***Low Carbon Fuel Standard***

***2011 Program Review Report***

***Working Draft***

***Version 1***

**Please provide comments no later than November 17, 2011**

Special thanks to all of the Advisory Panel members who provided valuable input and recommendations.

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# I. Executive Summary

## Overview

In this review report, the Air Resources Board (ARB) staff discusses the mandatory review of the Low Carbon Fuel Standard (LCFS) that was completed pursuant to Section 95489 of the regulation. This report presents the ARB staff assessment of the implementation status of the LCFS that was prepared in consultation with the LCFS Advisory Panel. This report covers a range of topics including opportunities to further harmonize the LCFS with other similar programs within the United States and outside of the country; the supply and availability of low carbon fuels; the continuation of assessments (including lifecycle, economic, and environmental impacts); potential high-level program enhancements to better ensure that the LCFS long-term targets for 2020 and beyond are met; and alternative approaches for handling High Carbon Intensity Crude Oil (HCICO) under the program.

This is the first of two formal reviews of the LCFS that the Executive Officer is required to conduct under the regulation. However, in addition to the required formal reviews, staff anticipates providing regular program updates to the Board throughout the program’s implementation. The focus of this report is on the first formal review that was conducted in consultation with the LCFS Advisory Panel. Specifically, the Executive Officer was required to convene an Advisory Panel with which to consult on the review. The Panel consisted of representatives from a broad spectrum of industries and organizations including: the California Energy Commission; the California Public Utilities Commission; fuel providers; storage and distribution infrastructure owner/operators; consumers; engine and vehicle manufacturers; environmental justice organizations; environmental groups; academia; public health; and other stakeholders and government agencies.

The Panel met a total of five times, with three of those meetings spanning two days. During the meetings, the Panel discussed a range of materials that included agendas, outlines, and draft chapters. The work of the Panel was not meant to duplicate the efforts of expert workgroups, instead to provide a higher level review of the rule. Panelists were also given opportunities to present their opinions through discussions, outlines, and presentations. Staff made these materials available to the public on the LCFS Advisory Panel webpage,[[2]](#footnote-2) and any interested party could attend the meetings via teleconference or webinar as well as direct questions to the ARB or panelists regarding the program review. After the meetings, staff requested written comments within one to three weeks from panelists and the public on materials presented; staff posted the comments on the LCFS Advisory Panel webpage for public review.

During these meetings, the Panel covered a range of topics that were specified in the regulation to be considered as part of the program review, including:

* Progress against targets
* Adjustments to the compliance schedule, if needed
* Advances in full, fuel-lifecycle;
* Advances in fuels and production technologies, including feasibility and cost-effectiveness of advances;
* Availability and use of ultralow carbon fuels, advisability of establishing mechanisms to incentivize ;
* Assessment of supply availabilities, rates of commercialization of fuels and vehicles;
* Program’s impact on State’s fuel supplies;
* Impact on State revenues, consumers, economic growth;
* Analysis of public health impacts at State and local levels in consultation with public health experts;
* Assessment of the air quality impacts associated with the implementation of the LCFS;
* Identification of hurdles or barriers (e.g., permitting issues, infrastructure adequacy, research funds) and recommendations for addressing such hurdles or barriers;
* Significant economic issues; fuel adequacy, reliability, and supply issues; and environmental issues that have arisen; and
* Advisability of harmonizing with international, federal, regional, and state LCFS and lifecycle assessments

Many of these topics have overlapping or interconnected elements. Because of these linkages, and in an effort to reduce repetition as well as enhance readability, the report has been structured such that it groups similar and related topics. In some cases, where a topic calls out several different broad ideas, those have been split and addressed separately in the appropriate sections of the report.

Each chapter begins with a description of the topics that are addressed in the chapter, reciting the regulatory text for a clearer understanding of what can be found in each chapter. Each of these chapters addresses the questions called out in the workplan, [[3]](#footnote-3) which was developed with consultation of the Panel and served as a guide for the development of this report. This report represents a compilation of staff recommendations, panelist recommendations, and a summary of the range of panelist opinions based on the topics outlined in the regulation. For several topics, panelists had a broad range of perspectives. Thus, the objective was not to arrive at a consensus position but rather understand and consider differing viewpoints. Every effort has been made to capture the range of perspectives shared by panelists on the topics discussed in the report.

Another important consideration when reading the report is to recall that implementation of the rule is in the earliest stages of the LCFS program. 2010 was a reporting year only, and this year (2011) is the first year that the LCFS requires a reduction in the carbon intensity (CI) of transportation fuels. Further, the required CI reduction in 2011 is modest, just 0.25 percent. Thus, at this early stage of the program, the discussion of the topics throughout the report reflects, by necessity, the limited amount of available information and history associated with the program’s implementation to date.

Overall, the panelists provided thought-provoking conversations and pertinent research that aided staff in assessing the current state of the program, while providing direction for staff to move forward with continued monitoring for several aspects of the LCFS program. There were several topic areas where ARB engaged a smaller subgroup of panelists to aid in the development of the chapters. This included the chapters related to economics and credit trading. In addition to these subgroups, there were at least two independently-formed groups that focused on investments and the current state of advanced biofuels (led by Bob Epstein of E2) and flexible compliance mechanisms (led by Chris Hessler of AJW, Inc.). More details regarding these independent groups can be found within the report. Panelists remained engaged throughout the process, providing feedback during meetings and via the web portal. The Advisory Panel added considerable value to the program review. Further, comments from the panelists will help to inform and guide (e.g., identify information to collect, evaluate, and post) further informal reviews as well as the future formal program review.

The next formal review where an Advisory Panel will be convened is scheduled to be completed before January of 2015. However, staff anticipates continuing to engage Panel members and other stakeholders to monitor the progress of the LCFS in a less formal setting prior to the next formal program review and bring periodic updates back to the Board, as appropriate.

## B. Topics for Review

### Harmonization

The concept of harmonizing specific aspects of the LCFS program with other low carbon fuel standard programs has been of interest for the staff since the inception of the program. We developed the framework for the LCFS in order for it to be easily exported to other jurisdictions with only minor tweaks. Since the initiation of the LCFS, many other LCFS-like programs have emerged both nationally and internationally (e.g., Northeast States, Oregon, the EU, etc.). Some of these are performance‑based standards, similar to the LCFS, while others are biofuel mandates that may or may not take into account the full fuel lifecycle analysis. All these programs have potential effects on the LCFS and the movement/use of low carbon fuels around the world. Panelists and staff discussed the advisability of further harmonizing the LCFS with other state, federal and international policies.

The concept of harmonizing does not necessarily require that fuel-based GHG programs in different parts of the world be identical. Different regional or national programs can exist harmoniously when their program elements reinforce each other, rather than conflict. To this end, the Panel highlighted the potential importance of harmonization in five main areas. These included: lifecycle assessment; the treatment of HCICO and fossil fuels; sustainability principles and criteria; reporting and chain of custody; and uniformity in the credit market. There are some distinct advantages to harmonizing programs related to these areas, including, but not limited to: lower risk of feedstock and fuel shuffling; ability for credits generated in one program to be used in another program; ease of reporting for regulated parties between different programs; and uniformity in the methodology used to evaluate the GHG impacts of transportation fuels, among others.

On the other hand, there are risks associated with harmonizing the LCFS with other programs this early on in process. First, when developing the LCFS, ARB determined, following extensive stakeholder consultations, that the most scientifically robust approach to the program was to evaluate fuels on a lifecycle basis, which includes an assessment of both the direct and indirect effects on GHG emissions. To attempt to harmonize with a program that does not include both portions of the lifecycle analysis, especially inclusion of indirect effects, would greatly compromise the GHG reductions that the LCFS is set to achieve. Second, the LCFS is at the vanguard of fuel-based GHG control programs; because other programs are just as new or even newer, there is no proven path forward that ensures success. So until those other programs become more established and proven, staff believes that it would be premature to alter the LCFS to further harmonize with them.

With that said, and at the panelists’ recommendations, we will continue to investigate the benefits and risks of harmonization with other comparable programs. ARB has and will continue to work with other jurisdictions, in hopes of eventually harmonizing key elements of the programs, while being mindful of implementing what makes the most sense from California’s perspective.

### 2. Continued Assessments

There are several types of on-going assessments that staff has committed to performing. These include reviewing both internal and external advances in lifecycle analysis (LCA), an assessment of environmental impacts at the local and regional levels, and an economic assessment of the impacts of the program on State revenues, consumers, and economic growth. In addition to these topics, staff is monitoring the program for any issues that have arisen related to unanticipated economic or environmental impacts. It should be noted that staff is monitoring these areas through the entire duration of the regulation, not just during the formal review period. For example, in order to ensure the newest and best technology and data are included in the LCA, staff reviews documents submitted by stakeholders regarding custom carbon intensities and continuously evaluates studies published in peer-reviewed journals.

#### a. Lifecycle Assessment

There are two main components to the fuel-lifecycle assessment: direct and indirect effects. Direct effects are encompassed in the Method 2A/2B process and indirect effects are addressed through the continued development and review of land use change values, based in part on the review conducted by the Expert Workgroup. These activities are a key element of the LCFS regulation. The data inform the carbon intensity for each fuel pathway, which in turn translates into the credits or deficits under the program as a function of volumes introduced into the transportation fuel system. Panelists were interested in establishing whether there have been any advances in the lifecycle analysis arena, if staff had developed criteria for determining whether new studies would be included in our on-going analyses, the impact these advances might have on stakeholders, and how the advances might be incorporated into the regulation while ensuring that there is a balance between incorporating the advances and providing market certainty.

