines and combustion turbines are covered by regulations specific to engines and turbines and, thus, are not addressed in this action.

[i] Sour gas is defined as natural gas with a maximum H_2S content of 0.25 gr/100 scf (4ppmv) along with the presence of CO_2

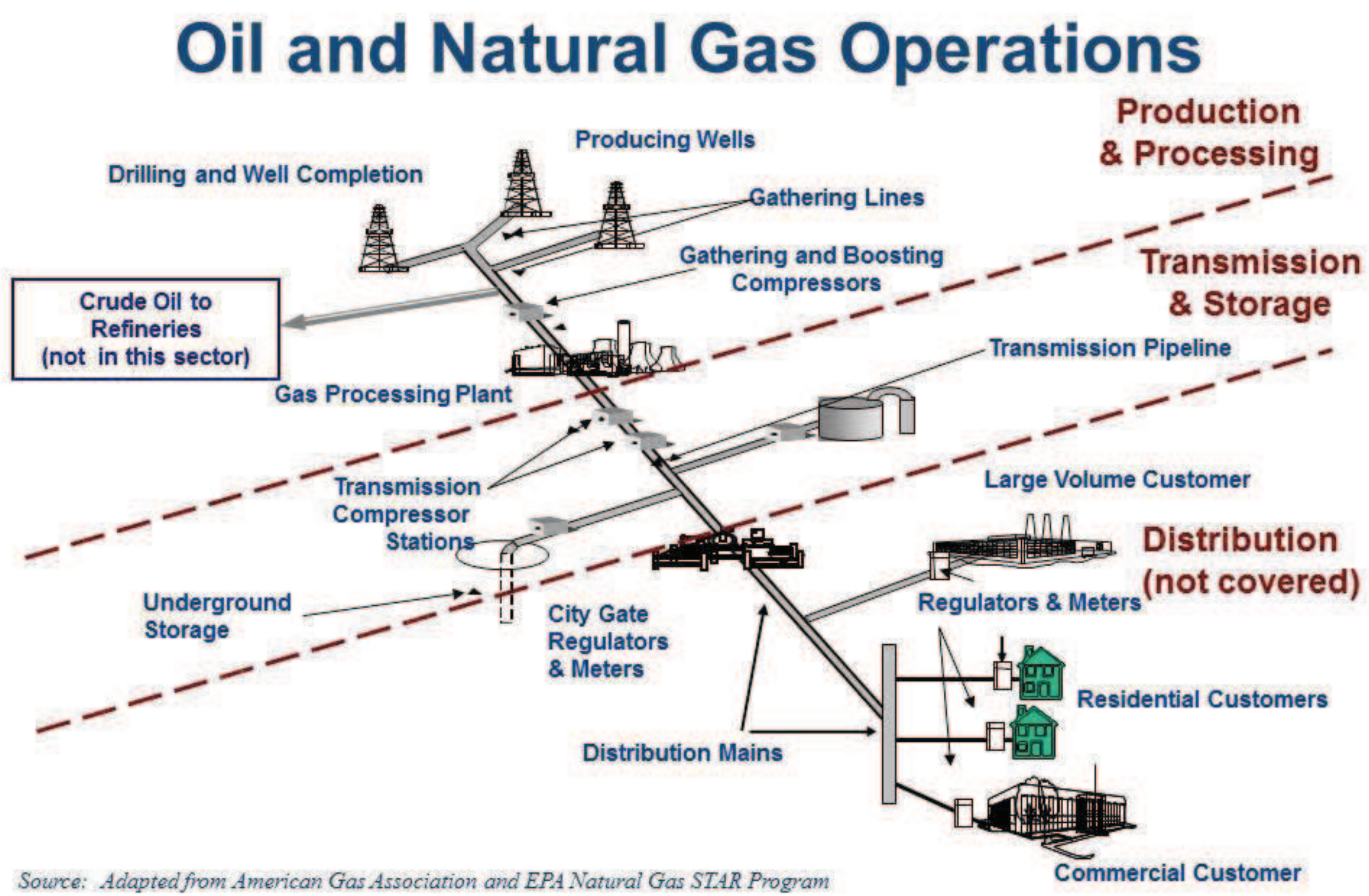

Figure 2-1. Oil and Natural Gas Operations

3.0 NEW SOURCE PERFORMANCE STANDARD REVIEW

As discussed in section 1.2, there are two NSPS that impact the oil and natural gas sector: (1) the NSPS for equipment leaks of VOC at natural gas processing plants (subpart KKK) and (2) the NSPS for SO_2 emissions from sweetening units located at natural gas processing plants (subpart LLL). Because they only address emissions from natural gas processing plants, these NSPS are relatively narrow in scope.

Section 111(b)(1) of the CAA requires the EPA to review and revise, if appropriate, NSPS standards. This review process consisted of the following steps:

1. Evaluation of the existing NSPS to determine whether they continue to reflect the BSER for the emission sources that they address;
2. Evaluation of whether there were additional pollutants emitted by facilities in the oil and natural gas sector that warrant regulation and for which there is adequate information to promulgate standards of performance; and
3. Identification of additional processes in the oil and natural gas sector for which it would be appropriate to develop performance standards, including processes that emit the currently regulated pollutants as well as any additional pollutants identified in step two.

The following sections detail each of these steps.

3.1 Evaluation of BSER for Existing NSPS

Consistent with the obligations under CAA section 111(b), control options reflected in the current NSPS for the Oil and Natural Gas source category were evaluated in order to distinguish if these options still represent BSER. To evaluate the BSER options for equipment leaks the following was reviewed: EPA's current leak detection and repair (LDAR) programs, the Reasonably Available Control Technology (RACT)/Best Available Control Technology (BACT)/Lowest Achievable Emission Rate (LAER) Clearinghouse (RBLC) database, and emerging technologies that have been identified by partners in the Natural Gas STAR program.[1]

3.1.1 BSER for VOC Emissions from Equipment Leaks at Natural Gas Processing Plants

The current NSPS for equipment leaks of VOC at natural gas processing plants (40 CFR part 60, subpart KKK) requires compliance with specific provisions of 40 CFR part 60, subpart VV, which is a LDAR program, based on the use of EPA Method 21 to identify equipment leaks. In addition to the subpart VV requirements, the LDAR requirements in 40 CFR part 60, subpart VVa were also reviewed. This LDAR program is considered to be more stringent than the subpart VV requirements, because it has lower component leak threshold definitions and more frequent monitoring, in comparison to the subpart VV program. Furthermore, subpart VVa requires monitoring of connectors, while subpart VV does not. Options based on optical gas imaging were also reviewed.

The currently required LDAR program for natural gas processing plants (40 CFR part 60, subpart KKK) is based on EPA Method 21, which requires the use of an organic vapor analyzer to monitor components and to measure the concentration of the emissions in identifying leaks. Although there have been advancements in the use of optical gas imaging to detect leaks from these same types of components, these instruments do not yet provide a direct measure of leak concentrations. The instruments instead provide a measure of a leak relative to an instrument specific calibration point. Since the promulgation of 40 CFR part 60, subpart KKK (which requires Method 21 leak measurement monthly), the EPA has updated the 40 CFR part 60 General Provisions to allow the use of advanced leak detection tools, such as optical gas imaging and ultrasound equipment as an alternative to the LDAR protocol based on Method 21 leak measurements (see 40 CFR 60.18(g)). The alternative work practice allowing use of these advanced technologies includes a provision for conducting a Method 21-based LDAR check of the regulated equipment annually to verify good performance.

In considering BSER for VOC equipment leaks at natural gas processing plants, four options were evaluated. One option evaluated consists of changing from a 40 CFR part 60, subpart VV-level program, which is what 40 CFR part 60, subpart KKK currently requires, to a 40 CFR part 60, subpart VVa program, which applies to new synthetic organic chemical plants after 2006. Subpart VVa lowers the leak definition for valves from 10,000 parts per million (ppm) to 500 ppm, and requires the monitoring of connectors. In our analysis of these impacts, it was estimated that, for a typical natural gas processing plant, the incremental cost effectiveness of changing from the current subpart VV-level program to a subpart VVa-level program using Method 21 is $3,352 per ton of VOC reduction.

In evaluating 40 CFR part 60, subpart VVa-level LDAR at processing plants, the individual types of components (valves, connectors, pressure relief devices and open-ended lines) were also analyzed separately to determine cost effectiveness for individual components. Detailed discussions of these component-by-component analyses are provided in Chapter 8. Cost effectiveness ranged from $144 per ton of VOC (for valves) to $4,360 per ton of VOC (for connectors), with no change in requirements for pressure relief devices and open-ended lines.

Another option evaluated for gas processing plants was the use of optical gas imaging combined with an annual EPA Method 21 check (i.e., the alternative work practice for monitoring equipment for leaks at 40 CFR 60.18(g)). It was previously determined that the VOC reduction achieved by this combination of optical gas imaging and Method 21 would be equivalent to reductions achieved by the 40 CFR part 60, subpart VVa-level program. Based on the emission reduction level, the cost effectiveness of this option was estimated to be $6,462 per ton of VOC reduction. This analysis was based on the facility purchasing an optical gas imaging system costing $85,000. However, at least one manufacturer was identified that rents the optical gas imaging systems. That manufacturer rents the optical gas imaging system for $3,950 per week. Using this rental cost in place of the purchase cost, the VOC cost effectiveness of the monthly optical gas imaging combined with annual Method 21 inspection visits is $4,638 per ton of VOC reduction.[i]

A third option evaluated consisted of monthly optical gas imaging without an annual Method 21 check. The annual cost of the monthly optical gas imaging LDAR program was estimated to be $76,581 based on camera purchase, or $51,999 based on camera rental. However, it is not possible to quantify the VOC emission reductions achieved by an optical imaging program alone, therefore the cost effectiveness of this option could not be determined. Finally, a fourth option was evaluated that was similar to the third option, except that the optical gas imaging would be performed annually rather than monthly. For this option, the annual cost was estimated to be $43,851, based on camera purchase, or $18,479, based on camera rental.

Because the cost effectiveness of options 3 and 4 could not be estimated, these options could not be identified as BSER for reducing VOC leaks at gas processing plants. Because options 1 and 2 achieve equivalent VOC reduction and are both cost effective, both options 1 and 2 reflect BSER for LDAR for natural gas processing plants. As mentioned above, option 1 is the LDAR in 40 CFR part 60, subpart VVa and option 2 is the alternative work practice at 40 CFR 60.18(g) and is already available to use as an alternative to subpart VVa LDAR.

3.1.2 BSER for SO_2 Emissions from Sweetening Units at Natural Gas Processing Plants

For 40 CFR part 60, subpart LLL, control systems for SO_2 emissions from sweetening units located at natural gas processing plants were evaluated, including those followed by a sulfur recovery unit. Subpart

[i] Because optical gas imaging is used to view multiple pieces of equipment at a facility during one leak survey, options involving imaging are not amenable to a component by component analysis.

LLL provides specific standards for SO_2 emission reduction efficiency, on the basis of sulfur feed rate and the sulfur content of the natural gas.

According to available literature, the most widely used process for converting H_2S in acid gases (i.e., H_2S and CO_2) separated from natural gas by a sweetening process (such as amine treating) into elemental sulfur is the Claus process. Sulfur recovery efficiencies are higher with higher concentrations of H_2S in the feed stream due to the thermodynamic equilibrium limitation of the Claus process. The Claus sulfur recovery unit produces elemental sulfur from H_2S in a series of catalytic stages, recovering up to 97-percent recovery of the sulfur from the acid gas from the sweetening process. Further, sulfur recovery is accomplished by making process modifications or by employing a tail gas treatment process to convert the unconverted sulfur compounds from the Claus unit.

In addition, process modifications and tail gas treatment options were also evaluated at the time 40 CFR part 60, subpart LLL was proposed.[ii] As explained in the preamble to the proposed subpart LLL, control through sulfur recovery with tail gas treatment may not always be cost effective, depending on sulfur feed rate and inlet H_2S concentrations. Therefore, other methods of increasing sulfur recovery via process modifications were evaluated.

As shown in the original evaluation for the proposed subpart LLL, the performance capabilities and costs of each of these technologies are highly dependent on the ratio of H_2S and CO_2 in the gas stream and the total quantity of sulfur in the gas stream being treated. The most effective means of control was selected as BSER for the different stream characteristics. As a result, separate emissions limitations were developed in the form of equations that calculate the required initial and continuous emission reduction efficiency for each plant. The equations were based on the design performance capabilities of the technologies selected as BSER relative to the gas stream characteristics.[iii] The emission limit for sulfur feed rates at or below 5 long tons per day, regardless of H_2S content, was 79 percent. For facilities with sulfur feed rates above 5 long tons per day, the emission limits ranged from 79 percent at an H_2S content below 10 percent to 99.8 percent for H_2S contents at or above 50 percent.

To review these emission limitations, a search was performed of the RBLC database[1] and state regulations. No State regulations were identified that included emission limitations more stringent than 40 CFR part 60, subpart LLL. However, two entries in the RBLC database were identified having SO_2

[ii] 49 FR 2656, 2659-2660 (1984).
[iii] 49 FR 2656, 2663-2664 (1984).

emission reductions of 99.9 percent. One entry is for a facility in Bakersfield, California, with a 90 long ton per day sulfur recovery unit followed by an amine-based tailgas treating unit. The second entry is for a facility in Coden, Alabama, with a sulfur recovery unit with a feed rate of 280 long tons of sulfur per day, followed by selective catalytic reduction and a tail gas incinerator. However, neither of these entries contained information regarding the H_2S contents of the feed stream. Because the sulfur recovery efficiency of these large sized plants was greater than 99.8 percent, the original data was reevaluated. Based on the available cost information, a 99.9 percent efficiency is cost effective for facilities with a sulfur feed rate greater than 5 long tons per day and H_2S content equal to or greater than 50 percent. Based on this review, the maximum initial and continuous efficiency for facilities with a sulfur feed rate greater than 5 long tons per day and a H_2S content equal to or greater than 50 percent is raised to 99.9 percent.

The search of the RBLC database did not uncover information regarding costs and achievable emission reductions to suggest that the emission limitations for facilities with a sulfur feed rate less than 5 long tons per day or H_2S content less than 50 percent should be modified. Therefore, there were not any identifiable changes to the emissions limitations for facilities with sulfur feed rate and H_2S content less than 5 long tons per day and 50 percent, respectively.[1]

3.2 Additional Pollutants

The two current NSPS for the Oil and Natural Gas source category address emissions of VOC and SO_2. In addition to these pollutants, sources in this source category also emit a variety of other pollutants, most notably, air toxics. However, there are NESHAP that address air toxics from the oil and natural gas sector, specifically 40 CFR subpart HH and 40 CFR subpart HHH.

In addition, processes in the Oil and Natural Gas source category emit significant amounts of methane. The 1990 - 2009 U.S. GHG Inventory estimates 2009 methane emissions from Petroleum and Natural Gas Systems (not including petroleum refineries) to be 251.55 MMtCO2e (million metric tons of CO2-equivalents (CO2e)).[iv] The emissions estimated from well completions and recompletions exclude a significant number of wells completed in tight sand plays, such as the Marcellus, due to availability of data when the 2009 Inventory was developed. The estimate in this proposal includes an adjustment for tight sand plays (being considered as a planned improvement in development of the 2010 Inventory).

[iv] U.S. EPA. Inventory of U.S. Greenhouse Gas Inventory and Sinks. 1990 - 2009. http://www.epa.gov/climatechange/emissions/downloads10/US-GHGInventory2010_ExecutiveSummary.pdf

This adjustment would increase the 2009 Inventory estimate by 76.74 MMtCO2e. The total methane emissions from Petroleum and Natural Gas Systems, based on the 2009 Inventory, adjusted for tight sand plays and the Marcellus, is 328.29 MMtCO2e.

Although this proposed rule does not include standards for regulating the GHG emissions discussed above, EPA continues to assess these significant emissions and evaluate appropriate actions for addressing these concerns. Because many of the proposed requirements for control of VOC emissions also control methane emissions as a co-benefit, the proposed VOC standards would also achieve significant reduction of methane emissions.

Significant emissions of oxides of nitrogen (NO_x) also occur at oil and natural gas sites due to the combustion of natural gas in reciprocating engines and combustion turbines used to drive the compressors that move natural gas through the system, and from combustion of natural gas in heaters and boilers. While these engines, turbines, heaters and boilers are co-located with processes in the oil and natural gas sector, they are not in the Oil and Natural Gas source category and are not being addressed in this action. The NO_x emissions from engines and turbines are covered by the Standards of Performance for Stationary Spark Internal Combustion Engines (40 CFR part 60, subpart JJJJ) and Standards of Performance for Stationary Combustion Turbines (40 CFR part 60, subpart KKKK), respectively.

An additional source of NO_x emissions would be pit flaring of VOC emissions from well completions. As discussed in Chapter 4 Well completions, pit flaring is one option identified for controlling VOC emissions. Because there is no way of directly measuring the NO_x produced, nor is there any way of applying controls other than minimizing flaring, flaring would only be required for limited conditions.

3.3 Additional Processes

The current NSPS only cover emissions of VOC and SO_2 from one type of facility in the oil and natural gas sector, which is the natural gas processing plant. This is the only type of facility in the Oil and Natural Gas source category where SO_2 is expected to be emitted directly; although H_2S contained in sour gas[v] forms SO_2 as a product of oxidation when oxidized in the atmosphere or combusted in boilers and heaters in the field. These field boilers and heaters are not part of the Oil and Natural Gas source category and are generally too small to be regulated by the NSPS covering boilers (i.e., they have a heat

[v] Sour gas is defined as natural gas with a maximum H_2S content of 0.25 gr/100 scf (4ppmv) along with the presence of CO_2.

input of less than 10 million British Thermal Units per hour). They may, however, be included in future rulemakings.

In addition to VOC emissions from gas processing plants, there are numerous sources of VOC throughout the oil and natural gas sector that are not addressed by the current NSPS. Pursuant to CAA section 111(b), a modification of the listed category will now include all segments of the oil and natural gas industry for regulation. In addition, VOC standards will now cover additional processes at oil and natural gas operations. These include NSPS for VOC from gas well completions and recompletions, pneumatic controllers, compressors and storage vessels. In addition, produced water ponds may also be a potentially significant source of emissions, but there is very limited information available regarding these emissions. Therefore, no options could be evaluated at this time. The remainder of this document presents the evaluation for each of the new processes to be included in the NSPS.

3.4 References

1 Memorandum to Bruce Moore from Brad Nelson and Phil Norwood. Crude Oil and Natural Gas Production NSPS Technology Reviews. EC/R Incorporated. July 28, 2011.

4.0 WELL COMPLETIONS AND RECOMPLETIONS

In the oil and natural gas sector, well completions and recompletions contain multi-phase processes with various sources of emissions. One specific emission source during completion and recompletion activities is the venting of natural gas to the atmosphere during flowback. Flowback emissions are short-term in nature and occur as a specific event during completion of a new well or during recompletion activities that involve re-drilling or re-fracturing an existing well. This chapter describes completions and recompletions, and provides estimates for representative wells in addition to nationwide emissions. Control techniques employed to reduce emissions from flowback gas venting during completions and recompletions are presented, along with costs, emission reductions, and secondary impacts. Finally, this chapter discusses considerations in developing regulatory alternatives for reducing flowback emissions during completions and recompletions.

4.1 Process Description

4.1.1 Oil and Gas Well Completions

All oil and natural gas wells must be "completed" after initial drilling in preparation for production. Oil and natural gas completion activities not only will vary across formations, but can vary between wells in the same formation. Over time, completion and recompletion activities may change due to the evolution of well characteristics and technology advancement. Conventional gas reservoirs have well defined formations with high resource allocation in permeable and porous formations, and wells in conventional gas reservoirs have generally not required stimulation during production. Unconventional gas reservoirs are more dispersed and found in lower concentrations and may require stimulation (such as hydraulic fracturing) to extract gas.[1]

Well completion activities include multiple steps after the well bore hole has reached the target depth. These steps include inserting and cementing-in well casing, perforating the casing at one or more producing horizons, and often hydraulically fracturing one or more zones in the reservoir to stimulate production. Surface components, including wellheads, pumps, dehydrators, separators, tanks, and gathering lines are installed as necessary for production to begin. The flowback stage of a well completion is highly variable but typically lasts between 3 and 10 days for the average well.[2]

Developmental wells are drilled within known boundaries of a proven oil or gas field, and are located near existing well sites where well parameters are already recorded and necessary surface equipment is in place. When drilling occurs in areas of new or unknown potential, well parameters such as gas composition, flow rate, and temperature from the formation need to be ascertained before surface facilities required for production can be adequately sized and brought on site. In this instance, exploratory (also referred to as "wildcat") wells and field boundary delineation wells typically either vent or combust the flowback gas.

One completion step for improving gas production is to fracture the reservoir rock with very high pressure fluid, typically a water emulsion with a proppant (generally sand) that "props open" the fractures after fluid pressure is reduced. Natural gas emissions are a result of the backflow of the fracture fluids and reservoir gas at high pressure and velocity necessary to clean and lift excess proppant to the surface. Natural gas from the completion backflow escapes to the atmosphere during the reclamation of water, sand, and hydrocarbon liquids during the collection of the multi-phase mixture directed to a surface impoundment. As the fracture fluids are depleted, the backflow eventually contains a higher volume of natural gas from the formation. Due to the additional equipment and resources involved and the nature of the backflow of the fracture fluids, completions involving hydraulic fracturing have higher costs and vent substantially more natural gas than completions not involving hydraulic fracturing.

Hydraulic fracturing can and does occur in some conventional reservoirs, but it is much more common in "tight" formations. Therefore, this analysis assumes hydraulic fracturing is performed in tight sand, shale, and coalbed methane formations. This analysis defines tight sand as sandstones or carbonates with an in situ permeability (flow rate capability) to gas of less than 0.1 millidarcy.[i]

"Energized fractures" are a relatively new type of completion method that injects an inert gas, such as carbon dioxide or nitrogen, before the fracture fluid and proppant. Thus, during initial flowback, the gas stream will first contain a high proportion of the injected gas, which will gradually decrease overtime.

4.1.2 Oil and Gas Well Recompletions

Many times wells will need supplementary maintenance, referred to as recompletions (these are also referred to as workovers). Recompletions are remedial operations required to maintain production or minimize the decline in production. Examples of the variety of recompletion activities include

[i] A darcy (or darcy unit) and millidarcies (mD) are units of permeability Converted to SI units, 1 darcy is equivalent to 9.869233×10^{-13} m² or 0.9869233 (µm)². This conversion is usually approximated as 1 (µm)².

completion of a new producing zone, re-fracture of a previously fractured zone, removal of paraffin buildup, replacing rod breaks or tubing tears in the wellbore, and addressing a malfunctioning downhole pump. During a recompletion, portable equipment is conveyed back to the well site temporarily and some recompletions require the use of a service rig. As with well completions, recompletions are highly specialized activities, requiring special equipment, and are usually performed by well service contractors specializing in well maintenance. Any flowback event during a recompletion, such as after a hydraulic fracture, will result in emissions to the atmosphere unless the flowback gas is captured.

When hydraulic re-fracturing is performed, the emissions are essentially the same as new well completions involving hydraulic fracture, except that surface gas collection equipment will already be present at the wellhead after the initial fracture. The backflow velocity during re-fracturing will typically be too high for the normal wellhead equipment (separator, dehydrator, lease meter), while the production separator is not typically designed for separating sand.

Backflow emissions are not a direct result of produced water. Backflow emissions are a result of free gas being produced by the well during well cleanup event, when the well also happens to be producing liquids (mostly water) and sand. The high rate backflow, with intermittent slugs of water and sand along with free gas, is typically directed to an impoundment or vessels until the well is fully cleaned up, where the free gas vents to the atmosphere while the water and sand remain in the impoundment or vessels. Therefore, nearly all of the backflow emissions originate from the recompletion process but are vented as the backflow enters the impoundment or vessels. Minimal amounts of emissions are caused by the fluid (mostly water) held in the impoundment or vessels since very little gas is dissolved in the fluid when it enters the impoundment or vessels.

4.2. Emission Data and Emissions Factors

4.2.1 Summary of Major Studies and Emission Factors

Given the potential for significant emissions from completions and recompletions, there have been numerous recent studies conducted to estimate these emissions. In the evaluation of the emissions and emission reduction options for completions and recompletions, many of these studies were consulted. Table 4-1 presents a list of the studies consulted along with an indication of the type of information contained in the study.

Table 4-1. Major Studies Reviewed for Consideration of Emissions and Activity Data

Report Name	Affiliation	Year of Report	Activity Factor(s)	Emission Information	Control Information
Greenhouse Gas Mandatory Reporting Rule and Technical Supporting Documents [3]	EPA	2010	Nationwide	X	
Inventory of Greenhouse Gas Emissions and Sinks: 1990-2008 [4,5]	EPA	2010	Nationwide	X	
Methane Emissions from the Natural Gas Industry [6, 7, 8, 9]	Gas Research Institute /US Environmental Protection Agency	1996	Nationwide	X	X
Methane Emissions from the US Petroleum Industry (Draft) [10]	EPA	1996	Nationwide	X	
Methane Emissions from the US Petroleum Industry [11]	EPA	1999	Nationwide	X	
Oil and Gas Emission Inventories for Western States [12]	Western Regional Air Partnership	2005	Regional	X	X
Recommendations for Improvements to the Central States Regional Air Partnership's Oil and Gas Emission Inventories [13]	Central States Regional Air Partnership	2008	Regional	X	X
Oil and Gas Producing Industry in Your State[14]	Independent Petroleum Association of America	2009	Nationwide		
Emissions from Natural Gas Production in the Barnett Shale and Opportunities for Cost-effective Improvements [15]	Environmental Defense Fund	2009	Regional	X	X
Emissions from Oil and Natural Gas Production Facilities [16]	Texas Commission for Environmental Quality	2007	Regional	X	X
Availability, Economics and Production of North American Unconventional Natural Gas Supplies 1	Interstate Natural Gas Association of America	2008	Nationwide		

Table 4-1. Major Studies Reviewed for Consideration of Emissions and Activity Data

Report Name	Affiliation	Year of Report	Activity Factor(s)	Emission Information	Control Information
Petroleum and Natural Gas Statistical Data[17]	U.S. Energy Information Administration	2007-2009	Nationwide		
Preferred and Alternative Methods for Estimating Air Emissions from Oil and Gas Field Production and Processing Operations [18]	EPA	1999		X	
Supplemental Generic Environmental Impact Statement on the Oil, Gas and Solution Mining Regulatory Program [19]	New York State Department of Environmental Conservation	2009	Regional	X	X
Natural Gas STAR Program [20, 21, 22, 23, 24, 25]	EPA	2000-2010	Nationwide/ Regional	X	X

4.2.2 Representative Completion and Recompletion Emissions

As previously mentioned, one specific emission source during completion and recompletion activities is the venting of natural gas to the atmosphere during flowback. Flowback emissions are short-term in nature and occur as a specific event during the completion of a new well or during recompletion activities that involve re-drilling or re-fracturing of an existing well. For this analysis, well completion and recompletion emissions are estimated as the venting of emissions from the well during the initial phases of well preparation or during recompletion maintenance and/or re-fracturing of an existing well.

As previously stated, this analysis assumes wells completed/recompleted with hydraulic fracturing are found in tight sand, shale, or coal bed methane formations. A majority of the available emissions data for recompletions is for vertically drilled wells. It is projected that in the future, a majority of completions and recompletions will predominantly be performed on horizontal wells. However, there is not enough history of horizontally drilled wells to make a reasonable estimation of the difference in emissions from recompletions of horizontal versus vertical wells. Therefore, for this analysis, no distinction was made between vertical and horizontal wells.

As shown in Table 4-1, methane emissions from oil and natural gas operations have been measured, analyzed and reported in studies spanning the past few decades. The basic approach for this analysis was to approximate methane emissions from representative oil and gas completions and recompletions and then estimate volatile organic compounds (VOC) and hazardous air pollutants (HAP) using a representative gas composition.[26] The specific gas composition ratios used for gas wells were 0.1459 pounds (lb) VOC per lb methane (lb VOC/lb methane) and 0.0106 lb HAP/lb methane. The specific gas composition ratios used for oil wells were 0.8374 pounds lb VOC/lb methane and 0.0001 lb HAP/lb methane.

The EPA's analysis to estimate methane emissions conducted in support of the Greenhouse Gas Mandatory Reporting Rule (Subpart W), which was published in the *Federal Register* on November 30, 2010 (75 FR 74458), was the foundation for methane emission estimates from natural gas completions with hydraulic fracturing and recompletions with hydraulic fracturing. Methane emissions from oil well completions, oil well recompletions, natural gas completions without hydraulic fracturing, and natural gas recompletions without hydraulic fracturing were derived directly from the EPA's Inventory of Greenhouse Gas Emissions and Sinks: 1990-2008 (Inventory).[4] A summary of emissions for a representative model well completion or recompletion is found in Table 4-2.

Table 4-2. Uncontrolled Emissions Estimates from Oil and Natural Gas Well Completions and Recompletions

Well Completion Category	Emissions (Mcf/event)	Emissions (tons/event)		
	Methane	Methane[a]	VOC[b]	HAP[c]
Natural Gas Well Completion without Hydraulic Fracturing	38.6	0.8038	0.12	0.009
Natural Gas Well Completion with Hydraulic Fracturing	7,623	158.55	23.13	1.68
Oil Well Completions	0.34	0.0076	0.00071	0.0000006
Natural Gas Well Recompletion without Hydraulic Fracturing	2.59	0.0538	0.0079	0.0006
Natural Gas Well Recompletion with Hydraulic Fracturing	7,623	158.55	23.13	1.68
Oil Well Recompletions	0.057	0.00126	0.001	0.0000001

Minor discrepancies may exist due to rounding.

a. Reference 4, Appendix B., pgs 84-89. The conversion used to convert methane from volume to weight is 0.0208 tons methane is equal to 1 Mcf of methane. It is assumed methane comprises 83.081 percent by volume of natural gas from gas wells and 46.732 percent by volume of methane from oil wells.
b. Assumes 0.1459 lb VOC /lb methane for natural gas wells and 0.8374 lb VOC/lb methane for oil wells.
c. Assumes 0.0106 lb HAP/lb methane for natural gas wells and 0.0001 lb HAP/lb methane for oil wells.

4.3 Nationwide Emissions from New Sources

4.3.1 Overview of Approach

The first step in this analysis is to estimate nationwide emissions in absence of the proposed rulemaking, referred to as the baseline emissions estimate. In order to develop the baseline emissions estimate, the number of completions and recompletions performed in a typical year was estimated and then multiplied by the expected uncontrolled emissions per well completion listed in Table 4-2. In addition, to ensure no emission reduction credit was attributed to sources already controlled under State regulations, it was necessary to account for the number of completions/recompletions already subject to State regulations as detailed below. In order to estimate the number of wells that are already controlled under State regulations, existing well data was analyzed to estimate the percentage of currently controlled wells. This percentage was assumed to also represent the wells that would have been controlled in absence of a federal regulation and applied to the number of well completions estimated for future years.

4.3.2 Number of Completions and Recompletions

The number of new well completions was estimated using the National Energy Modeling System (NEMS). NEMS is a model of U.S. energy economy developed and maintained by the Energy Information Administration (EIA). NEMS is used to produce the Annual Energy Outlook, a reference publication that provides detailed forecasts of the energy economy from the current year to 2035. EIA is legally required to make the NEMS source code available and fully documented for the public. The source code and accompanying documentation is released annually when a new Annual Energy Outlook is produced. Because of the availability of NEMS, numerous agencies, national laboratories, research institutes, and academic and private-sector researchers have used NEMS to analyze a variety of issues. NEMS models the dynamics of energy markets and their interactions with the broader U.S. economy. The system projects the production of energy resources such as oil, natural gas, coal, and renewable fuels, the conversion of resources through processes such as refining and electricity generation, and the quantity and prices for final consumption across sectors and regions.

New well completion estimates are based on predictions from the NEMS Oil and Gas Supply Model, drawing upon the same assumptions and model used in the Annual Energy Outlook 2011 Reference Case. New well completions estimates were based on total successful wells drilled in 2015 (the year of analysis for regulatory impacts) for the following well categories: natural gas completions without hydraulic fracturing, natural gas completions with hydraulic fracturing, and oil well completions.

Successful wells are assumed to be equivalent to completed wells. Meanwhile, it was assumed that new dry wells would be abandoned and shut in and would not be completed. Therefore estimates of the number of dry wells were not included in the activity projections or impacts discussion for exploratory and developmental wells. Completion estimates are based on successful developmental and exploratory wells for each category defined in NEMS that includes oil completions, conventional gas completions and unconventional gas completions. The NEMS database defines unconventional reservoirs as those in shale, tight sand, and coalbed methane formations and distinguishes those from wells drilled in conventional reservoirs. Since hydraulic fracturing is most common in unconventional formations, this analysis assumes new successful natural gas wells in shale, tight sand, and coalbed methane formations are completed with hydraulic fracturing. New successful natural gas wells in conventional formations are assumed to be completed without hydraulic fracturing.

The number of natural gas recompletions with hydraulic fracturing (also referred to as a re-fracture), natural gas recompletions without hydraulic fracturing and oil well recompletions was based on well count data found in the HPDI® database.[ii, iii] The HPDI database consists of oil and natural gas well information maintained by a private organization that provides parameters describing the location, operator, and production characteristics. HPDI® collects information on a well basis such as the operator, state, basin, field, annual gas production, annual oil production, well depth, and shut-in pressure, all of which is aggregated from operator reports to state governments. HPDI was used to estimate the number of recompleted wells because the historical well data from HPDI is a comprehensive resource describing existing wells. Well data from 2008 was used as a base year since it was the most recent available data at the time of this analysis and is assumed to represent the number of recompletions that would occur in a representative year. The number of hydraulically fractured natural gas recompletions was estimated by estimating each operator and field combination found in the HPDI database and multiplying by 0.1 to represent 10 percent of the wells being re-fractured annually (as assumed in Subpart W's Technical Supporting Document3). This results in 14,177 total natural gas recompletions with hydraulic fracturing in the U.S. for the year 2008; which is assumed to depict a representative year. Non-fractured

[ii] HPDI, LLC is a private organization specializing in oil and gas data and statistical analysis. The HPDI database is focused on historical oil and gas production data and drilling permit data.

[iii] For the State of Pennsylvania, the most recent drilling information available from HPDI was for 2003. Due to the growth of oil and gas operations occurring in the Marcellus region in Pennsylvania, this information would not accurately represent the size of the industry in Pennsylvania for 2006 through 2008. Therefore, information from the Pennsylvania's Department of Environmental Protection was used to estimate well completion activities for this region. Well data from remaining states were based on available information from HPDI. From <http://www.marcellusreporting.state.pa.us/OGREReports/Modules/DataExports/DataExports.aspx

recompletions were based on well data for 2008 in HPDI. The number of estimated well completions and recompletions for each well source category is listed in Table 4-3.

4.3.3 Level of Controlled Sources in Absence of Federal Regulation

As stated previously, to determine the impact of a regulation, it is first necessary to determine the current level of emissions from the sources being evaluated, or baseline emissions. To more accurately estimate baseline emissions for this analysis, and to ensure no emission reduction credit was attributed for sources already being controlled, it was necessary to evaluate the number of completions and recompletions already subject to regulation. Therefore, the number of completions and recompletions already being controlled in the absence of federal regulation was estimated based on the existing State regulations that require control measures for completions and recompletions. Although there may be regulations issued by other local ordinances for cities and counties throughout the U.S., wells impacted by these regulations were not included in this analysis because well count data are not available on a county or local ordinance level. Therefore, the percentage calculated based on the identified State regulations should be considered a conservative estimate.

In order to determine the number of completions and recompletions that are already controlled under State regulations, EIA historical well count data was analyzed to determine the percentage of new wells currently undergoing completion and recompletion in the States identified as having existing controls.[iv] Colorado (CO) and Wyoming (WY) were the only States identified as requiring controls on completions prior to NSPS review. The State of Wyoming's Air Quality Division (WAQD) requires operators to complete wells without flaring or venting where the following criteria are met: (1) the flowback gas meets sales line specifications and (2) the pressure of the reservoir is high enough to enable REC. If the above criteria are not met, then the produced gas is to be flared.[27] The WAQD requires that, "emissions of VOC and HAP associated with the flaring and venting of hydrocarbon fluids (liquids and gas) associated with well completion and recompletion activities shall be eliminated to the extent practicable by routing the recovered liquids into storage tanks and routing the recovered gas into a gas sales line or collection system." Similar to WY, the Colorado Oil and Gas Conservation Commission (COOGCC) requires REC for both oil and natural gas wells.[28] It was assumed for this analysis that the ratio of natural wells in CO and WY to the total number of wells in the U.S. represents the percentage of controlled wells for well completions. The ratio of wells in WY to the number of total nationwide wells

[iv] See EIA's The Number of Producing Wells, http://www.eia.gov/dnav/ng/ng_prod_wells_s1_a.htm

Table 4-3: Estimated Number of Total Oil and Natural Gas Completions and Recompletions for a Typical Year

Well Completion Category	Estimated Number of Total Completions and Recompletions[a]	Estimated Number of Controlled Completions and Recompletions	Estimated Number of Uncontrolled Completions and Recompletions[b]
Natural Gas Well Completions without Hydraulic Fracturing[*]	7,694		7,694
Exploratory Natural Gas Well Completions with Hydraulic Fracturing[**]	446		446
Developmental Natural Gas Well Completions with Hydraulic Fracturing[c]	10,957	1,644	9,313
Oil Well Completions[d]	12,193		12,193
Natural Gas Well Recompletions without Hydraulic Fracturing	42,342		42,342
Natural Gas Well Recompletions with Hydraulic Fracturing[‡‡]	14,177	2,127	12,050
Oil Well Recompletions[‡]	39,375		39,375

a. Natural gas completions and recompletions without hydraulic fracturing are assumed to be uncontrolled at baseline.
b. Fifteen percent of natural gas well completions with hydraulic fracturing are assumed as controlled at baseline.
c. Oil well completions and recompletions are assumed to be uncontrolled at baseline.
d. Fifteen percent of natural gas well recompletions with hydraulic fracturing are assumed to be controlled at baseline.

was assumed to represent the percentage of controlled well recompletions as it was the only State identified as having regulations directly regulated to recompletions.

From this review it was estimated that 15 percent of completions and 15 percent of recompletions are controlled in absence of federal regulation. It is also assumed for this analysis that only natural gas wells undergoing completion or recompletion with hydraulic fracturing are controlled in these States. Completions and recompletions that are performed without hydraulic fracturing, in addition to oil well completions and recompletions were assumed to not be subject to State regulations and therefore, were assumed to not be regulated at baseline. Baseline emissions for the controlled completions and recompletions covered by regulations are assumed to be reduced by 95 percent from the use of both REC and combustion devices that may be used separately or in tandem, depending on the individual State regulation.[v] The final activity factors for uncontrolled completions and uncontrolled recompletions are also listed in Table 4-3.

4.3.4 Emission Estimates

Using the estimated emissions, number of uncontrolled and controlled wells at baseline, described above, nationwide emission estimates for oil and gas well completions and recompletions in a typical year were calculated and are summarized in Table 4-4. All values have been independently rounded to the nearest ton for estimation purposes. As the table indicates, hydraulic fracturing significantly increases the magnitude of emissions. Completions and recompletions without hydraulic fracturing have lower emissions, while oil completions and recompletions have even lower emissions in comparison.

4.4 Control Techniques

4.4.1 Potential Control Techniques

Two techniques were considered that have been proven to reduce emissions from well completions and recompletions: REC and completion combustion. One of these techniques, REC, is an approach that not only reduces emissions but delivers natural gas product to the sales meter that would typically be vented. The second technique, completion combustion, destroys the organic compounds. Both of these techniques are discussed in the following sections, along with estimates of the impacts of their application for a representative well. Nationwide impacts of chosen regulatory options are discussed in

[v] Percentage of controls by flares versus REC were not determined, so therefore, the count of controlled wells with REC versus controlled wells with flares was not determined and no secondary baseline emission impacts were calculated.