It is staff’s current viewpoint that advances related to the direct emission calculations are mostly updates to data (i.e., model inputs), but that the basic methodology to performing the analysis does not vary significantly from model-to-model. So even though other programs calculate GHG emissions using models different from that of the California Greenhouse Gases, Regulated Emissions, and Energy Use in Transportation (CA-GREET) model, the fundamental way that they function is similar. Thus, staff is not intending to adjust established direct CI values on a set schedule but rather will consider new information as appropriate. For example, when applicants submit their applications for custom CI values, staff verifies the data submitted by the applicant, which is generally the most current data available. For these examples, staff will consider updating existing direct CIs to the extent applicable and if there are substantial improvements in the available data. Any proposed changes would be evaluated as part of an open public process.

Staff does not expect that the methodology for the estimation of direct emissions for fuel pathways to significantly change in the near future. Should the CA-GREET model be modified to the extent that significant changes are introduced, or a better model is developed, staff will take these changes into consideration and recommend revisions to the fuel pathway CI values in the Lookup Tables as warranted. Should staff propose, and the Board approve, modifications to CI values in the Lookup Tables due to advances in lifecycle analysis, and those modifications impact the LCFS compliance schedule, the revised CI values would presumably take effect at the beginning of a new compliance period (i.e., January 1st) for ease of implementation.

For important crop-based biofuels, indirect effects are calculated using the Global Trade Analysis Project (GTAP) developed by researchers at Purdue University. Due to the level of interest and complexity of this analysis and its associated calculations, ARB staff formed an Expert Workgroup (EWG) to discuss high-level issues and then develop key strategies to address these issues. These included: elasticity values; co-product credits; land cover types; uncertainty in land use change estimates; indirect effects of fuels other than biofuels; carbon emission factors; time accounting; and comparative and alternative modeling approaches. In addition to the EWG, there were several independent reviewers who provided input on the details related to these calculations. Staff has been moving forward using a combination of EWG recommendations, independent reviewer recommendations, and staff recommendations. In addition to continuing review of peer-reviewed literature related to this emerging science and managing a contract with Purdue University, staff will work with key stakeholders in developing additional indirect effects values.

ARB understands that it must balance improvements in lifecycle assessment modeling with the need for some degree of market certainty. We believe that the requirement for periodic program reviews, the deliberate and measured response of ARB to new studies and model updates, the full public process used by ARB for changing LUC carbon intensity values and compliance schedule targets, and the Method 2 certification process should provide both a strong signal of market certainty while providing flexibility for individual fuel producers. That is, Method 2 applicants with complete and fully documented submittals will be able to expeditiously receive a direct carbon intensity value that is representative of their fuel pathway, while the process for evaluating the indirect effects due to land-use change and reflecting those effects in the LCFS standards undergoes the thoughtful, deliberate, open, and scientifically-robust process that is required for such a key element of the program.

#### b. Economic Assessment

Much of the economic analysis the original LCFS ISOR remains valid. However, due to changes in the market and to differing tax, subsidy, technology, and overall cost structures, an updated economic analysis is warranted.

Instead of using the same methodology as was used in the 2009 economic analysis—comparing the cost difference between *producing* the baseline transportation fuels and *producing* the lower-CI transportation fuels—staff has been exploring estimating the cost of the LCFS from more of a regulated party’s perspective. If the updated illustrative plausible scenarios show that compliance can be achieved over some period of time, the next question is how much will that cost?

In this draft paper, staff discusses the challenges and approaches of conducting an economic impact analysis for the LCFS, considering the following issues: 1) expiring biofuel subsidies and tariffs; 2) the proper accounting of biofuel costs borne by the federal renewable fuel standard (RFS2) (i.e., what is the incremental cost of the LCFS over the RFS2 program?); 3) estimating what volumes and percentages of lower-CI California will attract from other states and countries; and 4) estimating the relative prices of alternative fuels with various CIs.

Staff attempted to estimate the relative price differential of various biofuels according to its attractiveness to the California fuels market (i.e., its price premium based on its carbon intensity). This exercise was informative, but incomplete.

Staff proposes to convene the Economic Subgroup as soon as can be arranged to discuss what parameters are key drivers in the economic analysis of the LCFS; what other considerations inform the analysis; and what data are available to conduct an economic analysis commensurate with the requirements set forth in the regulation (i.e., the program’s impact on state revenues, consumers, and economic growth) within the next several weeks, considering the nascent nature of the program.

#### c. Environmental Assessment

Through this review process, staff has determined that the public health and air quality impacts estimated in 2009 have not changed significantly throughout the first implementation year of the LCFS. This is due to many factors, including only slight changes in California’s transportation fuel consumption, which cannot be attributed to the LCFS; no new biofuel facilities being built in the State since the 2009 environmental impacts analysis; and no new biofuels that could potentially be used in the State triggering the multimedia evaluation process. As suggested, because 2010 was a reporting year only and 2011 is the first implementation year, the program is still in its infancy. Thus, should there be changes (beneficial or adverse) in response to the LCFS, it is anticipated that they would be relatively minor.

That being said, as the LCFS annual carbon-intensity (CI) standards get more stringent, additional fuels will undergo development, and investment will begin to flow more freely to ultra-low-carbon fuel producers, so there may be impacts associated with the LCFS program—potentially positive or negative. Staff has developed two methods to help ensure the preservation of air quality due to changes in the transportation fuel sector. This includes a biorefinery siting guidance document[[4]](#footnote-4) for local air districts, other agencies, and community members to use to help minimize air pollution from biorefineries. Additionally, staff will fulfill the directive from the Board to participate in the environmental review of proposed projects, working with local air districts and others. Staff is also working with a group of stakeholders on developing a set of voluntary sustainability principles and criteria that we anticipate will lead to a more diverse, lower-impact fuel pool. We will also continue monitoring the state of transportation fuels within California as well as the accompanying infrastructure and vehicles associated with these transportation fuels.

### 3. Supply and Availability

The information in this chapter informs many of the illustrative plausible scenarios that ARB staff evaluated as part of this 2011 formal program review. Most of the data comes from the California Energy Commission forecasting in the 2011 IEPR.[[5]](#footnote-5) Staff also considered other data sources, such as the Energy Information Administration data regarding cellulosic ethanol and biofuels. There were several key questions that emerged when looking at this data, including: Are there enough low carbon fuels to meet the standard in the near-term and the long-term? What types of investments are flowing to these fuels? And, does the LCFS have an impact on the investment in these fuels?

First, staff focused on the past consumption of transportation fuels to see if there were any significant changes in volumes of fuel prior to 2010. It was apparent from the data that in 2008 there was a slight decrease in the volume of major transportation fuels consumed in the State, with the exception of increased volumes of ethanol. This increase in ethanol consumption is mainly due to the fact that California transitioned from E6 to E10 by 2010. It is also attributable to the federal Renewable Fuels Standard (RFS2) that mandates volumes of biofuels to be used in the United States. Staff does not believe that these slight variations are caused by the LCFS as the small fluctuations can be attributed to factors outside of the LCFS, such as the economy.

Second, as noted later in this summary, staff evaluated the volume of LCFS credits generated to date. Based on data in the LCFS Report Tool (LRT), we note that there are substantially more credits in the market currently than there are deficits. Staff’s analysis of first quarter 2011 data shows that there are about 75,000 MT of CO2e “net” credits (more credits than deficits generated) registered in the LRT. Further, staff’s preliminary analysis of second quarter 2011 data suggests that the number of net credits has increased significantly relative to the first quarter. This is an indication that, at this time, there are companies that are on track to meeting or exceeding their compliance obligations. Because credits are based on the sale of lower CI fuels in California, this net surplus of credits generated to date is further evidence that fuel availability and supply is not an issue at this time.

Staff also included information in this report regarding the future demand of transportation fuels. Much of this forecasted data originated from the 2011 IEPR as well as from the 2011 Energy Information Administration Annual Energy Outlook.[[6]](#footnote-6) This data was used in a subsequent chapter to present a set of illustrative plausible scenarios that we will discuss later in this summary.

In 2009, the illustrative plausible scenarios evaluated as part of the LCFS rulemaking assumed, in part, that California’s “proportional share” of the RFS2 cellulosic ethanol volume mandate would arrive in California. Because the EIA has lowered its projected volumes by more than ten-fold, staff initiated a re‑evaluation of the illustrative scenarios. This re-evaluation is discussed in the “Meeting the Targets and Assessment of Whether Adjustments Are Needed” chapter of this report.” The main conclusion from the
re-evaluation is that, even with a lowering of projected cellulosic ethanol volumes, there remain plausible illustrative scenarios that stakeholders can employ to meet their compliance obligations through at least 2015-2017 and potentially beyond.

From a series of discussions among panelists, it became clear that the advanced biofuel industry is a new, clean-tech sector with many market entrants and players. As can be expected in an emerging industry, the number of advanced biofuel companies is rapidly changing. The Cleantech Group forecasts the market of low-carbon fuels at $33.4 billion by 2020. This is nearly double the future market of energy efficiency ($17.3 billion), and significantly higher than renewable electricity ($20 billion).[[7]](#footnote-7) To seize this opportunity, venture capitalists have invested at least $1.76 billion in active North American biofuel companies from 2007 through the first quarter of 2011, according to publicly available data. Such a level of investment in the biofuel sector reflects the willingness and confidence investors have in funding the eventual production and commercialization of advanced biofuels.

The Panel also discussed the advisability of including a provision in the regulation to incentivize ultralow carbon fuels. Though some panelists were not receptive to the idea of incenting ultralow carbon fuels at this time, staff committed to keeping the dialogue open on this issue.

### 4. Long-Term Achievement of Goals for 2020 and Beyond

All the topics called out by the regulation for the formal reviews were identified to help ensure that implementation of the program made concrete progress toward achieving the LCFS goals. There were several topics that were specific to the ability for the program to reach the 2020 target and beyond, including a review of meeting the targets, whether program adjustments are needed to help achieve those targets, and the design considerations for the development of an active, robust credit market.

As a starting point, staff’s re-evaluation of the illustrative plausible scenarios suggests that there are numerous plausible scenarios that can be employed by stakeholders to comply with the program at least through its mid-years (2015-2017).[[8]](#footnote-8) Because the LCFS is a fuel-neutral program, the market may comply with LCFS targets through any number of technologies. Therefore, these scenarios only attempt to demonstrate some possible paths, but do not attempt to predict actual compliance methods. As implementation progresses, staff will continue to work with stakeholders and sister agencies to identify and model illustrative plausible scenarios to ensure that there are multiple plausible paths to compliance through 2020.

Staff looked at fourteen illustrative plausible scenarios – eight gasoline and six diesel scenarios – based on various assumptions about fuel producer responses to the compliance schedules. For example, some gasoline scenarios were based on lowered cellulosic ethanol projections, increasing numbers of flexible-fueled vehicles, and assumptions about “drop-in” renewable gasoline. On the diesel side, a number of the scenarios were based on increasing market penetration of biodiesel and renewable diesel (up to B20 by 2017). Many of the scenarios for both gasoline and diesel showed producers would generate a substantial number of credits in the early years, which presumably would be banked for use in meeting the more stringent standards in the later years (2018-2020). Overall, these scenarios showed a variety of plausible paths to meeting the LCFS targets, at least through 2017, and a number of scenarios showed that targets can plausibly be met through 2020.

Staff’s re-evaluation of the illustrative plausible scenarios also looked at whether compliance could still be met in spite of smaller volumes of low-carbon fuels coming into the market at a slower pace. One potential step suggested by some panelists to counteract such a situation would be to make adjustments to the compliance schedule delaying the more stringent reductions until later in the program. However, as noted earlier, the program is in its infancy, and adjustments to the compliance schedule at this very early stage in the program would be premature, unwarranted, and potentially harmful in terms of undermining the certainty needed by investors looking to make long-term investments in low CI biofuels.

Staff recognizes that next-generation fuels will be needed in the long run, but commercial quantities of those fuels are several years away, and the program needs to maintain its “back-loaded” design features that allow for the necessary investments to make this happen. Thus, it was clear to staff that adjustments to the compliance schedule would be ill-informed and potentially counter-productive at this time. After several robust discussions, presentations, and a report on both the health of the advanced biofuels market and investment needed for these low carbon fuels, it seems unlikely that delaying the reductions would aid in getting these low carbon fuels to market. This led to a discussion on how to utilize the credit market to help spur certainty and investment in the low carbon fuels market and also to the concept of a flexible compliance mechanism.

#### a. Meeting the Targets and Compliance Schedule

As expected, a Panel that is comprised of such a diverse group of stakeholders had different viewpoints on the ability of fuel producers to meet the targets and compliance schedules. For example, traditional fuel providers believed that there were not enough low carbon fuels available to meet near-term goals, while biofuel providers believed that there was plenty of opportunity to generate credits using fuels that are currently available. There were also several panel members who provide fuels that are currently banking credits in the system.

Further, several panelists expressed concern over the lowering of the EIA cellulosic ethanol projections. In 2009, staff produced a set of illustrative plausible scenarios, as part of the original LCFS staff report, which relied on California receiving its proportional share of the cellulosic volumes originally mandated in the RFS2. Since that staff report, the mandated and projected volumes have drastically been reduced, leading to conclusions by some that complying with the LCFS would require approaches completely different than originally envisioned or may not be possible without such fuels becoming available at the volumes estimated in 2009.

Because of these changes in cellulosic ethanol projections, staff prepared a new set of illustrative plausible scenarios that show a variety of ways that regulated parties can comply with the regulation through 2020. This new analysis was based on data gathered for the supply and availability chapter and through coordination with other ARB programs, the California Energy Commission, and the EIA. The most pessimistic of these scenarios rely on regulated parties exceeding compliance requirements, and therefore generating copious credits, in the early years of the regulation in order to see them through the more challenging years later in the decade. Other, more optimistic, scenarios suggest that compliance can be met through 2020 and beyond.

Though staff believes that these scenarios are plausible and feasible, some panelists suggested that ARB consider a flexible compliance mechanism should a regulated party may not able to meet the compliance target in a given compliance period. Staff agreed to take a closer look into such a mechanism as part of this review and make a preliminary determination if such an option has merit sufficient to warrant further investigation for possible inclusion within the LCFS program.

Staff asked interested panelists to prepare a separate white paper to identify the elements of what the panelists believe are appropriate flexible compliance mechanisms. As suggested, the concept is not intended as a substitute for the overall LCFS compliance schedules (i.e., so that regulated parties would have a choice between complying with the LCFS standards or the flexible compliance mechanism at any given time). Instead, the suggested concept of a flexible compliance mechanism would encourage compliance through actual reductions, and only come into play when specified adverse market conditions occur. Further, the concept would provide a given regulated party that can demonstrate compliance difficulties due to those adverse conditions with a short-term alternative with which to comply. One such set of circumstances could occur if the credit market is short at some point in the program (e.g., if regulated parties hold onto their credits rather than trade them en masse); several panelists suggested a flexible compliance mechanism that might, for example, be set up to enable ARB to provide sufficient credits to the market to equalize such market perturbations.[[9]](#footnote-9)

Consideration of including a flexible compliance mechanism at this time is premature as it is conceptual at this stage and it would require considerable evaluation and stakeholder dialogue. Also, based on data in the LCFS Report Tool (LRT), we note that there are substantially more credits in the market currently than there are deficits. Staff’s analysis of first quarter 2011 data shows that there are about 75,000 MT of CO2e “net” credits (more credits than deficits generated) registered in the LRT. Further, staff’s preliminary analysis of second quarter 2011 data suggests that the number of net credits has increased significantly relative to the first quarter. This is an indication that, at this time, there are companies that are on track to meet or exceed their compliance obligations.

While the existing LCFS regulation already allows credit trading between regulated parties, establishing the specific “ground rules” that govern trading in LCFS credits will help create a favorable market trading framework. This in turn would help make these credits more accessible for purchase by regulated parties who need such credits to meet their obligations. To this end, staff has developed specific credit trading provisions to be proposed for the Board’s consideration at its December 2011 hearing. Developed in consultation with stakeholders, the proposed credit trading provisions are intended to establish the ground rules for credit trading in the LCFS market and to help foster robust trading between regulated parties.

After the Board hearing in 2012, staff anticipates following up with stakeholders to further investigate the feasibility of developing the concept of a flexible compliance mechanism.

#### b. Credit Market

Over the life of the LCFS, regulated parties will need a robust credit market where they can buy and sell credits with confidence.  Such transactions need to occur in an environment with sufficient transparency to avoid or detect fraud or other transactional issues.  To this end, the short-term goal would be to identify structural design elements that can improve the credit accounting and security of the trading program under development.  As soon as practical, ARB should ensure that the market structure is further refined to encourage, through clear market signals, a healthy and robust system of credits and transactions. The Panel was interested in establishing what types of information would be necessary to evaluate the health of the LCFS credit market, what information should be made available to the public versus what should be collected, but kept confidential, and defining key elements to the credit trading platform.

There were several overriding market design themes stressed by some panelists for consideration by ARB in the short and long term. First, panelists expressed the need for the LCFS credit market to provide regulated parties with real-or near real-time pricing information. This would entail frequent publications by ARB (more frequent than the currently planned quarterly reports), which would help regulated parties seeking to buy or sell credits to identify an appropriate price for such credits at any given time. While staff agrees that the frequent publication of price and other credit-related information would likely be helpful, the LRT is not currently set up to provide this level of information at such frequencies. Thus, staff will need to work with stakeholders to incorporate this feature into future generations of the LRT.

Another design theme advocated by some panelists is the expansion of the LCFS credit market to the so-called secondary market. The current regulation limits credit buying and selling to LCFS regulated parties. The proposed expansion into the secondary market would permit, for example, credit brokers, speculators, and other “willing participants” to trade credits. As suggested by some panelists, this would theoretically spur investments in advanced biofuels and other low-CI fuels by monetizing the credits. However, as noted earlier, the program is in its infancy, and staff believes that the expansion of trading to the secondary market would entail substantially larger State resources to verify, account, and track the generation and disposition of valid LCFS credits and to provide the necessary oversight to prevent the creation and propagation of fraudulent credits. Thus, staff believes it is premature at this time to consider expansion of the market as suggested.