Table 4-4. Nationwide Baseline Emissions from Uncontrolled Oil and Gas Well Completions and Recompletions

Well Completion Category	Uncontrolled Methane Emissions per event (tpy)	Number of Uncontrolled Wells[a]	Baseline Nationwide Emissions (tons/year)[a]		
			Methane[b]	VOC[c]	HAP[d]
Natural Gas Well Completions without Hydraulic Fracturing	0.8038	7,694	6,185	902	66
Exploratory Natural Gas Well Completions with Hydraulic Fracturing	158.55	446	70,714	10,317	750
Developmental Natural Gas Well Completions with Hydraulic Fracturing	158.55	9,313	1,476,664	215,445	15,653
Oil Well Completions	0.0076	12,193	93	87	.008
Natural Gas Well Recompletions without Hydraulic Fracturing	0.0538	42,342	2,279	332	24
Natural Gas Well Recompletions with Hydraulic Fracturing	158.55	12,050	1,910,549	278,749	20,252
Oil Well Recompletions	0.00126	39,375	50	47	.004

Minor discrepancies may be due to rounding.

a. Baseline emissions include emissions from uncontrolled wells plus five percent of emissions from controlled sources. The Baseline emission reductions listed in the Regulatory Impacts (Table 4-9) represents only emission reductions from uncontrolled sources.
b. The number of controlled and uncontrolled wells estimated based on State regulations.
c. Based on the assumption that VOC content is 0.1459 pounds VOC per pound methane for natural gas wells and 0.8374 pounds VOC per pound methane for oil wells This estimate accounts for 5 percent of emissions assumed as vented even when controlled. Does not account for secondary emissions from portion of gas that is directed to a combustion device.
d. Based on the assumption that HAP content is 0.0106 pounds HAP per pound methane for natural gas wells and 0.0001 pounds HAP per pound methane for oil wells. This estimate accounts for 5 percent of emissions assumed as vented even when controlled. Does not account for secondary emissions from portion of gas that is directed to a combustion device.

section 4.5.

4.4.2 Reduced Emission Completions and Recompletions

4.4.2.1 Description

Reduced emission completions, also referred to as “green” or “flareless” completions, use specially designed equipment at the well site to capture and treat gas so it can be directed to the sales line. This process prevents some natural gas from venting and results in additional economic benefit from the sale of captured gas and, if present, gas condensate. Additional equipment required to conduct a REC may include additional tankage, special gas-liquid-sand separator traps, and a gas dehydrator.[29] In many cases, portable equipment used for RECs operate in tandem with the permanent equipment that will remain after well drilling is completed. In other instances, permanent equipment is designed (e.g. oversized) to specifically accommodate initial flowback. Some limitations exist for performing RECs since technical barriers fluctuate from well to well. Three main limitations include the following for RECs:

- Proximity of pipelines. For exploratory wells, no nearby sales line may exist. The lack of a nearby sales line incurs higher capital outlay risk for exploration and production companies and/or pipeline companies constructing lines in exploratory fields. The State of Wyoming has set a precedent by stating proximity to gathering lines for wells is not a sufficient excuse to avoid RECs unless they are deemed exploratory, or the first well drilled in an area that has never had oil and gas well production prior to that drilling instance (i.e., a wildcat well).[30] In instances where formations are stacked vertically and horizontal drilling could take place, it may be possible that existing surface REC equipment may be located near an exploratory well, which would allow for a REC.

- Pressure of produced gas. During each stage of the completion/recompletion process, the pressure of flowback fluids may not be sufficient to overcome the sales line backpressure. This pressure is dependent on the specific sales line pressure and can be highly variable. In this case, combustion of flowback gas is one option, either for the duration of the flowback or until a point during flowback when the pressure increases to flow to the sales line. Another control option is compressor applications. One application is gas lift which is accomplished by withdrawing gas from the sales line, boosting its pressure, and routing it down the well casing to push the fracture fluids up the tubing. The increased pressure facilitates flow into the separator and then the sales line where the lift gas becomes part of the normal flowback that can be recovered during a REC. Another potential compressor application is to boost pressure of the flowback gas after it exits the separator. This technique is experimental because of the difficulty operating a compressor on widely fluctuating flowback rate.

- Inert gas concentration. If the concentration of inert gas, such as nitrogen or carbon dioxide, in the flowback gas exceeds sales line concentration limits, venting or combustion of the flowback may be necessary for the duration of flowback or until the gas energy content increases to allow flow to the sales line. Further, since the energy content of the flowback gas may not be high enough to sustain a flame due to the presence of the inert gases, combustion of the flowback stream would require a continuous ignition source with its own separate fuel supply.

4.4.2.2. Effectiveness

RECs are an effective emissions reduction method for only natural gas completions and recompletions performed with hydraulic fracturing based on the estimated flowback emissions described in Section 4.2. The emissions reductions vary according to reservoir characteristics and other parameters including length of completion, number of fractured zones, pressure, gas composition, and fracturing technology/technique. Based on several experiences presented at Natural Gas STAR technology transfer workshops, this analysis assumes 90 percent of flowback gas can be recovered during a REC.[31] Any amount of gas that cannot be recovered can be directed to a completion combustion device in order to achieve a minimum 95 percent reduction in emissions.

4.4.2.3 Cost Impacts

All completions incur some costs to a company. Performing a REC will add to these costs. Equipment costs associated with RECs vary from well to well. High production rates may require larger equipment to perform the REC and will increase costs. If permanent equipment, such as a glycol dehydrator, is already installed or is planned to be in place at the well site as normal operations, costs may be reduced as this equipment can be used or resized rather than installing a portable dehydrator for temporary use during the completion. Some operators normally install equipment used in RECs, such as sand traps and three-phase separators, further reducing incremental REC costs.

Costs of performing a REC are projected to be between $700 and $6,500 per day, with representative well completion flowback lasting 3 to 10 days.2 This cost range is the incremental cost of performing a REC over a traditional completion, where typically the gas is vented or combusted because there is an absence of REC equipment. Since RECs involve techniques and technologies that are new and continually evolving, and these cost estimates are based on the state of the industry in 2006 (adjusted to 2008 US dollars). [vi] Cost data used in this analysis are qualified below:

- $700 per day (equivalent to $806 per day in 2008 dollars) represents completion and recompletion costs where key pieces of equipment, such as a dehydrator or three phase separator, are already found on site and are of suitable design and capacity for use during flowback.

- $6,500 per day (equivalent to $7,486 in 2008 dollars) represents situations where key pieces of equipment, such as a dehydrator or three-phase separator, are temporarily brought on site and then relocated after the completion.

Costs were assessed based on an average of the above data (for costs and number of days per completion), resulting in an average incremental cost for a REC of $4,146 per day (2008 dollars) for an average of 7 days per completion. This results in an overall incremental cost of $29,022 for a REC versus an uncontrolled completion. An additional $691 (2008 dollars) was included to account for transportation and placement of equipment, bringing total incremental costs estimated at $29,713. Reduced emission completions are considered one-time events per well; therefore annual costs were conservatively assumed to be the same as capital costs. Dividing by the expected emission reductions, cost-effectiveness for VOC is $1,429 per ton, with a methane co-benefit of $208 per ton. Table 4-5 provides a summary of REC cost-effectiveness.

Monetary savings associated with additional gas captured to the sales line was also estimated based on a natural gas price of $4.00[vii] per thousand cubic feet (Mcf).[32] It was assumed that all gas captured would be included as sales gas. Therefore, assuming that 90 percent of the gas is captured and sold, this equates

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[vi] The Chemical Engineering Cost Index was used to convert dollar years. For REC, the 2008 value equals 575.4 and the 2006 value equals 499.6.

[vii] The average market price for natural gas in 2010 was approximately $4.16 per Mcf. This is much less compared to the average price in 2008 of $7.96 per Mcf. Due to the volatility in the price, a conservative savings of $4.00 per Mcf estimate was projected for the analysis in order to not overstate savings. The value of natural gas condensate recovered during the REC would also be significant depending on the gas composition. This value was not incorporated into the monetary savings in order to not overstate savings.

Table 4-5. Reduced Emission Completion and Recompletion Emission Reductions and Cost Impacts Summary

Well Completion Category	Emission Reduction Per Completion/Recompletion (tons/year)[a]			Total Cost Per Completion/ Recompletion[b] ($/event)	VOC Cost Effectiveness ($/ton)[c]		Methane Cost Effectiveness ($/ton)	
	VOC	Methane	HAP		without savings	with savings	without savings	with savings
Natural Gas Completions and Recompletions with Hydraulic Fracturing	20.8	142.7	1.5	29,713	1,429	net savings	208	net savings

Minor discrepancies may be due to rounding.

a. This represents a ninety percent reduction from baseline for the average well.

b. Total cost for reduced emission completion is expressed in terms of incremental cost versus a completion that vents emissions. This is based on an average incremental cost of $4,146 per day for an average length of completion flowback lasting 7 days and an additional $691 for transportation and set up.

c. Cost effectiveness has been rounded to the nearest dollar.

to a total recovery of 8,258 Mcf of natural gas per completion or recompletion with hydraulic fracturing. The estimated value of the recovered natural gas for a representative natural gas well with hydraulic fracturing is approximately $33,030. In addition we estimate an average of 34 barrels of condensate is recovered per completion or recompletion. Assuming a condensate value of $70 per barrel (bbl), this result is an income due to condensate sales around $2,380.[33] When considering these savings from REC, for a completion or recompletion with hydraulic fracturing, there is a net savings on the order of $5,697 per completion.

4.4.2.4 Secondary Impacts

A REC is a pollution prevention technique that is used to recover natural gas that would otherwise be emitted. No secondary emissions (e.g., nitrogen oxides, particulate matter, etc.) would be generated, no wastes should be created, no wastewater generated, and no electricity needed. Therefore, there are no secondary impacts expected due to REC.

4.4.3 Completion Combustion Devices

4.4.3.1 Description

Completion combustion is a high-temperature oxidation process used to burn combustible components, mostly hydrocarbons, found in waste streams.[34] Completion combustion devices are used to control VOC in many industrial settings, since the completion combustion device can normally handle fluctuations in concentration, flow rate, heating value, and inert species content.[35] Completion combustion devices commonly found on drilling sites are rather crude and portable, often installed horizontally due to the liquids that accompany the flowback gas. These flares can be as simple as a pipe with a basic ignition mechanism and discharge over a pit near the wellhead. However, the flow directed to a completion combustion device may or may not be combustible depending on the inert gas composition of flowback gas, which would require a continuous ignition source. Sometimes referred to as pit flares, these types of combustion devices do not employ an actual control device, and are not capable of being tested or monitored for efficiency. They do provide a means of minimizing vented gas and is preferable to venting. For the purpose of this analysis, the term completion combustion device represents all types of combustion devices including pit flares.

4.4.3.2 Effectiveness

The efficiency of completion combustion devices, or exploration and production flares, can be expected to achieve 95 percent, on average, over the duration of the completion or recompletion. If the energy content of natural gas is low, then the combustion mechanism can be extinguished by the flowback gas. Therefore, it is more reliable to install an igniter fueled by a consistent and continuous ignition source. This scenario would be especially true for energized fractures where the initial flowback concentration will be extremely high in inert gases. This analysis assumes use of a continuous ignition source with an independent external fuel supply is assumed to achieve an average of 95 percent control over the entire flowback period. Additionally, because of the nature of the flowback (i.e., with periods of water, condensate, and gas in slug flow), conveying the entire portion of this stream to a flare or other control device is not always feasible. Because of the exposed flame, open pit flaring can present a fire hazard or other undesirable impacts in some situations (e.g., dry, windy conditions, proximity to residences, etc.). As a result, we are aware that owners and operators may not be able to flare unrecoverable gas safely in every case.

Federal regulations require industrial flares meet a combustion efficiency of 98 percent or higher as outlined in 40 CFR 60.18. This statute does not apply to completion combustion devices. Concerns have been raised on applicability of 40 CFR 60.18 within the oil and gas industry including for the production segment.[30, 36, 37] The design and nature of completion combustion devices must handle multiphase flow and stream compositions that vary during the flowback period. Thus, the applicability criterion that specifies conditions for flares used in highly industrial settings may not be appropriate for flares typically used to control emissions from well completions and recompletions.

4.4.3.3 Cost Impacts

An analysis depicting the cost for wells including completion combustion devices was conducted for the Petroleum Services Association of Canada (PSAC) [38] in 2009 by N.L. Fisher Supervision and Engineering, Ltd.[viii] The data corresponds to 34 gas wells for various types of formations, including coal bed methane and shale. Multiple completion methods were also examined in the study including hydraulic and energized fracturing. Using the cost data points from these natural gas well completions,

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[viii] It is important to note that outliers were excluded from the average cost calculation. Some outliers estimated the cost of production flares to be as low as $0 and as high as $56,000. It is expected that these values are not representative of typical flare costs and were removed from the data set. All cost data found in the PSAC study were aggregated values of the cost of production flares and other equipment such as tanks. It is possible the inclusion of the other equipment is not only responsible for the outliers, but also provides a conservatively high estimate for completion flares.

an average completion combustion device cost is approximately $3,523 (2008 dollars).[ix] As with the REC, because completion combustion devices are purchased for these one-time events, annual costs were conservatively assumed to be equal to the capital costs.

It is assumed that the cost of a continuous ignition source is included in the combustion completion device cost estimations. It is understood that multiple completions and recompletions can be controlled with the same completion combustion device, not only for the lifetime of the combustion device but within the same yearly time period. However, to be conservative, costs were estimated as the total cost of the completion combustion device itself, which corresponds to the assumption that only one device will control one completion per year. The cost impacts of using a completion combustion device to reduce emissions from representative completions/recompletions are provided in Table 4-6. Completion combustion devices have a cost-effectiveness of $161 per ton VOC and a co-benefit of $23 per ton methane for completions and recompletions with hydraulic fracturing.

4.4.3.4 Secondary Impacts

Noise and heat are the two primary undesirable outcomes of completion combustion device operation. In addition, combustion and partial combustion of many pollutants also create secondary pollutants including nitrogen oxides (NO_x), carbon monoxide (CO), sulfur oxides (SO_x, carbon dioxide (CO_2), and smoke/particulates (PM). The degree of combustion depends on the rate and extent of fuel mixing with air and the temperature maintained by the flame. Most hydrocarbons with carbon-to-hydrogen ratios greater than 0.33 are likely to smoke.[34] Due to the high methane content of the gas stream routed to the completion combustion device, it suggests that there should not be smoke except in specific circumstances (e.g., energized fractures). The stream to be combusted may also contain liquids and solids that will also affect the potential for smoke. Soot can typically be eliminated by adding steam. Based on current industry trends in the design of completion combustion devices and in the decentralized nature of completions, virtually no completion combustion devices include steam assistance.[34]

Reliable data for emission factors from flare operations during natural gas well completions are limited. Guidelines published in AP-42 for flare operations are based on tests from a mixture containing

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[ix] The Chemical Engineering Cost Index was used to convert dollar years. For the combustion device the 2009 value equals 521.9. The 2009 average value for the combustion device is $3,195.

Table 4-6. Emission Reduction and Cost-effectiveness Summary for Completion Combustion Devices

Well Completion Category	Emission Reduction Per Completion/Workover (tons/year)[a]			Total Capital Cost Per Completion Event ($)*	VOC Cost Effectiveness	Methane Cost Effectiveness
	VOC	Methane	HAP		($/ton)[b]	($/ton)
Natural Gas Well Completions without Hydraulic Fracturing	0.11	0.76	0.0081	3,523	31,619	4,613
Natural Gas Well Completions with Hydraulic Fracturing	21.9	150.6	1.597		160	23
Oil Well Completions	0.01	0.007	0.0000007		520,580	488,557
Natural Gas Well Recompletions without Hydraulic Fracturing	0.007	0.051	0.0005		472,227	68,889
Natural Gas Well Recompletions with Hydraulic Fracturing	21.9	150.6	1.597		160	23
Oil Well Recompletions	0.00	0.001	0.0000001		3,134,431	2,941,615

Minor discrepancies may be due to rounding.

a. This assumes one combustion device will control one completion event per year. This should be considered a conservative estimate, since it is likely multiple completion events will be controlled with the same combustion unit in any given year. Costs are stated in 2008 dollars.

80 percent propylene and 20 percent propane.[34] These emissions factors, however, are the best indication for secondary pollutants from flare operations currently available. These secondary emission factors are provided are provided in Table 4-7.

Since this analysis assumed pit flares achieve 95 percent efficiency over the duration of flowback, it is likely the secondary emission estimations are lower than actuality (i.e. AP-42 assumes 98 percent efficiency). In addition due, to the potential for the incomplete combustion of natural gas across the pit flare plume, the likelihood of additional NO_x formulating is also likely. The degree of combustion is variable and depends on the on the rate and extent of fuel mixing with air and on the flame temperature. Moreover, the actual NO_x (and CO) emissions may be greatly affected when the raw gas contains hydrocarbon liquids and water. For these reasons, the nationwide impacts of combustion devices discussed in Section 4.5 should be considered minimum estimates of secondary emissions from combustion devices.

4.5 Regulatory Options

The REC pollution prevention approach would not result in emissions of CO, NO_x, and PM from the combustion of the completion gases in the flare, and would therefore be the preferred option. As discussed above, REC is only an option for reducing emissions from gas well completions/workovers with hydraulic fracturing. Taking this into consideration, the following regulatory alternatives were evaluated:

- Regulatory Option 1: Require completion combustion devices for conventional natural gas well completions and recompletions;
- Regulatory Option 2: Require completion combustion devices for oil well completions and recompletions;
- Regulatory Option 3: Require combustion devices for all completions and recompletions;
- Regulatory Option 4: Require REC for all completions and recompletions of hydraulically fractured wells;
- Regulatory Option 5: Require REC and combustion operational standards for natural gas well completions with hydraulic fracturing, with the exception of exploratory, and delineation wells;
- Regulatory Option 6: Require combustion operational standards for exploratory and delineation wells; and

Table 4-7. Emission Factors from Flare Operations from AP-42 Guidelines Table 13.4-1[a]

Pollutant	Emission Factor ($lb/10^6$ Btu)
Total Hydrocarbon[b]	0.14
Carbon Monoxide	0.37
Nitrogen Oxides	0.068
Particular Matter[c]	0-274
Carbon Dioxide[d]	60

a. Based on combustion efficiency of 98 percent.
b. Measured as methane equivalent.
c. Soot in concentration values: nonsmoking flares, 0 micrograms per liter (µg/L); lightly smoking flares, 40 µg/L; average smoking flares, 177 µg/L; and heavily smoking flares, 274 µg/L.
d. Carbon dioxide is measured in kg CO2/MMBtu and is derived from the carbon dioxide emission factor obtained from 40 CFR Part 98, subpart Y, Equation Y-2.

- Regulatory Option 7: Require REC and combustion operational standards for all natural gas well recompletions with hydraulic fracturing.

The following sections discuss these regulatory options.

4.5.1 Evaluation of Regulatory Options

The first two regulatory options (completion combustion devices for conventional natural gas well completions and recompletions and completion combustion devices for oil well completions and recompletions) were evaluated first. As shown in Table 4-6, the cost effectiveness associated with controlling conventional natural gas and oil well completions and recompletions ranges from $31,600 per ton VOC to over $3.7 million per ton VOC. Therefore, Regulatory Options 1 and 2 were rejected due to the high cost effectiveness.

The next regulatory option, to require completion combustion devices for all completions and recompletions, was considered. Under Regulatory Option 3, all of the natural gas emitted from the well during flowback would be destroyed by sending flowback gas through a combustion unit. Not only would this regulatory option result in the destruction of a natural resource with no recovery of salable gas, it also would result in an increase in emissions of secondary pollutants (e.g., nitrogen oxides, carbon monoxide, etc.). Therefore, Regulatory Option 3 was also rejected.

The fourth regulatory option would require RECs for all completions and recompletions of hydraulically fractured wells. As stated previously, RECs are not feasible for all well completions, such as exploratory wells, due to their distance from sales lines, etc. Further, RECs are also not technically feasible for each well at all times during completion and recompletion activities due to the variability of the pressure of produced gas and/or inert gas concentrations. Therefore, Regulatory Option 4 was rejected.

The fifth regulatory option was to require an operational standard consisting of a combination of REC and combustion for natural gas well completions with hydraulic fracturing. As discussed for Regulatory Option 4, RECs are not feasible for every well at all times during completion or recompletion activities due to variability of produced gas pressure and/or inert gas concentrations. In order to allow for wellhead owners and operators to continue to reduce emissions when RECs are not feasible due to well characteristics (e.g, wellhead pressure or inert gas concentrations), Regulatory Option 5 also allows for the use of a completion combustion device in combination with RECs.

Under Regulatory Option 5, a numerical limit was considered, but was rejected in favor of an operational standard. Under section 111(h)(2) of the CAA, EPA can set an operational standard which represents the best system of continuous emission reduction, provided the following criteria are met:

> "(A) a pollutant or pollutants cannot be emitted through a conveyance designed and constructed to emit or capture such pollutant, or that any requirement for, or use of, such a conveyance would be inconsistent with any Federal, State, or local law, or
>
> (B) the application of measurement methodology to a particular class of sources is not practicable due to technological or economic limitations."

As discussed in section 4.4.3, emissions from a completion combustion device cannot be measured or monitored to determine efficiency making an operational standard appropriate. Therefore, an operational standard under this regulatory option consists of a combination of REC and a completion combustion device to minimize the venting of natural gas and condensate vapors to the atmosphere, but allows venting in lieu of combustion for situations in which combustion would present safety hazards, other concerns, or for periods when the flowback gas is noncombustible due to high concentrations of inert gases. Sources would also be required, under this regulatory option, to maintain documentation of the overall duration of the completion event, duration of recovery using REC, duration of combustion, duration of venting, and specific reasons for venting in lieu of combustion. It was also evaluated whether Regulatory Option 5 should apply to all well completions, including exploratory and delineation wells.

As discussed previously, one of the technical limitations of RECs is that they are not feasible for use at some wells due to their proximity to pipelines. Section 111(b)(2) of the CAA allows EPA to "…distinguish among classes, types, and sizes within categories of new sources for the purpose of establishing…." performance standards. Due to their distance from sales lines, and the relatively unknown characteristics of the formation, completion activities occurring at exploratory or delineation wells were considered to be a different "type" of activity than the types of completion activities occurring at all other gas wells. Therefore, two subcategories of completions were identified: *Subcategory 1* wells are all natural gas wells completed with hydraulic fracturing that do not fit the definition of exploratory or delineation wells. *Subcategory 2* wells are natural gas wells that meet the following definitions of exploratory or delineation wells:

- Exploratory wells are wells outside known fields or the first well drilled in an oil or gas field where no other oil and gas production exists or

- Delineation wells means a well drilled in order to determine the boundary of a field or producing reservoir.

Based on this subcategorization, Regulatory Option 5 would apply to the Subcategory 1 wells and a sixth regulatory option was developed for Subcategory 2 wells.

Regulatory Option 6 requires an operational standard for combustion for the Subcategory 2 wells. As described above, REC is not an option for exploratory and delineation wells due to their distance from sales lines. As with the Regulatory Option 5, a numerical limitation is not feasible. Therefore, this regulatory option requires an operational standard where emissions are minimized using a completion combustion device during completion activities at Subcategory 2 wells, with an allowance for venting in situations where combustion presents safety hazards or other concerns or for periods when the flowback gas is noncombustible due to high concentrations of inert gases. Consistent with Regulatory Option 5, records would be required to document the overall duration of the completion event, the duration of combustion, the duration of venting, and specific reasons for venting in lieu of combustion.

The final regulatory option was considered for recompletions. Regulatory Option 7 requires an operational standard for a combination of REC and a completion combustion device for all recompletions with hydraulic fracturing performed on new and existing natural gas wells. Regulatory Option 7 has the same requirements as Regulatory Option 5. Subcategorization similar to Regulatory Option 5 was not necessary for recompletions because it was assumed that RECs would be technically feasible for recompletions at all types of wells since they occur at wells that are producing and thus proximity to a sales line is not an issue. While evaluating this regulatory option, it was considered whether or not recompletions at existing wells should be considered modifications and subject to standards.

The affected facility under the New Source Performance Standards (NSPS) is considered to be the wellhead. Therefore, a new well drilled after the proposal date of the NSPS would be subject to emission control requirements. Likewise, wells drilled prior to the proposal date of the NSPS would not be subject to emission control requirements unless they underwent a modification after the proposal date. Under section 111(a) of the Clean Air Act, the term “modification” means:

> "any physical change in, or change in the method of operation of, a stationary source which increases the amount of any air pollutant emitted by such source or which results in the emission of any air pollutant not previously emitted."

The wellhead is defined as the piping, casing, tubing, and connected valves protruding above the earth's surface for an oil and/or natural gas well. The wellhead ends where the flow line connects to a wellhead valve. In order to fracture an existing well during recompletion, the well would be re-perforated, causing physical change to the wellbore and casing and therefore a physical change to the wellhead, the affected facility. Additionally, much of the emissions data on which this analysis is based demonstrates that hydraulic fracturing results in an increase in emissions. Thus, recompletions using hydraulic fracturing result in an increase in emissions from the existing well producing operations. Based on this understanding of the work performed in order to recomplete the well, it was determined that a recompletion would be considered a modification under CAA section 111(a) and thus, would constitute a new wellhead affected facility subject to NSPS. Therefore, Regulatory Option 7 applies to recompletions using hydraulic fracturing at new and existing wells.

In summary, Regulatory Options 1, 2, 3, and 4 were determined to be unreasonable due to cost considerations, other impacts or technical feasibility and thereby rejected. Regulatory Options 5, 6, and 7 were determined to be applicable to natural gas wells and were evaluated further.

4.5.2 Nationwide Impacts of Regulatory Options

This section provides an analysis of the primary environmental impacts (i.e., emission reductions), cost impacts and secondary environmental impacts related to Regulatory Options 5, 6, and 7 which were selected as viable options for setting standards for completions and recompletions.

4.5.2.1 Primary Environmental Impacts of Regulatory Options

Regulatory Options 5, 6, and 7 were selected as options for setting standards for completions and regulatory options as follows:

- Regulatory Option 5: Operational standard for completions with hydraulic fracturing for Subcategory 1 wells (i.e., wells which do not meet the definition of exploratory or delineation wells), which requires a combination of REC with combustion, but allows for venting during specified situations.

- Regulatory Option 6: An operational standard for completions with hydraulic fracturing for exploratory and delineation wells (i.e., Subcategory 2 wells) which requires completion combustion devices with an allowance for venting during specified situations.

- Regulatory Option 7: An operational standard equivalent to Regulatory Option 5 which applies to recompletions with hydraulic fracturing at new and existing wells.

The number of completions and recompletions that would be subject to the regulatory options listed above was presented in Table 4-3. It was estimated that there would be 9,313 uncontrolled developmental natural gas well completions with hydraulic fracturing subject to Regulatory Option 5. Regulatory Option 6 would apply to 446 uncontrolled exploratory natural gas well completions with hydraulic fracturing, and 12,050 uncontrolled recompletions at existing wells would be subject to Regulatory Option 7.[x]

Table 4-8 presents the nationwide emission reduction estimates for each regulatory option. It was estimated that RECs in combination with the combustion of gas unsuitable for entering the gathering line, can achieve an overall 95 percent VOC reduction over the duration of the completion operation. The 95 percent recovery was estimated based on 90 percent of flowback being captured to the sales line and assuming an additional 5 percent of the remaining flowback would be sent to the combustion device. Nationwide emission reductions were estimated by applying this 95 percent VOC reduction to the uncontrolled baseline emissions presented in Table 4-4.

4.5.2.2 Cost Impacts

Cost impacts of the individual control techniques (RECs and completion combustion devices) were presented in section 4.4. For Regulatory Option 6, the costs for completion combustion devices presented in Table 4-6 for would apply to Subcategory 2 completions. The cost per completion event was estimated to be $3,523. Applied to the 446 estimated Subcategory 2 completions, the nationwide costs were estimated to be $1.57 million. Completion combustion devices are assumed to achieve an overall 95 percent combustion efficiency. Since the operational standards for Regulatory Options 5 and 7 include both REC and completion combustion devices, an additional cost impact analysis was

[x] The number of uncontrolled recompletions at new wells is not included in this analysis. Based on the assumption that wells are recompleted once every 10 years, any new wells that are drilled after the date of proposal of the standard would not likely be recompleted until after the year 2015, which is the date of this analysis. Therefore, impacts were not estimated for recompletion of new wells, which will be subject to the standards.

Table 4-8. Nationwide Emission and Cost Analysis of Regulatory Option

Well Completion Category	Number of Sources subject to NSPS[a]	Annual Cost Per Completion Event ($)[b]	Nationwide Emission Reductions (tpy)[c]			VOC Cost Effectiveness ($/ton)		Methane Cost Effectiveness ($/ton)		Total Nationwide Costs (million $/year)		
			VOC	Methane	HAP	without savings	with savings	without savings	with savings	Capital Cost	Annual without savings	Annual with savings
Regulatory Option 5 (operational standard for REC and combustion)												
Subcategory 1: Natural gas Completions with Hydraulic Fracturing	9,313	33,237	204,134	1,399,139	14,831	1,516	net savings	221	net savings	309.5	309.5	(20.24)
Regulatory Option 6 (operational standard for combustion)												
Subcategory 2: Natural gas Completions with Hydraulic Fracturing	446	3,523	9,801	67,178	712	160	160	23	23	1.57	1.57	1.57
Regulatory Option 7 (operational standard for REC and combustion)												
Natural Gas Well Recompletions with Hydraulic Fracturing	12,050	33,237	264,115	1,810,245	19,189	1,516	net savings	221	net savings	400.5	400.5	(26.18)

Minor discrepancies may be due to rounding.

a. Number of sources in each well completion category that are uncontrolled at baseline as presented in Table 4-3.
b. Costs per event for Regulatory Options 5 and 7 are calculated by adding the costs for REC and completion combustion device presented in Tables 4-5 and 4-6, respectively. Cost per event for Regulatory Option 6 is presented for completion combustion devices in Table 4-6.
c. Nationwide emission reductions calculated by applying the 95 percent emission reduction efficiency to the uncontrolled nationwide baseline emissions in Table 4-4.

performed to analyze the nationwide cost impacts of these regulatory options. The total incremental cost of the operational standard for Subcategory 1 completions and for recompletions is estimated at around \$33,237, which includes the costs in Table 4-5 for the REC equipment and transportation in addition to the costs in Table 4-6 for the completion combustion device. Applying the cost for the combined REC and completion combustion device to the estimated 9,313 Subcategory 1 completions, the total nationwide cost was estimated to be \$309.5 million, with a net annual savings estimated around \$20 million when natural gas savings are considered. A cost of \$400.5 million was estimated for recompletions, with an overall savings of around \$26 million when natural gas savings are considered. The VOC cost effectiveness for Regulatory Options 5 and 7 was estimated at around \$1,516 per ton, with a methane co-benefit of \$221 per ton.

4.5.2.3 Secondary Impacts

Regulatory Options 5, 6 and 7 all require some amount of combustion; therefore the estimated nationwide secondary impacts are a direct result of combusting all or partial flowback emissions. Although, it is understood the volume of gas captured, combusted and vented may vary significantly depending on well characteristics and flowback composition, for the purpose of estimating secondary impacts for Regulatory Options 5 and 7, it was assumed that ninety percent of flowback is captured and an additional five percent of the remaining gas is combusted. For both Subcategory 1 natural gas well completions with hydraulic fracturing and for natural gas well recompletions with hydraulic fracturing, it is assumed around 459 Mcf of natural gas is combusted on a per well basis. For Regulatory Option 6, Subcategory 2 natural gas completions with hydraulic fracturing, it is assumed that 95 percent (8,716 Mcf) of flowback emissions are consumed by the combustion device. Tons of pollutant per completion event was estimated assuming 1,089.3 Btu/scf saturated gross heating value of the "raw" natural gas and applying the AP-42 emissions factors listed in Table 4-7.

From category 1 well completions and from recompletions, it is estimated 0.02 tons of NO_x are produced per event. This is based on assumptions that 5 percent of the flowback gas is combusted by the combustion device. From category 2 well completions, it is estimated 0.32 tons of NO_x are produced in secondary emissions per event. This is based on the assumption 95 percent of flowback gas is combusted by the combustion device. Based on the estimated number of completions and recompletions, the proposed regulatory options are estimated to produce around 507 tons of NO_x in secondary emissions nationwide from controlling all or partial flowback by combustion. Table 4-9 summarizes the estimated secondary emissions of the selected regulatory options.

Table 4-9 Nationwide Secondary Impacts of Selected Regulatory Options[a]

Pollutant	Regulatory Options 5[b] Subcategory 1 Natural Gas Well Completions with Hydraulic Fracturing		Regulatory Option 6[c] Subcategory 2 Natural Gas Well Completions with Hydraulic Fracturing		Regulatory Options 7[b] Natural Gas Well Recompletions with Hydraulic Fracturing	
	tons per event[d]	Nationwide Annual Secondary Emissions (tons/year)	tons per event[d]	Nationwide Annual Secondary Emissions (tons/year)	tons per event[d]	Nationwide Annual Secondary Emissions (tons/year)
Total Hydrocarbons	0.03	326	0.66	296	0.03	422
Carbon Monoxide	0.09	861	1.76	783	0.09	1,114
Nitrogen Oxides	0.02	158	0.32	144	0.02	205
Particulate Matter	0.00000002	0.0002	0.011	5	0.00000002	0.0003
Carbon Dioxide	33.06	307,863	628	280,128	33.06	398,341

a. Nationwide impacts are based on AP-42 Emission Guidelines for Industrial Flares as outlined in Table 4-7. As such, these emissions should be considered the minimum level of secondary emissions expected.

b. The operational standard (Regulatory Options 5 and 7) combines REC and combustion is assumed to capture 90 percent of flowback gas. Five percent of the remaining flowback is assumed to be consumed in the combustion device. Therefore, it is estimated 459 Mcf is sent to the combustion device per completion event. This analysis assumes there are 9,313 Subcategory 1 wells and 12,050 recompletions.

c. Assumes 8,716 Mcf of natural gas is sent to the combustion unit per completion. This analysis assumes 446 exploratory wells fall into this category.

d. Based on 1,089.3 Btu/scf saturated gross heating value of the "raw" natural gas.

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5.0 PNEUMATIC CONTROLLERS

The natural gas industry uses a variety of process control devices to operate valves that regulate pressure, flow, temperature, and liquid levels. Most instrumentation and control equipment falls into one of three categories: (1) pneumatic; (2) electrical; or (3) mechanical. Of these, only pneumatic devices are direct sources of air emissions. Pneumatic controllers are used throughout the oil and natural gas sector as part of the instrumentation to control the position of valves. This chapter describes pneumatic devices including their function and associated emissions. Options available to reduce emissions from pneumatic devices are presented, along with costs, emission reductions, and secondary impacts. Finally, this chapter discusses considerations in developing regulatory alternatives for pneumatic devices.

5.1 Process Description

For the purpose of this document, a pneumatic controller is a device that uses natural gas to transmit a process signal or condition pneumatically and that may also adjust a valve position based on that signal, with the same bleed gas and/or a supplemental supply of power gas. In the vast majority of applications, the natural gas industry uses pneumatic controllers that make use of readily available high-pressure natural gas to provide the required energy and control signals. In the production segment, an estimated 400,000 pneumatic devices control and monitor gas and liquid flows and levels in dehydrators and separators, temperature in dehydrator regenerators, and pressure in flash tanks. There are around 13,000 gas pneumatic controllers located in the gathering, boosting and processing segment that control and monitor temperature, liquid, and pressure levels. In the transmission segment, an estimated 85,000 pneumatic controllers actuate isolation valves and regulate gas flow and pressure at compressor stations, pipelines, and storage facilities.[1]

Pneumatic controllers are automated instruments used for maintaining a process condition such as liquid level, pressure, pressure differential, and temperature. In many situations across all segments of the oil and gas industry, pneumatic controllers make use of the available high-pressure natural gas to operate control of a valve. In these “gas-driven” pneumatic controllers, natural gas may be released with every valve movement and/or continuously from the valve control pilot. The rate at which the continuous release occurs is referred to as the bleed rate. Bleed rates are dependent on the design and operating characteristics of the device. Similar designs will have similar steady-state rates when operated under similar conditions. There are three basic designs: (1) continuous bleed devices are used to modulate flow, liquid level, or pressure, and gas is vented continuously at a rate that may vary over time; (2) snap-acting devices release gas only when they open or close a valve or as they throttle the gas flow; and (3) self-contained devices release gas to a downstream pipeline instead of to the atmosphere. This analysis assumes self-contained devices that release natural gas to a downstream pipeline instead of to the atmosphere have no emissions. Furthermore, it is recognized “closed loop” systems are applicable only in instances with very low pressure[2] and may not be suitable to replace many applications of bleeding pneumatic devices. Therefore, these devices are not further discussed in this analysis.

Snap-acting controllers are devices that only emit gas during actuation and do not have a continuous bleed rate. The actual amount of emissions from snap-acting devices is dependent on the amount of natural gas vented per actuation and how often it is actuated. Bleed devices also vent an additional volume of gas during actuation, in addition to the device’s bleed stream. Since actuation emissions serve the device’s functional purpose and can be highly variable, the emissions characterized for high-bleed and low-bleed devices in this analysis (as described in section 5.2.2) account for only the continuous flow of emissions (i.e. the bleed rate) and do not include emissions directly resulting from actuation. Snap-acting controllers are assumed to have zero bleed emissions. Most applications (but not all), snap-acting devices serve functionally different purposes than bleed devices. Therefore, snap-acting controllers are not further discussed in this analysis.

In addition, not all pneumatic controllers are gas driven. At sites without electrical service sufficient to power an instrument air compressor, mechanical or electrically powered pneumatic devices can be used. These “non-gas driven” pneumatic controllers can be mechanically operated or use sources of power other than pressurized natural gas, such as compressed “instrument air.” Because these devices are not gas driven, they do not directly release natural gas or VOC emissions. However, electrically powered systems have energy impacts, with associated secondary impacts related to generation of the electrical power required to drive the instrument air compressor system. Instrument air systems are feasible only at oil and natural gas locations where the devices can be driven by compressed instrument air systems and have electrical service sufficient to power an air compressor. This analysis assumes that natural gas processing plants are the only facilities in the oil and natural gas sector highly likely to have electrical service sufficient to power an instrument air system, and that most existing gas processing plants use instrument air instead of gas driven devices.[9] The application of electrical controls is further elaborated in Section 5.3.

5.2 Emissions Data and Information

5.2.1 Summary of Major Studies and Emissions

In the evaluation of the emissions from pneumatic devices and the potential options available to reduce these emissions, numerous studies were consulted. Table 5-1 lists these references with an indication of the type of relevant information contained in each study.

5.2.2 Representative Pneumatic Device Emissions

Bleeding pneumatic controllers can be classified into two types based on their emissions rates: (1) high-bleed controllers and (2) low-bleed controllers. A controller is considered to be high-bleed when the continuous bleed emissions are in excess of 6 standard cubic feet per hour (scfh), while low-bleed devices bleed at a rate less than or equal to 6 scfh.[i]

For this analysis, EPA consulted information in the appendices of the Natural Gas STAR Lessons Learned document on pneumatic devices, Subpart W of the Greenhouse Gas Reporting rule, as well as obtained updated data from major vendors of pneumatic devices. The data obtained from vendors included emission rates, costs, and any other pertinent information for each pneumatic device model (or model family). All pneumatic devices that a vendor offered were itemized and inquiries were made into the specifications of each device and whether it was applicable to oil and natural gas operations. High-bleed and low-bleed devices were differentiated using the 6 scfh threshold.

Although by definition, a low-bleed device can emit up to 6 scfh, through this vendor research, it was determined that the typical low-bleed device available currently on the market emits lower than the maximum rate allocated for the device type. Specifically, low-bleed devices on the market today have emissions from 0.2 scfh up to 5 scfh. Similarly, the available bleed rates for a high bleed device vary significantly from venting as low as 7 scfh to as high as 100 scfh.[3,ii] While the vendor data provides useful information on specific makes and models, it did not yield sufficient information about the

[i] The classification of high-bleed and low-bleed devices originated from a report by Pacific Gas & Electric (PG&E) and the Gas Research Institute (GRI) in 1990 titled "Unaccounted for Gas Project Summary Volume." This classification was adopted for the October 1993 Report to Congress titled "Opportunities to Reduce Anthropogenic Methane Emissions in the United States". As described on page 2-16 of the report, "devices with emissions or 'bleed' rates of 0.1 to 0.5 cubic feet per minute are considered to be 'high-bleed' types (PG&E 1990)." This range of bleed rates is equivalent to 6 to 30 cubic feet per hour.