In the near term, ARB is conducting a rulemaking in December 2011 to add credit banking, trading, and retirement provisions to the LCFS program.  Staff plans to present recommended language to the Board for consideration at its December 2011 hearing. These provisions, developed in consultation with stakeholders, would define how a credit is generated during a quarterly period after a regulated party has reported their progress to ARB.  Another provision would provide regulated parties with the ability to purchase in the first quarter of a compliance year “carry-back” credits from a prior compliance period to meet the prior annual compliance.  A third provision would specify the transactional information ARB will require before approving the transfer of credits in the reporting tool.  Moreover, staff’s proposal would specify the required public disclosure that will ensure a healthy and informed market atmosphere.

### 5. High Carbon Intensity Crude Oil

The High Carbon Intensity Crude Oil (HCICO) provision currently in the regulation was established to help ensure that the LCFS program accounts for the high carbon-intensity of crude oils used by California refineries (and the resulting gasoline and diesel carbon intensity). The inclusion of HCICOs in the LCFS regulation recognizes that some crude oils require additional energy to produce (e.g., bitumen mining or thermally enhanced oil recovery techniques) or emit higher levels of GHG emissions during the production process (e.g., excessive flaring), significantly beyond the average carbon intensity value used in the baseline. A performance-based accounting system is necessary to ensure that additional emissions from California’s diesel and gasoline fuel are captured. A second goal of the HCICO provision is to provide a signal for oil producers to engage in emission reduction activities such as reducing flaring, improving energy efficiency, and using carbon capture and sequestration.

Petroleum refiners in California assert that the current HCICO provisions are overly burdensome to their industry, discriminatory toward sources of crude oil, will increase the potential for global crude-shuffling, which could increase GHG emissions, and would put California refiners at an economic disadvantage to out-of-state refiners. Therefore, they have requested that the CI values for CARBOB and diesel in the Lookup Tables of the current regulation be used, regardless of the type of crude supplies used by a refiner (i.e., no differentiation between the carbon intensities of crude oils). On the other hand, other stakeholders are equally as adamant that the LCFS should continue to account for increases in lifecycle carbon emissions that could occur if higher-intensity crudes are used to replace existing supplies. They assert that absent a HCICO provision, increased use of HCICOs would largely offset the emission benefits of increased use of low carbon fuels, that ignoring increased emissions from HCICOs was discriminatory and unfair toward low-carbon fuels treated with full lifecycle accounting, that no incentive would exist for oil companies to innovative and improve their upstream practices, and that California would be sending a bad signal to other jurisdictions pursuing a similar approach. They also argued that crude shuffling already occurs in the industry and that a performance-based approach treats foreign and domestic producers equally.

At the July 1, 2011, Advisory Panel meeting, staff presented five potential options for addressing HCICO in the LCFS. Representatives of the environmental community and the oil industry also made presentations related to the environmental and economic impacts of excluding or including HCICO provisions in the LCFS. Panelists discussed each of the viewpoints presented, and staff committed to continue working with interested stakeholders on possible regulatory amendments to the HCICO provisions in the current LCFS regulation.

Staff has continued working with stakeholders on regulatory revisions for addressing HCICO, including discussing the various approaches suggested by staff and stakeholders. We have also shared guiding principles for considering HCICO amendments, including: seeking an accurate accounting for emissions from production of crude oil; discouraging potential increases in emissions; promoting innovation for emission-reduction activities; and discouraging the potential for crude shuffling to generate credits, avoid deficits, or otherwise comply with the regulation.

Currently, ARB staff has proposed amendments to the HCICO provisions in the LCFS for consideration by the Board at its December hearing. Staff will continue working with stakeholders on possible revisions to staff’s current proposal leading up to that Board hearing.

## C. Summary and Next Steps

The Advisory Panel engaged in thoughtful discussions on a broad range of topics required to be addressed by ARB staff as part of the program review. Panelists also provided input on additional topics areas. As previously indicated, the considerable value of the Panel was the differing viewpoints on the issues discussed. Comments and suggestions made by panelists are already being reflected in several actions being taken by staff including some of the proposed amendments that the Board will consider in December.

As noted earlier, the LCFS program is in its infancy. Based on our assessment, staff does not believe there have been any adverse impacts on the environment or economy in response to the LCFS. Further, staff’s re-evaluation of the illustrative plausible scenarios suggests that there are numerous plausible scenarios that can be employed by stakeholders to comply with the program, at least through its mid-years (2015-2017) and possibly beyond. Based on staff’s analysis of the first two quarters of 2011, there are substantial numbers of credits in the market, which can potentially help regulated parties in future years meet their compliance obligations; though early, the program is working as intended.

In the long run, staff recognizes that next-generation fuels will be needed in future years. As such fuels are several years away, the program needs to maintain its “back-loaded” design features that allow time for the necessary investments in this emerging market of low CI biofuels. Staff also believes that ongoing monitoring of the implementation of the program is critical. Specifically, staff has many commitments including on-going monitoring of several aspects of the program that will ensure effective program implementation including future recommended regulatory amendments if necessary.

The next formal review of the LCFS is required to be completed by January 2015. Per panelist recommendations, staff will continue to work with stakeholders on informal reviews and staff will provide updates to the Board periodically prior to the next formal review. We anticipate inviting all current panelists to participate in the next convening of the Advisory Panel as well as extending the invitation to additional stakeholders. By that time, additional data should be available to inform a more quantitative analyses of the topics evaluated in this report and new topics might have elevated importance.

# II. Background on the 2011 LCFS Advisory Panel

## A. Introduction

On April 23, 2009, the California Air Resources Board (ARB or Board) approved the Low Carbon Fuel Standard (LCFS) regulation for adoption. The regulation became effective on April 15, 2010. Section 95489 of the regulation requires the Executive Officer to conduct two reviews of the LCFS program in a public process. These reviews will address a broad range of implementation topics and may include recommended amendments to the regulation. Staff will present the results of these reviews to the Board by January 1, 2012, and January 1, 2015.

To assist with the reviews, the Executive Officer is required to convene an Advisory Panel with which he will consult on the reviews. The regulation specifies that the Panel should include representatives of the California Energy Commission; the California Public Utilities Commission; fuel providers; storage and distribution infrastructure owner/operators; consumers; engine and vehicle manufacturers; environmental justice organizations; environmental groups; academia; public health; and other stakeholders and government agencies, as deemed appropriate by the Executive Officer.

Staff initiated the process by soliciting prospective panelists in a process that included distributing a notice[[10]](#footnote-10) via the “LCFS” and “fuels” listserves and posting the application for the Panel on ARB’s LCFS public web page. About 60 applications were submitted by various stakeholders. ARB staff recommended prospective panelists based on several factors, including experience of the applicant, the organizations represented in order to establish a broad base of representation, and supporting documentation such as letters of recommendation. Staff recommendations were shared with the Executive Officer and interested Board members before being finalized. Thirty nine stakeholders were ultimately selected for the Panel, along with four alternative members.

Over the course of a year, the Panel met a total of five times, with three of those meetings spanning two days. During these meetings, the Panel was presented with a range of materials that included agendas, outlines, draft chapters, and presentations made by individual panelists that reflected their perspectives. These materials were made available to the public on the LCFS Advisory Panel webpage,[[11]](#footnote-11) and the meetings could be attended by any interested party via teleconference or webinar. After the meetings, panelists and the public were given anywhere from one to three weeks to provide written comments on materials presented; the comments received were posted on the LCFS Advisory Panel webpage for public review.

The final report represents a compilation of staff views and recommendations, along with panelist recommendations, and a summary of the range of panelist opinions, when applicable, based on the topics outlined in the regulation.

## B. Panel Composition

As specified in the regulation, the Panel was comprised of representatives from the California Energy Commission; the California Public Utilities Commission; fuel providers; storage and distribution infrastructure owners/operators; consumers; engine and vehicle manufacturers; environmental justice organizations; environmental groups; academia; public health; and other stakeholders and government agencies, as deemed appropriate by the Executive Officer.

Following a solicitation for Panel participants, interested organizations and individuals submitted applications, curricula vitae, and letters of recommendation. With input from Board members, ARB staff selected the panelists from the application pool with expertise in the areas to be reviewed.

Members of the Panel, including their affiliation, are shown on the LCFS Advisory Panel webpage previously noted.[[12]](#footnote-12)

## C. Public Involvement

As noted, all Panel meetings were open to the public, and appropriate time periods were set aside for members of the general public to speak. Further, stakeholders were encouraged to submit written comments through the Panel’s website noted previously.

ARB staff developed a report of findings with recommendations based on panelist and public feedback. This report includes not only staff recommendations but also panelists’ recommendations and, when appropriate, a spectrum of panelist opinions on the range of topics covered by the review. This review process provided staff with invaluable insight on how the LCFS program is moving forward and elements that could be strengthened to improve and secure the longevity and the benefits of the LCFS.

## D. Scope of Work

The Panel discussed and provided input on issues focusing on the implementation of the LCFS. Those topics included those called for in section 95489(a) of the regulation which defined the minimum scope of the two required program reviews. Each review is to include the following topics:

(1) The LCFS program’s progress against LCFS targets;

(2) Adjustments to the compliance schedule, if needed;

(3) Advances in full, fuel-lifecycle assessments;

(4) Advances in fuels and production technologies, including the feasibility and cost-effectiveness of such advances;

(5) The availability and use of ultralow carbon fuels to achieve the LCFS standards and advisability of establishing additional mechanisms to incentivize the use of higher volumes of these fuels;

(6) An assessment of supply availabilities and the rates of commercialization of fuels and vehicles;

(7) The LCFS program’s impact on the State’s fuel supplies;

(8) The LCFS program’s impact on State revenues, consumers, and economic growth;

(9) An analysis of the public health impacts of the LCFS at the state and local level, including the impacts of local infrastructure or fuel production facilities in place or under development to deliver low carbon fuels, using an ARB approved method of analysis developed in consultation with public health experts from academia and other government agencies;

(10) An assessment of the air quality impacts on California associated with the implementation of the LCFS; whether the use of the fuel in the State will affect progress towards achieving State or federal air quality standards, or result in any significant changes in toxic air contaminant emissions; and recommendations for mitigation measures to address any adverse air quality impacts identified;

(11) Identification of hurdles or barriers (e.g., permitting issues, infrastructure adequacy, research funds) and recommendations for addressing such hurdles or barriers;

(12) Significant economic issues; fuel adequacy, reliability, and supply issues; and environmental issues that have arisen; and

(13) The advisability of harmonizing with international, federal, regional, and state LCFS and lifecycle assessments.

The Panel provided comments and feedback to for staff’s consdieration. Along with the staff’s assessment, the report includes Panel findings and recommendations to the degree that there was general agreement on an issue. These points of agreement were specifically noted in the report to differentiate them from the staff’s sole assessments. In order to ensure that the range of viewpoints on any particular subject were adequately represented, ARB staff provided panelists with several opportunities to provide edits and feedback on all documents for which comments were solicited. As noted, however, staff was the final arbiter of content.

The regulation required ARB staff to evaluate the above topics and to solicit the Panel to participate in the review by commenting on the staff evaluations. Based on discussions with the Panel during the first meeting, staff added two additional topics, High Carbon Intensity Crude Oil (HCICO) and credit trading, to the list of 13 that were required to be included in this review.

Though there were 15 topics covered under the 2011 program review, there are several workgroups predating the Panel that helped to inform the Panel by providing data, technical details, and recommendations during the review process. These workgroups[[13]](#footnote-13) included:

* High Carbon Intensity Crude Oil Workgroup;
* Sustainability Workgroup;
* Biorefinery Siting Workgroup;
* LCFS Reporting Tool Workgroup;
* LCFS LUC Expert Workgroup; and
* LCFS Electricity Workgroup.

To the extent feasible, the findings from these and other LCFS workgroups have been incorporated into the review report that was considered by the Panel.

At its kick-off meeting, the Panel discussed its charge and overall priorities. This discussion was used to further focus the Panel’s work.

## E. Report Structure

As noted, the regulation calls out various areas for program review, many of which overlap in some way. Because of this overlap, the report has been structured to group similar and related topics together. In some cases, where a topic calls out several different broad ideas, those have been split and addressed separately in the appropriate sections of the report. Each chapter begins with a description of the topics that are addressed in the chapter, reciting the regulatory text for a clearer understanding of what can be found in each chapter.

As appropriate, each chapter provides a review of ARB staff’s original work from the 2009 rulemaking. This includes both the conclusions that staff reached for a particular subject matter and the rationale behind those conclusions. The chapter then discusses how the panelists and staff proceeded to review the topic, identifies new conclusions that can be drawn from the work of staff and panelists, and notes recommendations from the staff and panelists for moving forward. In many cases, this 2011 program review occurred so early in the LCFS program that there are not enough empirical data to properly assess the topic. In these cases, staff and panelists have worked together to qualitatively assess the progress to the extent feasible and then discussed what further steps would be taken for later reviews in order to assess further the progress of the program.

## F. Advisory Panel Structure

### 1. Overall Structure

Mr. Richard Corey, Chief of the Stationary Source Division, Air Resources Board, served as Chair of the Panel, with Michelle Buffington acting as Co-Chair. A professional facilitator was brought in to run the meetings. With input from the Chair, the facilitator helped prepare meeting agendas, prepare minutes, and assist with report preparation. In addition to the panelists, outside experts were invited to particular meetings to provide information that may be useful to the Panel in developing its comments.

Staff established a model for releasing information to the Panel as follows:

* Draft outlines were distributed at least one week prior to a Panel meeting.
* During the meeting, panelists had open periods of time where they could discuss additions or modifications to the outline. In some cases, panelists offered their own expertise to help support or refute details contained in the outlines. In addition to comment periods built into the meetings, staff also provided a public comment website where both panelists and the public could submit written comments.
* Depending on the degree of panelist participation, some topics warranted an additional sub-workgroup to be formed. Some of these workgroups were led by ARB staff (e.g., economics workgroup, credit trading workgroup). On the other hand, some panelists formed their own workgroups, which then provided reports back to the Panel. Such reports then helped to inform various chapters of the staff report (e.g., the independent work on investments, advisability of including a flexible compliance alternative).
* From these outlines and panelists’ work products, draft chapters were written and presented to the Panel.
* Panelists were given time to comment both during the meeting (if the chapter was presented during a meeting) and through the public comment website.
* These draft chapters were then included in the complete draft report that was distributed the week of the Panel’s October meeting. Panelists will have sufficient opportunity to comment on the draft report prior to staff submitting it to the Board in December 2011.

### 2. Panel Meetings

All panel meetings were public and complied with the requirements of the Bagley-Keene Open Meeting Act of 2004 and related rules, regulations, and policies.[[14]](#footnote-14) The Panel met five times in an effort to review staff’s analyses and develop its recommendations for consideration by the Board. Several of these meetings were two days long, as requested by panelists during the first meeting. Panel members and the public could attend the meetings both via telephone and webinar. Meeting materials (e.g., meeting agendas, meeting summaries, presentations, documents to be reviewed) were posted on ARB’s web site in a timely fashion, which provided Panel members and the general public with ample time to review the documents prior to the meetings. The meetings focused on high-level discussions regarding staff’s analyses/assessments of specific topics called out in the regulation, as well as the work that other panelists were contributing for the report.

## G. Summary

This Panel provided input in the form of expert opinions, data, white papers, and presentations for staff to complete the 2011 review of the LCFS regulation. With this information and information that staff gathered, staff prepared a report that covers details of how the panelists and staff proceeded to review the topic, new conclusions that can be drawn from the work of staff and panelists, and recommendations from the staff and panelists for moving forward. In those cases where there was insufficient information to make quantitative conclusions about the program (due to its infancy), staff and panelists have worked together to qualitatively assess the progress to date. We then collaborated on a discussion of further steps that could be taken to assess the progress of the program in a later review.

# III. Advisability for Harmonization

## A. Introduction

Harmonizing LCFS programs means bringing key elements of different LCFS regulatory frameworks into accord with one another, while recognizing that these elements will not necessarily be (or need to be) identical. For example, it is important for LCFS programs to consider the carbon intensity (CI) of alternative fuels, rather than simply consider alternative fuel volume requirements. Although the carbon intensities of fuels in differing LCFS programs may differ due to regional differences in the energy required for feedstock production, the feedstocks used for electricity production, and the transportation distances of feedstocks and fuels used for estimating CI, the inclusion of CIs in all LCFS programs will encourage the production of lower CI fuels.

Harmonizing fuel programs between state, federal, and foreign jurisdictions is useful to ensure the optimum reduction of greenhouse gas (GHG) emissions. Similar fuel program frameworks reduce the possibility of fuel shuffling across different jurisdictions, and they reduce the administrative burden for both regulated parties and regulatory agencies. Program elements that should be considered for harmonization include LCA analysis, sustainability requirements, reporting requirements, and credit calculations. For LCA analysis, the model used for calculation (CA-GREET, GHGenius, etc.) is not important as long as all facets of fuel production (feedstock production, feedstock transportation, fuel production, fuel transportation and storage, and ILUC) and fuel use are similarly considered. The harmonization of LCFS programs is not without risks. Harmonization must not be achieved at the expense of actual GHG emissions or environmental considerations. For example, harmonizing the California LCFS with programs that do not fully consider ILUC could make it difficult to achieve real GHG emissions on a global scale, and programs lacking sustainability provisions could promote environmental damage.

The California LCFS is performance-based and is designed to reduce GHG emissions from transportation fuels by 10 percent by 2020. The regulation establishes annual performance standards that fuel producers and importers must meet beginning in 2011. The LCFS applies, either on a compulsory or opt-in basis, to all fuels used for transportation in California. These transportation fuels include California reformulated gasoline, California ultra-low-sulfur diesel fuel, E85, compressed or liquefied natural gas, biogas, electricity, and compressed or liquefied hydrogen.

The metric for California’s LCFS is carbon intensity (CI), and it is expressed in terms of grams of CO2 equivalent per mega-Joule (gCO2e/MJ). CI is based on the premise that each fuel has a “lifecycle” GHG emissions value. This lifecycle analysis (LCA), also known as well to wheel analysis (WTW), estimates the GHG emissions associated with crude recovery (or feedstock production), crude transportation (or feedstock transportation), fuel production, fuel transportation, and use of low carbon fuels in motor vehicles. The LCA includes both direct and indirect emissions associated with producing, transporting, and using the fuels. Land use change effects, both direct and indirect, are also considered in CI valuation.