[ii] All rates are listed at an assumed supply gas pressure of 20 psig.

Table 5-1. Major Studies Reviewed for Consideration of Emissions and Activity Data

Report Name	Affiliation	Year of Report	Number of Devices	Emissions Information	Control Information
Greenhouse Gas Mandatory Reporting Rule and Technical Supporting Document [3]	EPA	2010	Nationwide	X	
Inventory of Greenhouse Gas Emissions and Sinks: 1990-2009 [4, 5]	EPA	2011	Nationwide/ Regional	X	
Methane Emissions from the Natural Gas Industry [6, 7, 8, 9]	Gas Research Institute / EPA	1996	Nationwide	X	
Methane Emissions from the Petroleum Industry (draft) [10]	EPA	1996	Nationwide	X	
Methane Emissions from the Petroleum Industry [11]	EPA	1999	Nationwide	X	
Oil and Gas Emission Inventories for Western States [12]	Western Regional Air Partnership	2005	Regional	X	
Natural Gas STAR Program[1]	EPA	2000-2010		X	X

prevalence of each model type in the population of devices; which is an important factor in developing a representative emission factor. Therefore, for this analysis, EPA determined that best available emissions estimates for pneumatic devices are presented in Table W-1A and W-1B of the Greenhouse Gas Mandatory Reporting Rule for the Oil and Natural Gas Industry (Subpart W). However, for the natural gas processing segment, a more conservative approach was assumed since it has been determined that natural gas processing plants would have sufficient electrical service to upgrade to non-gas driven controls. Therefore, to quantify representative emissions from a bleed-device in the natural gas processing segment, information from Volume 12 of the EPA/GRI report[iii] was used to estimate the methane emissions from a single pneumatic device by type.

The basic approach used for this analysis was to first approximate methane emissions from the average pneumatic device type in each industry segment and then estimate VOC and hazardous air pollutants (HAP) using a representative gas composition.[13] The specific ratios from the gas composition were 0.278 pounds VOC per pound methane and 0.0105 pounds HAP per pound methane in the production and processing segments, and 0.0277 pounds VOC per pound methane and 0.0008 pounds HAP per pound methane in the transmission segment. Table 5-2 summarizes the estimated bleed emissions for a representative pneumatic controller by industry segment and device type.

5.3 Nationwide Emissions from New Sources

5.3.1 Approach

Nationwide emissions from newly installed natural gas pneumatic devices for a typical year were calculated by estimating the number of pneumatic devices installed in a typical year and multiplying by the estimated annual emissions per device listed in Table 5-2. The number of new pneumatic devices installed for a typical year was determined for each segment of the industry including natural gas production, natural gas processing, natural gas transmission and storage, and oil production. The methodologies that determined the estimated number of new devices installed in a typical year is provided in section 5.3.2 of this chapter.

5.3.2 Population of Devices Installed Annually

In order to estimate the average number of pneumatic devices installed in a typical year, each industry

[iii] Table 4-11. page 56. epa.gov/gasstar/tools/related.html

Table 5-2. Average Bleed Emission Estimates per Pneumatic Device in the Oil and Natural Gas Sector (tons/year)[a]

Industry Segment	High-Bleed			Low-Bleed		
	Methane	VOC	HAP	Methane	VOC	HAP
Natural Gas Production[b]	6.91	1.92	0.073	0.26	0.072	0.003
Natural Gas Transmission and Storage[c]	3.20	0.089	0.003	0.24	0.007	0.0002
Oil Production[d]	6.91	1.92	0.073	0.26	0.072	0.003
Natural Gas Processing[e]	1.00	0.28	0.01	1.00	0.28	0.01

Minor discrepancies may be due to rounding.

a. The conversion factor used in this analysis is 1 thousand cubic feet of methane (Mcf) is equal to 0.0208 tons methane. Minor discrepancies may be due to rounding.
b. Natural Gas Production methane emissions are derived from Table W-1A and W-1B of Subpart W.
c. Natural gas transmission and storage methane emissions are derived from Table W-3 of Subpart W.
d. Oil production methane emissions are derived from Table W-1A and W-1B of Subpart W. It is assumed only continuous bleed devices are used in oil production.
e. Natural gas processing sector methane emissions are derived from Volume 12 of the 1996 GRI report.[9] Emissions from devices in the processing sector were determined based on data available for snap-acting and bleed devices, further distinction between high and low bleed could not be determined based on available data.

segment was analyzed separately using the best data available for each segment. The number of facilities estimated in absence of regulation was undeterminable due to the magnitude of new sources estimated and the lack of sufficient data that could indicate the number of controllers that would be installed in states that may have regulations requiring low bleed controllers, such as in Wyoming and Colorado.

For the natural gas production and oil production segments, the number of new pneumatics installed in a typical year was derived using a multiphase analysis. First, data from the US Greenhouse Gas Inventory: Emission and Sinks 1990-2009 was used to establish the ratio of pneumatic controllers installed per well site on a regional basis. These ratios were then applied to the number of well completions estimated in Chapter 4 for natural gas well completions with hydraulic fracturing, natural gas well completions without hydraulic fracturing and for oil well completions. On average, one pneumatic device was assumed to be installed per well completion for a total of 33,411 pneumatic devices. By applying the estimated 51 percent of bleed devices (versus snap acting controllers), it is estimated that an average of 17,040 bleed-devices would be installed in the production segment in a typical year.

The number of pneumatic controllers installed in the transmission segment was approximated using the Inventory of U.S. Greenhouse Gas Emissions and Sinks: 1990-2009. The number of new devices installed in a given year was estimated by subtracting the prior year (e.g. 2007) from the given year's total (e.g. 2008). This difference was assumed to be the number of new devices installed in the latter year (e.g. Number of new devices installed during 2008 = Pneumatics in 2008 – Pneumatics in 2007). A 3-year average was calculated based on the number of new devices installed in 2006 through 2008 in order to determine the average number of new devices installed in a typical year.

Once the population counts for the number of pneumatics in each segment were established, this population count was further refined to account for the number of snap-acting devices that would be installed versus a bleed device. This estimate of the percent of snap-acting and bleed devices was based on raw data found in the GRI study, where 51 percent of the pneumatic controllers are bleed devices in the production segment, and 32 percent of the pneumatic controllers are bleed devices in the transmission segment.9 The distinction between the number of high-bleed and low-bleed devices was not estimated because this analysis assumes it is not possible to predict or ensure where low bleeds will be used in the future. Table 5-3 summarizes the estimated number of new devices installed per year.

Table 5-3. Estimated Number of Pneumatic Devices Installed in an Typical Year

Industry Segment	Number of New Devices Estimated for a Typical Year[a]		
	Snap-Acting	Bleed-Devices	Total
Natural Gas and Oil Production[b]	16,371	17,040	33,411
Natural Gas Transmission and Storage[c]	178	84	262

a. National averages of population counts from the Inventory were refined to include the difference in snap-acting and bleed devices based on raw data found in the GRI/EPA study. This is based on the assumption that 51 percent of the pneumatic controllers are bleed devices in the production segment, while 32 percent are bleed devices in the transmission segment.
b. The number of pneumatics was derived from a multiphase analysis. Data from the US Greenhouse Gas Inventory: Emission and Sinks 1990-2009 was used to establish the number of pneumatics per well on a regional basis. These ratios were applied to the number of well completions estimated in Chapter 4 for natural gas wells with hydraulic fracturing, natural gas wells without hydraulic fracturing and for oil wells.
c. The number of pneumatics estimated for the transmission segment was approximated from comparing a 3 year average of new devices installed in 2006 through 2008 in order to establish an average number of pneumatics being installed in this industry segment in a typical year. This analysis was performed using the Inventory of U.S. Greenhouse Gas Emissions and Sinks: 1990-2009.

For the natural gas processing segment, this analysis assumes that existing natural gas plants have already replaced pneumatic controllers with other types of controls (i.e. an instrument air system) and any high-bleed devices that remain are safety related. As a result, the number of new pneumatic bleed devices installed at existing natural gas processing plants was estimated as negligible. A new greenfield natural gas processing plant would require multiple control loops. In Chapter 8 of this document, it is estimated that 29 new and existing processing facilities would be subject to the NSPS for equipment leak detection. In order to quantify the impacts of the regulatory options represented in section 5.5 of this Chapter, it is assumed that half of these facilities are new sites that will install an instrument air system in place of multiple control valves. This indicates about 15 instrument air systems will be installed in a representative year.

5.3.3 Emission Estimates

Nationwide baseline emission estimates for pneumatic devices for new sources in a typical year are summarized in Table 5-4 by industry segment and device type. This analysis assumed for the nationwide emission estimate that all bleed-devices have the high-bleed emission rates estimated in Table 5-2 per industry segment since it cannot be predicted which sources would install a low bleed versus a high bleed controller.

5.4 Control Techniques

Although pneumatic devices have relatively small emissions individually, due to the large population of these devices installed on an annual basis, the cumulative VOC emissions for the industry are significant. As a result, several options to reduce emissions have been developed over the years. Table 5-5 provides a summary of these options for reducing emissions from pneumatic devices including: instrument air, non-gas driven controls, and enhanced maintenance.

Given the various control options and applicability issues, the replacement of a high-bleed with a low-bleed device is the most likely scenario for reducing emissions from pneumatic device emissions. This is also supported by States such as Colorado and Wyoming that require the use of low-bleed controllers in place of high-bleed controllers. Therefore, low-bleed devices are further described in the following section, along with estimates of the impacts of their application for a representative device and nationwide basis. Although snap-acting devices have zero bleed emissions, this analysis assumes the

Table 5-4. Nationwide Baseline Emissions from Representative Pneumatic Device Installed in a Typical Year for the Oil and Natural Gas Industry (tons/year)[a]

Industry Segment	Baseline Emissions from Representative New Unit (tpy)			Number of New Bleed Devices Expected Per Year	Nationwide Baseline Emissions from Bleeding Pneumatic (tpy)[b]		
	VOC	Methane	HAP		VOC	Methane	HAP
Oil and Gas Production	1.9213	6.9112	0.0725	17,040	32,739	117,766	1,237
Natural Gas Transmission and Storage	0.09523	3.423	0.003	84	8	288	0.2

Minor discrepancies may be due to rounding.

a. Emissions have been based on the bleed rates for a high-bleed device by industry segment. Minor discrepancies may be due to rounding.
b. To estimate VOC and HAP, weight ratios were developed based on methane emissions per device. The specific ratios used were 0.278 pounds VOC per pound methane and 0.0105 pounds HAP per pound methane in the production and processing segments, and 0.0277 pounds VOC per pound methane and 0.0008 pounds HAP per pound methane in the transmission segment.

Table 5-5. Alternative Control Options for Pneumatic Devices

Option	Description	Applicability/Effectiveness	Estimated Cost Range
Install Low Bleed Device in Place of High Bleed Device	Low-bleed devices provide the same functional control as a high-bleed device, while emitting less continuous bleed emissions.	Applicability may depend on the function of instrumentation for an individual device on whether the device is a level, pressure, or temperature controller.	Low-bleed devices are, on average, around $165 more than high bleed versions.
Convert to Instrument Air[14]	Compressed air may be substituted for natural gas in pneumatic systems without altering any of the parts of the pneumatic control. In this type of system, atmospheric air is compressed, stored in a tank, filtered and then dried for instrument use. For utility purposes such as small pneumatic pumps, gas compressor motor starters, pneumatic tools and sand blasting, air would not need to be dried. Instrument air conversion requires additional equipment to properly compress and control the pressured air. This equipment includes a compressor, power source, air dehydrator and air storage vessel.	Replacing natural gas with instrument air in pneumatic controls eliminates VOC emissions from bleeding pneumatics. It is most effective at facilities where there are a high concentration of pneumatic control valves and an operator present. Since the systems are powered by electric compressors, they require a constant source of electrical power or a back-up natural gas pneumatic device. These systems can achieve 100 percent reduction in emissions.	A complete cost analysis is provided in Section 5.4.2. System costs are dependent on size of compressor, power supply needs, labor and other equipment.
Mechanical and Solar Powered Systems in place of Bleed device[15]	Mechanical controls operate using a simple design comprised of levers, hand wheels, springs and flow channels. The most common mechanical control device is the liquid-level float to the drain valve position with mechanical linkages. Electricity or small electrical motors (including solar powered) have been used to operate valves. Solar control systems are driven by solar power cells that actuate mechanical devices using electric power. As such, solar cells require some type of back-up power or storage to ensure reliability.	Application of mechanical controls is limited because the control must be located in close proximity to the process measurement. Mechanical systems are also incapable of handling larger flow fluctuations. Electric powered valves are only reliable with a constant supply of electricity. Overall, these options are applicable in niche areas but can achieve 100 percent reduction in emissions where applicable.	Depending on supply of power, costs can range from below $1,000 to $10,000 for entire systems.
Enhanced Maintenance[16]	Instrumentation in poor condition typically bleeds 5 to 10 scf per hour more than representative conditions due to worn seals, gaskets, diaphragms; nozzle corrosion or wear, or loose control tube fittings. This may not impact the operations but does increase emissions.	Enhanced maintenance to repair and maintain pneumatic devices periodically can reduce emissions. Proper methods of maintaining a device are highly variable and could incur significant costs.	Variable based on labor, time, and fuel required to travel to many remote locations.

devices are not always used in the same functional application as bleed devices and are, therefore, not an appropriate form of control for all bleed devices. It is assumed snap-acting, or no-bleed, devices meet the definition of a low-bleed. This concept is further detailed in Section 5.5 of this chapter. Since this analysis has assumed areas with electrical power have already converted applicable pneumatic devices to instrument air systems, instrument air systems are also described for natural gas processing plants only. Given applicability, efficiency and the expected costs of the other options identified in Table 5-5 (i.e. mechanical controls and enhanced maintenance), were not further conducted for this analysis.

5.4.1 Low-Bleed Controllers

5.4.1.1 Emission Reduction Potential

As discussed in the above sections, low-bleed devices provide the same functional control as a high-bleed device, but have lower continuous bleed emissions. As summarized in Table 5-6, it is estimated on average that 6.6 tons of methane and 1.8 tons of VOC will be reduced annually in the production segment from installing a low-bleed device in place of a high-bleed device. In the transmission segment, the average achievable reductions per device are estimated around 3.7 tons and 0.08 tons for methane and VOC, respectively. As noted in section 5.2, a low-bleed controller can emit up to 6 scfh, which is higher than the expected emissions from the typical low-bleed device available on the current market.

5.4.1.1 Effectiveness

There are certain situations in which replacing and retrofitting are not feasible, such as instances where a minimal response time is needed, cases where large valves require a high bleed rate to actuate, or a safety isolation valve is involved. Based on criteria provided by the Natural Gas STAR Program, it is assumed about 80 percent of high-bleed devices can be replaced with low-bleed devices throughout the production and transmission and storage industry segments.[1] This corresponds to 13,632 new high-bleed devices in the production segment (out of 17,040) and 67 new high-bleed devices in the transmission and storage segment (out of 84) that can be replaced with a new low-bleed alternative. For high-bleed devices in natural gas processing, this analysis assumed that the replaceable devices have already been replaced with instrument air and the remaining high-bleed devices are safety related for about half of the existing processing plants.

Table 5-6. Estimated Annual Bleed Emission Reductions from Replacing a Representative High-Bleed Pneumatic Device with a Representative Low-Bleed Pneumatic Device

Segment/Device Type	Emissions (tons/year)[a]		
	Methane	**VOC**	**HAP**
Oil and Natural Gas Production	6.65	1.85	0.07
Natural Gas Transmission and Storage	2.96	0.082	0.002

Minor discrepancies may be due to rounding.

a. Average emission reductions for each industry segment based on the typical emission flow rates from high-bleed and low-bleed devices as listed in Table 5-2 by industry segment.

Applicability may depend on the function of instrumentation for an individual device on whether the device is a level, pressure, or temperature controller. High-bleed pneumatic devices may not be applicable for replacement with low-bleed devices because a process condition may require a fast or precise control response so that it does not stray too far from the desired set point. A slower-acting controller could potentially result in damage to equipment and/or become a safety issue. An example of this is on a compressor where pneumatic devices may monitor the suction and discharge pressure and actuate a re-cycle when one or the other is out of the specified target range. Other scenarios for fast and precise control include transient (non-steady) situations where a gas flow rate may fluctuate widely or unpredictably. This situation requires a responsive high-bleed device to ensure that the gas flow can be controlled in all situations. Temperature and level controllers are typically present in control situations that are not prone to fluctuate as widely or where the fluctuation can be readily and safely accommodated by the equipment. Therefore, such processes can accommodate control from a low-bleed device, which is slower-acting and less precise.

Safety concerns may be a limitation issue, but only in specific situations because emergency valves are not bleeding controllers since safety is the pre-eminent consideration. Thus, the connection between the bleed rate of a pneumatic device and safety is not a direct one. Pneumatic devices are designed for process control during normal operations and to keep the process in a normal operating state. If an Emergency Shut Down (ESD) or Pressure Relief Valve (PRV) actuation occurs,[iv] the equipment in place for such an event is spring loaded, or otherwise not pneumatically powered. During a safety issue or emergency, it is possible that the pneumatic gas supply will be lost. For this reason, control valves are deliberately selected to either fail open or fail closed, depending on which option is the failsafe.

5.4.1.2 Cost Impacts

As described in Section 5.2.2, costs were based on the vendor research described in Section 5.2 as a result of updating and expanding upon the information given in the appendices of the Natural Gas STAR Lessons Learned document on pneumatic devices.[1] As Table 5-7 indicates, the average cost for a low bleed pneumatic is $2,553, while the average cost for a high bleed is $2,338.[v] Thus, the incremental cost of installing a low-bleed device instead of a high-bleed device is on the order of $165 per device. In order to analyze cost impacts, the incremental cost to install a low-bleed instead of a high-bleed was

[iv] ESD valves either close or open in an emergency depending on the fail safe configuration. PRVs always open in an emergency.
[v] Costs are estimated in 2008 U.S. Dollars.

Table 5-7. Cost Projections for the Representative Pneumatic Devices[a]

Device	Minimum cost ($)	Maximum cost ($)	Average cost ($)	Low-Bleed Incremental Cost ($)
High-bleed controller	366	7,000	2,388	$165
Low-bleed controller	524	8,852	2,553	

a. Major pneumatic devices vendors were surveyed for costs, emission rates, and any other pertinent information that would give an accurate picture of the present industry.

annualized for a 10 year period using a 7 percent interest rate. This equated to an annualized cost of around $23 per device for both the production and transmission segments.

Monetary savings associated with additional gas captured to the sales line was estimated based on a natural gas value of $4.00 per Mcf.[vi,17] The representative low-bleed device is estimated to emit 6.65 tons, or 319 Mcf, (using the conversion factor of 0.0208 tons methane per 1 Mcf) of methane less than the average high-bleed device per year. Assuming production quality gas is 82.8 percent methane by volume, this equals 385.5 Mcf natural gas recovered per year. Therefore, the value of recovered natural gas from one pneumatic device in the production segment equates to approximately $1,500. Savings were not estimated for the transmission segment because it is assumed the owner of the pneumatic controller generally is not the owner of the natural gas. Table 5-8 provides a summary of low-bleed pneumatic cost effectiveness.

5.4.1.3 Secondary Impacts

Low-bleed pneumatic devices are a replacement option for high-bleed devices that simply bleed less natural gas that would otherwise be emitted in the actuation of pneumatic valves. No wastes should be created, no wastewater generated, and no electricity needed. Therefore, there are no secondary impacts expected due to the use of low-bleed pneumatic devices.

5.4.2 Instrument Air Systems

5.4.2.1 Process Description

The major components of an instrument air conversion project include the compressor, power source, dehydrator, and volume tank. The following is a description of each component as described in the Natural Gas STAR document, *Lessons Learned: Convert Gas Pneumatic Controls to Instrument Air:*

- Compressors used for instrument air delivery are available in various types and sizes, from centrifugal (rotary screw) compressors to reciprocating piston (positive displacement) types. The size of the compressor depends on the size of the facility, the number of control devices operated by the system, and the typical bleed rates of these devices. The compressor is usually driven by an electric motor that turns on and off, depending on the pressure in the volume tank.

[vi] The average market price for natural gas in 2010 was approximately $4.16 per Mcf. This is much less compared to the average price in 2008 of $7.96 per Mcf. Due to the volatility in the value, a conservative savings of $4.00 per Mcf estimate was projected for the analysis in order to not overstate savings.

Table 5-8. Cost-effectiveness for Low-Bleed Pneumatic Devices versus High Bleed Pneumatics

Segment	Incremental Capital Cost Per Unit ($)[a]	Total Annual Cost Per Unit ($/yr)[b]		VOC Cost Effectiveness ($/ton)		Methane Cost Effectiveness ($/ton)	
		without savings	with savings	without savings	with savings	without savings	with savings
Oil and Natural Gas Production	165	23.50	-1,519	13	net savings	4	net savings
Natural Gas Transmission and Storage	165	23.50	23.50	286	286	8	8

a. Incremental cost of a low bleed device versus a high bleed device as summarized in Table 5-7.
b. Annualized cost assumes a 7 percent interest rate over a 10 year equipment lifetime.

For reliability, a full spare compressor is normally installed. A minimum amount of electrical service is required to power the compressors.

- A critical component of the instrument air control system is the power source required to operate the compressor. Since high-pressure natural gas is abundant and readily available, gas pneumatic systems can run uninterrupted on a 24-hour, 7-day per week schedule. The reliability of an instrument air system, however, depends on the reliability of the compressor and electric power supply. Most large natural gas plants have either an existing electric power supply or have their own power generation system. For smaller facilities and in remote locations, however, a reliable source of electric power can be difficult to assure. In some instances, solar-powered battery-operated air compressors can be cost effective for remote locations, which reduce both methane emissions and energy consumption. Small natural gas powered fuel cells are also being developed.

- Dehydrators, or air dryers, are also an integral part of the instrument air compressor system. Water vapor present in atmospheric air condenses when the air is pressurized and cooled, and can cause a number of problems to these systems, including corrosion of the instrument parts and blockage of instrument air piping and controller orifices.

- The volume tank holds enough air to allow the pneumatic control system to have an uninterrupted supply of high pressure air without having to run the air compressor continuously. The volume tank allows a large withdrawal of compressed air for a short time, such as for a motor starter, pneumatic pump, or pneumatic tools, without affecting the process control functions.

Compressed air may be substituted for natural gas in pneumatic systems without altering any of the parts of the pneumatic control. The use of instrument air eliminates natural gas emissions from natural gas powered pneumatic controllers. All other parts of a gas pneumatic system will operate the same way with instrument air as they do with natural gas. The conversion of natural gas pneumatic controllers to instrument air systems is applicable to all natural gas facilities with electrical service available.[14]

5.4.2.2 Effectiveness

The use of instrument air eliminates natural gas emissions from the natural gas driven pneumatic devices; however, the system is only applicable in locations with access to a sufficient and consistent supply of electrical power. Instrument air systems are also usually installed at facilities where there is a high concentration of pneumatic control valves and the presence of an operator that can ensure the system is properly functioning.[14]

5.4.2.3 Cost Impacts

Instrument air conversion requires additional equipment to properly compress and control the pressured air. The size of the compressor will depend on the number of control loops present at a location. A control loop consists of one pneumatic controller and one control valve. The volume of compressed air supply for the pneumatic system is equivalent to the volume of gas used to run the existing instrumentation – adjusted for air losses during the drying process. The current volume of gas usage can be determined by direct metering if a meter is installed. Otherwise, an alternative rule of thumb for sizing instrument air systems is one cubic foot per minute (cfm) of instrument air for each control loop.[14] As the system is powered by electric compressors, the system requires a constant source of electrical power or a back-up pneumatic device. Table 5-9 outlines three different sized instrument air systems including the compressor power requirements, the flow rate provided from the compressor, and the associated number of control loops.

The primary costs associated with conversion to instrument air systems are the initial capital expenditures for installing compressors and related equipment and the operating costs for electrical energy to power the compressor motor. This equipment includes a compressor, a power source, a dehydrator and a storage vessel. It is assumed that in either an instrument air solution or a natural gas pneumatic solution, gas supply piping, control instruments, and valve actuators of the gas pneumatic system are required. The total cost, including installation and labor, of three representative sizes of compressors were evaluated based on assumptions found in the Natural Gas STAR document, "Lessons Learned: Convert Gas Pneumatic Controls to Instrument Air"[14] and summarized in Table 5-10.[vii]

For natural gas processing, the cost-effectiveness of the three representative instrument air system sizes was evaluated based on the emissions mitigated from the number of control loops the system can provide and not on a per device basis. This approach was chosen because we assume new processing plants will need to provide instrumentation of multiple control loops and size the instrument air system accordingly. We also assume that existing processing plants have already upgraded to instrument air

[vii] Costs have been converted to 2008 US dollars using the Chemical Engineering Cost Index.

Table 5-9. Compressor Power Requirements and Costs for Various Sized Instrument Air Systems[a]

Compressor Power Requirements[b]			Flow Rate	Control Loops
Size of Unit	hp	kW	(cfm)	Loops/Compressor
small	10	13.3	30	15
medium	30	40	125	63
large	75	100	350	175

a. Based on rules of thumb stated in the Natural Gas STAR document, *Lessons Learned: Convert Gas Pneumatic Controls to Instrument Air*[14]

b. Power is based on the operation of two compressors operating in parallel (each assumed to be operating at full capacity 50 percent of the year).

Table 5-10 Estimated Capital and Annual Costs of Various Sized Representative Instrument Air Systems

Instrument Air System Size	Compressor	Tank	Air Dryer	Total Capital[a]	Annualized Capital[b]	Labor Cost	Total Annual Costs[c]	Annualized Cost of Instrument Air System
Small	$3,772	$754	$2,262	$16,972	$2,416	$1,334	$8,674	$11,090
Medium	$18,855	$2,262	$6,787	$73,531	$10,469	$4,333	$26,408	$36,877
Large	$33,183	$4,525	$15,083	$135,750	$19,328	$5,999	$61,187	$80,515

a. Total Capital includes the cost for two compressors, tank, an air dryer and installation. Installation costs are assumed to be equal to 1.5 times the cost of capital. Equipment costs were derived from the Natural Gas Star Lessons Learned document and converted to 2008 dollars from 2006 dollars using the Chemical Engineering Cost Index.
b. The annualized cost was estimated using a 7 percent interest rate and 10 year equipment life.
c. Annual Costs include the cost of electrical power as listed in Table 5-9 and labor.

unless the function has a specific need for a bleeding device, which would most likely be safety related.[9] Table 5-11 summarizes the cost-effectiveness of the three sizes of representative instrument air systems.

5.4.2.4 Secondary Impacts

The secondary impacts from instrument air systems are indirect, variable and dependent on the electrical supply used to power the compressor. No other secondary impacts are expected.

5.5 Regulatory Options

The affected facility definition for pneumatic controllers is defined as a single natural gas pneumatic controller. Therefore, pneumatic controllers would be subject to a New Source Performance Standard (NSPS) at the time of installation. The following Regulatory alternatives were evaluated:

- Regulatory Option 1: Establish an emissions limit equal to 0 scfh.
- Regulatory Option 2: Establish an emissions limit equal to 6 scfh.

5.5.1 Evaluation of Regulatory Options

By establishing an emission limit of 0 scfh, facilities would most likely install instrument air systems to meet the threshold limit. This option is considered cost effective for natural gas processing plants as summarized in Table 5-11. A major assumption of this analysis, however, is that processing plants are constructed at a location with sufficient electrical service to power the instrument air compression system. It is assumed that facilities located outside of the processing plant would not have sufficient electrical service to install an instrument air system. This would significantly increase the cost of the system at these locations, making it not cost effective for these facilities to meet this regulatory option. Therefore, Regulatory Option 1 was accepted for natural gas processing plants and rejected for all other types of facilities.

Regulatory Option 2 would establish an emission limit equal to the maximum emissions allowed for a low-bleed device in the production and transmissions and storage industry segments. This would most likely be met by the use of low-bleed controllers in place of a high-bleed controller, but allows flexibility in the chosen method of meeting the requirement. In the key instances related to pressure control that would disallow the use of a low-bleed device, specific monitoring and recordkeeping criteria

Table 5-11 Cost-effectiveness of Representative Instrument Air Systems in the Natural Gas Processing Segment

System Size	Number of Control Loops	Annual Emissions Reduction[a] (tons/year)			Value of Product Recovered ($/year)[b]	Annualized Cost of System		VOC Cost-effectiveness ($/ton)		Methane Cost-effectiveness ($/ton)	
		VOC	CH_4	HAP		without savings	with savings	without savings	with savings	without savings	with savings
Small	15	4.18	15	0.16	3,484	11,090	7,606	2,656	1,822	738	506
Medium	63	17.5	63	0.66	14,632	36,877	22,245	2,103	1,269	585	353
Large	175	48.7	175	1.84	40,644	80,515	39,871	1,653	819	460	228

Minor discrepancies may be due to rounding.

a. Based on the emissions mitigated from the entire system, which includes multiple control loops.
b. Value of recovered product assumes natural gas processing is 82.8 percent methane by volume. A natural gas price of $4 per Mcf was assumed.

would be required to ensure the device function dictates the precision of a high bleed device. Therefore, Regulatory Option 2 was accepted for locations outside of natural gas processing plants.

5.5.2 Nationwide Impacts of Regulatory Options

Table 5-12 summarizes the costs impacts of the selected regulatory options by industry segment. Regulatory Option 1 for the natural gas processing segment is estimated to affect 15 new processing plants with nationwide annual costs discounting savings of $166,000. When savings are realized the net annual cost is reduced to around $114,000. Regulatory Option 2 has nationwide annual costs of $320,000 for the production segment and around $1,500 in the natural gas transmission and storage segment. When annual savings are realized in the production segment there is a net savings of $20.7 million in nationwide annual costs.

Table 5-12 Nationwide Cost and Emission Reduction Impacts for Selected Regulatory Options by Industry Segment

Industry Segment	Number of Sources subject to NSPS*	Capital Cost Per Device/IAS ($)**	Annual Costs ($/year)		Nationwide Emission Reductions (tpy)†			VOC Cost Effectiveness ($/ton)		Methane Cost Effectiveness ($/ton)		Total Nationwide Costs ($/year)		
			without savings	with savings	VOC	Methane	HAP	without savings	with savings	without savings	with savings	Capital Cost	Annual without savings	Annual with savings
Regulatory Option 1 (emission threshold equal to 0 scfh)														
Natural Gas Processing	15	16,972	11,090	7,606	63	225	2	2,656	1,822	738	506	254,576	166,351	114,094
Regulatory Option 2 (emission threshold equal to 6 scfh)														
Oil and Natural Gas Production	13,632	165	23	(1,519)	25,210	90,685	952	13	net savings	4	net savings	2,249,221	320,071	(20,699,918)
Natural Gas Transmission and Storage	67	165	23	23	6	212	0.2	262	262	7	7	11,039	1,539	1,539

Minor discrepancies may be due to rounding.

a. The number of sources subject to NSPS for the natural gas processing and the natural gas transmission and storage segments represent the number of new devices expected per year reduced by 20 percent. This is consistent with the assumption that 80 percent of high bleed devices can be replaced with a low bleed device. It is assumed all new sources would be installed as a high bleed for these segments. For the natural gas processing segment the number of new sources represents the number of Instrument Air Systems (IAS) that is expected to be installed, with each IAS expected to power 15 control loops (or replace 15 pneumatic devices).
b. The capital cost for regulatory option 2 is equal to the incremental cost of a low bleed device versus a new high bleed device. The capital cost of the IAS is based on the small IAS as summarized in Table 5-10.
c. Nationwide emission reductions vary based on average expected emission rates of bleed devices typically used in each segment industry segment as summarized in Tables 5-2.

5.6 References

1 U.S. Environmental Protection Agency. Lessons Learned: Options for Reducing Methane Emissions From Pneumatic Devices in the Natural Gas Industry. Office of Air and Radiation: Natural Gas Star. Washington, DC. February 2004

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6.0 COMPRESSORS

Compressors are mechanical devices that increase the pressure of natural gas and allow the natural gas to be transported from the production site, through the supply chain, and to the consumer. The types of compressors that are used by the oil and gas industry as prime movers are reciprocating and centrifugal compressors. This chapter discusses the air pollutant emissions from these compressors and provides emission estimates for reducing emission from these types of compressors. In addition, nationwide emissions estimates from new sources are estimated. Options for controlling pollutant emissions from these compressors are presented, along with costs, emission reductions, and secondary impacts. Finally, this chapter discusses considerations in developing regulatory alternatives for both reciprocating and centrifugal compressors.

6.1 Process Description

6.1.1 Reciprocating Compressors

In a reciprocating compressor, natural gas enters the suction manifold, and then flows into a compression cylinder where it is compressed by a piston driven in a reciprocating motion by the crankshaft powered by an internal combustion engine. Emissions occur when natural gas leaks around the piston rod when pressurized natural gas is in the cylinder. The compressor rod packing system consists of a series of flexible rings that create a seal around the piston rod to prevent gas from escaping between the rod and the inboard cylinder head. However, over time,during operation of the compressor, the rings become worn and the packing system will need to be replaced to prevent excessive leaking from the compression cylinder.

6.1.2 Centrifugal Compressors

Centrifugal compressors use a rotating disk or impeller to increase the velocity of the gas where it is directed to a divergent duct section that converts the velocity energy to pressure energy. These compressors are primarily used for continuous, stationary transport of natural gas in the processing and transmission systems. Many centrifugal compressors use wet (meaning oil) seals around the rotating shaft to prevent natural gas from escaping where the compressor shaft exits the compressor casing. The wet seals use oil which is circulated at high pressure to form a barrier against compressed natural gas leakage. The circulated oil entrains and absorbs some compressed natural gas which is released to the atmosphere during the seal oil recirculation process. Alternatively, dry seals can be used to replace the wet seals in centrifugal compressors. Dry seals prevent leakage by using the opposing force created by hydrodynamic groves and springs. The opposing forcescreate a thin gap of high pressure gas between the rings through which little gas can leak. The rings do not wear or need lubrication because they are not in contact with each other. Therefore, operation and maintenance costs are lower for dry seals in comparison to wet seals.

6.2 Emissions Data and Emission Factors

6.2.1 Summary of Major Studies and Emissions Factors

There are a few studies that have been conducted that provide leak estimates from reciprocating and centrifugal compressors. These studies are provided in Table 6-1, along with the type of information contained in the study.

6.2.2 Representative Reciprocating and Centrifugal Compressor Emissions

The methodology for estimating emission from reciprocating compressor rod packing was to use the methane emission factors referenced in the EPA/GRI study[1] and use the methane to pollutant ratios developed in the gas composition memorandum.[2] The emission factors in the EPA/GRI document were expressed in thousand standard cubic feet per cylinder (Mscf/cyl), and were multiplied by the average number of cylinder per reciprocating compressor at each oil and gas industry segment. The volumetric methane emission rate was converted to a mass emission rate using a density of 41.63 pounds of methane per thousand cubic feet. This conversion factor was developed assuming that methane is an ideal gas and using the ideal gas law to calculate the density. A summary of the methane emission factors is presented in Table 6-2. Once the methane emissions were calculated, ratios were used to estimate volatile organic compounds (VOC) and hazardous air pollutants (HAP). The specific ratios that were used for this analysis were 0.278 pounds VOC per pound of methane and 0.105 pounds HAP per pound of methane for the production and processing segments, and 0.0277 pounds VOC per pound of methane and 0.0008 pounds HAP per pound of methane for the transmission and storage segments. A summary of the reciprocating compressor emissions are presented in Table 6-3.

The compressor emission factors for wet seals and dry seals are based on data used in the GHG inventory. The wet seals methane emission factor was calculated based on a sampling of 48 wet seal centrifugal compressors. The dry seal methane emission factor was based on data collected by the

Table 6-1. Major Studies Reviewed for Consideration Of Emissions and Activity Data

Report Name	Affiliation	Year of Report	Activity Information	Emissions Information	Control Information
Inventory of Greenhouse Gas Emissions and Sinks: 1990-2008[1]	EPA	2010	Nationwide	X	
Greenhouse Gas Mandatory Reporting Rule and Technical Supporting Document[2]	EPA	2010	Nationwide	X	
Methane Emissions from the Natural Gas Industry[3]	Gas Research Institute/EPA	1996	Nationwide	X	
Natural Gas STAR Program[4,5]	EPA	1993-2010	Nationwide	X	X

Table 6-2. Methane Emission Factors for Reciprocating and Centrifugal Compressors

Oil and Gas Industry Segment	Reciprocating Compressors			Centrifugal Compressors	
	Methane Emission Factor (scf/hr-cylinder)	Average Number of Cylinders	Pressurized Factor (% of hour/year Compressor Pressurized)	Wet Seal Methane Emission Factor (scf/minute)	Dry Seals Methane Emission Factor (scf/minute)
Production (Well Pads)	0.271[a]	4	100%	N/A[f]	N/A[f]
Gathering & Boosting	25.9[b]	3.3	79.1%	N/A[f]	N/A[f]
Processing	57[c]	2.5	89.7%	47.7[g]	6[g]
Transmission	57[d]	3.3	79.1%	47.7[g]	6[g]
Storage	51[e]	4.5	67.5%	47.7[g]	6[g]

a. EPA/GRI. (1996). "Methane Emissions from the Natural Gas Industry: Volume 8 – Equipment Leaks." Table 4-8.
b. Clearstone Engineering Ltd. *Cost-Effective Directed Inspection and Maintenance Control Opportunities at Five Gas Processing Plants and Upstream Gathering Compressor Stations and Well Sites.* (Draft): 2006.
c. EPA/GRI. (1996). Methane Emissions from the Natural Gas Industry: Volume 8 – Equipment Leaks. Table 4-14.
d. EPA/GRI. (1996). "Methane Emissions from the Natural Gas Industry: Volume 8 – Equipment Leaks." Table 4-17.
e. EPA/GRI. (1996). "Methane Emissions from the Natural Gas Industry: Volume 8 – Equipment Leaks." Table 4-24.
f. The 1996 EPA/GRI Study Volume 11[3], does not report any centrifugal compressors in the production or gathering/boosting sectors, therefore no emission factor data were published for those two sectors.
g. U.S Environmental Protection Agency. Methodology for Estimating CH4 and CO2 Emissions from Petroleum Systems. Greenhouse Gas Inventory: Emission and Sinks1990-2009. Washington, DC. April 2011. Annex 3. Page A-153.

Table 6-3.Baseline Emission Estimates for Reciprocating and Centrifugal Compressors

Industry Segment/ Compressor Type	Baseline Emission Estimates (tons/year)		
	Methane	VOC	HAP
Reciprocating Compressors			
Production (Well Pads)	0.198	0.0549	0.00207
Gathering & Boosting	12.3	3.42	0.129
Processing	23.3	6.48	0.244
Transmission	27.1	0.751	0.0223
Storage	28.2	0.782	0.0232
Centrifugal Compressors (Wet seals)			
Processing	228	20.5	0.736
Transmission	126	3.50	0.104
Storage	126	3.50	0.104
Centrifugal Compressors (Dry seals)			
Processing	28.6	2.58	0.0926
Transmission	15.9	0.440	0.0131
Storage	15.9	0.440	0.0131

Natural Gas STAR Program. The methane emissions were converted to VOC and HAP emissions using the same gas composition ratios that were used for reciprocating engines.[4] A summary of the emission factors are presented in Table 6-2 and the individual compressor emission are shown in Table 6-3 for each of the oil and gas industry segments.