Providers of transportation fuels (referred to as regulated parties) must demonstrate that the mix of fuels they supply meet the LCFS intensity standards for each annual compliance period. Regulated parties are required to use an interactive, secured Internet web-based form, such as the LCFS Reporting Tool (LRT), to submit quarterly status reports and an annual compliance report. They must report all fuels introduced into the California transportation fuel system and track the fuels’ CI through a system of “credits” and “deficits.” Credits are generated from fuels with lower CI than the standard. Deficits result from the use of fuels with higher CI than the standard. A regulated party meets its compliance obligation by ensuring that amount of credits it earns (or otherwise acquires from another party) is equal to, or greater than, the deficits it has incurred. Credits and deficits are generally determined based on the amount of fuel sold, the CI of the fuel, and the efficiency by which a vehicle converts the fuel into useable energy. The calculated metric is tons of GHG emissions. This determination is made for each year between 2011 and 2020. Credits may be banked and traded within the LCFS market to meet obligations.

The California LCFS provides added flexibility for the regulated parties. The regulation is performance-based, and fuel providers have several options. Fuel providers may incorporate new or improved technologies in fuel production to existing pathways to reduce the CI of their fuels (Method 2A). They may also develop new pathways (Method 2B).

## B. Harmonization of California LCFS with Other Programs

A number of California legislative and policy directives support the California LCFS. The State legislature and various State agencies have approved a number of measures that promote the use of renewable fuels, mandate reductions in GHG emissions, and encourage the use of non-petroleum-based fuels.

In 2006, the Legislature passed and Governor Schwarzenegger signed Assembly Bill (AB) 32, referred to the California Global Warming Solutions Act of 2006. AB 32 required the Board to develop a plan to reduce GHG emissions in California to 1990 levels by 2020. Among other provisions, AB 32 required the ARB to identify and adopt discrete early actions in 2007 and to approve a scoping plan in 2008. In April 2006, Governor Schwarzenegger signed an executive order (Executive Order S-06-06) that established targets to increase the production and use of bioenergy, including ethanol and biodiesel fuels made from renewable resources. One of the executive order provisions specified that, by 2020, 40 percent of biofuels used in the State should be produced in the State. In January 2007, Governor Schwarzenegger signed an executive order (Executive Order S-01-07) that established the goal of developing an LCFS to reduce the CI of transportation fuels by at least 10 percent by 2020 and to consider whether the LCFS should be listed as a discrete early action. In November 2007, the California Energy Commission and the Board each approved the “State Alternatives Fuel Plan (Fuels Plan),” required pursuant to Assembly Bill 1007. The Fuels Plan presents strategies and actions California must take to increase the use of alternative nonpetroleum fuels. An LCFS was anticipated as part of this Plan and it is consistent with the goals of the Fuels Plan. In December 2008, the Board approved the AB 32 Scoping Plan to reduce GHG emissions in California to 1990 levels. The Scoping Plan identifies how emission reductions will be achieved from significant GHG sources via regulations, market mechanisms, and other actions. The California LCFS regulation is listed as one of the key measures in the Scoping Plan.

At the federal level, Congress adopted a renewable fuels standard (RFS) in 2005 and strengthened it (RFS2) in December 2007 as part of the Energy Independence and Security Act of 2007 (EISA). The RFS2 contains, among other provisions, increasing volumes of biofuels every year, up to a required volume of 36 billion gallons by 2022.

Of the 36 billion gallons, 16 billion gallons must be advanced biofuels from cellulosic sources. Successful implementation of the RFS2 would result in significant quantities of low-CI biofuels that could be used toward compliance with California’s LCFS. In addition, successful implementation of RFS2 would signal that the necessary technological breakthroughs to produce second and third generation biofuels have occurred. When ARB developed the LCFS regulation, staff worked with U.S.EPA in an effort to harmonize the respective fuel programs.

ARB has also been coordinating with representatives from Oregon, Washington, NESCAUM (a regional organization of eight northeastern states), British Colombia, Ontario, and the European Commission. ARB staff coordination with representatives of other government agencies will continue because the ultimate success of any LCFS is dependent on adoption across jurisdictions. Although other program frameworks are dissimilar to LCFS, there is a great deal of interaction and cooperation amongst representatives from the different agencies.

## C. Background on Other State, Province, and Regional Programs

Several LCFS programs are under development or in consideration in other regions within U.S. and Canada. This section briefly describes these programs and their current status.

### 1. Northeast/Mid-Atlantic Regional Clean Fuels Standard Update

Eleven northeast and mid-Atlantic states[[15]](#footnote-15) are currently participating in the evaluation of a regional Clean Fuels Standard (CFS), which would lower the average carbon intensity of transportation fuels in the region and support the development and use of alternative fuels such as advanced biofuels, electricity, and natural gas. A 2009 Memorandum of Understanding signed by the Governors of the eleven states committed the states to developing a program framework and conducting an economic analysis of the potential impacts of the program.

Northeast States for Coordinated Air Use Management (NESCAUM)[[16]](#footnote-16) is providing technical and policy support to the state governments in this effort, and conducted the economic analysis on behalf of the states. NESCAUM completed its analysis and published a report detailing the results in August 2011. Among the key findings were that that the program could provide small but positive economic benefits while reducing greenhouse gas emissions and dependence on imported petroleum fuels.

The states have maintained an active stakeholder process, and are currently in a public comment period during which interested parties may provide feedback on the results of the economic analysis. Additionally, the states and NESCAUM held two public stakeholder meetings—in Boston on September 20, 2011, and in Baltimore on September 22, 2011—to discuss the findings of the analysis and solicit input from stakeholders and interested parties.

The states and NESCAUM are continuing to develop a potential framework for the program, addressing issues such as identification of regulated parties, treatment of fuels derived from high-carbon sources, indirect land use change, and others. NESCAUM is also closely following other efforts to develop or analyze fuel carbon intensity standards. The states have not made any final program decisions at this time, and are continuing to evaluate framework options based on input from stakeholders and the best available science.

### 2. Oregon

An LCFS program was authorized by the Oregon Legislature in 2009 as part of House Bill 2186. The Department of Environmental Quality (DEQ) was tasked to design the program. The DEQ convened a 29-member advisory committee, reflecting a broad range of stakeholders that are potentially regulated or affected by the program, to discuss various aspects of program design. The DEQ released in January 2011 draft rules reflecting the recommendations of the advisory committee and will consider final proposed rules in December 2011. The proposal is modeled after California LCFS while being customized to meet conditions in Oregon. The proposal mandates a 10 percent GHG reduction that is to be achieved by 2022. The Oregon LCFS program does not cover propane, which was specifically excluded from HB 2186. The program also exempts farm and logging trucks. There are several safeguards to protect low carbon fuel producers, regulated parties, and consumers from unintended negative effects of low carbon fuel standards, such as an inadequate supply of low carbon fuels or a non-competitive price of fuel with its neighbors. Such safeguards include a series of exemptions, deferrals, and periodic program reviews. Although the methodological approaches of the Oregon LCFS have not been finalized, they appear similar to the California LCFS.

The Oregon DEQ is currently reaching out to key stakeholders and working with other governments that are implementing or studying similar programs to work through common issues. Staffing and revenue considerations are being analyzed given changes in agency funding and the expectation is to have the rules finalized by December 2011.

### 3. Washington

Executive Order 09-05 directs the Washington Department of Ecology to assess LCFS provisions that would best help the state meet its GHG goals. Final GHG plan developed in 2010 noted “a number of questions that we will continue to assess before making a recommendation to the Governor on whether or not we believe Washington should implement [an LCFS program].” The final report on LCFS was published in February 2011. The plan assumes carbon intensity will be reduced 10 percent from 2007 levels by 2023, with reductions beginning in 2014.

### 4. British Columbia

British Columbia (BC) currently has an LCFS program that applies to transportation fuels manufactured, brought into, or received in BC. The GHG reduction targets are same as California LCFS program, i.e. a 10 percent reduction in carbon intensity by 2020, but the BC program includes propane as a regulated fuel. LCFS credits are not restricted from use in other programs; however, credits generated outside the LCFS program cannot be used for compliance. Although there are similarities with the California LCFS, there are also some important differences. In contrast to the California LCFS, the BC program does not, at this time, include indirect land use change (ILUC). The model used for estimating the direct CI is GHGenius, similar in principle to CA-GREETmodel but with some differences. BC is participating in federal development of sustainability criteria in Canada.

### 5. Midwestern Governor’s Association

The Midwestern Governor’s Association represents Illinois, Indiana, Iowa, Kansas, Michigan, Minnesota, Ohio, South Dakota, and Wisconsin.  The Advanced Transportation Fuels Advisory Group is currently undertaking studies and discussions of a Low Carbon Fuels Policy.  According to the 2010 Low Carbon Fuels Policy Document, proposed recommendations are to use 2005 as baseline for reductions and to require 10 percent reductions within 10 years of implementation.

## D. Background on National Programs

### 1. RFS2

Congress adopted a renewable fuels standard (RFS) in 2005 and strengthened it (RFS2) in December 2007 as part of the Energy Independence and Security Act of 2007 (EISA). The RFS2 requires fuel producers to use a progressively increasing amount of biofuel, culminating in at least 36 billion gallons of biofuel by 2022 (see Table III‑1). RFS2 differentiates between "conventional biofuel" (corn-based ethanol) and "advanced biofuel." Advanced biofuel is renewable fuel, other than corn-based ethanol, with lifecycle GHG emissions that are at least 50 percent less than GHG emissions produced by gasoline or diesel. The RFS2 does not specifically require GHG reductions for the various categories of renewable fuels and is not a carbon intensity standard like the LCFS. However, there are specific requirements for the different classifications of renewable fuels. In general, these specifications are set relative to the baseline lifecycle GHG emissions for gasoline and diesel fuel sold or distributed in 2005.

U.S. EPA is responsible for implementing the volume requirements in the RFS2.

Section 211(o) of the Clean Air Act (CAA or the Act), as amended, requires the

U.S. EPA Administrator to annually determine a renewable fuel standard that is applicable to refiners, importers, and certain blenders of gasoline, and publish the standard in the Federal Register. On the basis of this standard, each obligated party determines the volume of renewable fuel that it must ensure is consumed as motor vehicle fuel. This standard is calculated as a percentage, by dividing the amount of renewable fuel that the Act requires to be blended into gasoline for a given year by the amount of gasoline expected to be used during that year, including certain adjustments specified by the Act. In 2010, U.S. EPA made changes to the RFS2 program as required by the EISA. The revised statutory requirements established new specific annual volume standards for cellulosic biofuel, biomass-based diesel, advanced biofuel, and total renewable fuel that must be used in transportation fuel.The following charts show the volumetric requirements of the EISA (Table III-1), and the revised standards for 2010 and 2011 (Table III-2).

**Table III-1:** EISA Renewable Fuel Volume Requirements (billion gallons)

|  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| Year | Cellulosic biofuel requirement | Biomass-based diesel requirement | Total Advanced biofuel requirement | Total renewable fuel requirement |
| 2008200920102011201220132014201520162017201820192020202120222023+ |  n/a n/a 0.1 0.25 0.5 1.0 1.75 3.0 4.25 5.5 7.0 8.5 10.5 13.5 16.0 b |  n/a 0.5 0.65 0.80 1.0 a a a a a a a a a a b |  n/a 0.6 0.95 1.35 2.0 2.75 3.75 5.5 7.25 9.0 11.0 13.0 15.0 18.0 21.0 b |  9.0 11.1 12.95 13.95 15.2 16.55 18.15 20.5 22.25 24.0 26.0 28.0 30.0 33.0 36.0 b |

a To be determined by EPA through a future rulemaking, but no less than 1.0 billion gallons.

b To be determined by EPA through a future rulemaking.

**Table III-2:** Revised Standards for 2010 and 2011

|  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- |
| **Fuel Category**  | **Percentage of Fuel Required to be Renewable**  | **Volume of Renewable Fuel** **(in billion gal)**  |
|  | **2010** | **2011** | **2010** | **2011** |
| **Cellulosic biofuel**  | 0.004%  | 0.003% | 0.0065  | 0.0066 |
| **Biomass Based Diesel** | 1.10\* | 0.69% | 1.15\* | 0.80 |
| **Total Advanced biofuel**  | 0.61%  | 0.78% | 0.95  | 1.35 |
| **Renewable fuel**  | 8.25%  | 8.01% | 12.95  | 13.95 |

\*Combined 2009/2010 Biomass-Based Diesel Volumes Applied in 2010

Although the RFS2 requires the production of specified volumes of lower carbon biofuels, the fuel carbon intensity reductions it would achieve in California would be substantially below the reductions the LCFS is designed to achieve. The federal RFS would deliver only about 30 percent of the GHG benefits of the proposed regulation, and does not incent fuels such as natural gas, electricity, or hydrogen. California’s LCFS complements the federal RFS2.

### 2. Consideration of a National LCFS

A national LCFS policy is desirable to bridge across the portfolio of state and regional LCFS policy initiatives under development. Such a policy would aim to provide comprehensive and consistent incentives across the nation for greenhouse gas emissions reductions from transportation fuels, offering potential policy benefits for the environment, fuel consumers, regulators, and regulated parties. A National LCFS Study project was created in January 2009 to respond to key information gaps regarding a potential national LCFS. This study is a collaboration between researchers from six research institutions, including Institute of Transportation Studies; University of California, Davis; Department of Agricultural and Consumer Economics/Energy Biosciences Institute; University of Illinois, Urbana-Champaign; Margaret Chase Smith Policy Center and School of Economics; University of Maine; Environmental Sciences Division, Oak Ridge National Laboratory; Green Design Institute of Carnegie Mellon University; and the International Food Policy Research Institute.

Consistent with the California LCFS, the National LCFS Study envisions a policy would respond to specific, documented market failures and barriers that, taken together, are expected to limit the effectiveness and economic efficiency of advancing transportation sector mitigation with economy-wide climate policy instruments, such as carbon taxes and cap-and-trade schemes. Within this context, the primary objectives of the national LCFS project are to:

* Compare LCFS with other policies for reducing anthropogenic GHG emissions from transportation; and
* Develop policy design recommendations for a national LCFS policy that would be effective, implementable, and compatible with a broader portfolio of climate policies.

Policy design recommendations are intended to define at a high level a national LCFS policy framework that would be effective, implementable, broadly compatible with state and regional initiatives underway, complementary to a broader portfolio of national and international climate policies, and acceptable to the majority of the stakeholders. It also aims to harmonize state-implemented LCFSs and reduce potential conflicts or even counterproductive policy measures. Policy design recommendations will cover issues related to program coverage and scope, baseline and targets, fuels and vehicle characteristics, fuel pooling, measuring lifecycle carbon intensity (including spatial boundary, land use change, uncertainty), default and opt-in reporting, point of regulations, chain of custody, market mechanisms, compliance, penalties and cost containment, sustainability safeguards, and interactions with other policies.

## E. Background on Other Countries’ Programs

As a part of its plan to reduce overall GHG emissions, the European Commission amended the European Fuel Quality Directive 98/70/EC on December 17, 2008, to include the de-carbonization of transport fuel. Unlike the California LCFS, the European Fuel Quality Directive does not include a lookup table of CIs for specific transportation fuels. However, suppliers will be required to report on the lifecycle GHG emissions of the fuel (petrol, diesel, and gas-oil) they supply and reduce these emissions from 2011 onward. Suppliers will be required to gradually reduce GHG emissions per unit of energy by up to 10 percent in 2020. This is to be accomplished through the use of biofuels, alternative fuels, and reductions in flaring and venting. The fuel directive applies to suppliers of fuel for road vehicles, non-road machinery (including inland waterway vessels when not at sea), agricultural and forestry tractors, and recreational craft when not at sea.

Sustainability requirements are also included in the European Fuel Quality Directive. For example, biofuels are prohibited from being made from raw material obtained from land with biodiversity value; biofuels cannot be from made from raw material obtained from land with high carbon stock (wetlands, continuously forested areas, peat lands); and biofuels shall not be from made from raw material obtained from land that was peat land in January 2008 unless it is proven that the cultivation and harvesting of this raw material does not involve drainage of previously undrained soil. Member States require economic operators to show that sustainability criteria above have been fulfilled; Economic operators must use a mass balance system to ensure that sustainability criteria apply to all raw materials used in biofuels production.

Member States require economic operators to show appropriate and relevant information on measures taken for soil, water and air protection, the restoration of degraded land, and the avoidance of excessive water consumption in areas where water is scarce. Member States shall take measures to ensure that economic operators submit reliable information and to make available to the Member State upon request the data that were used to develop the information. Furthermore, Member States require economic operators to arrange for an adequate standard of independent auditing of the information they submit. The auditing shall verify that the systems used by the economic operators are accurate, reliable, and fraud-resistant.

## F. Priority Areas for Possible Harmonization

### 1. Lifecycle Assessment

The LCFS regulatory framework builds upon estimates of the CI of each regulated fuel pathway. CI is determined using lifecycle assessment (LCA) of the aggregate quantity of GHG emissions associated with the production, transport, storage, and use of a fuel, including the “direct” effects and “indirect” effects. As the name implies, direct effects (or attributional emissions) are those that are directly connected with the production and use of a fuel, such as the growing and harvesting of the feedstock, the transport of the feedstock to the biorefinery, the emissions from the biorefinery, the transport of the fuel from the biorefinery, and vehicle tailpipe emissions. Indirect effects (or consequential emissions) are generated by secondary processes (usually by supply/demand dynamics of fuel feedstocks) set in motion by a fuel production process.

Several models are currently in use to perform LCA of fuels. For example, the California LCFS program uses CA-GREET (California version of the Greenhouse Gases, Regulated Emissions, and Energy Use in Transportation model) to determine direct effects and GTAP(Global Trade Analysis Project model) to determine indirect effects due to land use change. The RFS2 and European programs use FAPRI/FASOM **(**Food and Agricultural Policy Research Institute/Forest and Agricultural Sector Optimization Model) and RED/FQD (Renewable Energy Directive/ Fuel Quality Directive) methodologies, respectively, for the LCA under those programs. While the individual models being used by different jurisdictions may differ in some respects, the emphasis for a harmonization effort should be to strive for consistency in the data and on the assumptions used in conjunction with these models so that the overall results can be meaningfully compared.