6.3 Nationwide Emissions from New Sources

6.3.1 Overview of Approach

The number of new affected facilities in each of the oil and gas sectors was estimated using data from the U.S. Greenhouse Gas Inventory,[5,6] with some exceptions. This basis was used whenever the total number of existing facilities was explicitly estimated as part of the Inventory, so that the difference between two years can be calculated to represent the number of new facilities. The Inventory was not used to estimate the new number of reciprocating compressor facilities in gas production, since more recent information is available in the comments received to subpart W of the mandatory reporting rule. Similarly, the Inventory was not used to estimate the new number of reciprocating compressor facilities in gas gathering, since more recent information is available in comments received as comments to subpart W of the mandatory reporting rule. For both gas production and gas gathering, information received as comments to subpart W of the mandatory reporting rule was combined with additional EPA estimates and assumptions to develop the estimates for the number of new affected facilities.

Nationwide emission estimates for new sources were then determined by multiplying the number of new sources for each oil and gas segment by the expected emissions per compressor using the emission data in Table 6-3. A summary of the number of new reciprocating and centrifugal compressors for each of the oil and gas segments is presented in Table 6-4.

6.3.2 Activity Data for Reciprocating Compressors

6.3.2.1 Wellhead Reciprocating Compressors

The number of wellhead reciprocating compressors was estimated using data from industry comments on Subpart W of the Greenhouse Gas Mandatory Reporting Rule.[7] The 2010 U.S. GHG Inventory reciprocating compressor activity data was not considered in the analysis because it does not distinguish between wellhead and gathering and boosting compressors. Therefore, using data submitted to EPA during the subpart W comment period from nine basins supplied by the El Paso Corporation,[8] the

Table 6-4.Approximate Number of New Sources in the Oil and Gas Industry in 2008

<table>
<tr><th>Industry Segment</th><th>Number of New Reciprocating Compressors</th><th>Number of New Centrifugal Compressors</th></tr>
<tr><td>Wellheads</td><td>6,000</td><td>0</td></tr>
<tr><td>Gathering and Boosting</td><td>210</td><td>0</td></tr>
<tr><td>Processing</td><td>209</td><td>16</td></tr>
<tr><td>Transmission</td><td>20</td><td rowspan="2">14</td></tr>
<tr><td>Storage</td><td>4</td></tr>
</table>

average number of new wellhead compressors per new well was calculated using the 315 well head compressors provided in the El Paso comments and 3,606 wells estimated in the Final Subpart W onshore production threshold analysis. This produced an average of 0.087 compressors per wellhead. The average wellhead compressors per well was multiplied by the total well completions (oil and gas) determined from the HPDI® database[9] between 2007 and 2008, which came to 68,000 new well completions. Using this methodology, the estimated number of new reciprocating compressors at production pads was calculated to be 6,000 for 2008. A summary of the number of new reciprocating compressors located at well pads is presented in Table 6-4.

6.3.2.2 Gathering and Boosting Reciprocating Compressors

The number of gathering & boosting reciprocating compressors was also estimated using data from industry comments on Subpart W. DCP Midstream stated on page 3 of its 2010 Subpart W comments that it operates 48 natural gas processing plants and treaters and 700 gathering system compressor stations. Using this data, there were an average of 14.583 gathering and boosting compressor stations per processing plant. The number of new gathering and boosting compressors was determined by taking the average difference between the number of processing plants for each year in the 2010 U.S Inventory, which references the total processing plants in the Oil and Gas Journal. This was done for each year up to 2008. An average was taken of only the years with an increase in processing plants, up to 2008. The resulting average was multiplied by the 14.583 ratio of gathering and boosting compressor stations to processing plants and the 1.5 gathering and boosting compressors per station yielding 210 new source gathering and boosting compressor stations and is shown in Table 6-4.

6.3.2.3 Processing Reciprocating Compressors

The number of new processing reciprocating compressors at processing facilities was estimated by averaging the increase of reciprocating compressors at processing plants in the greenhouse gas inventory data for 2007, 2008, and 2009.[10,11] The estimated number of existing reciprocating compressors in the processing segment was 4,458, 4,781, and 4,876 for the years 2007, 2008, and 2009 respectively. This calculated to be 323 new reciprocating compressors between 2007 and 2008, and 95 new reciprocating compressors between 2008 and 2009. The average difference was calculated to be 209 reciprocating compressors and was used to estimate the number of new sources in Table 6-4.

6.3.2.4 Transmission and Storage Reciprocating Compressors

The number of new transmission and storage reciprocating compressors was estimated using the differences in the greenhouse gas inventory[12,13] data for 2007, 2008, and 2009 and calculating an average of those differences. The estimated number of existing reciprocating compressors at transmission stations was 7,158, 7,028, and 7,197 for the years 2007, 2008, and 2009 respectively. This calculated to be -130 new reciprocating compressors between 2007 and 2008, and 169 new reciprocating compressors between 2008and 2009. The average difference was calculated to be 20 reciprocating compressors and was used to estimate the number of new sources at transmission stations. The number of existing reciprocating compressors at storage stations was 1,144, 1,178, and 1,152 for the years 2007, 2008, and 2009 respectively. This calculated to be 34 new reciprocating compressors between 2007 and 2008, and -26 new reciprocating compressors between 2008and 2009. The average difference was calculated to be 4 reciprocating compressors and was used to estimate the number of new sources at storage stations in Table 6-4.

6.3.3 Activity Data for Centrifugal Compressors

The number of new centrifugal compressors in 2008 for the processing and transmission/storage segments was determined by taking the average difference between the centrifugal compressor activity data for each year in the 2008 U.S. Inventory . For example, the number of compressors in 1992 was subtracted from the number of compressors in 1993 to determine the number of new centrifugal compressors in 1993. This was done for each year up to 2008. An average was taken of only the years with an increase in centrifugal compressors, up to 2008, to determine the number of new centrifugal compressors in 2008. The result was 16 and 14 new centrifugal compressors in the processing and transmission segments respectively. A summary of the estimates for new centrifugal compressor is presented in Table 6-4.

6.3.4 Emission Estimates

Nationwide baseline emission estimates for new reciprocating and centrifugal compressors are summarized in Table 6-5 by industry segment.

Table 6-5.Nationwide Baseline Emissions for New Reciprocating and Centrifugal Compressors

Industry Segment/ Compressor Type	Nationwide baseline Emissions (tons/year)		
	Methane	**VOC**	**HAP**
Reciprocating Compressors			
Production (Well Pads)	1,186	330	12.4
Gathering & Boosting	2,587	719	27.1
Processing	4,871	1,354	51.0
Transmission	529	14.6	0.435
Storage	113	3.13	0.0929
Centrifugal Compressors			
Processing	3,640	329	11.8
Transmission/Storage	1,768	48.9	1.45

6.4 Control Techniques

6.4.1 Potential Control Techniques

The potential control options reviewed for reducing emissions from reciprocating compressors include control techniques that limit the leaking of natural gas past the piston rod packing. This includesreplacement of the compressor rod packing, replacement of the piston rod, and the refitting or realignment of the piston rod.

The replacement of the rod packing is a maintenance task performed on reciprocating compressors to reduce the leakage of natural gas past the piston rod. Over time the packing rings wear and allow more natural gas to escape around the piston rod. Regular replacement of these rings reduces methane and VOC emissions. Therefore, this control technique was determined to be an appropriate optionfor reciprocating compressors.

Like the packing rings, piston rods on reciprocating compressors also deteriorate. Piston rods, however, wear more slowly than packing rings, having a life of about 10 years.[14] Rods wear "out-of-round" or taper when poorly aligned, which affects the fit of packing rings against the shaft (and therefore the tightness of the seal) and the rate of ring wear. An out-of-round shaft not only seals poorly, allowing more leakage, but also causes uneven wear on the seals, thereby shortening the life of the piston rod and the packing seal. Replacing or upgrading the rod can reduce reciprocating compressor rod packing emissions. Also, upgrading piston rods by coating them with tungsten carbide or chrome reduces wear over the life of the rod. This analysis assumes operators will choose, at their discretion, when to replace the rod and hence, does not consider this control technique to be a practical control option for reciprocating compressors. A summary of these techniques are presented in the following sections.

Potential control options to reduce emissions from centrifugal compressors include control techniques that limit the leaking of natural gas across the rotating shaft, or capture and destruction of the emissions using a flare. A summary of these techniques are presented in the following sections.

A control technique for limiting or reducing the emission from the rotating shaft of a centrifugal compressor is a mechanical dry seal system. This control technique uses rings to prevent the escape of natural gas across the rotating shaft. This control technique was determined to be a viable option for reducing emission from centrifugal compressors.

For centrifugal compressors equipped with wet seals, a flare was considered to be a reasonable option for reducing emissions from centrifugal compressors. Centrifugal compressors require seals around the rotating shaft to prevent natural gas from escaping where the shaft exits the compressor casing. “Beam” type compressors have two seals, one on each end of the compressor, while “over-hung” compressors have a seal on only the “inboard” (motor end) side. These seals use oil, which is circulated under high pressure between three rings around the compressor shaft, forming a barrier against the compressed gas leakage. The center ring is attached to the rotating shaft, while the two rings on each side are stationary in the seal housing, pressed against a thin film of oil flowing between the rings to both lubricate and act as a leak barrier. The seal also includes “O-ring” rubber seals, which prevent leakage around the stationary rings. The oil barrier allows some gas to escape from the seal, but considerably more gas is entrained and absorbed in the oil under the high pressures at the “inboard” (compressor side) seal oil/gas interface, thus contaminating the seal oil. Seal oil is purged of the absorbed gas (using heaters, flash tanks, and degassing techniques) and recirculated back to the seal. As a control measure, the recovered gas would then be sent to a flare or other combustion device.

6.4.2 Reciprocating Compressor Rod Packing Replacement

6.4.2.1 Description

Reciprocating compressor rod packing consists of a series of flexible rings that fit around a shaft to create a seal against leakage. As the rings wear, they allow more compressed gas to escape, increasing rod packing emissions. Rod packing emissions typically occur around the rings from slight movement of the rings in the cups as the rod moves, but can also occur through the “nose gasket” around the packing case, between the packing cups, and between the rings and shaft. If the fit between the rod packing rings and rod is too loose, more compressed gas will escape. Periodically replacing the packing rings ensures the correct fit is maintained between packing rings and the rod.

6.4.2.2 Effectiveness

As discussed above, regular replacement of the reciprocating compressor rod packing can reduce the leaking of natural gas across the piston rod. The potential emission reductions were calculated by comparing the average rod packing emissionswith the average emissions from newly installed and worn-in rod packing. Since the estimate for newly installed rod packing was intended for larger processing and transmission compressors, this analysis uses the estimate to calculate reductions from only gathering and boosting compressors and not wellhead compressor which are known to be smaller. The calculation for gathering and boosting reductions is shown in Equation 1.

$$R_{WP}^{G\&B} = \frac{Comp_{New}^{G\&B}\left(E_{G\&B} - E_{New}\right)\times C \times O \times 8760}{10^6} \qquad \textbf{Equation 1}$$

where,

$R_{WP}^{G\&B}$ = Potential methane emission reductions from gathering and boosting compressors switching from wet seals to dry seals, in million cubic feet per year (MMcf/year);
$Comp_{New}^{G\&B}$ = Number of new gathering and boosting compressors;
$E_{G\&B}$ = Methane emission factor for gathering and boosting compressors inTable 6-2, in cubic feet per hour per cylinder;
E_{New}=Average emissions from a newly installed rod packing, assumed to be 11.5 cubic feet per hour per cylinder[15] for this analysis;
C = Average number of cylinders for gathering and boosting compressors in Table 6-2;
O = Percent of time during the calendar year the average gathering and boosting compressor is in the operating and standby pressurized modes, 79.1%;
8760 = Number of days in a year;
10^6 = Number of cubic feet in a million cubic feet.

For wellhead reciprocating compressors, this analysis calculates a percentage reduction using the transmission emission factor from the 1996 EPA/GRI report and the minimum emissions rate from a newly installed rod packing to determine methane emission reductions. The calculation for wellhead compressor reductions is shown in Equation 2 below.

$$R_{Well} = \frac{Comp_{New}^{Well}\left(E_{Well}\right)\times C \times O \times 8760}{10^6}\left(\frac{E_{Trans} - E_{New}}{E_{Trans}}\right) \qquad \textbf{Equation 2}$$

where,

R_{Well} = Potential methane emission reductions from wellhead compressors switching from wet seals to dry seals, in million cubic feet per year (MMcf/year);
$Comp_{New}^{Well}$ = Number of new wellhead compressors;
E_{Well} = Methane emission factor for wellhead compressors from Table 6-2, cubic feet per hour per cylinder;
C = Average number of cylinders for wellhead compressors in Table 6-2;
O = Percent of time during the calendar year the average gathering and boosting compressor is in the operating and standby pressurized modes, 100%;

E_{Trans} = Methane emissions factor for transmission compressors from Table 6-2 in cubic feet per hour per cylinder;
E_{New} = Average emissions from a newly installed rod packing, assumed to be 11.5 cubic feet per hour per cylinder[16] for this analysis;
8760 = Number of days in a year;
10^6 = Number of cubic feet in a million cubic feet.

The emission reductions for the processing, transmission, and storage segments were calculated by multiplying the number of new reciprocating compressors in each segment by the difference between the average rod packing emission factors in Table 6-2 by the average emission factor from newly installed rod packing. This calculation, shown in the Equation 3 below, was performed for each of the natural gas processing, transmission, and storage/LNG sectors.

$$R_{PTS} = \frac{Comp_{New}^{PTS}\left(E_{G\&B} - E_{New}\right) \times C \times O \times 8760}{10^6} \qquad \textbf{\textit{Equation 3}}$$

where,

R_{PTS} = Potential methane emission reductions from processing, transmission, or storage compressors switching from wet seals to dry seals, in million cubic feet per year (MMcf/year);
$Comp_{New}^{PTS}$ = Number of new processing, transmission, or storage compressors;
$E_{G\&B}$ = Methane emission factor for processing, transmission, or storage compressors in Table 6-2, in cubic feet per hour per cylinder;
E_{New}=Average emissions from a newly installed rod packing, assumed to be 11.5 cubic feet per hour per cylinder[17] for this analysis;
C = Average number of cylinders for processing, transmission, or storage compressors in Table 6-2;
O = Percent of time during the calendar year the average processing, transmission, or storage compressor is in the operating and standby pressurized modes, 89.7%, 79.1%, 67.5% respectively;
8760 = Number of days in a year;
10^6 = Number of cubic feet in a million cubic feet.

A summary of the potential emission reductions for reciprocating rod packing replacement for each of the oil and gas segments is shown in Table 6-6. The emissions of VOC and HAP were calculated using the methane emission reductions calculated above the gas composition[18] for each of the segments. Reciprocating compressors in the processing sector were assumed to be used to compress production gas.

Table 6-6.Estimated Annual Reciprocating Compressor Emission Reductions from Replacing Rod Packing

Oil & Gas Segment	Number of New Sources Per Year	Individual Compressor Emission Reductions (tons/compressor-year)			Nationwide Emission Reductions (tons/year)		
		Methane	VOC	HAP	Methane	VOC	HAP
Production (Well Pads)	6,000	0.158	0.0439	0.00165	947	263	9.91
Gathering & Boosting	210	6.84	1.90	0.0717	1,437	400	15.1
Processing	375	18.6	5.18	0.195	3,892	1,082	40.8
Transmission	199	21.7	0.600	0.0178	423	11.7	0.348
Storage	9	21.8	0.604	0.0179	87.3	2.42	0.0718

6.4.2.3 Cost Impacts

Costs for the replacement of reciprocating compressor rod packing were obtained from a Natural Gas Star Lessons Learned document[19] which estimated the cost to replace the packing rings to be $1,620 per cylinder. It was assumed that rod packing replacement would occur during planned shutdowns and maintenance and therefore, no travel costs will be incurred for implementing the rod packing replacement program. In addition, no costs were included for monitoring becausethe rod packingplacement is based on number of hours that the compressor operates. The replacement of rod packing for reciprocating compressors occurs on average every four years based on industry information from the Natural Gas STAR Program. [20] The cost impacts arebased on the replacement of the rod packing 26,000 hours that the reciprocating compressor operates in the pressurized mode. The number of hours used for the cost impacts was determined using a weighted average of the annual percentage that the reciprocating compressors are pressurized for all of the new sources. This weighted hours, on average, per year the reciprocating compressor is pressurized was calculated to be 98.9 percent. This percentage was multiplied by the total number of hours in 3 years to obtain a value of 26,000 hours. This calculates to an average of 3 years for production compressors, 3.8 years for gathering and boosting compressors, 3.3 years for processing compressors, 3.8 years for transmission compressors, and 4.4 years for storage compressors using the operating factors in Table 6-2. The calculated years were assumed to be the equipment life of the compressor rod packing and were used to calculate the capital recovery factor for each of the segments. Assuming an interest rate of 7 percent, the capital recovery factors were calculated to be 0.3848, 0.3122, 0.3490, 0.3122, and 0.2720 for the production, gathering and boosting, processing, transmission, and storage sectors, respectively. The capital costs were calculated using the average rod packing cost of $1,620 and the average number of cylinders per segment in Table 6-2. The annual costs were calculated using the capital cost and the capital recovery factors. A summary of the capital and annual costs for each of the oil and gas segments is shown in Table 6-7.

Monetary savings associated with the amount of gas saved with reciprocating compressor rod packing replacement was estimated using a natural gas price of $4.00 per Mcf.[21] This cost was used to calculate theannual cost with gas savings using the methane emission reductions in Table 6-6. The annual cost with savings is shown in Table 6-7 for each of the oil and gas segments. The cost effectiveness for the reciprocating rod packing replacement option is presented in Table 6-7. There is no gas savings cost benefits for transmission and storage facilities, because they do not own the natural gas that is

Table 6-7. Cost Effectiveness for Reciprocating Compressor Rod Packing Replacement

Oil and Gas Segment	Capital Cost ($2008)	Annual Cost per Compressor ($/compressor-year)		VOC Cost Effectiveness ($/ton)		Methane Cost Effectiveness ($/ton)	
		Without savings	With savings	Without savings	With savings	Without savings	With savings
Production	$6,480	$2,493	$2,457	$56,847	$56,013	$15,802	$15,570
Gathering & Boosting	$5,346	$1,669	$83	$877	$43	$244	$12
Processing	$4,050	$1,413	-$2,903	$273	-$561	$76	-$156
Transmission	$5,346	$1,669	N/A	$2,782	N/A	$77	N/A
Storage	$7,290	$2,276	N/A	$3,766	N/A	$104	N/A

compressed at their compressor stations.

6.4.2.4 Secondary Impacts

The reciprocating compressor rod packing replacement is an option that prevents the escape of natural gas from the piston rod. No wastes should be created, no wastewater generated, and no electricity maintenance and therefore, no travel costs will be incurred for implementing the rod packing replacement program. In addition, no costs were included for monitoring becausethe rod packing

6.4.3 Centrifugal Compressor Dry Seals

6.4.3.1 Description

Centrifugal compressor dry seals operate mechanically under the opposing force created by hydrodynamic grooves and springs. The hydrodynamic grooves are etched into the surface of the rotating ring affixed to the compressor shaft. When the compressor is not rotating, the stationary ring in the seal housing is pressed against the rotating ring by springs. When the compressor shaft rotates at high speed, compressed gas has only one pathway to leak down the shaft, and that is between the rotating and stationary rings. This gas is pumped between the rings by grooves in the rotating ring. The opposing force of high-pressure gas pumped between the rings and springs trying to push the rings together creates a very thin gap between the rings through which little gas can leak. While the compressor is operating, the rings are not in contact with each other, and therefore, do not wear or need lubrication. O-rings seal the stationary rings in the seal case.

Dry seals substantially reduce methane emissions. At the same time, they significantly reduce operating costs and enhance compressor efficiency. Economic and environmental benefits of dry seals include:

- Gas Leak Rates. During normal operation, dry seals leak at a rate of 6scfmmethane per compressor.[22] While this is equivalent to a wet seal's leakage rate at the seal face, wet seals generate additional emissions during degassing of the circulating oil. Gas separated from the seal oil before the oil is re-circulated is usually vented to the atmosphere, bringing the total leakage rate for tandem wet seals to 47.7 scfm methane per compressor.[23,24]
- Mechanically Simpler. Dry seal systems do not require additional oil circulation components and treatment facilities.

- Reduced Power Consumption. Because dry seals have no accessory oil circulation pumps and systems, they avoid "parasitic" equipment power losses. Wet seal systems require 50 to 100 kW per hour, while dry seal systems need about 5 kW of power per hour.
- Improved Reliability. The highest percentage of downtime for a compressor using wet seals is due to seal system problems. Dry seals have fewer ancillary components, which translates into higher overall reliability and less compressor downtime.
- Lower Maintenance. Dry seal systems have lower maintenance costs than wet seals because they do not have moving parts associated with oil circulation (e.g., pumps, control valves, relief valves, and the seal oil cost itself).
- Elimination of Oil Leakage from Wet Seals. Substituting dry seals for wet seals eliminates seal oil leakage into the pipeline, thus avoiding contamination of the gas and degradation of the pipeline.

Centrifugal compressors were found in the processing and transmission sectors based on information in the greenhouse gas inventory.[25] Therefore, it was assumed that new compressors would be located in these sectors only.

6.4.3.2 Effectiveness

The control effectiveness of the dry seals was calculated by subtracting the dry seal emissions from a centrifugal compressor equipped with wet seals. The centrifugal compressor emission factors in Table 6-2 were used in combination with an operating factor of 43.6 percent for processing centrifugal compressors and 24.2 percent for transmission centrifugal compressors. The operating factors are used to account for the percent of time in a year that a compressor is in the operating mode. The operating factors for the processing and transmission sectors are based on data in the EPA/GRI study.[26] The wet seals emission factor is an average of 48 different wet seal centrifugal compressors. The dry seal emission factor is based on information from the Natural Gas STAR Program.[27] A summary of the emission reduction from the replacement of wet seals with dry seals is shown in Table 6-8.

6.4.3.3 Cost Impacts

The price difference between a brand new dry seal and brand new wet seal centrifugal compressor is insignificant relative to the cost for the entire compressor. General Electric (GE) stated that a natural gas transmission pipeline centrifugal compressor with dry seals cost between $50,000 and $100,000 more than the same centrifugal compressor with wet seals. However, this price difference is only about 1 to 3

Table 6-8. Estimated Annual Centrifugal Compressor Emission Reductions from Replacing Wet Seals with Dry Seals

Oil & Gas Segment	Number of New Sources Per Year	Individual Compressor Emission Reductions (ton/compressor-year)			Nationwide Emission Reductions (ton/year)		
		Methane	VOC	HAP	Methane	VOC	HAP
Transmission/Storage	16	199	18.0	0.643	3,183	287	10.3
Storage	14	110	3.06	0.0908	1,546	42.8	1.27

percent of the total cost of the compressor. The price of a brand new natural gas transmission pipeline centrifugal compressor between 3,000 and 5,000 horsepower runs between $2 million to $5 million depending on the number of stages, desired pressure ratio, and gas throughput. The larger the compressor, the less significant the price difference is between dry seals and wet seals. This analysis assumes the additional capital cost for a dry seal compressor is $75,000. The annual cost was calculatedas the capital recovery of this capital cost assuming a 10-year equipment life and 7 percent interest which came to $10,678 per compressor. The Natural Gas STAR Program estimated that the operation and maintenance savings from the installation of dry seals is $88,300 in comparison to wet seals. Monetary savings associated with the amount of gas saved with the replacement of wet seals with dry seals for centrifugal compressors was estimated using a natural gas price of $4.00 per Mcf.[28] This cost was used to calculate the annual cost with gas savings using the methane emission reductions in Table 6-8. A summary of the capital and annual costs for dry seals is presented in Table 6-9. The methane and VOC cost effectiveness for the dry seal option is also shown in Table 6-9. There is no gas savings cost benefits for transmission and storage facilities, because it is assumed the owners of the compressor station may not own the natural gas that is compressed at the station.

6.4.3.4 Secondary Impacts

Dry seals for centrifugal compressors are an option that prevents the escape of natural gas across the rotating compressor shaft. No wastes should be created, no wastewater generated, and no electricity needed. Therefore, there are no secondary impacts expected due to the installation of dry seals on centrifugal compressors.

<u>6.4.4 Centrifugal Compressor Wet Seals with a Flare</u>

6.4.4.1 Description

Another control option used to reduce pollutant emissions from centrifugal compressors equipped withwet seals is to route the emissions to a combustion device or capture the emissions and route them to afuel system. A wet seal system uses oil that is circulated under high pressure between three rings aroundthe compressor shaft, forming a barrier against the compressed gas. The center ring is attached to the rotating shaft, while the two rings on each side are stationary in the seal housing, pressed against a thin film of oil flowing between the rings to both lubricate and act as a leak barrier. Compressed gas becomes absorbed and entrained in the fluid barrier and is removed using a heater, flash tank, or other degassing technique so that the oil can be recirculated back to the wet seal. The removed gas is either

Table 6-9. Cost Effectiveness for Centrifugal Compressor Dry Seals

Oil and Gas Segment	Capital Cost ($2008)	Annual Cost per Compressor ($/compressor-yr)		VOC Cost Effectiveness ($/ton)		Methane Cost Effectiveness ($/ton)	
		without savings	with O&M and gas savings	without savings	with O&M and gas savings	without savings	with O&M and gas savings
Processing	$75,000	$10,678	-$123,730	$595	-$6,892	$54	-$622
Transmission/Storage	$75,000	$10,678	-$77,622	$3,495	-$25,405	$97	-$703

combusted or released to the atmosphere. The control technique investigated in this section is the use of wet seals with the removed gas sent to an enclosed flare.

6.4.4.2 Effectiveness

Flares have been used in the oil and gas industry to combust gas streams that have VOC and HAP. A flare typically achieves 95 percent reduction of these compounds when operated according to the manufacturer instructions. For this analysis, it was assumed that the entrained gas from the seal oil that is removed in the degassing process would be directed to a flare that achieves 95 percent reduction of methane, VOC, and HAP. The wet seal emissions in Table 6-5 were used along with the control efficiency to calculate the emissions reductions from this option. A summary of the emission reductions is presented in Table 6-10.

6.4.4.3 Cost Impacts

The capital and annual cost of the enclosed flare was calculated using the methodology in the EPA Control Cost Manual.[29] The heat content of the gas stream was calculated using information from the gas composition memorandum.[30] A summary of the capital and annual costs for wet seals routed to a flare is presented in Table 6-11. The methane and VOC cost effectiveness for the wet seals routed to a flare option is also shown in Table 6-12. There is no cost saving estimated for this option because the recovered gas is combusted.

6.4.4.4 Secondary Impacts

There are secondary impacts with the option to use wet seals with a flare. The combustion of the recovered gas creates secondary emissions of hydrocarbons, nitrogen oxide (NO_X), carbon dioxide (CO_2), and carbon monoxide (CO) emissions. A summary of the estimated secondary emission are presented in Table 6-11. No other wastes should be created or wastewater generated.

6.5 Regulatory Options

The affected facility definition for a reciprocating compressor is defined as a piece of equipment that increases the pressure of a process gas by positive displacement, employing linear movement of thedriveshaft. A centrifugal compressor is defined as a piece of equipment that compresses a process gas by means of mechanical rotating vanes or impellers. Therefore these types of compressor would be

Table 6-10. Estimated Annual Centrifugal Compressor Emission Reductions from Wet Seals Routed to a Flare

Oil & Gas Segment	Number of New Sources Per Year	Individual Compressor Emission Reductions (tons/compressor-year)			Nationwide Emission Reductions (tons/year)		
		Methane	VOC	HAP	Methane	VOC	HAP
Processing	16	216	19.5	0.699	3,283	296	10.6
Transmission/Storage	14	120	3.32	0.0986	1,596	44.2	1.31

Table 6-11. Secondary Impacts from Wet Seals Equipped with a Flare

Industry Segment	Secondary Impacts from Wet Seals Equipped with a Flare (tons/year)				
	Total Hydrocarbons	**Carbon Monoxide**	**Carbon Dioxide**	**Nitrogen Oxides**	**Particulate Matter**
Processing	0.0289	0.0205	7.33	0.00377	Negligible
Transmission/Storage	0.00960	0.00889	3.18	0.00163	Negligible

Table 6-12. Cost Effectiveness for Centrifugal Compressor Wet Seals Routed to a Flare

Oil and Gas Segment	Capital Cost ($2008)	Annual Cost per Compressor ($/compressor-year)		VOC Cost Effectiveness ($/ton)		Methane Cost Effectiveness ($/ton)	
		without savings	with gas savings	without savings	with gas savings	without savings	with gas savings
Processing	$67,918	$103,371	N/A	$5,299	N/A	$478	N/A
Transmission/Storage	$67,918	$103,371	N/A	$31,133	N/A	$862	N/A

subject to a New Performance Standard (NSPS) at the time of installation. The following Regulatory options were evaluated:

- Regulatory Option 1: Require replacement of the reciprocating compressor rod packing based on26,000 hours of operation while the compressor is pressurized.
- Regulatory Option 2: Require all centrifugal compressors to be equipped with dry seals.
- Regulatory Option 3: Require centrifugal compressors equipped with a wet seal to route the recovered gas emissions to a combustion device.

6.5.1 Evaluation of Regulatory Options

The first regulatory option for replacement of the reciprocating compressor rod packing based on the number of hours that the compressor operates in the pressurized mode was described in Section 6.4.1. The VOC cost effectiveness from $56,847 for reciprocating compressors located at production pads to $273 for reciprocating compressors located at processing plants. The VOC cost effectiveness for the gathering and boosting, transmission, and storage segments were $877, $2,782, and 3,766 respectively. Based on these cost effectiveness values, Regulatory Option 1 was accepted for the processing, gathering and boosting, transmission, and storage segments and rejected for the production segment.

The second regulatory option would require all centrifugal compressors to be equipped with dry seals. As presented in Section 6.4.2, dry seals are effective at reducing emissions from the rotating shaft of a centrifugal compressor. Dry seals also reduce operation and maintenance costs in comparison to wet seals. In addition, a vendor reported in 2003 that 90 percent of new compressors that were sold by the company were equipped with dry seals. Another vendor confirmed in 2010 that the rate at which new compressor sales have dry seals is still 90 percent; thus, it was assumed that from 2003 onward, 90 percent of new compressors are equipped with dry seals. The VOC cost effectiveness of dry seals was calculated to be $595 for centrifugal compressors located at processing plants, and $3,495 for centrifugal compressors located at transmission or storage facilities. Therefore, Regulatory Option 2 was accepted as a regulatory option for centrifugal compressors located at processing, transmission, or storage facilities.

The third regulatory option would allow the use of wet seals if the recovered gas emissions were routed to a flare. Centrifugal compressors with wet seals are commonly used in high pressure applications over 3,000 pounds per square inch (psi). None of the applications in the oil and gas industry operate at these pressures. Therefore, it does not appear that any facilities would be required to operate a centrifugal compressor with wet seals. The VOC control effectiveness for the processing and transmission/storage segments were $5,299 and $31,133 respectively. Therefore, Regulatory Option 3 was rejected due to the high VOC cost effectiveness.

6.5.2 Nationwide Impacts of Regulatory Options

Tables 6-13 and 6-14 summarize the impacts of the selected regulatory options by industry segment. Regulatory Option 1 is estimated to affect 210 reciprocating compressors at gathering and boosting stations, 209 reciprocating compressors at processing plants, 20 reciprocating compressors at transmission facilities, and 4 reciprocating compressors at underground storage facilities. A summary of the capital and annual costs and emission reductions for this option is presented in Table 6-13.

Regulatory Option 2 is expected to affect 16 centrifugal compressors in the processing segment and 14 centrifugal compressors in the transmission and storage segments. A summary of the capital and annual costs and emission reductions for this option is presented in Table 6-14.

Table 6-13. Nationwide Cost Impacts for Regulatory Option 1

Oil & Gas Segment	Number of New Sources Per Year	Nationwide Emission Reductions (tons/year)			Total Nationwide Costs		
		VOC	Methane	HAP	Capital Cost ($)	Annual Cost without savings ($/yr)	Annual Cost with savings ($/yr)
Gathering & Boosting	210	400	1,437	15.1	$1,122,660	$350,503	$17,337
Processing	209	1,082	3,892	40.8	$846,450	$295,397	-$606,763
Transmission	20	11.7	423	0.348	$104,247	$32,547	$32,547
Storage	4	2.42	87.3	0.0718	$29,160	$9,104	$9,104

Table 6-14. Nationwide Cost Impacts for Regulatory Option 2

Oil & Gas Segment	Number of New Sources Per Year	Nationwide Emission Reductions[1] (tons/year)			Total Nationwide Costs[a]		
		VOC	Methane	HAP	Capital Cost ($)	Annual Cost w/o Savings ($/year)	Annual Cost w/ Savings ($/year)
Production (Well Pads)	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Gathering & Boosting	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Processing	16	118	422	4.42	$100,196	$14,266	-$120,144
Transmission/Storage	14	3.24	117	0.0962	$50,098	$7,133	-$37,017

a. The nationwide emission reduction and nationwide costs are based on the emission reductions and costs for 2 centrifugal compressors with wet seals located a processing facility and 1 centrifugal compressor equipped with wet seal located at a transmission or storage facility.

6.6 References

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7.0 STORAGE VESSELS

Storage vessels, or storage tanks, are sources of air emissions in the oil and natural gas sector. This chapter provides a description of the types of storage vessels present in the oil and gas sector, and provides emission estimates for a typical storage vessel as well as nationwide emission estimates. Control techniques employed to reduce emissions from storage vessels are presented, along with costs, emission reductions, and secondary impacts. Finally, this chapter provides a discussion of considerations used in developing regulatory alternatives for storage vessels.

7.1 Process Description

Storage vessels in the oil and natural gas sector are used to hold a variety of liquids, including crude oil, condensates, produced water, etc. Underground crude oil contains many lighter hydrocarbons in solution. When the oil is brought to the surface and processed, many of the dissolved lighter hydrocarbons (as well as water) are removed through as series of high-pressure and low-pressure separators. Crude oil under high pressure conditions is passed through either a two phase separator (where the associated gas is removed and any oil and water remain together) or a three phase separator (where the associated gas is removed and the oil and water are also separated). At the separator, low pressure gas is physically separated from the high pressure oil. The remaining low pressure oil is then directedto a storage vessel where it is stored for a period of time before being shipped off-site. The remaining hydrocarbons in the oil are released from the oil as vapors in the storage vessels. Storage vessels are typically installed with similar or identical vessels in a group, referred to in the industry as a tank battery.

Emissions of the remaining hydrocarbons from storage vessels are a function of working, breathing (or standing), and flash losses. Working losses occur when vapors are displaced due to the emptying and filling of storage vessels. Breathing losses are the release of gas associated with daily temperature fluctuations and other equilibrium effects. Flash losses occur when a liquid with entrained gases is transferred from a vessel with higher pressure to a vessel with lower pressure, thus allowing entrained gases or a portion of the liquid to vaporize or flash. In the oil and natural gas production segment, flashing losses occur when live crude oils or condensates flow into a storage vesselfrom a processing vessel operated at a higher pressure. Typically, the larger the pressure drop, the more flash emissions will occur in the storage stage. Temperature of the liquid may also influence the amount of flash emissions.

The volume of gas vapor emitted from a storage vessel depends on many factors. Lighter crude oils flash more hydrocarbons than heavier crude oils. In storage vessels where the oil is frequently cycled and the overall throughput is high, working losses are higher. Additionally, the operating temperature and pressure of oil in the separator dumping into the storage vesselwill affect the volume of flashed gases coming out of the oil.

The composition of the vapors from storage vessels varies, and the largest component is methane, but also includes ethane, butane, propane, and hazardous air pollutants (HAP) such as benzene, toluene, ethylbenzene, xylene (collectively referred to as BTEX), and n-hexane.

7.2 Emissions Data

7.2.1 Summary of Major Studies and Emissions

Given the potentially significant emissions from storage vessels, there have been numerous studies conducted to estimate these emissions. Many of these studies were consulted to evaluate the emissions and emission reduction options for emissions from storage vessels. Table 7-1 presents a summary of these studies, along with an indication of the type of information available in each study.

7.2.2 Representative Storage Vessel Emissions

Due to the variability in the sizes and throughputs, model tank batteries were developed to represent the ranges of sizes and population distribution of storage vessels located attank batteries throughout the sector. Model tank batteries were not intended to represent any single facility, but rather a range of facilities with similar characteristics that may be impacted by standards. Model tank batteries were developed for condensate tank batteries and crude oil tank batteries. Average VOC emissions were then developed and applied to the model tank batteries.

7.2.2.1 Model Condensate Tank Batteries

During the development of the national emissions standards for HAP (NESHAP) for oil and natural gas production facilities (40 CFR part 63, subpart HH), model plants were developed to represent condensate tank batteries across the industry.[1]For this current analysis, the most recent inventory data available was the 2008 U.S. Greenhouse Gas Emissions Inventory.[2,3] Therefore, 2008 was chosen to represent the base year for this impacts analysis.To estimate the current condensate battery population and distribution across the model plants, the number of tanks represented by the model plants was scaled

Table 7-1. Major Studies Reviewed for Consideration of Emissions and Activity Data

Report Name	Affiliation	Year of Report	Activity Factors	Emission Figures	Control Information
VOC Emissions from Oil and Condensate Storage Tanks[4]	Texas Environmental Research Consortium	2009	Regional	X	X
Lessons Learned from Natural Gas STAR Partners:Installing Vapor Recovery Units on Crude Oil Storage Tanks[5]	EPA	2003	National		X
Upstream Oil and Gas Storage Tank Project Flash Emissions Models Evaluation – Final Report[6]	Texas Commission on Environmental Quality	2009	Regional	X	
Initial Economics Impact Analysis for Proposed State Implementation Plan Revisions to the Air Quality Control Commission's Regulation Number [7]	Colorado	2008	n/a		X
E&P TANKS[8]	American Petroleum Institute		National	X	
Inventory of U.S. Greenhouse Gas Emissions and Sinks[2,3]	EPA	2008 and 2009	National	X	

from 1992 (the year for which that the model plants were developed under the NESHAP) to 2008 for this analysis. Based on this approach, it was estimated that there were a total of 59,286 existing condensate tanks in 2008. Condensate throughput data from the U.S. Greenhouse Gas Emissions Inventory was used to scale up from 1992 the condensate tank populations for each model condensate tank battery under the assumption that an increase in condensate production would be accompanied by a proportional increase in number of condensate tanks. The inventory data indicate that condensate production increased from a level of 106 million barrels per year (MMbbl/yr) in 1992to 124 MMbbl/yr in 2008.This increase in condensate production was then distributed across the model condensate tank batteriesin the same proportion as was done for the NESHAP. The model condensate tank batteries are presented in Table 7-2.

7.2.2.2 Model Crude Oil Tank Batteries

According to the Natural Gas STAR program,[5] there were 573,000 crude oil storage tanksin 2003. According to the U.S. Greenhouse Gas Emissions Inventory, crude oil production decreased from 1,464 MMbbl/yr in 2003 to 1,326 MMbbl/yr (a decrease of approximately 9.4 percent) in 2008. Therefore, it was assumed that the number of crude oil tanks in 2008 were approximately 90.6 percent of the number of tanks identified in 2003. Therefore, for this analysis it was assumed that there were 519,161 crude oil storage tanks in 2008. During the development of the NESHAP, model crude oil tank batteries were not developed and a crude oil tank population was not estimated. Therefore, it was assumed that the percentage distribution of crude oil storage tanks across the four model crude oil tank battery classifications was the same as for condensate tank batteries.Table 7-3 presents the model crude oil tank batteries.

7.2.2.3 VOC Emissions from Condensate and Crude Oil Storage Vessels

Once the modelcondensate and crude oil tank battery distributionswere developed, VOC emissions from a representative storage vessel were estimated. Emissions from storage vessels vary considerably depending on many factors, including, but not limited to, throughput, API gravity, Reid vapor pressure, separator pressure, etc. The American Petroleum Institute (API) has developed a software program called E&P TANKS which contains a dataset of more than 100 storage vessels from across the country.[8] A summary of the information contained in the dataset, as well as the output from the E&P TANKS program, is presented in Appendix A of this document. According to industry representatives, this

Table 7-2. Model Condensate Tank Batteries

	Model Condensate Tank Battery			
Parameter	**E**	**F**	**G**	**H**
Condensate throughput (bbl/day)[a]	15	100	1,000	5,000
Condensate throughput (bbl/yr)[a]	5,475	36,500	365,000	1,825,000
Number of fixed-roof product storage vessels[a]				
210 barrel capacity	4	2		
500 barrel capacity		2	2	
1,000 barrel capacity			2	4
Estimated tank battery population (1992)[a]	12,000	500	100	70
Estimated tank battery population (2008)[b]	14,038	585	117	82
Total number of storage vessels (2008)[b]	56,151	2,340	468	328
Percent of number of storage vessels in model condensate tank battery	94.7%	3.95%	0.789%	0.552%
Percent of throughput per model condensate tank battery[a]	26%	7%	15%	51%
Total tank battery condensate throughput (MMbbl/yr)[c]	32.8	9.11	18.2	63.8
Condensate throughput per model condensate battery (bbl/day)	6.41	42.7	427	2,135
Condensate throughput per storage vessel (bbl/day)	1.60	10.7	106.8	534

Minor discrepancies may be due to rounding.

a. Developed for NESHAP (Reference 1).
b. Population of tank batteries for 2008 determined based on condensate throughput increase from 106 MMbbl/yr in 1992 to 124 MMbbl/yr in 2008 (References2,3).
c. 2008 condensate production rate of 124 MMbbl/yr distributed across model tank batteries using same relative ratio as developed for NESHAP (Reference 1).

Table 7-3. Model Crude Oil Tank Batteries

	Model Crude Oil Tank Battery			
Parameter	**E**	**F**	**G**	**H**
Percent of number of condensate storage vessels in model size range[a]	94.7%	3.95%	0.789%	0.552%
Number of storage vessels[b]	491,707	20,488	4,098	2,868
Percent of throughput across condensate tank batteries	26%	7%	15%	51%
Crude oil throughput per model plant category (MMbbl/yr)	351	97.5	195	683
Crude oil throughput per storage vessel (bbl/day)	1.96	13.0	130	652

Minor discrepancies may be due to rounding.

a. Same relative percent of storage vessel population developed for model condensate tank batteries.Refer to Table 7-2.

b. Calculated by applying the percent of number of condensate storage vessels in model size range to total number of crude oil storage vessels (519,161 crude oil storage vessels estimated for 2008) (Reference 5).

c. Same relative percent of throughput developed for model condensate tank batteries.Refer to Table 7-2.

dataset in combination with the output of the E&P TANKS program is representative of the various VOC emissions from storage vessels across the country.[9]

The more than 100 storage vesselsprovided with the E&P TANKS program, which had varying characteristics, were modeled with a constant throughput (based on the assumption that emissions would increase in proportion with throughput) and the relationship of these different characteristics and emissionswas studied. While many of the characteristics impacted emissions, a correlation was found to exist between API gravity and emissions. The average API gravity for all storage vessels in the data set was approximately 40 degrees. Therefore, we selected an API gravity of 40 degrees as a parameter to distinguish between lower emitting storage vessels and higher emitting storage vessels.[i] While the liquid type was not specified for the storage vessels modeled in the study, it was assumed that condensate storage vessels would have higher emissions than crude oil storage vessels. Therefore, based on this study using the E&P TANKS program, it was assumed for this analysis that liquids with API gravity equal to or greater than 40 degrees should be classified as condensate and liquids with API gravity less than 40 degrees should be classified as crude oil.

The VOC emissions from all storage vessels in the analysis are presented in Appendix A.Table 7-4 presents a summary of the average VOC emissions from all storage vessels as well as the average VOC emissions from the storage vessels identified as being condensate storage vessels and those identified as being crude oil storage vessels. As shown in Table 7-4, the storage vessels were modeled at a constant throughput of 500 bpd.[ii]An average emission factor was developed for each type of liquid. The average of condensate storage vessel VOC emissions was modeled to be 1,046 tons/year or 11.5 lb VOC/bbl and the average of crude oil storage vessel VOC emissions was modeled to be 107 tons/year or 1.18 lb VOC/bbl. These emission factors were then applied to each of the two sets of model storage vessels in Tables 7-2 and 7-4 to develop the VOC emissions from the model tank batteries. These are presented in Table 7-5.

[i] The range of VOC emissions within the 95 percent confidence interval for storage vessels with an API gravity greater than 40 degrees was from 667 tons/year to 1425 tons/year. The range for API gravity less than 40 degrees was 76 tons/year to 138.
[ii] This throughput was originally chosen for this analysis to be equal to the 500 bbl/day throughput cutoff in subpart HH. While not part of the analysis described in this document, one of the original objectives of the E&P TANKS analysis was to assess the level of emissions associated with a storage vessel with a throughput below this cutoff. Due to the assumption that emissions increase and decrease in proportion with throughput, it was decided that using a constant throughput of 500 bbl/day would still provide the information necessary to determine VOC emissions from model condensate and crude oil storage vessels for this document.

Table 7-4. Summary of Data from E&P TANKS Modeling

Parameter[a]		Average of Dataset	Average of Storage Vessels with API Gravity > 40 degrees	Average of Storage Vessels with API Gravity $\leq$ 40 degrees
Throughput Rate (bbl)		500	500	500
API Gravity		40.6	52.8	30.6
VOC	Emissions (tons/year)	531	1046	107
	Emission factor (lb/bbl)	5.8	11.5	1.18

a. Information from analysis of E&P Tanks dataset, refer to Appendix A.

Table 7-5. Model Storage Vessel VOC Emissions

Parameter	Model Tank Battery			
	E	**F**	**G**	**H**
Model Condensate Tank Batteries				
Condensate throughput per storage vessel (bbl/day)	1.60	10.7	107	534
VOC Emissions (tons/year)[b]	3.35	22.3	223	1117
Model Crude Oil Tank Batteries				
Crude Oil throughput per storage vessel (bbl/day)[c]	2.0	13	130	652
VOC Emissions (tons/year)[d]	0.4	2.80	28	140

a. Condensate throughput per storage vessel from table 7-2.

b. Calculated using the VOC emission factor for condensate storage vessels of 11.5 lb VOC/bbl condensate.

c. Crude oil throughput per storage vessel from table 7-3.

d. Calculated using the VOC emission factor for crude oil storage vessels of 1.18 lb VOC/bbl crude oil.

7.3 Nationwide Baseline Emissions from New or Modified Sources

7.3.1 Overview of Approach

The first step in this analysis is to estimate nationwide emissions in absence of a federal rulemaking, referred to as the nationwide baseline emissions estimate. In order to develop the baseline emissions estimate, the number of new storage vessels expected in a typical year was calculated and then multiplied by the expected uncontrolled emissions per storage vessels presented in Table 7-5. In addition, to ensure no emission reduction credit was attributed to new sources that would already be required to be controlled under State regulations, it was necessary to account for the number of storage vessels already subject to State regulations as detailed below.

7.3.2 Number of New Storage Vessels Expected to be Constructed or Reconstructed

The number of new storage vessels expected to be constructed was determined for the year 2015 (the year of analysis for the regulatory impacts). To do this, it was assumed that the number of new or modified storage vessels would increase in proportion with increases in production. The Energy Information Administration (EIA), published crude oil production rates up to the year 2011.[10]Therefore, using the forecast function in Microsoft Excel® , crude oil production was predicted for the year 2015.[iii] From 2009 to 2015,[iv] the expected growth of crude oil production was projected to be 8.25 percent (from 5.36 bpd to 5.80 bpd). Applying this expected growth to the number of existing storage vessels results in an estimate of 4,890 new or modified condensate storage vessels and 42,811 new or modified crude oil storage vessels. The number of new or modified condensate and crude oil storage vessels expected to be constructed or reconstructed is presented in Table 7-6.

7.3.3 Level of Controlled Sources in Absence of Federal Regulation

As stated previously, to determine the impact of a regulation, it was first necessary to determine the current level of emissions from the sources being evaluated, or baseline emissions. To more accurately estimate baseline emissions for this analysis, and to ensure no emission reduction credit was attributed

[iii] The crude oil production values published by the EIA include leased condensate. Therefore, the increase in crude oil production was assumed to be valid for both crude oil and condensate tanks for the purpose of this analysis.
[iv] For the purposes of estimating growth, the crude oil production rate in the year 2008 was considered an outlier for production and therefore was not used in this analysis.

Table 7-6. Nationwide Baseline Emissions for Storage Vessels

	Model Tank Battery				
	E	F	G	H	Total
Model Condensate Tank Batteries					
Total number of storage vessels (2008)	56,151	2,340	468	328	59,286
Total projected number of new or modified storage vessels (2015) [a]	4,630	193	39	27	4,889
Number of uncontrolled storage vessels in absence of federal regulation[b]	1,688	70	14	10	1,782
Uncontrolled VOC Emissions from storage vessel at model tank battery[c]	3.35	22.3	223	1,117	1,366
Total Nationwide Uncontrolled VOC Emissions	5,657	1,572	3,143	11,001	21,373
Model Crude Oil Tank Batteries					
Total number of storage vessels (2008)	491,707	20,488	4,098	2,868	519,161
Total projected number of new or modified storage vessels (2015) [a]	40,548	1,689	338	237	42,812
Number of uncontrolled storage vessels in absence of federal regulation[b]	14,782	616	123	86	15,607
Uncontrolled VOC Emissions from storage vessel at model tank battery[c]	0.4	2.80	28	140	171
Total Nationwide Uncontrolled VOC Emissions	6,200	1,722	3,444	12,055	23,421

Minor discrepancies may be due to rounding

a. Calculated by applying the expected 8.25 percent industry growth to the number of storage vessels in 2008.
b. Calculated by applying the estimated 36 percent of storage vessels that are uncontrolled in the absence of a Federal Regulation to the total projected number of new or modified storage vessels in 2015.
c. VOC Emissions from individual storage vessel at model tank battery, see Table 7-5.

for sources already being controlled, it was necessary to determine which storage vessels were already being controlled. To do this, the 2005 National Emissions Inventory (NEI) was used.Storage vessels in the oil and natural gas sector were identified under the review of the maximum achievable control technology (MACT) standards.[11] There were 5,412 storage vessels identified in the NEI, and of these, 1,973 (or 36 percent) were identified as being uncontrolled. Therefore, this percent of storage vessels that would not require controls under State regulations was applied to the number of new or modified storage vessels results in an estimate of 1,782 new or modified condensate storage vessels and 15,607 new or modified crude oil storage vessels.These are also presented in Table 7-6.

7.3.4 Nationwide Emission Estimates for New or Modified Storage Vessels

Nationwide emissions estimates are presented in Table 7-6 for condensate storage vessels and crude oil storage vessels. Model storage vessel emissions were multiplied by the number of expected new or modified storage vessels that would be uncontrolled in the absence of a federal regulation.As shown in Table 7-6, the baseline nationwide emissions are estimated to be 21,373 tons/year for condensate storage vessels and 23,421 tons/year for crude oil storage vessels.

7.4 Control Techniques

7.4.1 Potential Control Techniques

In analyzing controls for storage vessels, we reviewed control techniques identified in the Natural Gas STAR program and state regulations. We identified two ways of controlling storage vessel emissions, both of which can reduce VOC emissions by 95 percent. One option would be to install a vapor recovery unit (VRU) and recover all the vapors from the storage vessels. The other option would be to route the emissions from the storage vessels to a combustor. These control technologies are described below along with their effectiveness as they apply to storage vessels in the oil and gas sector, cost impacts associated with the installation and operation of these control technologies, and any secondary impacts associated with their use.

7.4.2 Vapor Recovery Units

7.4.2.1 Description

Typically, with a VRU, hydrocarbon vapors are drawn out of the storage vessel under low pressure and are piped to a separator, or suction scrubber, to collect any condensed liquids, which are typically recycled back to the storage vessel. Vapors from the separator flow through a compressor that provides the low-pressure suction for the VRU system. Vapors are then either sent to the pipeline for sale or used as on-site fuel.[5]

7.4.2.2 Effectiveness

Vapor recovery units have been shown to reduce VOC emissions from storage vessels by approximately 95 percent.***Error! Bookmark not defined.***A VRU recovers hydrocarbon vapors that potentially can be used as supplemental burner fuel, or the vapors can be condensed and collected as condensate that can be sold.If natural gas is recovered, it can be sold as well, as long as a gathering line is available to convey the recovered salable gas product to market or to further processing. A VRU also does not have secondary air impacts, as described below. However, a VRU cannot be used in all instances. Some conditions that affect the feasibility of VRU are: availability of electrical service sufficient to power the compressor; fluctuations in vapor loading caused by surges in throughput and flash emissions from the storage vessel; potential for drawing air into condensate storage vessels causing an explosion hazard; and lack of appropriate destination or use for the vapor recovered.

7.4.2.3 Cost Impacts

Cost data for a VRU was obtained from an Initial Economic Impact Analysis (EIA) prepared for proposed state-only revisions to a Colorado regulation.Cost information contained in the EIA was assumed to be giving in 2007 dollars.[7]Therefore costs were escalated to 2008 dollars using the CE Indices for 2007 (525.4) and 2008 (575.4).[12] According to the EIA, the purchased equipment cost of a VRU was estimated to be $85,423 (escalated to 2008 dollars from $75,000 in 2007 dollars). Total capital investment, including freight and design and installation was estimated to be $98,186. These cost data are presented in Table 7-7. Total annual costs were estimated to be $18,983/year.

7.4.2.4 Secondary Impacts

A VRU is a pollution prevention technique that is used to recover natural gas that would otherwise be emitted. No secondary emissions (e.g., nitrogen oxides, particulate matter, etc.) would be generated, no wastes should be created, no wastewater generated, and no electricity needed. Therefore, there are no secondary impacts expected due to the use of a VRU.

Table 7-7. Total Capital Investment and Total Annual Cost of a Vapor Recovery Unit

Cost Item[a]	Capital Costs ($)	Non-Recurring, One-time Costs ($)	Total Capital Investment ($)[b]	O&M Costs ($)	Savings due to Fuel Sales ($/yr)	Annualized Total Cost ($/yr)[c]
VRU	$78,000					
Freight and Design		$1,500				
VRU Installation		$10,154				
Maintenance				$8,553		
Recovered natural gas					($1,063)	
Subtotal Costs (2007)	$78,000	$11,654		$8,553	($1,063)	
Subtotal Costs (2008)[d]	$85,423	$12,763	$98,186	$9,367	($1,164)	
Annualized costs (using 7% interest, 15 year equipment life)	$9,379	$1,401		n/a	n/a	$18,983

Minor discrepancies may be due to rounding

a. Assume cost data provided is for the year 2007. Reference 7.
b. Total Capital Investment is the sum of the subtotal costs for capital costs and nonrecurring one-time costs.
c. Total Annual Costs is the sum of the annualized capital and recurring costs, O&M costs, and savings due to fuel sales.
d. Costs are escalated to 2008 dollars using the CE Indices for 2007 (525.4) and 2008 (575.4). Reference 12.

7.4.3 Combustors

7.4.3.1 Description and Effectiveness

Combustors are also used to control emissions from condensate and crude oil storage vessels.The type of combustor used is a high-temperature oxidation process used to burn combustible components, mostly hydrocarbons, found in waste streams.[13] Combustors are used to control VOC in many industrial settings, since thecombustorcan normally handle fluctuations in concentration, flow rate, heating value, and inert species content.[14] For this analysis, the types of combustors installed for the oil and gas sector are assumed to achieve 95 percent efficiency.[7] Combustors do not have the same operational issues as VRUs, however secondary impacts are associated with combustors as discussed below.

7.4.3.2 Cost Impacts

Cost data for a combustor was also obtained from the Initial EIA prepared for proposed state-only revisions to the Colorado regulation.[7] As performed for the VRU, costs were escalated to 2008 dollars using the CE Indices for 2007 (525.4) and 2008 (575.4).[12] According to the EIA, the purchased equipment cost of a combustor, including an auto igniter and surveillance system was estimated to be $23,699 (escalated to 2008 dollars from $21,640 in 2007 dollars). Total capital investment, including freight and design and installation was estimated to be $32,301. These cost data are presented in Table 7-8. Total annual costs were estimated to be $8,909/year.

7.4.3.3 Secondary Impacts

Combustion and partial combustion of many pollutants also create secondary pollutants including nitrogen oxides, carbon monoxide, sulfur oxides, carbon dioxide, and smoke/particulates. Reliable data for emission factors from combustors on condensate and crude oil storage vessels are limited. Guidelines published in AP-42 for flare operations are based on tests from a mixture containing 80 percent propylene and 20 percent propane.[13] These emissions factors, however, are thebest indication for secondary pollutants from combustors currently available. The secondary emissionsper storage vessel are provided in Table 7-9.

Table 7-8. Total Capital Investment and Total Annual Cost of a Combustor

Cost Item[a]	Capital Costs ($)	Non-Recurring, One-time Costs ($)	Total Capital Investment ($)[b]	O&M Costs ($)	Annualized Total Cost ($/yr)[c]
Combustor	$16,540				
Freight and Design		$1,500			
Combustor Installation		$6,354			
Auto Igniter	$1,500				
Surveillance System[d]	$3,600				
Pilot Fuel				$1,897	
Maintenance				$2,000	
Data Management				$1,000	
Subtotal Costs (2007)	$21,640	$7,854		$4,897	
Subtotal Costs (2008)[e]	$23,699	$8,601	$32,301	$5,363	
Annualized costs (using 7% interest, 15 year equipment life)	$2,602	$944		n/a	$8,909

Minor discrepancies may be due to rounding

a. Assume cost data provided is for the year 2007. Reference 7.
b. Total Capital Investment is the sum of the subtotal costs for capital costs and nonrecurring one-time costs.
c. Total Annual Costs is the sum of the annualized capital and recurring costs, O&M costs, and savings due to fuel sales.
d. Surveillance system identifies when pilot is not lit and attempt to relight it, documents the duration of time when the pilot is not lit, and notifies and operator that repairs are necessary.
e. Costs are escalated to 2008 dollars using the CE Indices for 2007 (525.4) and 2008 (575.4). Reference 12.

Table 7-9. Secondary Impacts for Combustors used to Control Condensate and Crude Oil Storage Vessels

Pollutant	Emission Factor	Units	Emissions per Storage Vessel (tons/year)[a]
THC	0.14	lb/MMBtu	0.0061
CO	0.37	lb/MMBtu	0.0160
CO_2	60	Kg/MMBtu[b]	5.62
NO_X	0.068	lb/MMBtu	2.95E-03
PM	40	µg/l (used lightly smoking flares due to criteria that flares should not have visible emissions i.e. should not smoke)	5.51E-05

a. Converted using average saturated gross heating value of the storage vessel vapor (1,968 Btu/scf) and an average vapor flow rate of 44.07 Mcf per storage vessel. See Appendix A.
b. CO_2 emission factor obtained from 40 CFR Part 98, subpart Y, Equation Y-2.

7.5 Regulatory Options and Nationwide Impacts of Regulatory Options

7.5.1 Consideration of Regulatory Options for Condensate and Crude Oil Storage Vessels

The VOC emissions from storage vessels vary significantly, depending on the rate of liquid entering and passing through the vessel (i.e., its throughput), the pressure of the liquid as it enters the atmospheric pressure storage vessel, the liquid's volatility and temperature of the liquid.Some storage vessels have negligible emissions, such as those with very little throughput and/or handling heavy liquids entering at atmospheric pressure. Therefore, in order to determine the most cost effective means of controlling the storage vessels, a cutoff was evaluated to limit the applicability of the standards to these storage vessels. Rather than require a cutoff in terms of emissions that would require a facility to conduct an emissions test on their storage vessel, a throughput cutoff was evaluated. It was assumed that facilities would have storage vessel throughput data readily available. Therefore, we evaluated the costs of controlling storage vessels with varying throughputs to determine which throughput level would provide the most cost effective control option.

The standard would require an emission reduction of 95 percent, which, as discussed above, could be achieved with a VRU or a combustor. A combustoris an option for tank batteries because of the operational issues associated with a VRU as discussed above.However the use of a VRU is preferable to a combustorbecause a combustordestroys, rather than recycles, valuable resources and there are secondary impacts associated with the use of a combustor. Therefore, the cost impacts associated a VRU installed for the control of storage vessels were evaluated.

To conduct this evaluation, emission factor data from a study prepared for the Texas Environmental Research Consortium[15] was used to represent emissions from the different throughputs being evaluated. For condensate storage vessels, an emission factor of 33.3 lb VOC/bbl was used and for crude oil storage vessels, an emission factor of 1.6 lb VOC/bbl was used.Using the throughput for each control option, an equivalent emissions limit was determined.Table 7-10 presents the following regulatory options considered for condensate storage vessels:

- Regulatory Option 1: Control condensate storage vessels with a throughput greater than 0.5 bbl/day (equivalent emissions of 3.0 tons/year);

Table 7-10. Options for Throughput Cutoffs for Condensate Storage Vessels

Regulatory Option	Throughput Cutoff (bbl/day)	Equivalent Emissions Cutoff (tons/year) [a]	Emission Reduction (tons/year) [b]	Annual Costs for VRU ($/yr) [c]	Cost Effectiveness ($/ton)	Number of impacted units[d]
1	0.5	3.0	2.89	$18,983	$6,576	1782
2	1	6.1	5.77	$18,983	$3,288	94
3	2	12.2	11.55	$18,983	$1,644	94
4	5	30.4	28.87	$18,983	$658	24

Minor discrepancies may be due to rounding

a. Emissions calculated using emission factor of 33.3 lb VOC/bbl condensate and the throughput associated with each option.
b. Calculated using 95 percent reduction
c. Refer to Table 7-7 for VRU Annual Costs.
d. Number of impacted units determined by evaluating which of the model tank batteries and storage vessel populations associated with each model tank battery (refer to Table 7-6) would be subject to each regulatory option. A storage vessel at a model tank battery was considered to be impacted by the regulatory option if its throughput and emissions were greater than the cutoffs for the option.

- Regulatory Option 2: Control condensate storage vessels with a throughput greater than 1 bbl/day (equivalent emissions of 6 tons/year);
- Regulatory Option 3: Control condensate storage vessels with a throughput greater than 2 bbl/day (equivalent emissions of 12 tons/year);
- Regulatory Option 1: Control condensate storage vessels with a throughput greater than 5.0 bbl/day (equivalent emissions of 30 tons/year);

As shown in Table 7-10, Regulatory Option 1 is not cost effective for condensate storage vessels with a throughput of 0.5 bbl/day.Therefore Regulatory Option 1 is rejected.Since the cost effectiveness associated with Regulatory Option 2 is acceptable ($3,288/ton), this option was selected. As shown in Table 7-5, Model Condensate Storage Vessel Categories F, G, and H have throughputs greater than 1 bbl/day and emissions greater than 6 tons/year. Therefore, for the purposes of determining impacts, the populations of new and modified condensate storage vessels associated with categories F, G, and H are assumed to be required to reduce their emissions by 95 percent, a total of 94 new or modified condensate storage vessels.

A similar evaluation was performed for crude oil vessels and is presented in Table 7-11 for the following regulatory options:

- Regulatory Option 1: Control crude oil storage vessels with a throughput greater than 1 bbl/day (equivalent emissions of 0.3 tons/year);
- Regulatory Option 2: Control condensate storage vessels with a throughput greater than 5 bbl/day (equivalent emissions of 1.5 tons/year);
- Regulatory Option 3: Control condensate storage vessels with a throughput greater than 20 bbl/day (equivalent emissions of 6 tons/year);
- Regulatory Option 1: Control condensate storage vessels with a throughput greater than 50 bbl/day (equivalent emissions of 15 tons/year);

As shown in Table 7-11, Regulatory Options 1 and 2 are not cost effective crude oil storage vessels with a throughput of 1 and 5 bbl/day, respectively. Therefore Regulatory Options 1 and 2 are rejected.Since the cost effectiveness associated with Regulatory Option 3 is acceptable ($3,422/ton), this option was selected. As shown in Table 7-5, Model Crude Oil Storage Vessel CategoriesG and H have throughputs greater than 20 bbl/day and emissions greater than 6 tons/year. Therefore, for the purposes of determining impacts, the populations of new and modified crude oil storage vessels associated with categories G

Table 7-11. Options for Throughput Cutoffs for Crude Oil Storage Vessels

Regulatory Option	Throughput Cutoff (bbl/day)	Equivalent Emissions Cutoff (tons/year) [a]	Emission Reduction (tons/year) [b]	Annual Costs for VRU ($/yr) [c]	Cost Effectiveness ($/ton)	Number of impacted units[d]
1	1	0.3	0.28	$18,983	$68,432	15607
2	5	1.5	1.4	$18,983	$13,686	825
3	20	5.8	5.55	$18,983	$3,422	209
4	50	14.6	13.87	$18,983	$1,369	209

Minor discrepancies may be due to rounding

a. Emissions calculated using emission factor of 1.6 lb VOC/bbl condensate and the throughput associated with each option.
b. Calculated using 95 percent reduction
c. Refer to Table 7-7 for VRU Annual Costs.
d. Number of impacted units determined by evaluating which of the model tank batteries and storage vessel populations associated with each model tank battery (refer to Table 7-6) would be subject to each regulatory option. A storage vessel at a model tank battery was considered to be impacted by the regulatory option if its throughput and emissions were greater than the cutoffs for the option.

and H are assumed to be required to reduce their emissions by 95 percent, a total of 209 new or modified condensate storage vessels.

7.5.2 Nationwide Impacts of Regulatory Options

This section provides an analysis of the primary environmental impacts (i.e., emission reductions), cost impacts and secondary environmental impacts related to Regulatory Option 2 for condensate storage vessels and Regulatory Option 3 for crude oil storage vessels which were selected as viable options for setting standards for storage vessels.In addition, combined impacts for a typical storage vessel are presented.

7.5.3 Primary Environmental Impacts of Regulatory Options

Regulatory Option2 (condensate storage vessels) and 3 (crude oil storage vessels) were selected as options for setting standards for storage vessels as follows:

- Regulatory Option 2 (Condensate Storage Vessels): Reduce emissions from condensate storage vessels with an average throughput greater than 1 bbl/day.

- Regulatory Option 3 (Crude Oil Storage Vessels): Reduce emissions from crude oil storage vessels with an average throughput greater than 20 bbl/day.

The number of storage vessels that would be subject to the regulatory options listed above are presented in Tables7-10 and 7-11. It was estimated that there would be 94 new or modified condensate storage vessels not otherwise subject to State regulationsand impacted by Regulatory Option 2 (condensate storage vessels).As shown in Table 7-11, 209 new or modified crude oil storage vessels not otherwise subject to State regulations would be impacted by Regulatory Option 3 (crude oil storage tanks).

Table 7-12 presents the nationwide emission reduction estimates for each regulatory option. Emissions reductions were estimated by applying 95 percent control efficiency to the VOC emissions presented in Table 7-6 for each storage vessel in the model condensate and crude oil tank batteries and multiplying by the number of impacted storage vessels. For Regulatory Option 2 (condensate storage vessels), the total nationwide VOC emission reduction was estimated to be 15,061 tons/year and 14,710 tons/year for Regulatory Option 3 (crude oil storage vessels).

Table 7-12. Nationwide Impacts of Regulatory Options

Model Tank Battery	Number of Sources subject to Regulatory Option[a]	VOC Emissions for a Typical Storage Vessel (tons/year)	Capital Cost forTypical Storage Vessel[b] ($)	Annual Cost for a Typical Storage Vessel[b] ($/yr)		Nationwide Emission Reductions (tons/year)[c]		VOC Cost Effectiveness ($/ton)		Methane Cost Effectiveness ($/ton)		Total Nationwide Costs (million $/year)		
				without savings	with savings	VOC	Methane[d]	without savings	with savings	without savings	with savings	Capital Cost	Annual without savings	Annual with savings
Regulatory Option 2: Condensate Storage Vessels														
F	70	22.3	65,243	14,528	13,946	1,483	325	685	658	3129	3004	4.57	1.02	0.98
G	14	223	65,243	14,528	13,946	2,966	649	68	66	313	301	0.913	0.203	0.195
H	10	1117	65,243	14,528	13,946	10,612	2,322	14	13	62.6	60.1	0.652	0.145	0.139
Total for Regulatory Option 2						**15,061**	**3,296**					**6.14**	**1.37**	**1.31**
Regulatory Option 3: Crude Oil Storage Vessels														
G	123	28	65,243	14,528	13,946	3,272	716	546	524	2496	2396	8.02	1.79	1.71
H	86	140	65,243	14,528	13,946	11,438	2,503	109	104	499	479	5.61	1.25	1.20
Total for Regulatory Option 3						**14,710**	**3,219**					**13.6**	**3.04**	**2.91**
Combined Impacts[e]														
Typical Storage Vessel	**304**	**103**	**65,243**	**14,528**	**13,946**	**29,746**	**6,490**	**149**	**143**	**680**	**652**	**19.8**	**4.41**	**4.24**

Minor discrepancies may be due to rounding

a. Number of storage vessels in each model tank battery (refer to Table 7-6) determined to be subject to the regulatory option as outlined in Table 7-10.

b. It was assumed for the purposes of estimating nationwide impacts that 50 percent of facilities would install a combustor and 50 percent a VRU.This accounts for the operational difficulties of using a VRU. Capital and Annual Costs determined using the average of costs presented in Tables 7-7 and 7-8.

c. Nationwide emission reductions calculated by applying a 95 percent emissions reduction to the VOC emissions for a typical storage vessel multiplied by the number of sources subject to the regulatory option.

d. Methane Reductions calculated by applying the average Methane to VOC factor from the E&P Tanks Study (see Appendix A).Methane:VOC = 0.219

e. For purposes of evaluating NSPS impact, impacts were determined for an average storage vessel by calculating total VOC emissions from all storage vessels and dividing by the total number of impacted storage vessels to obtain the average VOC emissions per storage vessel.

7.5.4 Cost Impacts

Cost impacts of the individual control techniques (VRU and combustors) were presented in Section 7.4. For both regulatory options, it was assumed that 50 percent of facilities would install a combustor and 50 percent a VRU. This accounts for the operational difficulties of using a VRU. Therefore, the average capital cost of control for each storage vessel was estimated to be $65,243 (the average of the total capital investment for a VRU of $98,186 and $32,301 for a combustor from Tables 7-7 and 7-8, respectively). Similarly, the average annual cost for a typical storage vessel was estimated to be $14,528/yr (average of the total annual cost for a VRU of $20,147/yr and $8,909/yr for a combustor from Tables 7-7 and 7-8, respectively) without including any cost savings due to fuel sales and $13,946/yr (average of the total annual cost for a VRU of $18,983/yr and $8,909/yr for a combustorfrom Tables 7-7 and 7-8, respectively) including cost savings.

Nationwide capital and annual costs were calculated by applying the number of storage vessels subject to the regulatory option. As shown in Table 7-12, the nationwide capital cost of Regulatory Option 2 (condensate storage vessels) was estimated to be $6.14 million and for RegulatoryOption 3 (crude oil storage vessels) nationwide capital cost was estimated to be $13.6 million.Total annual costs without fuel savings were estimated to be $1.37 million/yr for Regulatory Option 2 (condensate storage vessels) and $3.04 million/yr for Regulatory Option 3 (crude oil storage vessels). Total annual costs with fuel savings were estimated to be $1.31 million/yr for Regulatory Option 2 (condensate storage vessels) and $2.91 million/yr for Regulatory Option 3 (crude oil storage vessels).

For purposes of evaluating the impact of a federal standard, impacts were determined for an average storage vessel by calculating the total VOC emissions from all storage vessels and dividing by the total number of impacted storage vessels (304) to obtain the average VOC emissions per storage vessel (103 tons/year).Therefore, the nationwide annual costs were estimated to be $4.41 million/yr. A total nationwide VOC emission reduction of 29,746 tons/year results in a cost effectiveness of $149/ton.

7.5.5 Nationwide Secondary Emission Impacts

Regulatory Options 2 (condensate storage vessels) and 3 (crude oil storage vessels) allow for the use of a combustor; therefore the estimated nationwide secondary impacts are a result of combusting 50 percent of all storage vessel emissions. The secondary impacts for controlling a single storage vessel using a combustor are presented in Table 7-9. Nationwide secondary impacts are calculated by

Table 7-13. Nationwide Secondary Combined Impacts for Storage Vessels

Pollutant	Emissions per Storage Vessel (tons/year) [a]	Nationwide Emissions (tons/year)[b]
THC	0.0061	0.927
CO	0.0160	2.43
CO_2	5.62	854
NO_X	2.95E-03	0.448
PM	5.51E-05	0.0084

a. Emissions per storage vessel presented in Table 7-9.
b. Nationwide emissions calculated by assuming that 50 percent of the 304 impacted storage vessels would install a combustor.

multiplying 50 percent of the estimated number of impacted storage vessels (152) by the secondary emissions and are presented in Table 7-13.

7.6 References

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8.0 EQUIPMENT LEAKS

Leaks from components in the oil and natural gas sector are a source of pollutant emissions. This chapter explains the causes for these leaks, and provides emission estimates for "model" facilities in the various segments of the oil and gas sector. In addition, nationwide equipment leak emission estimates from new sources are estimated. Programs that are designed to reduce equipment leak emissions are explained, along with costs, emission reductions, and secondary impacts. Finally, this chapter discusses considerations in developing regulatory alternatives for equipment leaks.

8.1 Equipment Leak Description

There are several potential sources of equipment leak emissions throughout the oil and natural gas sector. Components such as pumps, valves, pressure relief valves, flanges, agitators, and compressors are potential sources that can leak due to seal failure. Other sources, such as open-ended lines, and sampling connections may leak for reasons other than faulty seals. In addition, corrosion of welded connections, flanges, and valves may also be a cause of equipment leak emissions. The following sub-sections describe potential equipment leak sources and the magnitude of the volatile emissions from typical facilities in the oil and gas industry.

Due to the large number of valves, pumps, and other components within oil and natural gas production, processing, and/or transmission facilities, total equipment leak VOC emissions from these components can be significant. Tank batteries or production pads are generally small facilities as compared with other oil and gas operations, and are generally characterized by a small number of components. Natural gas processing plants, especially those using refrigerated absorption, and transmission stations tend to have a large number of components.

8.2. Equipment leak Emission Data and Emissions Factors

8.2.1 Summary of Major Studies and Emission Factors

Emissions data from equipment leaks have been collected from chemical manufacturing and petroleum production to develop control strategies for reducing HAP and VOC emissions from these sources.[1,2,3] In the evaluation of the emissions and emission reduction options for equipment leaks, many of these studies were consulted. Table 8-1 presents a list of the studies consulted along with an indication of the type of information contained in the study.

8.2.2 Model Plants

Facilities in the oil and gas sector can consist of a variety of combinations of process equipment and components. This is particularly true in the production segment of the industry, where “surface sites” can vary from sites where only a wellhead and associated piping is located to sites where a substantial amount of separation, treatment, and compression occurs. In order to conduct analyses to be used in evaluating potential options to reduce emissions from leaking equipment, a model plant approach was used. The following sections discuss the creation of these model plants.

Information related to equipment counts was obtained from a natural gas industry report. This document provided average equipment counts for gas production, gas processing, natural gas transmission and distribution. These average counts were used to develop model plants for wellheads, well pads, and gathering line and boosting stations in the production segment of the industry, for a natural gas processing plant, and for a compression/transmission station in the natural gas transmission segment. These equipment counts are consistent with those contained in EPA’s analysis to estimate methane emissions conducted in support of the Greenhouse Gas Mandatory Reporting Rule (subpart W), which was published in the *Federal Register* on November 30, 2010 (75 FR 74458), These model plants are discussed in the following sections.

8.2.2.1 Oil and Natural Gas Production

Oil and natural gas production varies from site-to site. Many production sites may include only a wellhead that is extracting oil or natural gas from the ground. Other production sites consist of wellheads attached to a well pad. A well pad is a site where the production, extraction, recovery, lifting, stabilization, separation and/or treating of petroleum and/or natural gas (including condensate) occurs. These sites include all equipment (including piping and associated components, compressors, generators, separators, storage vessels, and other equipment) associated with these operations. A well pad can serve one well on a pad or several wells on a pad. A wellhead site consisting of only the wellhead and affiliated piping is not considered to be a well pad. The number of wells feeding into a well pad can vary from one to as many as 7 wells. Therefore, the number of components with potential for equipment leaks can vary depending on the number of wells feeding into the production pad and the amount of processing equipment located at the site.

Table 8-1. Major Studies Reviewed for Consideration or Emissions and Activity Data

Report Name	Affiliation	Year of Report	Activity Factor (s)	Emissions Data	Control Options
Greenhouse Gas Mandatory Reporting Rule and Technical Supporting Documents	EPA	2010	Nationwide	X	X
Inventory of Greenhouse Gas Emissions and Sinks: 1990-2008[4]	EPA	2010	Nationwide	X	
Methane Emissions from the Natural Gas Industry[567]	Gas Research Institute / EPA	1996	Nationwide	X	X
Methane Emissions from the US Petroleum Industry (Draft) [8]	EPA	1996	Nationwide	X	
Methane Emissions from the US Petroleum Industry [9]	EPA	1999	Nationwide	X	
Oil and Gas Emission Inventories for Western States [10]	Western Regional Air Partnership	2005	Regional	X	X
Recommendations for Improvements to the Central States Regional Air Partnership's Oil and Gas Emission Inventories [11]	Central States Regional Air Partnership	2008	Regional	X	X
Oil and Gas Producing Industry in Your State[12]	Independent Petroleum Association of America	2009	Nationwide		
Emissions from Natural Gas Production in the Barnett Shale and Opportunities for Cost-effective Improvements [13]	Environmental Defense Fund	2009	Regional	X	X
Emissions from oil and Natural Gas Production Facilities [14]	Texas Commission for Environmental Quality	2007	Regional	X	X
Petroleum and Natural Gas Statistical Data[15]	U.S. Energy Information Administration	2007-2009	Nationwide		
Preferred and Alternative Methods for Estimating Air Emissions from Oil and Gas Field Production and Processing Operations [16]	EPA	1999		X	X
Protocol for Equipment Leak Emission Estimates[17]	EPA	1995	Nationwide	X	X

In addition to wellheads and well pads, model plants were developed for gathering lines and boosting stations. The gathering lines and boosting stations are sites that collect oil and gas from well pads and direct them to the gas processing plants. These stations have similar equipment to well pads; however they are not directly connected to the wellheads.

The EPA/GRI report provided the average number of equipment located at a well pad and the average number of components for each of these pieces of equipment.[4]The type of production equipment located at a well pad include: gas wellheads, separators, meters/piping, gathering compressors, heaters, and dehydrators. The types of components that are associated with this equipment include: valves, connectors, open-ended lines, and pressure relief valves. Four model plants were developed for well pads and are presented in Table 8-2. These model plants were developed starting with one, three, five and seven wellheads, and adding the average numberof other pieces of equipment per wellhead. Gathering compressors are not included at well pads and were included in the equipment for gathering lines and boosting stations.

Component counts for each of the equipment items were calculated using the average component counts for gas production equipment in the Eastern U.S and the Western U.S. for the EPA/GRI document. A summary of the component counts for oil and gas production well pads is presented in Table 8-3.

Gathering line and boosting station model plants were developed using the average equipment counts for oil and gas production. The average equipment count was assigned Model Plant 2 and Model Plants 1 and 3 were assumed to be equally distributed on either side of the average equipment count. Therefore, Model Plant 1 can be assumed to be a small gathering and boosting station, and Model Plant 3 can be assumed to be a large gathering and boosting station. A summary of the model plant production equipment counts for gathering lines and boosting stations is provided in Table 8-4.

Component counts for each of the equipment items were calculated using the average component counts for gas production equipment in the Eastern U.S and the Western U.S. from the EPA/GRIdocument. The components for gathering compressors were included in the model plant total counts, but the compressor seals were excluded. Compressors seals are addressed in a Chapter 6 of this document. A summary of the component counts for oil and gas gathering line and boosting stations are presented in Table 8-5.

Table 8-2.Average Equipment Count for Oil and Gas Production Well Pad Model Plants

Equipment	Model Plant 1	Model Plant 2	Model Plant 3
Gas Wellheads	1	5	48
Separators	---	4	40
Meter/Piping	---	2	24
In-Line Heaters	---	2	26
Dehydrators	---	2	19

Data Source: EPA/GRI, Methane Emissions from the Natural Gas Industry, Volume 8: Equipment Leaks, Table 4-4 and Table 4-7, June 1996. (EPA-600/R-96-080h)

Table 8-3.Average Component Count for Oil and Gas Production Well Pad Model Plants

Component	Model Plant 1	Model Plant 2	Model Plant 3	Model Plant 4
Valve	9	122	235	348
Connectors	37	450	863	1,276
Open-Ended Line	1	15	29	43
Pressure Relief Valve	0	5	10	15

Data Source: EPA/GRI, Methane Emissions from the Natural Gas Industry, Volume 8: Equipment Leaks, Table 4-4 and 4-7, June 1996. (EPA-600/R-96-080h)

Table 8-4.Average Equipment Count for Oil and Gas Production Gathering Line and Boosting Station Model Plants

Equipment	Model Plant 1	Model Plant 2	Model Plant 3
Separators	7	11	15
Meter/Piping	4	7	10
Gathering Compressors	3	5	7
In-Line Heaters	4	7	10
Dehydrators	3	5	7

Data Source: EPA/GRI, Methane Emissions from the Natural Gas Industry, Volume 8: Equipment Leaks, Table 4-4 and Table 4-7, June 1996. (EPA-600/R-96-080h)

Table 8-5. Average Component Count for Oil and Gas Production Gathering Line and Boosting Station Model Plants

Component	Model Plant 1	Model Plant 2	Model Plant 3
Valve	547	906	1,265
Connectors	1,723	2,864	4,005
Open-Ended Line	51	83	115
Pressure Relief Valve	29	48	67

DataSource: EPA/GRI, Methane Emissions from the Natural Gas Industry, Volume 8:Equipment Leaks, Table 4-4 and 4-7, June 1996. (EPA-600/R-96-080h)

8.2.2.2 Oil and Natural Gas Processing

Natural gas processing involves the removal of natural gas liquids from field gas, fractionation of mixed natural gas liquids to natural gas products, or both. The types of process equipment used to separate the liquids are separators, glycol dehydrators, and amine treaters. In addition, centrifugal and/or reciprocating compressors are used to pressurize and move the gas from the processing facility to the transmission stations.

New Source Performance Standards (NSPS) have already been promulgated for equipment leaks at new natural gas processing plants (40 CFR Part 60, subpart KKK), and were assumed to be the baseline emissions for this analysis. Only one model plant was developed for the processing sector. A summary of the model plant production components counts for an oil and gas processing facility is provided in Table 8-6.

8.2.2.3 Natural Gas Transmission/Storage

Natural gas transmission/storage stations are facilities that use compressors that move natural gas at elevated pressure from production fields or natural gas processing facilities, in transmission pipelines, to natural gas distribution pipelines, or into storage. In addition, transmission stations may include equipment for liquids separation, natural gas dehydration, and tanks for the storage of water and hydrocarbon liquids. Residue (sales) gas compression operated by natural gas processing facilities are included in the onshore natural gas processing segment and are excluded from this segment. This source category also does not include emissions from gathering lines and boosting stations. Component counts were obtained from the EPA/GRI report and are presented in Table 8-7.

8.3 Nationwide Emissions from New Sources

8.3.1 Overview of Approach

Nationwide emissions were calculated by using the model plant approach for estimating emissions. Baseline model plant emissions for the natural gas production, processing, and transmission sectors were calculated using the component counts and the component gas service emission factors.[5]Annual emissions were calculated assuming 8,760 hours of operation each year. The emissions factors are provided for total organic compounds (TOC) and include non-VOCs such as methane and ethane. The emission factors for the production and processing sectors that were used to estimate the new source emissions are presented in Table 8-8. Emission factors for the transmission sector are presented in

Table 8-6.Average Component Count for Oil and Gas Processing Model Plant

Component	Gas Plant (non-compressor components)
Valve	1,392
Connectors	4,392
Open-Ended Line	134
Pressure Relief Valve	29

Data Source: EPA/GRI, Methane Emissions from the Natural Gas Industry, Volume 8: Equipment Leaks, Table 4-13, June 1996. (EPA-600/R-96-080h)

Table 8-7.Average Component Count for a Gas TransmissionFacility

Component	Processing Plant Component Count
Valve	704
Connection	3,068
Open-Ended Line	55
Pressure Relief Valve	14

Data Source: EPA/GRI, Methane Emissions from the Natural Gas Industry, Volume 8: Equipment Leaks, Table 4-16, June 1996. (EPA-600/R-96-080h)

Table 8-8 Oil and Gas Production and Processing Operations Average Emissions Factors

Component Type	Component Service	Emission Factor (kg/hr/source)
Valves	Gas	4.5E-03
Connectors	Gas	2.0E-04
Open-Ended Line	Gas	2.0E-03
Pressure Relief Valve	Gas	8.8E-03

Data Source: EPA, Protocol for Equipment Leak Emission Estimates, Table 2-4, November 1995. (EPA-453/R-95-017)

Table 8-9. Emissions for VOC, hazardous air pollutants (HAP), and methane were calculated using TOC weight fractions.[6] A summary of the baseline emissions for each of the sectors are presented in Table 8-10.

8.3.2 Activity Data

Data from oil and gas technical documents and inventories were used to estimate the number of new sources for each of the oil and gas sectors. Information from the Energy Information Administration (EIA) was used to estimate the number of new wells, well pads, and gathering and boosting stations. The number of processing plants and transmission/storage facilities was estimated using data from the Oil and Gas Journal, and the EPA Greenhouse Gas Inventory. A summary of the steps used to estimate the new sources for each of the oil and gas sectors is presented in the following sections.

8.3.2.1 Well Pads

The EIA provided a forecast of the number of new conventional and unconventional gas wells for the Year 2015 for both exploratory and developmental wells. The EIA projected 19,097 conventional and unconventional gas wells in 2015. The number of wells was converted to number of well pads by dividing the total number of wells by the average number of wells serving a well pad which is estimated to be 5. Therefore, the number of new well pads was estimated to be 3,820. The facilities were divided into the model plants assuming a normal distribution of facilities around the average model plant (Model Plant 2).

8.3.2.2 Gathering and Boosting

The number of new gathering and boosting stations was estimated using the current inventory of gathering compressors listed in the EPA Greenhouse Gas Inventory. The total number of gathering compressors was listed as 32,233 in the inventory. The GRI/EPA document does not include a separate list of compressor counts for gathering and boosting stations, but it does list the average number of compressors in the gas production section. It was assumed that this average of 4.5 compressors for gas production facilities is applicable to gathering and boosting stations. Therefore, using the inventory of 32,233 compressors and the average number of 4.5 compressors per facility, we estimated the number of gathering and boosting stations to be 7,163. To estimate the number of new gathering and boosting stations, we used the same increase of 3.84 percent used to estimate well pads to estimate the number of new gathering and boosting stations. This provided an estimate of 275 new gathering and boosting

Table 8-9 Oil and Gas Transmission/Storage Average Emissions Factors

Component Type	Component Service	Emission Factor (kg/hr/source)
Valves	Gas	5.5E-03
Connectors	Gas	9.3E-04
Open-Ended Line	Gas	7.1E-02
Pressure Relief Valve	Gas	3.98E-02

Data Source:EPA/GRI, Methane Emissions from the Natural Gas Industry, Volume 8: Equipment Leaks, Table 4-17, June 1996. (EPA-600/R-96-080h)

Table 8-10. Baseline Emissions for the Oil and Gas Production, Processing, and Transmission/Storage Model Plants

Oil and Gas Sector	Model Plant	TOC Emissions (Tons/yr)	Methane Emissions (Tons/yr)	VOC Emissions (Tons/yr)	HAP Emissions (Tons/yr)
Well Pads	1	0.482	0.335	0.0930	0.00351
	2	13.3	9.24	2.56	0.0967
	3	139	96.5	26.8	1.01
Gathering & Boosting	1	30.5	21.2	5.90	0.222
	2	50.6	35.2	9.76	0.368
	3	70.6	49.1	13.6	0.514
Processing	1	74.0	51.4	14.3	0.539
Transmission/Storage	1	108.1	98.1	2.71	0.0806

stations that would be affected sources under the proposed NSPS. The new gathering and boosting stations were assumed to be normally distributed around the average model plant (Model Plant 2).

8.3.2.3 Processing Facilities

The number of new processing facilities was estimated using gas processing data from the Oil and Gas Journal. The Oil and Gas Journal Construction Survey currently shows 6,303 million cubic feet of gas per day (MMcf/day) additional gas processing capacity in various stages of development. The OGJ Gas Processing Survey shows that there is 26.9 trillion cubic feet per year (tcf/year) in existing capacity, with a current throughput of 16.6 tcf/year or 62 percent utilization rate. If the utilization rate remains constant, the new construction would add approximately 1.4 tcf/year to the processing system. This would be an increase of 8.5 percent to the processing sector. The recent energy outlook published by the EIApredicts a 1.03 tcf/year increase in natural gas processing from 21.07 to22.104 tcf/year. This would be an annual increase of 5 percent over the next five years.

The EPA Greenhouse Gas Inventory estimates the number of existing processing facilities to be 577 plants operating in the U.S. Based on the projections provided in Oil and Gas Journal and EIA, it was assumed that the processing sector would increase by 5 percent annually. Therefore the number of new sources was estimated to be 29 new processing facilities in the U.S.

8.3.2.4 Transmission/Storage Facilities

The number of new transmission and storage facilities was estimated using the annual growth rate of 5 percent used for the processing sector and the estimated number of existing transmission and storage facilities in the EPA Greenhouse Inventory. The inventory estimates 1,748 transmission stations and 400 storage facilities for a total of 2,148. Therefore, the number of new transmission/storage facilities was estimated to be 107.

8.3.3 Emission Estimates

Nationwide emission estimates for the new sources for well pads, gathering and boosting, processing, and transmission/storage are summarized in Table 8-11. For well pads and gathering and boosting stations, the numbers of new facilities were assumed to be normally distributed across the range of model plants.

Table 8-11. Nationwide Baseline Emissions for New Sources

Oil and Gas Sector	Model Plant	Number of New Facilities	TOC Emissions (tons/yr)	Methane Emissions (tons/yr)	VOC Emissions (tons/yr)	HAP Emissions (tons/yr)
Well Pads	1	605	292	203	56.3	2.12
	2	2,610	34,687	24,116	6,682	252
	3	605	84,035	58,389	16,214	612
	Total	3,820	119,014	82,708	22,952	866
Gathering & Boosting	1	44	1,312	912	254	9.55
	2	187	9,513	6,618	1,835	69.2
	3	44	3,106	2,160	598	22.6
	Total	275	13,931	9,690	2,687	101
Processing	1	29	2,146	1,490	415	15.6
Transmission/Storage	1	107	11,567	10,497	290	8.62

8.4 Control Techniques

8.4.1 Potential Control Techniques

EPA has determined that leaking equipment, such as valves, pumps, and connectors, are a significant source of VOC and HAP emissions from oil and gas facilities. The following section describes the techniques used to reduce emissions from these sources.

The most effective control technique for equipment leaks is the implementation of a leak detection and repair program (LDAR). Emissions reductions from implementing an LDAR program can potentially reduce product losses, increase safety for workers and operators, decrease exposure of hazardous chemicals to the surrounding community, reduce emissions fees, and help facilities avoid enforcement actions. The elements of an effective LDAR program include:

- Identifying Components;
- Leak Definition;
- Monitoring Components;
- Repairing Components; and
- Recordkeeping.

The primary source of equipment leak emissions from oil and gas facilities are from valves and connectors, because these are the most prevalent components and can number in the thousands. The major cause of emissions from valves and connectors is a seal or gasket failure due to normal wear or improper maintenance. A leak is detected whenever the measured concentration exceeds the threshold standard (i.e., leak definition) for the applicable regulation. Leak definitions vary by regulation, component type, service (e.g., light liquid, heavy liquid, gas/vapor), and monitoring interval. Most NSPS regulations have a leak definition of 10,000 ppm, while many NESHAP regulations use a 500-ppm or 1,000-ppm leak definition. In addition, some regulations define a leak based on visual inspections and observations (such as fluids dripping, spraying, misting or clouding from or around components), sound (such as hissing), and smell.

For many NSPS and NESHAP regulations with leak detection provisions, the primary method for monitoring to detect leaking components is EPA Reference Method 21 (40 CFR Part 60, Appendix A). Method 21 is a procedure used to detect VOC leaks from process equipment using toxic vapor analyzer (TVA) or organic vapor analyzer (OVA). In addition, other monitoring tools such as; infrared camera, soap solution, acoustic leak detection, and electronic screening device, can be used to monitor process components.

In optical gas imaging, a live video image is produced by illuminating the view area with laser light in the infrared frequency range. In this range, hydrocarbons absorb the infrared light and are revealed as a dark image or cloud on the camera. The passive infrared cameras scan an area to produce images of equipment leaks from a number of sources. Active infrared cameras point or aim an infrared beam at a potential source to indicate the presence of equipment leaks. The optical imaging camera is easy to use and very efficient in monitoring many components in a short amount of time. However, the optical imaging camera cannot quantify the amount or concentration of equipment leak. To quantify the leak, the user would need to measure the concentration of the leak using a TVA or OVA. In addition, the optical imaging camera has a high upfront capital cost of purchasing the camera.

Acoustic leak detectors measure the decibel readings of high frequency vibrations from the noise of leaking fluids from equipment leaks using a stethoscope-type device. The decibel reading, along with the type of fluid, density, system pressure, and component type can be correlated into leak rate by using algorithms developed by the instrument manufacturer. The acoustic detector does not decrease the monitoring time because components are measured separately, like the OVA or TVA monitoring. The accuracy of the measurements using the acoustic detector can also be questioned due to the number of variables used to determine the equipment leak emissions.

Monitoring intervals vary according to the applicable regulation, but are typically weekly, monthly, quarterly, and yearly. For connectors, the monitoring interval can be every 1, 2, 4, or 8 years. The monitoring interval depends on the component type and periodic leak rate for the component type. Also, many LDAR requirements specify weekly visual inspections of pumps, agitators, and compressors for indications of liquids leaking from the seals. For each component that is found to be leaking, the first attempt at repair is to be made no later than five calendar days after each leak is detected. First attempts at repair include, but are not limited to, the following best practices, where practicable and appropriate:

- Tightening of bonnet bolts;

- Replacement of bonnet bolts;
- Tightening of packing gland nuts; and
- Injection of lubricant into lubricated packing.

Once the component is repaired; it should be monitored daily over the next several days to ensure the leak has been successfully repaired. Another method that can be used to repair component is to replace the leaking component with “leakless” or other technologies.

The LDAR recordkeeping requirement for each regulated process requires that a list of all ID numbers be maintained for all equipment subject to an equipment leak regulation. A list of components that are designated as “unsafe to monitor” should also be maintained with an explanation/review of conditions for the designation. Detailed schematics, equipment design specifications (including dates and descriptions of any changes), and piping and instrumentation diagrams should also be maintained with the results of performance testing and leak detection monitoring, which may include leak monitoring results per the leak frequency, monitoring leakless equipment, and non-periodic event monitoring.

Other factors that can improve the efficiency of an LDAR program that are not addressed by the standards include training programs for equipment monitoring personnel and tracking systems that address the cost efficiency of alternative equipment (e.g., competing brands of valves in a specific application).

The first LDAR option is the implementation of a subpart VVa LDAR program. This program is similar to the VV monitoring, but finds more leaks due to the lower leak definition, thereby achieving better emission reductions. The VVa LDAR program requires the annual monitoring of connectors using an OVA or TVA (10,000 ppm leak definition), monthly monitoring of valves (500 ppm leak definition) and requires open-ended lines and pressure relief devices to operate with no detectable emissions (500 ppm leak definition). The monitoring of each of the equipment types were also analyzed as a possible option for reducing equipment leak emissions. The second option involves using the monitoring requirements in subpart VVa for each type of equipment which include: valves; connectors; pressure relief devices; and open-ended lines for each of the oil and gas sectors.

The thirdoption that was investigated was the implementation of a LDAR program using an optical gas imaging system. This option is currently available as an alternative work practice (40 CFR Part 60, subpart A) for monitoring emissions from equipment leaks in subpart VVa. The alternative work practice requires monthly monitoring of all components using the optical gas imaging system and an annual monitoring of all components using a Method 21 monitoring device. The Method 21 monitoring allows the facility to quantify emissions from equipment leaks, since the optical gas imaging system can only provide the magnitude of the equipment leaks.

A fourth option that was investigated is a modification of the 40 CFR Part 60, subpart Aalternative work practice. The alternative work practice was modified by removing the required annual monitoring using a Method 21 instrument. This option only requires the monthly monitoring of components using the optical gas imaging system.

8.4.2 Subpart VVa LDAR Program

8.4.2.1 Description

The subpart VVa LDAR requires the monitoring of pumps, compressors, pressure relief devices, sampling connection systems, open-ended lines, valves, and connectors. These components are monitored with an OVA or TVA to determine if a component is leaking and measure the concentration of the organics if the component is leaking. Connectors, valves, and pressure relief devices have a leak definition of 500 parts per million by volume (ppmv). Valves are monitored monthly, connectors are monitored annually, and open-ended lines and pressure relief valves have no monitoring requirements, but are required to operate without any detectable emissions. Compressors are not included in this LDAR option and are regulated separately.

8.4.2.2 Effectiveness

The control effectiveness of the LDAR program is based on the frequency of monitoring, leak definition, frequency of leaks, percentage of leaks that are repaired, and the percentage of reoccurring leaks. A summary of the chemical manufacturing and petroleum refinery control effectiveness for each of the components is shown in Table 8-12. As shown in the table the control effectiveness for all of the components varies from 45 to 96 percent and is dependent on the frequency of monitoring and the leak definition. Descriptions of the frequency of monitoring and leak definition are described further below.

> Monitoring Frequency: The monitoring frequency is the number of times each component is checked for leaks. For an example, quarterly monitoring requires that each component be checked for leaks 4 times per year, and annual monitoring requires that each component be checked for leaks once per year. As shown in Table 8-12, monthly monitoring provides higher control effectiveness than quarterly

Table 8-12. Control Effectiveness for an LDAR program at a Chemical Process Unit and a Petroleum Refinery

Equipment Type and Service	Control Effectiveness (% Reduction)		
	Monthly Monitoring 10,000 ppmv Leak Definition	Quarterly Monitoring 10,000 ppmv Leak Definition	500 ppm Leak Definition[a]
Chemical Process Unit			
Valves – Gas Service[b]	87	67	92
Valves – Light Liquid Service[c]	84	61	88
Pumps – Light Liquid Service[c]	69	45	75
Connectors – All Services	---	---	93
Petroleum Refinery			
Valves – Gas Service[b]	88	70	96
Valves – Light Liquid Service[c]	76	61	95
Pumps – Light Liquid Service[c]	68	45	88
Connectors – All Services	---	---	81

Source: Protocol for Equipment Leak Emission Estimates, EPA-453/R-95-017, Nov 1995.

a. Control effectiveness attributable to the HON-negotiated equipment leak regulation (40 CFR 63, Subpart H) is estimated based on equipment-specific leak definitions and performance levels. However, pumps subject to the HON at existing process units have a 1,000 to 5,000 ppm leak definition, depending on the type of process.
b. Gas (vapor) service means the material in contact with the equipment component is in a gaseous state at the process operating conditions.
c. Light liquid service means the material in contact with the equipment component is in a liquid state in which the sum of the concentration of individual constituents with a vapor pressure above 0.3 kilopascals (kPa) at 20°C is greater than or equal to 20% by weight.

monitoring. This is because leaking components are found and repaired more quickly, which lowers the amount of emissions that are leaked to the atmosphere.

> Leak Definition: The leak definition describes the local VOC concentration at the surface of a leak source that indicates that a VOC emission (leak) is present. The leak definition is an instrument meter reading based on a reference compound. Decreasing the leak definition concentration generally increases the number of leaks found during a monitoring period, which generally increases the number of leaks that are repaired.

The control effectiveness for the well pad, gathering and boosting stations, processing facilities, and transmissions and storage facilities were calculated using the LDAR control effectiveness and leak fraction equations for oil and gas production operation units in the EPA equipment leaks protocol document. The leak fraction equation uses the average leak rate (e.g., the component emission factor) and leak definition to calculate the leak fraction.[7] This leak fraction is used in a steady state set of equations to determine the final leak rate after implementing a LDAR program.[8] The initial leak rate and the final leak rate after implementing a LDAR program were then used to calculate the control effectiveness of the program. The control effectiveness for implementing a subpart VVa LDAR program was calculated to be 93.6 perccent for valves, 95.9 percent for connectors, 100 percent for open-ended lines, and 100 percent for pressure relief devices.

8.4.2.3 Cost Impacts

Costs were calculated using a LDAR cost spreadsheet developedfor estimating capital and annual costs for applying LDAR to the Petroleum Refinery and Chemical Manufacturing industry. The costs are based on the following assumptions:

- Subpart VVa monitoring frequency and leak definition were used for processing plants since they are already required to do subpart VV requirements. Connectors were assumed to be monitored over a 4-year period after initial annual compliance monitoring.
- Initial monitoring and setup costs are $17.70 for valves, $1.13 per connector, $78.00 for pressure relief valve disks, $3,852 for pressure relief valve disk holder and valves, and $102 for open-ended lines.
- Subsequent monitoring costs are $1.50 for valves and connectors, $2.00 for pressure relief valve disks, and $5.00 for pressure relief valve devices and open-ended lines.
- A wage rate of $30.46 per hour was used to determine labor costs for repair.

- Administrative costs and initial planning and training costs are based on the Miscellaneous Organic NESHAP (MON) analysis. The costs were based on 340 hours for planning and training and 300 hours per year for reporting and administrative tasks at $48.04 per hour.
- The capital cost also includes $14,500 for a data collection system for maintaining the inventory and monitoring records for the components at a facility.
- Recovery credits were calculated assuming the methane reduction has a value of $4.00 per 1000 standard cubic feet.

It was assumed that a single Method 21 monitoring device could be used at multiple locations for production pads, gathering and boosting stations, and transmission and storage facilities. To calculate the shared cost of the Method 21 device, the time required to monitor a single facility was estimated. For production pads and gathering and boosting stations, it was assumed that it takes approximately 1 minute to monitor a single component, and approximately 451 components would have to be monitored at an average facility in a month. This calculates to be 451 minutes or 7.5 hours per day. Assuming 20 working days in a typical month, a single Method 21 device could monitor 20 facilities. Therefore, the capital cost of the Method 21 device ($6,500) was divided by 20 to get a shared capital cost of $325 per facility. It was assumed for processing facilities that the full cost of the Method 21 monitoring device would apply to each individual plant. The transmission and storage segment Method 21 device cost was estimated using assuming the same 1 minute per component monitoring time. The average number of components that would need to be monitored in a month was estimated to be 1,440, which calculates to be 24 hours of monitoring time or 3 days. Assuming the same 20 day work month, the total number of facilities that could be monitored by a single Method 21 device is 7. Therefore, the shared cost of the Method 21 monitoring device was calculated to be $929 per site.

A summary of the capital and annual costs and the cost effectiveness for each of the model plants in the oil and gas sectors are provided in Table 8-13. In addition to the full subpart VVa LDAR monitoring, a component by component LDAR analysis was performed for each of the oil and gas sectors using the component count for an average size facility. This Model Plant 2 for well pads, Model Plant 2 for gathering and boosting stations, and Model Plant 1 for processing plants and transmission and storage facilities.

Table 8-13. Summary of the Model Plant Cost Effectiveness for the Subpart VVa Option

Model Plant	Annual Emission Reductions (tons/year)			Capital Cost ($)	Annual Cost ($/year)		Cost Effectiveness ($/ton)		
	VOC	HAP	Methane		without savings	with savings	VOC	HAP	Methane
Well Pads									
1	0.0876	0.00330	0.315	$15,418	$23,423	$23,350	$267,386	$7,088,667	$74,253
2	2.43	0.0915	8.73	$69,179	$37,711	$35,687	$15,549	$412,226	$4,318
3	25.3	0.956	91.3	$584,763	$175,753	$154,595	$6,934	$183,835	$1,926
Gathering and Boosting Stations									
1	5.58	0.210	20.1	$148,885	$57,575	$52,921	$10,327	$273,769	$2,868
2	9.23	0.348	33.2	$255,344	$84,966	$77,259	$9,203	$243,987	$2,556
3	12.9	0.486	46.4	$321,203	$105,350	$94,591	$8,174	$216,692	$2,270
Processing Plants									
1	13.5	0.508	48.5	$7,522	$45,160	$33,915	$3,352	$88,870	$931
Transmission/Storage Facilities									
1	2.62	0.0780	94.9	$94,482	$51,875	N/A	$19,769	$665,155	$546

Note: Transmission and storage facilities do not own the natural gas; therefore they do not receive any cost benefits from reducing the amount of natural gas as the result of equipment leaks.

The component costs were calculated using a LDAR cost spreadsheet developedfor estimating capital and annual costs for applying LDAR to the Petroleum Refinery and Chemical Manufacturing industry. The costs are based on the following assumptions:

- Initial monitoring and setup costs are $17.70 for valves, $1.13 per connector, $78.00 for pressure relief valve disks, $3,852 for pressure relief valve disk holder and valves, and $102 for open-ended lines.
- Subsequent monitoring costs are $1.50 for valves and connectors, $2.00 for pressure relief valve disks, and $5.00 for pressure relief valve devices and open-ended lines.
- A wage rate of $30.46 per hour was used to determine labor costs for repair.
- Administrative costs and initial planning and training costs are were included for the component option and are based on the Miscellaneous Organic NESHAP (MON) analysis. The costs were based on 340 hours for planning and training and 300 hours per year for reporting and administrative tasks at $48.04 per hour.
- The capital cost for purchasing a TVA or OVA monitoring system was estimated to be $6,500.

The component control effectiveness for the subpart VVa component option were 93.6 percent for valves, 95.9 percent for connectors, 100 percent for open-ended lines, and 100 percent for pressure relief devices. These were the same control effectiveness's that were used for the subpart VVa facility option. The control effectiveness for the modified subpart VVa option with less frequent monitoring was estimated assuming the control effectiveness follows a hyperbolic curve or a 1/x relationship with the monitoring frequency. Using this assumption the component cost effectiveness's were determined to be 87.2 percent for valves, 81.0 percent for connectors, 100 percent for open-ended lines, and 100 percent for pressure relief devices. The assumption is believed to provide a conservative estimate of the control efficiency based on less frequent monitoring. A summary of the capital and annual costs and the cost effectiveness for each of the components for each of the oil and gas sectors are provided in Tables 8-14, 8-15, 8-16, and 8-17.

8.4.2.4 Secondary Impacts

The implementation of a LDAR program reduces pollutant emissions from equipment leaks. No secondary gaseous pollutant emissions or wastewater are generated during the monitoring and repair of equipment leaks. Therefore, there are no secondary impacts expected from the implementation of a LDAR program.

Table 8-14. Summary of Component Cost Effectiveness for Well Pads for the Subpart VVa Options

Component	Average Number of Components	Monitoring Frequency (Times/yr)	Annual Emission Reductions (tons/year)			Capital Cost ($)	Annual Cost ($/yr)	Cost-effectiveness ($/ton)		
			VOC	HAP	Methane			VOC	HAP	Methane
Subpart VVa Option										
Valves	235	12	1.84	0.0696	6.64	$11,175	$27,786	$15,063	$399,331	$4,183
Connectors	863	1/0.25[a]	0.308	0.0116	1.11	$7,830	$22,915	$74,283	$1,969,328	$20,628
PRD	10	0	0.164	0.00619	0.591	$48,800	$29,609	$180,537	$4,786,215	$50,135
OEL	29	0	0.108	0.00408	0.389	$9,458	$22,915	$211,992	$5,620,108	$58,870
Modified Subpart VVa– Less Frequent Monitoring										
Valves	235	1	1.31	0.0496	4.73	$11,175	$23,436	$17,828	$472,640	$4,951
Connectors	863	1/0.125[b]	0.261	0.00983	0.938	$7,830	$22,740	$87,277	$2,313,795	$24,237
PRD	5	0	0.164	0.00619	0.591	$48,800	$29,609	$180,537	$4,786,215	$50,135
OEL	29	0	0.108	0.00408	0.389	$9,458	$22,915	$211,992	$5,620,108	$58,870

Minor discrepancies may be due to rounding.

a. It was assumed that all the connectors are monitored in the first year for initial compliance and every 4 years thereafter.

b. It was assumed that all the connectors are monitored in the first year for initial compliance and every 8 years thereafter.

Table 8-15. Summary of Component Cost Effectiveness for Gathering and Boosting Stations for the Subpart VVa Options

Component	Average Number of Components	Monitoring Frequency (Times/yr)	Annual Emission Reductions (tons/year)			Capital Cost ($)	Annual Cost ($/yr)	Cost-effectiveness ($/ton)		
			VOC	HAP	Methane			VOC	HAP	Methane
Subpart VVa Option										
Valves	906	12	7.11	0.268	25.6	$24,524	$43,234	$6,079	$161,162	$1,688
Connectors	2,864	1/0.25[a]	1.02	0.0386	3.69	$10,914	$24,164	$23,603	$625,752	$6,555
PRD	48	0	0.787	0.0297	2.83	$195,140	$57,091	$72,523	$1,922,648	$20,139
OEL	83	0	0.309	0.0117	1.11	$14,966	$23,917	$77,310	$2,049,557	$21,469
Modified Subpart VVa – Less Frequent Monitoring										
Valves	906	1	5.07	0.191	18.2	$24,524	$24,461	$5,221	$138,417	$1,450
Connectors	2,864	1/0.125[b]	0.865	0.0326	3.11	$10,914	$23,584	$27,274	$723,067	$7,574
PRD	48	0	0.787	0.0297	2.83	$195,140	$57,091	$72,523	$1,922,648	$20,139
OEL	83	0	0.309	0.0117	1.11	$14,966	$23,917	$77,310	$2,049,557	$21,469

Minor discrepancies may be due to rounding.

a. It was assumed that all the connectors are monitored in the first year for initial compliance and every 4 years thereafter.
b. It was assumed that all the connectors are monitored in the first year for initial compliance and every 8 years thereafter.

Table 8-16. Summary of Incremental Component Cost Effectiveness for Processing Plants for the Subpart VVa Option

Component	Average Number of Components	Monitoring Frequency (Times/yr)	Annual Emission Reductions (tons/year)			Capital Cost ($)	Annual Cost ($/yr)	Cost-effectiveness ($/ton)		
			VOC	HAP	Methane			VOC	HAP	Methane
Incremental Component Cost for Subpart VV to Subpart VVa Option										
Valves	1,392	12	10.9	0.412	39.3	$6,680	$1,576	$144	$3,824	$40
Connectors	4,392	1/0.25[a]	1.57	0.0592	5.65	$2,559	$6,845	$4,360	$115,585	$1,211
PRD	29	0	0.499	0.0188	1.80	$0	$0	$0	$0	$0
OEL	134	0	0.476	0.0179	1.71	$0	$0	$0	$0	$0

Minor discrepancies may be due to rounding.

a. It was assumed that all the connectors are monitored in the first year for initial compliance and every 4 years thereafter.

Table 8-17. Summary of Component Cost Effectiveness for Transmission and Storage Facilities for the Subpart VVa Options

Component	Average Number of Components	Monitoring Frequency (Times/yr)	Annual Emission Reductions (tons/year)			Capital Cost ($)	Annual Cost ($/yr)	Cost-effectiveness ($/ton)		
			VOC	HAP	Methane			VOC	HAP	Methane
Subpart VVa Option										
Valves	673	12	0.878	0.0261	31.8	$19,888	$37,870	$43,111	$1,450,510	$1,192
Connectors	3,068	1/0.25[a]	0.665	0.0198	24.1	$11,229	$24,291	$36,527	$1,229,005	$1,010
PRD	14	0	0.133	0.00397	4.83	$61,520	$32,501	$243,525	$8,193,684	$6,732
OEL	58	0	0.947	0.0282	34.3	$12,416	$23,453	$24,762	$833,137	$684
Modified Subpart VVa – Less Frequent Monitoring										
Valves	673	1	0.626	0.0186	22.6	$19,888	$25,410	$40,593	$1,365,801	$1,122
Connectors	3,068	1/0.125[b]	0.562	0.0167	20.3	$11,229	$23,669	$42,140	$1,417,844	$1,165
PRD	14	0	0.133	0.00397	4.83	$61,520	$32,501	$243,525	$8,193,684	$6,732
OEL	58	0	0.947	0.0282	34.3	$12,416	$23,453	$24,762	$833,137	$684

Minor discrepancies may be due to rounding.

a. It was assumed that all the connectors are monitored in the first year for initial compliance and every 4 years thereafter.
b. It was assumed that all the connectors are monitored in the first year for initial compliance and every 8 years thereafter.

8.4.3 LDAR with Optical Gas Imaging

8.4.3.1 Description

The alternative work practice for equipment leaks in §60.18 of 40 CFR Part 60, subpart A allows the use of an optical gas imaging system to monitor leaks from components. This LDAR requires monthly monitoring and repair of components using an optical gas imaging system, and annual monitoring of components using a Method 21 instrument. This requirement does not have a leak definition because the optical gas imaging system can only measure the magnitude of a leak and not the concentration. However, this alternative work practice does not require the repair of leaks below 500 ppm. Compressors are not included in this LDAR option and arediscussed in Chapter 6 of this document.

8.4.3.2 Effectiveness

No data was found on the control effectiveness of the alternative work practice. It is believed that this option would provide the same control effectiveness as the subpart VVa monitoring program. Therefore, the control effectiveness's for implementing an alternative work practice was assumed to be 93.6 percent for valves, 95.9 percent for connectors, 100 percent for open-ended lines, and 100 percent for pressure relief devices.

8.4.3.3 Cost Impacts

Costs were calculated using a LDAR cost spreadsheet developedfor estimating capital and annual costs for applying LDAR to the Petroleum Refinery and Chemical Manufacturing industry. The costs are based on the following assumptions:

- Initial monitoring and setup costs are $17.70 for valves, $1.13 per connector, $78.00 for pressure relief valve disks, $3,852 for pressure relief valve disk holder and valves, and $102 for open-ended lines.
- Monthly optical gas imaging monitoring costs are estimated to be $0.50 for valves, connectors, pressure relief valve devices, and open-ended lines.
- Annual monitoring costs using a Method 21 device are estimated to be $1.50 for valves and connectors, $2.00 for pressure relief valve disks, and $5.00 for pressure relief devices and open-ended lines.
- A wage rate of $30.46 per hour was used to determine labor costs for repair.

- Administrative costs and initial planning and training costs are based on the Miscellaneous Organic NESHAP (MON) analysis. The costs were based on 340 hours for planning and training and 300 hours per year for reporting and administrative tasks at $48.04 per hour.
- The capital cost also includes $14,500 for a data collection system for maintaining the inventory and monitoring records for the components at a facility.
- Recovery credits were calculated assuming the methane reduction has a value of $4.00 per 1000 standard cubic feet.

It was assumed that a single optical gas imaging and a Method 21 monitoring device could be used at multiple locations for production pads, gathering and boosting stations, and transmission and storage facilities. To calculate the shared cost of the optical gas imaging system and the Method 21 device, the time required to monitor a single facility was estimated. For production pads and gathering and boosting stations, it was assumed that 8 production pads could be monitored per day. This means that 160 production facilities could be monitored in a month. In addition, it was assumed 13 gathering and boosting station would service these wells and could be monitored during the same month for a total of 173 facilities. Therefore, the capital cost of the optical gas imaging system (Flir Model GF320, $85,000) and the Method 21 device ($6,500) was divided by 173 to get a shared capital cost of $529 per facility. It was assumed for processing facilities that the full cost of the optical gas imaging system and the Method 21 monitoring device would apply to each individual plant. The transmission and storage segment Method 21 device cost was estimated assuming that one facility could be monitored in one hour, and the travel time between facilities was one hour. Therefore, in a typical day 4 transmission stations could be monitored in one day. Assuming the same 20 day work month, the total number of facilities that could be monitored by a single optical gas imaging system and Method 21 device is 80. Therefore, the shared cost of the Method 21 monitoring device was calculated to be $1,144 per site.

A summary of the capital and annual costs and the cost effectiveness for each of the model plants in the oil and gas sectorusing the alternative work practice monitoring is provided in Table 8-18. A component cost effectiveness analysis for the alternative work practice was not performed, because the optical gas imaging system is not conducive to component monitoring, but is intended for facility-wide monitoring.

8.4.3.4 Secondary Impacts

The implementation of a LDAR program reduces pollutant emissions from equipment leaks. No secondary gaseous pollutant emissions or wastewater are generated during the monitoring and repair of

Table 8-18. Summary of the Model Plant Cost Effectiveness for the Optical Gas Imaging and Method 21 Monitoring Option

Model Plant	Annual Emission Reductions (tons/year)			Capital Cost ($)	Annual Cost ($/year)		Cost Effectiveness ($/ton)		
	VOC	HAP	Methane		without savings	with savings	VOC	HAP	Methane
Well Pads									
1	0.0876	0.00330	0.315	$15,428	$21,464	$21,391	$245,024	$6,495,835	$68,043
2	2.43	0.0915	8.73	$64,858	$39,112	$37,088	$16,127	$427,540	$4,478
3	25.3	0.956	91.3	$132,891	$135,964	$114,807	$5,364	$142,216	$1,490
Gathering and Boosting Stations									
1	5.58	0.210	20.1	$149,089	$63,949	$59,295	$11,470	$304,078	$3,185
2	9.23	0.348	33.2	$240,529	$93,210	$85,503	$10,096	$267,659	$2,804
3	12.9	0.486	46.4	$329,725	$121,820	$111,060	$9,451	$250,567	$2,625
Processing Plants									
1	13.5	0.508	48.5	$92,522	$87,059	$75,813	$6,462	$171,321	$1,795
Transmission/Storage Facilities									
1	2.62	0.0780	94.9	$20,898	$51,753	N/A	$19,723	$663,591	$545

Minor discrepancies may be due to rounding.

Note: Transmission and storage facilities do not own the natural gas; therefore cost benefits from reducing the amount of natural gas as the result of equipment leaks was not estimated for the transmission segment..

equipment leaks. Therefore, there are no secondary impacts expected from the implementation of a LDAR program.

8.4.4 Modified Alternative Work Practice with Optical Gas Imaging

8.4.4.1 Description

The modified alternative work practice for equipment leaks in §60.18 of 40 CFR Part 60, subpart A allows the use of an optical gas imaging system to monitor leaks from components, but removes the requirement of the annual Method 21 device monitoring. Therefore, the modified work practice would require only monthly monitoring and repair of components using an optical gas imaging system. This requirement does not have a leak definition because the optical gas imaging system can only measure the magnitude of a leak and not the concentration. However, this alternative work practice does not require the repair of leaks below 500 ppm. Compressors are not included in this LDAR option and are regulated separately.

8.4.4.2 Effectiveness

No data was found on the control effectiveness of this modified alternative work practice. However, it is believed that this option would provide the similar control effectiveness and emission reductions as the subpart VVa monitoring program. Therefore, the control effectiveness's for implementing an alternative work practice was assumed to be 93.6 percent for valves, 95.9 percent for connectors, 100 percent for open-ended lines, and 100 percent for pressure relief devices.

8.4.4.3 Cost Impacts

Costs were calculated using a LDAR cost spreadsheet developedfor estimating capital and annual costs for applying LDAR to the Petroleum Refinery and Chemical Manufacturing industry. The costs are based on the following assumptions:

- Initial monitoring and setup costs are $17.70 for valves, $1.13 per connector, $78.00 for pressure relief valve disks, $3,852 for pressure relief valve disk holder and valves, and $102 for open-ended lines.
- Monthly optical gas imaging monitoring costs are estimated to be $0.50 for valves, connectors, pressure relief valve devices, and open-ended lines.
- A wage rate of $30.46 per hour was used to determine labor costs for repair.

- Administrative costs and initial planning and training costs are based on the Miscellaneous Organic NESHAP (MON) analysis. The costs were based on 340 hours for planning and training and 300 hours per year for reporting and administrative tasks at $48.04 per hour.
- The shared capital cost for optical gas imaging system is $491 for production and gathering and boosting, $85,000 for processing, and $1,063 for transmission for a FLIR Model GF320 optical gas imaging system.
- The capital cost also includes $14,500 for a data collection system for maintaining the inventory and monitoring records for the components at a facility.
- Recovery credits were calculated assuming the methane reduction has a value of $4.00 per 1000 standard cubic feet.

A summary of the capital and annual costs and the cost effectiveness for each of the model plants in the oil and gas sectors using the alternative work practice monitoring is provided in Table 8-19. A component cost effectiveness analysis for the alternative work practice was not performed, because the optical gas imaging system is not conducive to component monitoring, but is intended for facility-wide monitoring.

8.4.4.4 Secondary Impacts

The implementation of a LDAR program reduces pollutant emissions from equipment leaks. No secondary gaseous pollutant emissions or wastewater are generated during the monitoring and repair of equipment leaks. Therefore, there are no secondary impacts expected from the implementation of a LDAR program.

8.5 Regulatory Options

The LDAR pollution prevention approach is believed to be the best method for reducing pollutant emissions from equipment leaks. Therefore, the following regulatory options were considered for reducing equipment leaks from well pads, gathering and boosting stations, processing facilities, and transmission and storage facilities:

- Regulatory Option 1: Require the implementation of a subpart VVa LDAR program;
- Regulatory Option 2: Require the implementation of a component subpart VVa LDAR program;
- Regulatory Option 3: Require the implementation of the alternative work practice in §60.18 of 40 CFR Part 60;

Table 8-19. Summary of the Model Plant Cost Effectiveness for Monthly Gas Imaging Monitoring

Model Plant	Annual Emission Reductions (tons/year)			Capital Cost ($)	Annual Cost ($/year)		Cost Effectiveness ($/ton)		
	VOC	HAP	Methane		without savings	with savings	VOC	HAP	Methane
Well Pads									
1	N/A	N/A	N/A	$15,390	$21,373	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
2	N/A	N/A	N/A	$64,820	$37,049	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
3	N/A	N/A	N/A	$537,313	$189,174	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
Gathering and Boosting Stations									
1	N/A	N/A	N/A	$149,051	$59,790	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
2	N/A	N/A	N/A	$240,491	$86,135	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
3	N/A	N/A	N/A	$329,687	$11,940	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
Processing Plants									
1	N/A	N/A	N/A	$92,522	$76,581	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
Transmission/Storage Facilities									
1	N/A	N/A	N/A	$20,817	$45,080	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A

Note: This option only provides the number and magnitude of the leaks. Therefore, the emission reduction from this program cannot be quantified and the cost effectiveness values calculated.

- Regulatory Option 4: Require the implementation of a modified alternative work practice in §60.18 of 40 CFR Part 60 that removes the requirement for annual monitoring using a Method 21 device.

The following sections discuss these regulatory options.

8.5.1 Evaluation of Regulatory Options for Equipment Leaks

8.5.1.1 Well pads

The first regulatory option of a subpart VVa LDAR program was evaluated for well pads, which include the wells, processing equipment (separators, dehydrators, acid gas removal), as well as any heaters and piping. The equipment does not include any of the compressors which will be regulated separately. For well pads the VOC cost effectiveness for the model plants ranged from $267,386 per ton of VOC for a single well head facility to $6,934 ton of VOC for a well pad servicing 48 wells. Because of the high VOC cost effectiveness, Regulatory Option 1 was rejected for well pads.

The second regulatory option that was evaluated for well pads was Regulatory Option 2, which would require the implementation of a component subpart VVa LDAR program. The VOC cost effectiveness of this option ranged from $15,063 for valves to $211,992 for open-ended lines. These costs were determined to be unreasonable and therefore this regulatory option was rejected.

The third regulatory option requires the implementation of a monthly LDAR program using an Optical gas imaging system with annual monitoring using a Method 21 device. The VOC cost effectiveness of this option ranged from $5,364 per ton of VOC for Model Plant 3to $245,024 per ton of VOC for Model Plant 1. This regulatory option was determined to be not cost effective and was rejected.

The fourth regulatory option would require the implementation of a monthly LDAR program using an optical imaging instrument. The emission reductions from this option could not be quantified; therefore this regulatory option was rejected.

8.5.1.2 Gathering and Boosting Stations

The first regulatory option was evaluated for gathering and boosting stations which include the processing equipment (separators, dehydrators, acid gas removal), as well as any heaters and piping. The equipment does not include any of the compressors which will be regulated separately. The VOC cost effectiveness for the gathering and boosting model plants ranged from $10,327 per ton of VOC for

Model Plant 1 to $8,174per ton of VOC for Model Plant 3. Regulatory Option 1 was rejected due to the high VOC cost effectiveness.

The second regulatory option that was evaluated for gathering and boosting stations was Regulatory Option 2. The VOC cost effectiveness of this option ranged from $6,079 for valves to $77,310 per ton of VOC for open-ended lines. These costs were determined to be unreasonable and therefore this regulatory option was also rejected.

The third regulatory option requires the implementation of a monthly LDAR program using an Optical gas imaging system with annual monitoring using a Method 21 device. The VOC cost effectiveness of this option was calculated to be $10,724 per ton of VOC for Model Plant 1 and $8,685 per ton of VOC for Model Plant 3. This regulatory option was determined to be not cost effective and was rejected.

The fourth regulatory option would require the implementation of a monthly LDAR program using an optical imaging instrument. The emission reductions from this option could not be quantified; therefore this regulatory option was rejected.

8.5.1.3 Processing Plants

The VOC cost effectiveness of the first regulatory option was calculated to be $3,352 per ton of VOC. This cost effectiveness was determined to be reasonable and therefore this regulatory option was accepted.

The second option was evaluated for processing plants and the VOC cost effectiveness ranged from $0 for open-ended lined and pressure relief devices to $4,360 for connectors. Because the emission benefits and the cost effectiveness of Regulatory Option 1 were accepted, this option was not accepted.

The third regulatory option requires the implementation of a monthly LDAR program using an Optical gas imaging system with annual monitoring using a Method 21 device. The VOC cost effectiveness of this option was calculated to be $6,462 per ton of VOC and was determined to be not cost effective. Therefore, this regulatory option was rejected.

The fourth regulatory option would require the implementation of a monthly LDAR program using an optical imaging instrument. The emission reductions from this option could not be quantified; therefore this regulatory option was rejected.

8.5.1.4 Transmission and Storage Facilities

The first regulatory option was evaluated for transmission and storage facilities which include separators and dehydrators, as well as any heaters and piping. The equipment does not include any of the compressors which will be regulated separately. This sector moves processed gas from the processing facilities to the city gates. The VOC cost effectiveness for Regulatory Option 1 was $19,769per ton of VOC. The high VOC cost effectiveness is due to the inherent low VOC concentration in the processed natural gas, therefore the VOC reductions from this sector are low in comparison to the other sectors. Regulatory Option 1 was rejected due to the high VOC cost effectiveness.

The second option was evaluated for transmission facilities and the VOC cost effectiveness ranged from $24,762 for open-ended lined to $243,525 for connectors. This option was not accepted because of the high cost effectiveness.

The third regulatory option that was evaluated for transmission and storage facilities was Regulatory Option 3. The VOC cost effectiveness of this option was calculated to be $19,723 per ton of VOC. Again, because of the low VOC content of the processed gas, the regulatory option has a low VOC reduction. This cost was determined to be unreasonable and therefore this regulatory option was also rejected.

The fourth regulatory option would require the implementation of a monthly LDAR program using an optical imaging instrument. The emission reductions from this option could not be quantified; therefore this regulatory option was rejected.

8.5.2 Nationwide Impacts of Regulatory Options

Regulatory Option 1 was selected as an option for setting standards for equipment leaks at processing plants. This option would require the implementation of an LDAR program using the subpart VVa requirements. For production facilities, 29 facilities per year are expected to be affected sources by the NSPS regulation annually. Table 8-20 provides a summary of the expected emission reductions from the implementation of this option.

Table 8-20. Nationwide Emission and Cost Analysis of Regulatory Options

Category	Estimated Number of Sources subject to NSPS	Facility Capital Cost ($)	Nationwide Emission Reductions (tpy)			VOC Cost Effectiveness ($/ton)		Methane Cost Effectiveness ($/ton)		Total Nationwide Costs (million $/year)		
			VOC	Methane	HAP	without savings	with savings	without savings	with savings	Capital Cost	Annual without savings	Annual with savings
Regulatory Option 2 (Subpart VVa LDAR Program)												
Processing Plants	29	$7,522	392	1,407	14.7	$3,352	$2,517	$931	$699	0.218	1.31	0.984

8.6 References

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APPENDIX A

E&P TANKS ANALYSIS FOR STORAGE VESSELS

Tank ID	**Sample Tank No. 1**	**Sample Tank No. 2**	**Sample Tank No. 3**	**Sample Tank No. 4**	**Sample Tank No. 5**	**Sample Tank No. 6**	**Sample Tank No. 7**	**Sample Tank No. 8**
E&P Tank Number	**Tank No. 58**	**Tank No. 59**	**Tank No. 60**	**Tank No. 61**	**Tank No. 62**	**Tank No. 63**	**Tank No. 64**	**Tank No. 65**
Total Emissions (tpy)	289.778	230.196	129.419	129.853	201.547	738.511	294.500	142.371
VOC Emissions (tpy)	43.734	111.414	101.853	63.343	154.313	578.379	205.794	89.728
Methane Emissions (tpy)	0.197	56.006	10.064	50.910	8.343	47.831	26.305	24.276
HAP Emissions (tpy)	**4.236**	**13.100**	**5.050**	**2.730**	**3.500**	**37.840**	**4.480**	**2.680**
Benzene	*0.828*	*6.343*	*0.501*	*0.285*	*0.051*	*7.568*	*0.116*	*0.219*
Toluene	*1.194*	*3.539*	*0.648*	*0.243*	*0.067*	*5.950*	*0.085*	*0.301*
E-Benzene	*0.041*	*0.083*	*0.040*	*0.008*	*0.002*	*0.086*	*0.006*	*0.020*
Xylenes	*0.165*	*0.327*	*0.233*	*0.066*	*0.046*	*0.679*	*0.018*	*0.152*
n-C6	*2.008*	*2.809*	*3.623*	*2.132*	*3.333*	*23.553*	*4.252*	*1.989*
224Trimethylp	*0.000*	*0.000*	*0.000*	*0.000*	*0.000*	*0.000*	*0.000*	*0.000*
Separator Pressure (psig)	66	66	13	64	28	95	29	44
Separator Temperature (F)	83	90	110	74	78	118	60	71
Ambient Pressure (psia)	14.7	14.7	14.7	14.7	14.7	14.7	14.7	14.7
Ambient Temperature (F)	83	90	110	74	78	118	60	71
C10+ SG	0.848	0.865	0.879	0.866	0.864	0.862	0.841	0.849
C10+ MW	234	237	294	301	281	312	224	349
API Gravity	**40.0**	**40.0**	**40.0**	**40.0**	**42.0**	**42.0**	**44.0**	**44.0**
Production Rate (bbl/day)	500	500	500	500	500	500	500	500
Reid Vapor Pressure (psia)	3.00	4.10	4.80	3.90	4.20	8.10	5.70	7.00
GOR (scf/bbl)	25.96	30.32	12.30	19.58	19.68	68.74	32.46	16.92
Heating Value of Vapor (Btu/s	398.80	1689.70	2486.42	1567.19	2261.27	2529.29	2162.56	2003.83
LP Oil Component	mol %							
H2S	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000
O2	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000
CO2	5.0200	0.2700	0.0000	0.0800	0.0400	0.0000	0.0100	0.0200
N2	0.0000	0.0100	0.0000	0.0200	0.3100	0.0200	0.0200	0.0100
C1	0.0100	2.2600	0.4700	2.6500	0.4000	2.2500	1.1300	1.2900
C2	0.0400	1.2000	0.4800	0.3900	0.6500	3.1100	1.4100	1.0300
C3	0.2000	1.3200	1.5800	0.9200	1.7500	4.1100	3.2900	2.3000
i-C4	0.2800	0.7100	0.6200	0.9800	0.9200	1.3300	0.4500	1.1200
n-C4	0.4800	1.0800	2.6100	1.4700	2.4500	3.8100	4.0200	3.2200
i-C5	0.7600	1.2000	1.8100	2.0500	2.3900	2.5400	0.7000	2.3600
n-C5	0.7400	1.1300	2.9300	2.1600	2.9500	3.5100	4.0700	2.9600
C6	1.5100	2.0000	3.8800	3.4500	2.7600	3.0900	0.9600	3.0600
C7	4.6600	6.7600	10.7300	7.9400	10.8800	8.0100	5.5900	9.5000
C8	6.6100	9.4200	12.5300	9.6900	11.6400	7.6800	5.5200	11.5900
C9	4.8700	6.5600	6.9400	6.5600	6.1800	4.4400	4.2700	6.3200
C10+	70.1100	49.2600	47.3100	56.3900	52.0200	47.6400	63.0500	47.7200
Benzene	0.5700	4.9100	0.5800	0.4300	0.0700	1.3400	0.1600	0.3600
Toluene	2.1400	7.7900	1.9900	1.1000	0.2700	2.6800	0.3700	1.4900
E-Benzene	0.1700	0.4600	0.2900	0.1000	0.0200	0.0900	0.0700	0.2600
Xylenes	0.7600	2.0500	1.9000	0.9000	0.5500	0.8000	0.2500	2.2900
n-C6	1.0700	1.6100	3.3500	2.7200	3.7500	3.5500	4.6600	3.1000
224Trimethylp	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000
	100.0000	100.0000	100.0000	100.0000	100.0000	100.0000	100.0000	100.0000

Tank ID	**Sample Tank No. 9**	**Sample Tank No. 10**	**Sample Tank No. 11**	**Sample Tank No. 12**	**Sample Tank No. 13**	**Sample Tank No. 14**	**Sample Tank No. 15**
E&P Tank Number	**Tank No. 66**	**Tank No. 67**	**Tank No. 68**	**Tank No. 69**	**Tank No. 70**	**Tank No. 71**	**Tank No. 72**
Total Emissions (tpy)	357.688	134.789	314.446	505.131	306.443	256.029	1061.274
VOC Emissions (tpy)	243.348	79.118	224.158	437.555	252.987	204.571	987.647
Methane Emissions (tpy)	56.846	37.876	18.892	21.472	15.159	21.237	32.940
HAP Emissions (tpy)	**5.590**	**5.680**	**7.030**	**13.450**	**15.330**	**6.500**	**56.780**
Benzene	*0.244*	*1.308*	*0.242*	*0.119*	*1.048*	*0.464*	*5.791*
Toluene	*0.440*	*1.184*	*0.385*	*0.146*	*1.488*	*0.927*	*6.793*
E-Benzene	*0.039*	*0.029*	*0.043*	*0.019*	*0.062*	*0.051*	*0.303*
Xylenes	*0.208*	*0.488*	*0.167*	*0.162*	*0.734*	*0.590*	*4.255*
n-C6	*4.661*	*2.671*	*6.191*	*13.008*	*12.001*	*4.468*	*39.634*
224Trimethylp	*0.000*	*0.000*	*0.000*	*0.000*	*0.000*	*0.000*	*0.000*
Separator Pressure (psig)	60	41	20	23	24	52	45
Separator Temperature (F)	60	72	68	85	114	108	140
Ambient Pressure (psia)	14.7	14.7	14.7	14.7	14.7	14.7	14.7
Ambient Temperature (F)	60	72	68	85	114	108	140
C10+ SG	0.878	0.854	0.926	0.848	0.87	0.886	0.893
C10+ MW	270	270	290	275	274	269	277
API Gravity	**44.0**	**45.0**	**45.0**	**46.0**	**46.0**	**47.0**	**47.0**
Production Rate (bbl/day)	500	500	500	500	500	500	500
Reid Vapor Pressure (psia)	10.10	5.20	8.10	4.70	5.00	5.30	6.00
GOR (scf/bbl)	41.30	17.66	30.80	43.26	26.30	24.28	78.80
Heating Value of Vapor (Btu/s	2060.54	1812.87	2234.66	2651.81	2611.90	2491.55	3120.85
LP Oil Component							
H2S	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0500	0.0700	0.0000	0.0000
O2	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000
CO2	0.0500	0.0400	0.3100	0.2400	0.1700	0.0000	0.0400
N2	0.0000	0.0100	0.0200	0.0100	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000
C1	2.3400	1.8400	0.6900	0.9400	0.6200	0.9700	1.2100
C2	1.5600	0.6100	0.9400	0.6600	0.5200	0.7700	0.7600
C3	3.8500	1.2700	2.7300	2.1500	1.6800	2.0200	2.9200
i-C4	1.3600	0.8900	1.7300	1.1100	0.9900	1.5500	4.1500
n-C4	3.9600	1.5600	3.9300	4.5400	3.1200	2.1400	3.0600
i-C5	3.1300	1.8000	3.8800	3.0600	2.4500	3.3400	3.9300
n-C5	4.0300	1.8800	4.1000	4.9800	3.4200	2.8800	3.0900
C6	3.6100	3.4300	5.1500	4.1100	4.4300	3.2600	4.9100
C7	7.7900	10.7400	12.0700	10.2100	8.8900	9.0800	13.0800
C8	13.7700	12.6900	18.2000	10.6800	18.5800	11.7900	14.6200
C9	4.8300	7.8700	8.8800	5.4300	8.7200	5.8500	7.6300
C10+	42.2300	43.0100	27.3600	45.2800	36.2600	49.3100	31.1400
Benzene	0.2400	1.5600	0.3000	0.0600	0.5300	0.3000	0.6900
Toluene	1.3400	3.8100	1.4700	0.2100	1.9700	1.6000	1.9400
E-Benzene	0.3200	0.2200	0.4400	0.0700	0.1900	0.2100	0.1900
Xylenes	1.9700	4.1900	1.9600	0.6700	2.5500	2.7300	2.9800
n-C6	3.6200	2.5800	5.8400	5.5400	4.8400	2.2000	3.6600
224Trimethylp	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000
	100.0000	100.0000	100.0000	100.0000	100.0000	100.0000	100.0000

Tank ID	**Sample Tank No. 16**	**Sample Tank No. 17**	**Sample Tank No. 18**	**Sample Tank No. 19**	**Sample Tank No. 20**	**Sample Tank No. 21**
E&P Tank Number	**Tank No. 73**	**Tank No. 74**	**Tank No. 75**	**Tank No. 76**	**Tank No. 77**	**Tank No. 78**
Total Emissions (tpy)	464.597	214.658	1331.488	3972.618	540.533	1228.897
VOC Emissions (tpy)	383.349	135.482	1146.617	2331.105	399.555	940.078
Methane Emissions (tpy)	18.132	32.283	31.967	755.826	38.624	105.184
HAP Emissions (tpy)	**10.980**	**7.530**	**77.780**	**82.380**	**7.580**	**13.230**
Benzene	*0.222*	*1.269*	*7.661*	*12.470*	*2.447*	*0.543*
Toluene	*0.208*	*0.708*	*3.775*	*23.584*	*1.643*	*0.466*
E-Benzene	*0.058*	*0.019*	*0.113*	*0.056*	*0.051*	*0.006*
Xylenes	*0.193*	*0.411*	*0.929*	*0.635*	*0.256*	*0.052*
n-C6	*10.296*	*5.124*	*65.304*	*45.632*	*3.186*	*12.160*
224Trimethylp	*0.000*	*0.000*	*0.000*	*0.000*	*0.000*	*0.000*
Separator Pressure (psig)	40	31	50	700	20	98
Separator Temperature (F)	76	76	125	100	48	40
Ambient Pressure (psia)	14.7	14.7	14.7	14.7	14.7	14.7
Ambient Temperature (F)	76	76	125	100	48	40
C10+ SG	0.885	0.839	0.842	0.878	0.877	0.929
C10+ MW	318	296	287	178	179	324
API Gravity	**47.0**	**49.0**	**49.0**	**50.0**	**50.0**	**51.0**
Production Rate (bbl/day)	500	500	500	500	500	500
Reid Vapor Pressure (psia)	10.60	5.00	8.90	7.40	9.40	11.20
GOR (scf/bbl)	41.32	24.48	106.60	491.90	56.44	128.16
Heating Value of Vapor (Btu/s	2421.27	2045.68	2822.40	1916.15	2275.04	2279.83
LP Oil Component						
H2S	0.0000	0.0000	1.2800	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000
O2	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000
CO2	0.0400	0.0800	0.0300	0.4200	0.0100	0.0100
N2	0.8400	0.0100	0.0000	0.0700	0.0100	0.0400
C1	0.7800	1.4000	1.2700	15.3300	1.1400	3.2200
C2	0.7500	0.9700	2.0800	8.9600	1.6000	2.9500
C3	3.5300	1.3500	4.5700	8.2100	4.0100	6.4800
i-C4	2.0700	1.0500	1.8900	2.3100	2.3400	2.2000
n-C4	6.8800	2.4200	6.4800	4.1900	4.7300	8.5300
i-C5	5.0000	2.7100	3.8800	2.4300	4.1700	4.6800
n-C5	7.4800	3.2900	7.0400	2.3500	2.9700	7.4700
C6	4.1000	4.6900	3.0500	3.1100	4.3800	5.7300
C7	11.3200	11.3500	6.8200	8.4700	8.8100	15.8300
C8	11.7900	12.4100	7.7800	8.8400	12.3800	12.6400
C9	6.1100	9.3100	7.2300	3.7100	5.4900	4.0800
C10+	32.0700	36.0900	37.9300	23.5600	32.1400	18.1600
Benzene	0.1400	1.4000	0.8300	0.8200	2.8900	0.3400
Toluene	0.3800	2.3200	1.0200	4.6700	6.4200	1.0200
E-Benzene	0.2700	0.1600	0.0700	0.0300	0.5700	0.0400
Xylenes	1.0300	4.0200	0.6500	0.3900	3.3000	0.4000
n-C6	5.4200	4.9700	6.1000	2.1300	2.6400	6.1800
224Trimethylp	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000
	100.0000	100.0000	100.0000	100.0000	100.0000	100.0000

Tank ID	**Sample Tank No. 22**	**Sample Tank No. 23**	**Sample Tank No. 24**	**Sample Tank No. 25**	**Sample Tank No. 26**	**Sample Tank No. 27**
E&P Tank Number	**Tank No. 79**	**Tank No. 80**	**Tank No. 81**	**Tank No. 82**	**Tank No. 83**	**Tank No. 84**
Total Emissions (tpy)	362.298	790.092	557.188	5007.636	175.911	714.052
VOC Emissions (tpy)	175.304	665.349	483.599	3386.300	77.584	639.895
Methane Emissions (tpy)	109.676	24.115	10.288	842.206	54.660	18.553
HAP Emissions (tpy)	**7.150**	**28.770**	**14.580**	**101.610**	**4.770**	**30.190**
Benzene	*0.353*	*3.892*	*1.930*	*9.782*	*0.929*	*4.165*
Toluene	*0.102*	*6.465*	*1.651*	*12.547*	*0.909*	*2.542*
E-Benzene	*0.120*	*0.119*	*0.055*	*0.040*	*0.050*	*0.192*
Xylenes	*0.437*	*2.017*	*0.631*	*0.716*	*0.221*	*1.424*
n-C6	*6.133*	*16.273*	*10.317*	*78.528*	*2.665*	*21.871*
224Trimethylp	*0.000*	*0.000*	*0.000*	*0.000*	*0.000*	*0.000*
Separator Pressure (psig)	115	30	15	770	39	38
Separator Temperature (F)	73	100	86	100	66	95
Ambient Pressure (psia)	14.7	14.7	14.7	14.7	14.7	14.7
Ambient Temperature (F)	73	100	86	100	66	95
C10+ SG	0.873	0.901	0.878	0.858	0.854	0.823
C10+ MW	200	220	254	195	175	375
API Gravity	**54.0**	**54.0**	**54.0**	**55.0**	**57.0**	**57.0**
Production Rate (bbl/day)	500	500	500	500	500	500
Reid Vapor Pressure (psia)	5.30	9.40	10.30	7.80	5.70	9.60
GOR (scf/bbl)	51.34	68.32	47.12	578.20	25.46	57.38
Heating Value of Vapor (Btu/s	1678.80	2676.21	2764.90	2043.18	1632.00	2897.16
LP Oil Component						
H2S	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000
O2	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000
CO2	0.0900	0.1100	0.0200	0.5500	0.0700	0.0400
N2	0.0300	0.0200	0.0100	0.0300	0.0000	0.0000
C1	3.5600	0.7100	0.3300	16.1500	1.7200	0.7000
C2	1.4300	1.5400	1.0900	7.1400	0.9000	1.0900
C3	1.8700	4.5900	3.8300	9.6600	1.3800	3.5600
i-C4	0.6800	2.3400	3.7000	3.8100	1.0000	2.9000
n-C4	2.0000	4.4400	4.8700	5.9600	1.4900	6.2100
i-C5	1.6600	3.9000	4.4800	3.5300	1.4600	6.0400
n-C5	2.0600	3.8000	3.9800	3.7200	1.5300	5.8400
C6	2.4100	5.0900	6.0500	3.8400	4.0600	7.3200
C7	15.0800	12.9700	15.6400	8.7600	14.5700	13.0000
C8	25.1900	19.0700	17.5800	8.9200	23.7200	12.2200
C9	12.4900	6.9500	6.1000	3.1000	13.7700	7.9600
C10+	24.3900	18.9200	21.1300	17.9300	20.9800	20.0200
Benzene	0.2400	1.2000	1.0500	0.5800	1.4900	1.2200
Toluene	0.2100	5.5400	2.6000	2.3000	4.5300	2.0500
E-Benzene	0.6600	0.2500	0.2200	0.0200	0.6700	0.3800
Xylenes	2.7600	4.8300	2.8900	0.4200	3.4200	3.2200
n-C6	3.1900	3.7300	4.4300	3.5800	3.2400	6.2300
224Trimethylp	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000
	100.0000	100.0000	100.0000	100.0000	100.0000	100.0000

Tank ID	**Sample Tank No. 28**	**Sample Tank No. 29**	**Sample Tank No. 30**	**Sample Tank No. 31**	**Sample Tank No. 32**	**Sample Tank No. 33**
E&P Tank Number	**Tank No. 85**	**Tank No. 86**	**Tank No. 87**	**Tank No. 88**	**Tank No. 89**	**Tank No. 90**
Total Emissions (tpy)	801.228	983.881	4326.573	3074.670	2951.879	616.490
VOC Emissions (tpy)	757.176	750.313	2406.579	1892.668	1439.584	332.126
Methane Emissions (tpy)	5.307	49.123	1088.727	746.499	999.175	120.918
HAP Emissions (tpy)	**29.510**	**14.080**	**58.180**	**47.230**	**44.040**	**9.140**
Benzene	*3.415*	*1.119*	*4.653*	*5.891*	*1.409*	*0.576*
Toluene	*5.329*	*1.453*	*5.785*	*6.575*	*2.934*	*1.658*
E-Benzene	*0.192*	*0.049*	*0.186*	*0.022*	*0.159*	*0.079*
Xylenes	*1.786*	*0.263*	*0.989*	*0.316*	*1.136*	*0.806*
n-C6	*18.788*	*11.194*	*46.561*	*34.427*	*38.406*	*6.016*
224Trimethylp	*0.000*	*0.000*	*0.000*	*0.000*	*0.000*	*0.000*
Separator Pressure (psig)	65	54	870	600	780	60
Separator Temperature (F)	80	60	78	70	70	56
Ambient Pressure (psia)	14.7	14.7	14.7	14.7	14.7	14.7
Ambient Temperature (F)	80	60	78	70	70	60
C10+ SG	0.899	0.868	0.868	0.847	0.905	0.905
C10+ MW	166	268	268	176	174	174
API Gravity	**57.0**	**57.0**	**57.0**	**57.0**	**58.0**	**58.0**
Production Rate (bbl/day)	500	500	500	500	500	500
Reid Vapor Pressure (psia)	4.80	13.10	13.10	7.50	8.00	8.00
GOR (scf/bbl)	61.26	97.00	578.20	396.24	436.98	79.54
Heating Value of Vapor (Btu/s	3046.83	2390.47	1789.23	1831.51	1633.60	1851.14
LP Oil Component						
H2S	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000
O2	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000
CO2	0.0100	0.0800	0.4200	0.5800	0.2700	0.0800
N2	0.0000	0.0000	0.0800	0.0200	0.0200	0.0100
C1	0.1500	1.4800	21.2000	16.0200	20.3000	3.3900
C2	0.5700	2.9100	8.2900	4.1200	5.1800	2.4300
C3	2.4100	6.9600	8.5400	6.9000	5.6800	3.8400
i-C4	1.7300	2.6300	2.3000	2.7500	1.4200	1.3000
n-C4	3.5500	7.2100	5.8400	4.9100	4.1400	3.2000
i-C5	4.1400	4.6400	3.3500	3.6000	2.5400	2.4100
n-C5	3.8600	5.7100	4.0400	3.9000	3.1000	2.5600
C6	6.5100	5.0100	3.4200	3.9500	3.7700	3.7700
C7	18.7100	13.5500	9.1200	10.3800	11.2200	13.2600
C8	19.4300	15.0600	10.0900	11.3000	14.7500	22.4400
C9	6.8400	6.2300	4.1700	4.2100	7.0600	11.1300
C10+	15.5200	18.8400	12.5900	19.2800	13.5400	16.0600
Benzene	1.1800	0.5900	0.4000	0.8200	0.1800	0.4100
Toluene	5.2100	2.5000	1.6800	3.0600	1.2600	3.8600
E-Benzene	0.4600	0.2400	0.1600	0.0300	0.2000	0.5200
Xylenes	4.8600	1.4900	1.0000	0.5000	1.6700	6.1500
n-C6	4.8600	4.8700	3.3100	3.6700	3.7000	3.1800
224Trimethylp	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000
	100.0000	100.0000	100.0000	100.0000	100.0000	100.0000

Tank ID	Sample Tank No. 34	Sample Tank No. 35	Sample Tank No. 36	Sample Tank No. 37	Sample Tank No. 38	Sample Tank No. 39
E&P Tank Number	**Tank No. 91**	**Tank No. 92**	**Tank No. 93**	**Tank No. 94**	**Tank No. 95**	**Tank No. 96**
Total Emissions (tpy)	2575.122	2774.089	653.459	3495.242	363.650	4744.399
VOC Emissions (tpy)	1494.749	2092.925	394.781	2876.860	223.772	3658.384
Methane Emissions (tpy)	581.208	346.071	121.446	169.818	84.912	381.967
HAP Emissions (tpy)	**65.980**	**48.710**	**14.210**	**93.030**	**10.760**	**89.970**
Benzene	*9.303*	*2.750*	*0.871*	*10.232*	*0.500*	*11.564*
Toluene	*14.114*	*2.311*	*2.688*	*11.558*	*0.279*	*11.735*
E-Benzene	*0.019*	*0.128*	*0.136*	*0.034*	*0.060*	*0.033*
Xylenes	*0.409*	*0.872*	*1.400*	*0.580*	*0.256*	*0.472*
n-C6	*42.130*	*42.650*	*9.111*	*70.629*	*9.661*	*66.162*
224Trimethylp	*0.000*	*0.000*	*0.000*	*0.000*	*0.000*	*0.000*
Separator Pressure (psig)	500	300	110	750	85	730
Separator Temperature (F)	84	80	72	90	85	84
Ambient Pressure (psia)	14.7	14.7	14.7	14.7	14.7	14.7
Ambient Temperature (F)	84	80	72	90	85	84
C10+ SG	0.909	0.882	0.901	0.898	0.9	0.898
C10+ MW	204	296	162	215	202	225
API Gravity	**58.0**	**58.0**	**59.0**	**60.0**	**61.0**	**61.0**
Production Rate (bbl/day)	500	500	500	500	500	500
Reid Vapor Pressure (psia)	9.10	10.60	10.00	9.40	7.00	9.80
GOR (scf/bbl)	323.88	287.10	79.90	320.48	45.04	475.20
Heating Value of Vapor (Btu/s	1892.64	2289.04	1946.32	2541.49	1921.87	2340.56
LP Oil Component						
H2S	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000
O2	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000
CO2	0.2300	0.0300	0.0800	0.3400	0.0400	0.4100
N2	0.0600	0.0900	0.0100	0.0200	0.0200	0.0300
C1	12.9800	8.4300	3.3900	3.7500	2.6100	7.3900
C2	5.7800	4.2300	2.4300	4.7700	1.1600	6.6400
C3	4.6400	5.9100	3.8400	9.2600	2.2100	10.9400
i-C4	2.0900	5.1700	1.3000	4.8100	0.9300	4.5800
n-C4	4.1800	6.2200	3.2000	7.0200	2.4900	8.3400
i-C5	4.9600	8.9100	2.4100	5.5900	2.1300	5.5000
n-C5	4.0700	4.9700	2.5600	6.1200	2.9200	5.8200
C6	6.0700	9.1100	3.7700	6.1300	3.5400	5.3200
C7	13.1100	11.3400	13.2600	12.8200	19.5300	11.2900
C8	11.9500	10.3900	22.4400	12.5200	27.1600	11.1800
C9	4.8600	5.9600	11.1300	4.0100	14.7000	3.1900
C10+	14.1100	11.7500	16.0600	11.4200	13.8800	8.8000
Benzene	1.1400	0.3700	0.4100	1.1000	0.2900	1.1400
Toluene	5.4100	0.9800	3.8600	3.7900	0.4700	3.7600
E-Benzene	0.0200	0.1500	0.5200	0.0300	0.2600	0.0300
Xylenes	0.5000	1.1900	6.1500	0.5900	1.2600	0.5000
n-C6	3.8400	4.8000	3.1800	5.9100	4.4000	5.1400
224Trimethylp	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000
	100.0000	100.0000	100.0000	100.0000	100.0000	100.0000

Tank ID	**Sample Tank No. 40**	**Sample Tank No. 41**	**Sample Tank No. 42**	**Sample Tank No. 43**	**Sample Tank No. 44**	**Sample Tank No. 45**
E&P Tank Number	**Tank No. 97**	**Tank No. 98**	**Tank No. 99**	**Tank No. 100**	**Tank No. 101**	**Tank No. 102**
Total Emissions (tpy)	907.495	277.197	3410.034	2122.607	8152.118	6780.555
VOC Emissions (tpy)	734.651	158.333	2732.261	1066.705	5678.554	4276.160
Methane Emissions (tpy)	49.578	75.426	159.904	736.341	1206.981	1045.765
HAP Emissions (tpy)	**24.160**	**8.820**	**67.500**	**64.680**	**81.710**	**48.890**
Benzene	*1.573*	*0.204*	*9.290*	*9.500*	*10.844*	*5.934*
Toluene	*3.102*	*0.854*	*9.192*	*15.007*	*8.516*	*1.416*
E-Benzene	*0.094*	*0.042*	*0.016*	*0.161*	*0.012*	*0.222*
Xylenes	*1.079*	*0.375*	*0.371*	*1.585*	*0.288*	*1.359*
n-C6	*18.314*	*7.344*	*48.628*	*38.425*	*62.050*	*39.961*
224Trimethylp	*0.000*	*0.000*	*0.000*	*0.000*	*0.000*	*0.000*
Separator Pressure (psig)	57	72	730	580	730	807
Separator Temperature (F)	82	80	80	77	80	96
Ambient Pressure (psia)	14.7	14.7	14.7	14.7	14.7	14.7
Ambient Temperature (F)	82	80	80	77	80	96
C10+ SG	0.884	0.869	0.883	0.85	0.895	0.811
C10+ MW	240	190	226	190	197	173
API Gravity	**62.0**	**63.0**	**63.0**	**64.0**	**64.0**	**66.0**
Production Rate (bbl/day)	500	500	500	500	500	500
Reid Vapor Pressure (psia)	10.40	7.00	11.90	6.40	11.00	11.80
GOR (scf/bbl)	84.20	36.56	321.62	309.64	924.96	804.54
Heating Value of Vapor (Btu/s	2521.70	1805.12	2477.18	1622.20	2083.02	2013.21
LP Oil Component						
H2S	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000
O2	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000
CO2	0.0800	0.0400	0.3200	0.0700	0.5600	0.2200
N2	0.0100	0.0300	0.0200	0.0700	0.0300	0.0800
C1	1.4000	2.3500	3.4800	16.3500	16.9100	16.2600
C2	1.7700	1.0000	5.5300	3.6400	8.6200	11.7100
C3	4.8200	2.0700	10.1700	3.5600	12.0400	11.6100
i-C4	2.8200	0.7100	4.9900	1.6900	5.2700	4.3900
n-C4	5.9700	2.2600	8.1400	2.9800	9.0700	7.5600
i-C5	4.3100	1.7000	5.8700	2.6800	5.6500	4.5200
n-C5	4.1900	2.7400	6.1600	2.7900	5.8200	3.9400
C6	6.5100	3.4900	5.7200	3.8200	5.1000	3.3600
C7	17.7500	17.7300	12.3800	18.1400	8.0600	5.9200
C8	18.6400	27.9100	12.3100	19.4700	7.5500	11.6900
C9	7.4400	16.1500	3.7900	4.5900	2.2200	5.9200
C10+	11.6100	12.2800	9.9100	6.7300	5.6700	8.9300
Benzene	0.5600	0.1600	1.2800	1.2200	0.8500	0.3700
Toluene	3.2800	1.9800	4.0500	6.0700	2.3800	0.3000
E-Benzene	0.2600	0.2500	0.0200	0.1800	0.0100	0.1400
Xylenes	3.4100	2.5800	0.5300	2.0600	0.2900	1.0100
n-C6	5.1700	4.5700	5.3300	3.8900	3.9000	2.0700
224Trimethylp	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000
	100.0000	100.0000	100.0000	100.0000	100.0000	100.0000

Tank ID	**Sample Tank No. 46**	**Sample Tank No. 47**	**Sample Tank No. 48**	**Sample Tank No. 49**	**Sample Tank No. 50**	**Sample Tank No. 51**
E&P Tank Number	**Tank No. 103**	**Tank No. 1**	**Tank No. 2**	**Tank No. 3**	**Tank No. 4**	**Tank No. 5**
Total Emissions (tpy)	927.902	95.816	112.738	74.503	155.244	93.073
VOC Emissions (tpy)	623.038	6.175	61.936	28.446	61.470	51.471
Methane Emissions (tpy)	167.129	0.115	1.927	0.309	46.064	0.440
HAP Emissions (tpy)	**20.320**	**0.460**	**2.960**	**0.990**	**1.760**	**3.190**
Benzene	*1.625*	*0.006*	*0.076*	*0.012*	*0.010*	*0.218*
Toluene	*1.876*	*0.013*	*0.060*	*0.031*	*0.037*	*0.074*
E-Benzene	*0.062*	*0.007*	*0.019*	*0.002*	*0.025*	*0.006*
Xylenes	*0.696*	*0.018*	*0.105*	*0.041*	*0.069*	*0.048*
n-C6	*16.059*	*0.421*	*2.704*	*0.904*	*1.616*	*2.845*
224Trimethylp	*0.000*	*0.000*	*0.000*	*0.000*	*0.000*	*0.000*
Separator Pressure (psig)	170	45	22	20	53	15
Separator Temperature (F)	75	106	155	160	101	120
Ambient Pressure (psia)	14.7	14.7	14.7	14.7	14.7	14.7
Ambient Temperature (F)	75	106	155	160	101	120
C10+ SG	0.801	0.972	0.972	0.952	0.961	0.984
C10+ MW	196	425	436	458	394	551
API Gravity	**68.0**	**15.0**	**17.0**	**18.0**	**19.0**	**19.0**
Production Rate (bbl/day)	500	500	500	500	500	500
Reid Vapor Pressure (psia)	12.50	0.80	2.00	0.60	2.30	4.80
GOR (scf/bbl)	106.60	8.88	9.60	6.44	17.78	7.52
Heating Value of Vapor (Btu/s	2081.33	181.43	1738.61	1076.97	1365.68	1718.17
LP Oil Component						
H2S	0.0000	0.1100	0.0000	0.0400	0.5100	0.1400
O2	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000
CO2	0.0100	2.8500	1.3000	1.5400	1.1900	1.5000
N2	0.0100	0.0000	0.0000	0.0300	0.0100	0.0000
C1	4.9300	0.0100	0.1500	0.0300	1.5300	0.0400
C2	2.5800	0.0100	0.4000	0.0400	0.5300	0.2400
C3	3.4200	0.0200	0.7800	0.2200	0.8100	0.8500
i-C4	3.4300	0.0500	0.5600	0.1600	0.5000	0.6500
n-C4	3.7300	0.1800	1.2600	0.4700	1.2000	1.6500
i-C5	5.5500	0.3200	0.8700	0.4300	1.1500	2.1900
n-C5	3.6500	0.4500	1.2400	0.6500	1.3400	3.1500
C6	8.0700	0.6000	1.9800	0.6100	1.7500	4.7300
C7	14.6500	1.7200	3.4500	1.5800	3.6200	6.2500
C8	13.2600	2.1800	4.2600	2.0700	3.5300	10.2800
C9	7.8000	1.8400	3.6600	2.2800	3.5300	5.9300
C10+	19.6300	88.7100	78.1500	88.9700	76.8100	57.9100
Benzene	0.5400	0.0100	0.0500	0.0100	0.0100	0.3000
Toluene	1.9200	0.0600	0.0900	0.0600	0.1000	0.2600
E-Benzene	0.1700	0.0800	0.0600	0.0100	0.1600	0.0500
Xylenes	2.2200	0.2300	0.3700	0.1800	0.5100	0.4300
n-C6	4.4300	0.5700	1.3700	0.6200	1.2100	3.4500
224Trimethylp	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000
	100.0000	100.0000	100.0000	100.0000	100.0000	100.0000

Tank ID	**Sample Tank No. 52**	**Sample Tank No. 53**	**Sample Tank No. 54**	**Sample Tank No. 55**	**Sample Tank No. 56**	**Sample Tank No. 57**
E&P Tank Number	**Tank No. 6**	**Tank No. 7**	**Tank No. 8**	**Tank No. 9**	**Tank No. 10**	**Tank No. 11**
Total Emissions (tpy)	24.484	26.091	29.739	114.630	42.075	
VOC Emissions (tpy)	3.087	17.629	11.288	74.707	8.263	
Methane Emissions (tpy)	15.587	2.836	5.908	25.400	27.176	
HAP Emissions (tpy)	**0.190**	**0.510**	**0.330**	**2.120**	**0.090**	
Benzene	*0.003*	*0.007*	*0.013*	*0.039*	*0.028*	
Toluene	*0.006*	*0.014*	*0.008*	*0.071*	*0.010*	
E-Benzene	*0.000*	*0.001*	*0.003*	*0.007*	*0.000*	
Xylenes	*0.005*	*0.012*	*0.007*	*0.090*	*0.001*	
n-C6	*0.175*	*0.474*	*0.298*	*1.919*	*0.052*	
224Trimethylp	*0.000*	*0.000*	*0.000*	*0.000*	*0.000*	
Separator Pressure (psig)	23	17	18	54	35	
Separator Temperature (F)	79	106	75	125	76	
Ambient Pressure (psia)	14.7	14.7	14.7	14.7	14.7	
Ambient Temperature (F)	79	106	75	125	76	
C10+ SG	0.947	0.967	0.963	0.943	0.923	
C10+ MW	368	383	401	363	278	
API Gravity	**20.0**	**20.0**	**20.0**	**21.0**	**23.0**	
Production Rate (bbl/day)	500	500	500	500	500	
Reid Vapor Pressure (psia)	1.20	3.30	3.80	1.10	1.80	
GOR (scf/bbl)	4.98	2.82	3.94	13.90	8.52	
Heating Value of Vapor (Btu/s	1067.32	2208.23	1236.41	1980.20	1192.63	
LP Oil Component						
H2S	0.0100	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	
O2	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	
CO2	0.0700	0.0000	0.2500	0.0000	0.0600	
N2	0.0900	0.0000	0.2100	0.0100	0.0100	
C1	1.2500	0.1900	0.5300	1.8000	1.7700	
C2	0.2000	0.2300	0.3300	0.5400	0.2900	
C3	0.0800	0.7500	0.7500	0.5200	0.3700	
i-C4	0.0900	0.4900	0.4900	0.2800	0.2300	
n-C4	0.1800	1.5700	1.5000	0.9200	0.3100	
i-C5	0.4000	1.5300	1.3500	0.9800	0.4900	
n-C5	0.4500	1.9100	1.7700	0.9700	0.2400	
C6	1.0500	2.7500	2.3700	1.6800	0.2500	
C7	2.3300	3.9000	4.3000	3.0100	0.5900	
C8	2.9800	6.8100	5.5200	3.7300	0.5000	
C9	2.6000	4.0100	3.5700	3.5400	0.2500	
C10+	87.0300	73.0300	74.2800	80.2500	94.2100	
Benzene	0.0200	0.0400	0.1000	0.0300	0.1100	
Toluene	0.1100	0.2200	0.1900	0.1400	0.1200	
E-Benzene	0.0200	0.0500	0.1900	0.0300	0.0100	
Xylenes	0.2700	0.5100	0.4700	0.4500	0.0500	
n-C6	0.7700	2.0100	1.8300	1.1200	0.1400	
224Trimethylp	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	
	100.0000	100.0000	100.0000	100.0000	100.0000	0.0000

Tank ID	Sample Tank No. 58	Sample Tank No. 59	Sample Tank No. 60	Sample Tank No. 61	Sample Tank No. 62	Sample Tank No. 63
E&P Tank Number	**Tank No. 12**	**Tank No. 13**	**Tank No. 14**	**Tank No. 15**	**Tank No. 16**	**Tank No. 17**
Total Emissions (tpy)	134.719	26.214	195.573	142.068	191.224	35.095
VOC Emissions (tpy)	63.729	5.207	109.615	69.135	105.838	25.578
Methane Emissions (tpy)	16.689	12.924	7.759	5.438	4.313	3.029
HAP Emissions (tpy)	**1.170**	**0.430**	**2.810**	**1.760**	**2.110**	**0.750**
Benzene	*0.020*	*0.008*	*0.033*	*0.024*	*0.041*	*0.011*
Toluene	*0.014*	*0.032*	*0.032*	*0.053*	*0.079*	*0.022*
E-Benzene	*0.007*	*0.002*	*0.023*	*0.003*	*0.003*	*0.003*
Xylenes	*0.027*	*0.019*	*0.064*	*0.041*	*0.016*	*0.011*
n-C6	*1.104*	*0.371*	*2.659*	*1.640*	*1.969*	*0.701*
224Trimethylp	*0.000*	*0.000*	*0.000*	*0.000*	*0.000*	*0.000*
Separator Pressure (psig)	30	20	20	22	20	19
Separator Temperature (F)	66	122	88	86	68	133
Ambient Pressure (psia)	14.7	14.7	14.7	14.7	14.7	14.7
Ambient Temperature (F)	66	122	88	86	68	133
C10+ SG	0.946	0.926	0.945	0.944	0.964	0.928
C10+ MW	382	336	381	404	444	327
API Gravity	**23.0**	**24.0**	**24.0**	**24.0**	**24.0**	**25.0**
Production Rate (bbl/day)	500	500	500	500	500	500
Reid Vapor Pressure (psia)	4.00	0.60	3.90	4.60	4.80	4.10
GOR (scf/bbl)	15.42	4.60	19.12	13.74	17.84	3.48
Heating Value of Vapor (Btu/s	1553.86	1059.39	1747.39	1543.44	1703.42	2314.31
LP Oil Component						
H2S	0.4400	0.0000	0.5200	0.4500	0.0000	0.0000
O2	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000
CO2	0.6400	0.1200	0.9600	1.1500	1.4200	0.0500
N2	0.0100	0.1000	0.1200	0.0200	0.0200	0.0000
C1	1.0700	0.9400	0.4900	0.3600	0.2700	0.2500
C2	0.5400	0.0500	0.6500	0.5000	0.6200	0.4900
C3	1.4100	0.0700	1.7300	1.5900	1.9400	1.1600
i-C4	0.7000	0.0600	0.7400	0.7600	1.1000	0.6000
n-C4	1.9400	0.1000	2.4600	2.4000	3.0100	1.5900
i-C5	1.8900	0.2400	1.7900	1.7300	2.1900	1.4300
n-C5	2.3600	0.2300	2.3100	2.1400	3.2100	1.4400
C6	2.7100	0.9100	2.6100	2.6400	3.9300	1.9900
C7	5.1800	2.8000	5.3300	5.5200	5.6800	3.5100
C8	5.3700	4.2200	5.5400	6.0700	11.3000	4.4100
C9	3.9800	4.3400	4.2100	4.6000	6.7600	4.4400
C10+	68.6500	84.5400	67.0700	66.9000	54.5000	76.8100
Benzene	0.0500	0.0200	0.0400	0.0400	0.0800	0.0300
Toluene	0.1100	0.2100	0.1100	0.2600	0.4700	0.1500
E-Benzene	0.1500	0.0300	0.2000	0.0400	0.0400	0.0400
Xylenes	0.6500	0.3100	0.6300	0.5800	0.2900	0.1800
n-C6	2.1500	0.7100	2.4900	2.2500	3.1700	1.4300
224Trimethylp	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000
	100.0000	100.0000	100.0000	100.0000	100.0000	100.0000

Tank ID	Sample Tank No. 64	Sample Tank No. 65	Sample Tank No. 66	Sample Tank No. 67	Sample Tank No. 68	Sample Tank No. 69
E&P Tank Number	**Tank No. 18**	**Tank No. 19**	**Tank No. 20**	**Tank No. 21**	**Tank No. 22**	**Tank No. 23**
Total Emissions (tpy)	139.887	70.761	171.538	38.394	215.631	148.757
VOC Emissions (tpy)	89.426	46.290	110.120	12.834	164.956	138.780
Methane Emissions (tpy)	21.590	4.142	15.382	16.424	8.875	1.515
HAP Emissions (tpy)	**1.190**	**2.570**	**1.670**	**0.720**	**4.240**	**5.310**
Benzene	*0.011*	*0.371*	*0.013*	*0.224*	*0.985*	*1.086*
Toluene	*0.035*	*0.697*	*0.017*	*0.209*	*0.787*	*0.854*
E-Benzene	*0.010*	*0.039*	*0.004*	*0.007*	*0.020*	*0.025*
Xylenes	*0.025*	*0.176*	*0.025*	*0.066*	*0.118*	*0.122*
n-C6	*1.109*	*1.292*	*1.613*	*0.216*	*2.331*	*3.227*
224Trimethylp	*0.000*	*0.000*	*0.000*	*0.000*	*0.000*	*0.000*
Separator Pressure (psig)	30	25	31	23	17	20
Separator Temperature (F)	60	136	64	79	86	120
Ambient Pressure (psia)	14.7	14.7	14.7	14.7	14.7	14.7
Ambient Temperature (F)	60	136	64	79	86	120
C10+ SG	0.94	0.916	0.938	0.908	0.946	0.932
C10+ MW	380	431	340	324	323	326
API Gravity	**25.0**	**27.0**	**27.0**	**29.0**	**29.0**	**29.0**
Production Rate (bbl/day)	500	500	500	500	500	500
Reid Vapor Pressure (psia)	4.90	3.30	5.20	3.10	4.80	4.90
GOR (scf/bbl)	16.66	6.76	18.46	6.36	20.11	11.50
Heating Value of Vapor (Btu/s	1966.88	2041.97	1887.18	1405.21	2354.30	2985.81
LP Oil Component						
H2S	0.0000	0.3800	0.2400	0.0000	0.2700	0.0000
O2	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000
CO2	0.0600	0.2200	0.2100	0.0900	0.0800	0.0300
N2	0.0400	0.1000	0.3000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000
C1	1.3500	0.3200	0.8600	1.1200	0.4400	0.0800
C2	0.8500	0.4100	0.5400	0.5300	0.7000	0.2000
C3	2.0900	1.0700	1.7500	0.7000	2.0600	1.3000
i-C4	1.1400	0.5700	1.1600	0.4500	0.9700	1.0400
n-C4	2.7100	1.4500	3.1500	0.6300	2.7500	3.8800
i-C5	2.1900	1.5700	2.9100	0.6400	2.7000	2.2100
n-C5	2.4600	1.5100	2.5900	0.4600	2.3200	3.2000
C6	2.2400	2.5400	3.7200	0.8400	3.5000	2.5500
C7	5.7900	3.5300	5.8600	4.7900	8.3100	7.2000
C8	4.7900	4.9600	5.6200	8.9000	7.2900	7.2300
C9	4.4800	4.1700	3.7300	5.8000	7.0500	4.7500
C10+	66.3000	72.0600	63.8500	67.7100	53.9500	59.2600
Benzene	0.0300	0.4300	0.0300	1.0000	1.2400	1.1600
Toluene	0.2900	1.9600	0.1200	2.7600	2.8500	2.3500
E-Benzene	0.2200	0.2400	0.0800	0.2400	0.1800	0.1600
Xylenes	0.6500	1.2100	0.5400	2.5900	1.2300	0.8600
n-C6	2.3200	1.3000	2.7400	0.7500	2.1100	2.5400
224Trimethylp	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000
	100.0000	100.0000	100.0000	100.0000	100.0000	100.0000

Tank ID	**Sample Tank No. 70**	**Sample Tank No. 71**	**Sample Tank No. 72**	**Sample Tank No. 73**	**Sample Tank No. 74**	**Sample Tank No. 75**
E&P Tank Number	**Tank No. 24**	**Tank No. 25**	**Tank No. 26**	**Tank No. 27**	**Tank No. 28**	**Tank No. 29**
Total Emissions (tpy)	243.873	502.831	13.397	154.387	119.805	263.134
VOC Emissions (tpy)	151.292	330.274	4.231	125.001	48.333	168.558
Methane Emissions (tpy)	7.881	124.465	6.395	4.603	45.716	54.016
HAP Emissions (tpy)	**2.480**	**13.120**	**0.070**	**10.900**	**1.090**	**3.440**
Benzene	*0.188*	*0.954*	*0.008*	*0.053*	*0.189*	*0.435*
Toluene	*0.276*	*1.256*	*0.003*	*0.110*	*0.076*	*0.413*
E-Benzene	*0.007*	*0.086*	*0.000*	*0.031*	*0.004*	*0.046*
Xylenes	*0.114*	*0.732*	*0.008*	*0.305*	*0.033*	*0.285*
n-C6	*1.896*	*10.096*	*0.055*	*10.401*	*0.785*	*2.257*
224Trimethylp	*0.000*	*0.000*	*0.000*	*0.000*	*0.000*	*0.000*
Separator Pressure (psig)	22	280	4	25	64	80
Separator Temperature (F)	98	106	80	180	70	77
Ambient Pressure (psia)	14.7	14.7	14.7	14.7	14.7	14.7
Ambient Temperature (F)	98	106	80	180	70	77
C10+ SG	0.917	0.921	0.893	0.916	0.898	0.896
C10+ MW	311	450	313	304	368	309
API Gravity	**29.0**	**30.0**	**30.0**	**30.0**	**30.0**	**33.0**
Production Rate (bbl/day)	500	500	500	500	500	500
Reid Vapor Pressure (psia)	6.20	4.80	2.60	2.70	2.80	2.20
GOR (scf/bbl)	24.26	61.80	2.34	11.76	18.78	32.78
Heating Value of Vapor (Btu/s	2141.84	1933.26	1394.74	2814.20	1478.45	1920.70
LP Oil Component						
H2S	1.0100	0.0000	0.0000	0.0300	0.0000	0.0000
O2	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000
CO2	0.1100	0.1200	0.0200	0.2700	0.1700	0.0300
N2	0.0000	0.0500	0.0000	0.0000	0.0200	0.0200
C1	0.4000	7.9800	0.5900	0.2600	3.1300	2.9000
C2	1.6600	1.5600	0.4000	0.4800	0.7000	1.1000
C3	2.2300	2.8200	0.5500	0.8100	1.0700	1.7100
i-C4	1.1500	1.4300	0.4500	0.3600	0.8800	1.0700
n-C4	1.9500	2.4400	0.6300	1.1800	1.1100	1.1500
i-C5	2.8400	2.1200	0.4800	1.2900	1.0500	1.5000
n-C5	1.3600	2.0900	0.4500	2.0600	1.0000	1.2300
C6	3.0700	2.5400	1.0000	2.6800	1.5300	2.3300
C7	6.9000	6.3500	4.3100	6.5200	4.4300	6.0000
C8	7.6500	8.0300	4.9000	7.3900	5.8900	8.7700
C9	5.8200	3.5600	4.1700	4.8600	4.2200	6.3100
C10+	61.2100	54.9600	80.5100	68.2000	72.4400	60.3600
Benzene	0.1500	0.2000	0.0900	0.0200	0.3100	0.3800
Toluene	0.6100	0.6800	0.1100	0.0900	0.3800	1.0700
E-Benzene	0.0400	0.1100	0.0200	0.0500	0.0500	0.3100
Xylenes	0.7000	1.0600	0.8100	0.5400	0.5000	2.2000
n-C6	1.1400	1.9000	0.5100	2.9100	1.1200	1.5600
224Trimethylp	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000
	100.0000	100.0000	100.0000	100.0000	100.0000	100.0000

Tank ID	Sample Tank No. 76	Sample Tank No. 77	Sample Tank No. 78	Sample Tank No. 79	Sample Tank No. 80	Sample Tank No. 81
E&P Tank Number	**Tank No. 30**	**Tank No. 31**	**Tank No. 32**	**Tank No. 33**	**Tank No. 34**	**Tank No. 35**
Total Emissions (tpy)	75.697	67.111	33.481	98.139	246.837	206.565
VOC Emissions (tpy)	48.997	21.176	9.640	41.538	186.576	136.694
Methane Emissions (tpy)	15.026	39.198	18.906	45.393	13.777	5.258
HAP Emissions (tpy)	**1.330**	**0.460**	**0.290**	**1.230**	**7.150**	**4.120**
Benzene	*0.115*	*0.055*	*0.025*	*0.118*	*1.477*	*0.060*
Toluene	*0.088*	*0.025*	*0.040*	*0.085*	*1.336*	*0.122*
E-Benzene	*0.010*	*0.002*	*0.004*	*0.008*	*0.030*	*0.010*
Xylenes	*0.038*	*0.011*	*0.023*	*0.165*	*0.263*	*0.100*
n-C6	*1.075*	*0.362*	*0.196*	*0.852*	*4.047*	*3.833*
224Trimethylp	*0.000*	*0.000*	*0.000*	*0.000*	*0.000*	*0.000*
Separator Pressure (psig)	20	60	18	40	18	15
Separator Temperature (F)	115	78	70	110	80	108
Ambient Pressure (psia)	14.7	14.7	14.7	14.7	14.7	14.7
Ambient Temperature (F)	115	78	70	110	80	108
C10+ SG	0.885	0.866	0.875	0.87	0.923	0.887
C10+ MW	280	324	277	297	346	272
API Gravity	**33.0**	**34.0**	**34.0**	**34.0**	**35.0**	**35.0**
Production Rate (bbl/day)	500	500	500	500	500	500
Reid Vapor Pressure (psia)	3.10	2.00	2.20	3.20	4.70	4.50
GOR (scf/bbl)	8.96	12.60	6.20	16.18	24.36	18.78
Heating Value of Vapor (Btu/s	1989.27	1308.40	1280.62	1473.81	2361.43	2135.62
LP Oil Component						
H2S	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0100	0.0500
O2	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000
CO2	0.0300	0.0500	0.0700	0.0400	0.0600	0.6100
N2	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0100	0.0100	0.0500
C1	0.8400	2.8100	1.1600	2.9100	0.6400	0.2600
C2	0.3700	0.3100	0.2400	0.4400	1.0500	0.7800
C3	0.9200	0.6200	0.4900	0.6800	2.2200	1.7400
i-C4	1.0000	0.4700	0.4300	0.5800	0.8300	0.8400
n-C4	1.3200	0.7300	0.6500	0.6300	2.7600	2.3700
i-C5	1.3500	0.7100	0.8000	0.5300	2.1100	2.2400
n-C5	1.2200	0.6600	0.7000	0.4900	3.1100	2.2500
C6	1.8500	1.0800	1.2900	0.8900	3.5800	3.1500
C7	4.6800	2.3500	3.6200	4.6300	11.4200	6.1800
C8	5.5400	2.9600	5.5500	5.3100	11.2400	6.7100
C9	3.8000	1.9300	3.8000	4.5800	8.3200	5.0700
C10+	74.8700	84.1900	78.1200	76.3800	40.2000	64.3300
Benzene	0.1700	0.1100	0.1400	0.1000	1.6600	0.0500
Toluene	0.3400	0.1500	0.6900	0.1900	4.4100	0.2700
E-Benzene	0.0900	0.0300	0.1800	0.0400	0.2500	0.0500
Xylenes	0.3900	0.2000	1.2000	0.9800	2.5500	0.5900
n-C6	1.2200	0.6400	0.8700	0.5900	3.5700	2.4100
224Trimethylp	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000
	100.0000	100.0000	100.0000	100.0000	100.0000	100.0000

Tank ID	Sample Tank No. 82	Sample Tank No. 83	Sample Tank No. 84	Sample Tank No. 85	Sample Tank No. 86	Sample Tank No. 87
E&P Tank Number	**Tank No. 36**	**Tank No. 37**	**Tank No. 38**	**Tank No. 39**	**Tank No. 40**	**Tank No. 41**
Total Emissions (tpy)	176.370	34.019	82.578	113.253	204.693	178.190
VOC Emissions (tpy)	121.493	16.601	32.683	56.649	107.904	100.629
Methane Emissions (tpy)	10.526	12.380	40.189	30.738	57.039	28.323
HAP Emissions (tpy)	**3.520**	**1.050**	**1.820**	**2.310**	**3.540**	**2.460**
Benzene	*0.068*	*0.262*	*0.364*	*0.285*	*0.530*	*0.307*
Toluene	*0.092*	*0.297*	*0.293*	*0.292*	*0.386*	*0.280*
E-Benzene	*0.019*	*0.011*	*0.016*	*0.018*	*0.030*	*0.012*
Xylenes	*0.072*	*0.048*	*0.125*	*0.138*	*0.208*	*0.068*
n-C6	*3.266*	*0.435*	*1.023*	*1.573*	*2.383*	*1.789*
224Trimethylp	*0.000*	*0.000*	*0.000*	*0.000*	*0.000*	*0.000*
Separator Pressure (psig)	17	30	50	57	75	28
Separator Temperature (F)	100	125	68	80	81	60
Ambient Pressure (psia)	14.7	14.7	14.7	14.7	14.7	14.7
Ambient Temperature (F)	100	125	68	80	81	60
C10+ SG	0.887	0.863	0.879	0.883	0.883	0.891
C10+ MW	283	276	356	294	288	277
API Gravity	**35.0**	**36.0**	**36.0**	**36.0**	**36.0**	**36.0**
Production Rate (bbl/day)	500	500	500	500	500	500
Reid Vapor Pressure (psia)	4.90	2.50	3.80	3.90	4.10	3.80
GOR (scf/bbl)	17.62	5.02	14.02	15.52	27.84	22.04
Heating Value of Vapor (Btu/s	2307.25	1616.36	1437.32	1721.01	1718.90	1846.39
LP Oil Component						
H2S	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.2000
O2	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000
CO2	0.0900	0.0300	0.0300	0.0600	0.1400	0.0600
N2	0.0100	0.0000	0.0100	0.0100	0.0100	0.0100
C1	0.5300	0.9100	2.4200	1.5900	2.9000	1.3300
C2	1.1100	0.3200	0.4500	0.7200	0.9500	0.9300
C3	1.7600	0.5700	0.8100	1.1100	1.4500	1.7200
i-C4	0.8000	0.3900	0.5400	0.7700	1.0000	0.4400
n-C4	2.3800	0.5800	1.1700	1.6000	1.8400	1.9800
i-C5	2.1600	0.6500	1.3400	1.5200	1.6700	1.2300
n-C5	2.6700	0.5700	1.6000	1.6700	1.7900	2.2100
C6	3.3700	1.0700	2.4800	2.5900	2.1500	2.4300
C7	6.0700	3.3600	7.6400	7.1400	6.1000	9.4100
C8	6.8700	5.7300	10.3500	9.7000	7.9700	10.5500
C9	6.0400	4.2600	5.9100	5.1000	5.2600	6.0500
C10+	62.5300	77.9200	57.3100	59.8700	61.4100	54.5600
Benzene	0.0700	0.5500	0.8300	0.5000	0.5100	0.6300
Toluene	0.2600	1.5800	2.0500	1.5100	1.0900	1.8200
E-Benzene	0.1300	0.1300	0.2900	0.2400	0.2200	0.2100
Xylenes	0.5600	0.6500	2.6900	2.1000	1.7300	1.4100
n-C6	2.5900	0.7300	2.0800	2.2000	1.8100	2.8200
224Trimethylp	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000
	100.0000	100.0000	100.0000	100.0000	100.0000	100.0000

Tank ID	Sample Tank No. 88	Sample Tank No. 89	Sample Tank No. 90	Sample Tank No. 91	Sample Tank No. 92	Sample Tank No. 93
E&P Tank Number	**Tank No. 42**	**Tank No. 43**	**Tank No. 44**	**Tank No. 45**	**Tank No. 46**	**Tank No. 47**
Total Emissions (tpy)	264.744	77.810	341.571	746.422	120.452	114.826
VOC Emissions (tpy)	197.667	45.796	126.289	598.797	71.033	53.659
Methane Emissions (tpy)	4.156	20.047	121.935	12.450	24.855	41.873
HAP Emissions (tpy)	**5.070**	**1.720**	**2.060**	**7.990**	**1.310**	**1.960**
Benzene	*0.536*	*0.269*	*0.294*	*3.587*	*0.126*	*0.496*
Toluene	*6.120*	*0.232*	*0.161*	*0.449*	*0.199*	*0.291*
E-Benzene	*0.040*	*0.014*	*0.036*	*0.061*	*0.009*	*0.009*
Xylenes	*0.205*	*0.121*	*0.106*	*0.072*	*0.077*	*0.052*
n-C6	*3.677*	*1.081*	*1.462*	*3.820*	*0.900*	*1.109*
224Trimethylp	*0.000*	*0.000*	*0.000*	*0.000*	*0.000*	*0.000*
Separator Pressure (psig)	18	18	190	22	24	60
Separator Temperature (F)	95	98	70	50	68	72
Ambient Pressure (psia)	14.7	14.7	14.7	14.7	14.7	14.7
Ambient Temperature (F)	95	98	70	50	68	72
C10+ SG	0.9	0.871	0.861	0.918	0.872	0.863
C10+ MW	288	270	270	372	239	318
API Gravity	**36.0**	**37.0**	**37.0**	**37.0**	**38.0**	**38.0**
Production Rate (bbl/day)	500	500	500	500	500	500
Reid Vapor Pressure (psia)	7.20	3.90	3.00	4.90	3.60	4.50
GOR (scf/bbl)	23.68	10.02	53.74	67.22	15.46	17.44
Heating Value of Vapor (Btu/s	2352.89	1820.80	1489.35	2491.03	1867.10	1590.85
LP Oil Component						
H2S	0.8700	0.0000	0.0000	0.1400	0.0000	0.0000
O2	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000
CO2	0.1200	0.0500	0.3100	0.5300	0.0200	0.0500
N2	0.0200	0.0000	0.0300	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000
C1	0.1900	1.0400	6.2500	0.5600	1.1400	2.5500
C2	0.6800	0.4200	2.2000	2.3100	0.5800	0.8600
C3	2.5400	0.9700	2.0200	4.1000	1.2600	1.3500
i-C4	1.1400	1.1500	0.5500	1.9100	0.9300	0.9700
n-C4	3.8100	1.3100	1.1800	5.0000	1.4400	1.3600
i-C5	2.9900	1.6600	0.8300	3.4000	1.6100	1.4200
n-C5	2.9100	1.2800	0.7100	3.5100	1.3900	1.3400
C6	3.7100	2.1200	1.3200	3.0200	2.3200	2.1100
C7	9.0500	5.2700	3.8300	13.2800	6.5000	5.5300
C8	7.1100	7.7200	6.7800	13.1300	8.7200	7.6500
C9	5.9500	4.7200	2.8000	5.9600	5.9100	5.6600
C10+	52.8400	67.1300	69.1900	36.1900	62.7500	64.2400
Benzene	0.4700	0.5000	0.1800	2.6100	0.3100	0.8400
Toluene	1.5000	1.1900	0.3000	1.0600	1.5000	1.4900
E-Benzene	0.2400	0.1800	0.1800	0.4000	0.1800	0.1200
Xylenes	1.4100	1.7200	0.6100	0.5500	1.7900	0.8100
n-C6	2.4500	1.5700	0.7300	2.3400	1.6500	1.6500
224Trimethylp	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000
	100.0000	100.0000	100.0000	100.0000	100.0000	100.0000

Tank ID	**Sample Tank No. 94**	**Sample Tank No. 95**	**Sample Tank No. 96**	**Sample Tank No. 97**	**Sample Tank No. 98**	**Sample Tank No. 99**
E&P Tank Number	**Tank No. 48**	**Tank No. 49**	**Tank No. 50**	**Tank No. 51**	**Tank No. 52**	**Tank No. 53**
Total Emissions (tpy)	54.705	437.309	165.905	279.758	608.810	254.487
VOC Emissions (tpy)	37.588	181.269	149.208	103.605	571.582	161.927
Methane Emissions (tpy)	8.963	1.079	0.600	12.141	8.030	48.433
HAP Emissions (tpy)	**2.550**	**4.660**	**4.640**	**1.630**	**17.380**	**7.830**
Benzene	*0.263*	*0.041*	*0.202*	*0.453*	*0.424*	*2.228*
Toluene	*0.317*	*0.110*	*0.380*	*0.085*	*0.458*	*1.268*
E-Benzene	*0.024*	*0.053*	*0.035*	*0.015*	*0.025*	*0.039*
Xylenes	*0.218*	*0.149*	*0.168*	*0.017*	*0.441*	*0.399*
n-C6	*1.726*	*4.311*	*3.855*	*1.063*	*16.032*	*3.892*
224Trimethylp	*0.000*	*0.000*	*0.000*	*0.000*	*0.000*	*0.000*
Separator Pressure (psig)	32	62	13	28	22	66
Separator Temperature (F)	149	80	113	45	114	89
Ambient Pressure (psia)	14.7	14.7	14.7	14.7	14.7	14.7
Ambient Temperature (F)	149	80	113	45	114	89
C10+ SG	0.862	0.894	0.882	0.904	0.877	0.877
C10+ MW	251	310	294	294	337	282
API Gravity	**38.0**	**38.0**	**38.0**	**38.0**	**38.0**	**39.0**
Production Rate (bbl/day)	500	500	500	500	500	500
Reid Vapor Pressure (psia)	3.00	5.20	5.70	7.40	3.10	3.70
GOR (scf/bbl)	5.82	37.60	13.60	28.24	45.82	30.08
Heating Value of Vapor (Btu/s	2216.65	1206.29	2853.46	1313.43	3053.30	1945.58
LP Oil Component						
H2S	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000
O2	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000
CO2	0.0100	4.1200	0.0100	2.0000	0.0400	0.1800
N2	0.0000	0.0200	0.0000	0.0000	0.2000	0.0000
C1	0.5100	0.0500	0.0300	0.5300	0.4200	2.2600
C2	0.4400	0.3200	0.4500	1.0400	0.5700	0.8400
C3	0.5900	1.4800	2.4200	1.9800	2.1600	1.4800
i-C4	0.5400	0.8700	1.1900	1.4200	1.1400	1.0300
n-C4	0.6500	3.3500	3.2300	3.7800	4.2600	1.6000
i-C5	1.3500	3.0800	2.0600	2.9700	2.9000	2.0600
n-C5	1.1500	2.8200	3.0500	2.9500	4.2900	1.8600
C6	2.5000	4.7100	2.3400	2.6800	3.5200	3.4100
C7	6.4600	10.0400	7.7900	11.8900	10.3400	8.6400
C8	8.5600	11.8100	8.3700	11.7900	9.9300	11.0300
C9	3.4500	6.4100	6.4400	6.6500	4.4300	5.1000
C10+	69.3200	46.8100	57.0400	45.6300	51.0200	51.2400
Benzene	0.3200	0.0300	0.2000	1.1100	0.1100	1.6600
Toluene	0.9100	0.2400	0.9900	0.7100	0.3100	2.6900
E-Benzene	0.1500	0.3000	0.2100	0.3600	0.0400	0.2100
Xylenes	1.4800	0.9700	1.1500	0.4800	0.7800	2.4200
n-C6	1.6100	2.5700	3.0300	2.0300	3.5400	2.2900
224Trimethylp	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000
	100.0000	100.0000	100.0000	100.0000	100.0000	100.0000

Tank ID	**Sample Tank No. 100**	**Sample Tank No. 101**	**Sample Tank No. 102**	**Sample Tank No. 103**
E&P Tank Number	**Tank No. 54**	**Tank No. 55**	**Tank No. 56**	**Tank No. 57**
Total Emissions (tpy)	173.095	363.718	391.465	274.631
VOC Emissions (tpy)	97.629	237.995	191.567	204.825
Methane Emissions (tpy)	52.151	56.163	3.830	22.453
HAP Emissions (tpy)	**4.410**	**2.820**	**5.090**	**19.640**
Benzene	*0.242*	*0.369*	*0.970*	*5.674*
Toluene	*0.281*	*0.045*	*0.836*	*4.267*
E-Benzene	*0.031*	*0.026*	*0.019*	*0.070*
Xylenes	*0.164*	*0.129*	*0.135*	*0.436*
n-C6	*3.689*	*2.253*	*3.127*	*9.194*
224Trimethylp	*0.000*	*0.000*	*0.000*	*0.000*
Separator Pressure (psig)	60	60	33	42
Separator Temperature (F)	80	58	60	110
Ambient Pressure (psia)	14.7	14.7	14.7	14.7
Ambient Temperature (F)	60	58	60	110
C10+ SG	0.891	0.877	0.907	0.879
C10+ MW	265	309	295	283
API Gravity	**39.0**	**39.0**	**39.0**	**39.0**
Production Rate (bbl/day)	500	500	500	500
Reid Vapor Pressure (psia)	5.60	6.80	6.40	5.40
GOR (scf/bbl)	23.36	43.14	36.04	26.60
Heating Value of Vapor (Btu/s	1766.66	2016.56	1509.76	2428.31
LP Oil Component				
H2S	0.0000	0.0000	0.1100	0.0000
O2	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000
CO2	0.0500	0.0300	2.4000	0.0100
N2	0.0100	0.0100	0.0000	0.0000
C1	2.3200	2.6700	0.1600	1.0900
C2	0.7200	1.7300	0.7600	1.5000
C3	1.1900	3.6000	2.6400	2.1200
i-C4	0.8900	1.8800	0.9100	0.8400
n-C4	1.8300	3.2300	3.5800	2.2800
i-C5	2.3500	2.4900	2.6500	1.6400
n-C5	3.2400	2.1100	3.4400	2.5200
C6	3.9900	2.7200	3.7800	2.6100
C7	9.9400	8.1600	10.7700	9.7300
C8	11.5600	11.9800	11.8300	8.9300
C9	6.0600	4.9500	6.1900	5.8900
C10+	48.9900	50.3400	40.8600	47.7300
Benzene	0.3000	0.3800	1.2700	2.7500
Toluene	1.0300	0.1500	3.4900	5.3000
E-Benzene	0.2900	0.2400	0.2200	0.2000
Xylenes	1.7800	1.3700	1.8000	1.3900
n-C6	3.4600	1.9600	3.1400	3.4700
224Trimethylp	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000
	100.0000	100.0000	100.0000	100.0000

					API > 40		
Tank ID							
E&P Tank Number		**Average**	**ratios to HAP**	**Ratio to VOC**	**Maximum**	**Minimum**	**Average**
Total Emissions (tpy)	Total	785.812			8152.118	129.419	1530.229
VOC Emissions (tpy)	VOC	530.750	**33.837**		5678.554	43.734	1046.343
Methane Emissions (tpy)	Methane	116.167	**7.406**	**0.219**	1206.981	0.197	230.569
HAP Emissions (tpy)	**HAP**	**15.685**		**0.030**	**101.610**	**2.680**	**30.684**
Benzene							
Toluene							
E-Benzene							
Xylenes							
n-C6							
224Trimethylp							
Separator Pressure (psig)	Separator Pressure	126.451			870.000	13.000	231.870
Separator Temperature (F)	Separator Temperature	88.657			140.000	40.000	82.500
Ambient Pressure (psia)							
Ambient Temperature (F)							
C10+ SG		0.893			0.929	0.801	0.873
C10+ MW		292.72			375.000	162.000	241.304
API Gravity	**API Gravity**	**40.6**			**68.0**	**40.0**	**52.8**
Production Rate (bbl/day)							
Reid Vapor Pressure (psia)	RVP	5.691			13.100	3.000	7.983
GOR (scf/bbl)	GOR	88.149			924.960	12.300	172.479
Heating Value of Vapor (Btu/s	Heating value	1968.085					
LP Oil Component		**Composition**					
H2S		0.0679					
O2		0.0000					
CO2		0.3661					
N2		0.0360					
C1		2.9248					
C2		1.6262					
C3		2.7564					
i-C4		1.3958					
n-C4		2.9738					
i-C5		2.4711					
n-C5		2.7194					
C6		3.2723					
C7		8.5230					
C8		10.3202					
C9		5.6686					
C10+		48.1339					
Benzene		0.6044					
Toluene		1.6882					
E-Benzene		0.1797					
Xylenes		1.4353					
n-C6		2.8369					
224Trimethylp		0.0000					
		100.0000					

Tank ID	**API <40**		
E&P Tank Number	**Maximum**	**Minimum**	**Average**
Total Emissions (tpy)	746.422	13.397	174.327
VOC Emissions (tpy)	598.797	3.087	107.227
Methane Emissions (tpy)	124.465	0.115	22.193
HAP Emissions (tpy)	**19.640**	**0.070**	**3.366**
Benzene	5.674	0.003	0.445
Toluene	6.120	0.003	0.431
E-Benzene	0.086	0.000	0.019
Xylenes	0.732	0.001	0.120
n-C6	16.032	0.052	2.449
224Trimethylp	0.000	0.000	0.000
Separator Pressure (psig)	280.000	4.000	39.857
Separator Temperature (F)			
Ambient Pressure (psia)			
Ambient Temperature (F)			
C10+ SG	0.984	0.861	0.910
C10+ MW	551.000	239.000	334.946
API Gravity	**39.0**	**15.0**	**30.6**
Production Rate (bbl/day)			
Reid Vapor Pressure (psia)	7.400	0.600	3.809
GOR (scf/bbl)	67.220	2.340	18.878
Heating Value of Vapor (Btu/s			
LP Oil Component			
H2S			
O2			
CO2			
N2			
C1			
C2			
C3			
i-C4			
n-C4			
i-C5			
n-C5			
C6			
C7			
C8			
C9			
C10+			
Benzene			
Toluene			
E-Benzene			
Xylenes			
n-C6			
224Trimethylp			

API Gravity >40

VOC Emissions (tpy)	
Mean	1046.343
Standard Error	188.1410357
Median	530.989
Mode	#N/A
Standard Deviation	1276.034588
Sample Variance	1628264.269
Kurtosis	3.35522263
Skewness	1.864492873
Range	5634.82
Minimum	43.734
Maximum	5678.554
Sum	48131.778
Count	46
Largest(1)	5678.554
Confidence Level(95.0%)	378.9354921

	667.4075079
VOC	1046.343
	1425.278492

API Gravity <40

VOC Emissions (tpy)	
Mean	107.2265
Standard Error	15.51304
Median	72.87
Mode	#N/A
Standard Deviation	116.0889
Sample Variance	13476.64
Kurtosis	9.02191
Skewness	2.680349
Range	595.71
Minimum	3.087
Maximum	598.797
Sum	6004.685
Count	56
Largest(1)	598.797
Confidence Level(95.0%)	31.08882

	76.1377
VOC	107.2265
	138.3153

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