Harmonization of LCA methodologies between jurisdictions could reduce the potential for leakage and fuel shuffling. For example, suppose a biofuel production facility is assigned different CI values under different LCFS programs or one LCFS program includes ILUC estimates in lifecycle analyses and another LCFS program does not. Inconsistencies in CIs will create incentives to shuffle fuels between states to reduce penalties under the individual programs. It is important to note that the actual direct CI values for the individual fuel pathways are not expected to be identical but are expected to vary between different jurisdictions. This results not so much due to variation in assessment methodology but rather due to local influences on the inputs to the fuel production chain (e.g. type of energy use in the refinery, local transportation inputs for the feedstocks and products, etc.). However, as long as the GHG accounting methodologies are fundamentally similar and are using similar assumptions for data inputs, the potential for leakage and shuffling could be minimized.

An important benefit provided by the harmonization of LCA under similar programs is the reduced need to undertake new analyses for every region. Other jurisdictions can use the LCA values or inputs for fuels approved under Method 2A/2B of the California LCFS program, with specific modifications to reflect regional effects where needed. A set of best LCA practices once established in a jurisdiction can serve as a learning experience for others without the need to replicate the efforts, thus reducing the burden for all programs.

### 2. Fossil Fuel/HCICO Treatment

The California LCFS includes a provision for addressing high carbon intensity oil (HCICO). The inclusion of HCICOs in the California LCFS regulation recognizes that some crude oils require additional energy to produce (e.g., bitumen mining or thermally enhanced oil recovery techniques) or emit higher levels of GHG emissions during the production process (e.g., excessive flaring). Since the California LCFS considers full lifecycle assessment, these additional GHG emissions should be taken into account if California refineries process these crudes. An important goal of the HCICO provision is to provide a signal for oil producers to engage in emission reduction activities, such as reducing flaring, improving energy efficiency, and using carbon capture and sequestration.

Other jurisdictions do not address the HCICO issue. Harmonization of the treatment of HCICO across jurisdictions will boost the signal to crude oil producing companies for GHG emission reduction activities and promote innovation. An important additional benefit of harmonization in this area is a reduction in carbon leakage due to shuffling. A harmonization effort will require the development of consistent a methodology to determine carbon intensity of crude oil production from various processes and sources around the world. ARB staff is currently working on a tool that standardizes this methodology, while a concurrent effort is underway in Europe. Once developed, this tool will be used to assess variations of crude production emissions on a periodic basis. This tool will be made available for use by other jurisdictions as well.

### 3. Sustainability

Harmonized sustainability criteria could reduce the burden on businesses and reduce the scope for fuel shuffling. The Board directed staff in Resolution 09-31 to work with appropriate state and federal agencies, environmental advocates, regulated parties, and other interested stakeholders to develop sustainability provisions to be used in implementing the LCFS regulation. ARB staff has been working with these stakeholders, as well as with national and international partners to address potential sustainability issues arising from the worldwide demand of biofuels.

Staff is assessing how existing laws and regulations address sustainability for the management and harvest of biofuel feedstocks and biofuel operations. Also, because several other countries have initiatives that are farther along than the LCFS, staff is following the development of certification and benchmark systems developed by other countries, organizations, or industry groups that can serve as models for California. We will continue to work with these entities to ensure our process is in harmony with theirs, to the extent feasible.

For more information about the workgroup and their progress, please see the environmental chapter of this report.

### 4. Reporting and Chain of Custody

Harmonized chain of custody and reporting requirements could reduce the burden on businesses operating in several jurisdictions. Under the California LCFS program, staff has worked with stakeholders to establish procedures for reporting information under the program. An integral part of this effort has been the development of a web-based reporting tool for fuel producers to use to establish compliance under the program. Regulated parties use the LCFS Reporting Tool (LRT) to electronically manage accounts, enter or import fuel data, submit electronic reports and corrections, and track credits and deficits. Additionally, ARB staff has established a voluntary Biofuel Producer Registration program to help facilitate biofuel transactions by giving buyers and sellers of biofuels a common online resource containing registered CI values and physical pathway information that can be traced to specific production facilities. This, in turn, helps regulated parties to use registration data for LCFS reporting and compliance purposes. The reporting and tracking tools developed under the California LCFS program can be made available to other states’ programs, thus reducing the need to reinvent the wheel. Aligning the reporting requirements across jurisdictions and nationally would serve to reduce the administrative burden for the regulated parties that have to report to both federal and state programs; however, the fundamental structure of the different state and federal programs may not always make it feasible to have identical reporting structures. For example, the reporting requirements under the RFS2 and California LCFS are not the same due to programmatic differences.

### 5. Credit Market

A credit market that allows import/export of credits between LCFS programs will potentially enhance the compliance flexibility provided under the individual programs. The LCFS credits, denominated in metric tons of carbon dioxide equivalent (MTCO2e), are based on an analysis of the transportation fuel’s full lifecycle carbon intensity (CI).

A key consideration for the success of an expanded credit market is to ensure equivalent CI reduction value associated with credits generated under separate programs. This in turn can be achieved by harmonization of the other elements of the program such as LCA methodologies, treatment of crude oil, compliance schedules, reporting methodologies, credit accounting methodologies, etc. Inconsistencies of credit values will potentially result in shuffling of credits between programs, undermining the potential benefits of expanded markets.

The California LCFS program currently allows the export of LCFS credits to other GHG reduction programs (the AB 32 programs) that would accept those credits. To date, however, other AB 32 programs have not been structured to accept LCFS credits. Pending harmonization of various elements of the California program with the programs of other states, it may be feasible to open the market first to other Western states and eventually to other U.S. states.

## G. Summary

The harmonization of LCFS programs is important for ensuring that global GHG emission reductions actually result from these programs. Harmonizing LCFS programs to the extent practical will help to create an environment where credits may be freely traded, fuel shuffling will be inhibited, and the burden on regulated parties and regulatory agencies will be lessened. ARB will continue to work with representatives from other government LCFS programs in an effort to harmonize LCA methods, sustainability requirements, reporting requirements, and credit trading mechanisms.

# IV. Advances in Lifecycle Assessment

## A. Introduction

There are two main components to the fuel-lifecycle assessment: direct and indirect effects, the former encompassed in the Method2A/2B process and the latter addressed through the continued development and review of land use change values, informed in part by the Expert Workgroup. These activities are a key element of the LCFS regulation, as they inform the carbon intensity for each fuel pathway, which in turn translates into the credits or deficits under the program as a function of volumes introduced into the transportation system.

When the Board approved the LCFS in April of 2009, it approved two fuel pathway Lookup Tables containing a total of 64 staff-developed pathways. Of those pathways, 37 were for gasoline (CARBOB) and gasoline substitutes, and 27 were for diesel and diesel substitutes. The carbon intensities (CIs) associated with those pathways were estimated using one or both of two models: version 1.8b of the California-modified Greenhouse Gases, Regulated Emissions, and Energy Use in Transportation model (CA GREET) and the Global Trade Analysis Project (GTAP) model[[17]](#footnote-17). CA-GREET was used to estimate the direct fuel life cycle (“well-to-wheels”) emissions, while GTAP was used to estimate the emissions associated with indirect land use change (LUC). Although the direct well-to-wheels emissions associated with all of the original
64 pathways were estimated using CA-GREET, not all of those pathways were associated with identifiable LUC emissions. Thus, GTAP was used on only a subset of pathways: corn ethanol, sugarcane ethanol, soy biodiesel, and soy renewable diesel.

Since the Board approved the LCFS in April 2009, there have been few changes in the GREET model used for estimating direct emissions of fuel pathways, but significant technical activity related to the GTAP model used to estimate indirect emissions. Both of these models are discussed below, including what impacts advances or changes in lifecycle analysis may have on the LCFS regulation.

## B. Direct Effects

### 1. Background

In order to make the fuel pathway approval process as transparent as possible, the Lookup Tables containing the original set of 64 pathways were included in the LCFS regulation. As a result, adding new or modified pathways to the table could only be accomplished through the full regulatory change process: the publication of an Initial Statement of Reasons, a 45-day public comment period, a public hearing before the Board or the Executive Officer, the publication of a Final Statement of Reasons in which all comments submitted receive response, and final approval by the Office of Administrative Law. Foreseeing a time when the evaluation and approval of proposed new pathways becomes well-defined, standardized, and accepted by the regulated community, the Board directed staff in Resolution 09-31to explore the feasibility of converting the pathway approval process to a certification program. This conversion would expedite and streamline the approval process. Staff is currently developing the requested Method 2 pathway certification program. Additional details on the proposed program are presented below.

New and modified pathways are developed in two ways under the LCFS: They can be developed by ARB staff, as was done with the original set of 64 pathways, and by fuel providers. Fuel providers apply for new pathways under the “Method” 2 provisions of the LCFS regulation. Method 2 is subdivided into Method 2A, for pathways that are modified versions of existing Lookup Table pathways, and Method 2B, for fuels or production processes without close analogs in the Lookup Tables. Both categories of pathways—staff-developed and Method 2 pathways—are subject to the same regulatory change approval process.

### 2. Pathway Development

Responding to concerns from Method 2 pathway applicants that the pathway approval process would delay the introduction of new low-CI fuels into the California market, the Board directed Staff in Resolution 10-49 to develop a process whereby applicants could begin using their pathway CIs on a temporary basis once staff recommends those CIs for approval. The process staff developed is contained in Regulatory Advisory 10-04. This Advisory allows Method 2 pathway applicants to begin using their proposed pathway CIs as soon as they are recommended for approval by ARB staff and posted to the Method 2 web site. If pathways posted to the Method 2 web site are eventually modified or denied at hearing, the applicant may continue using the posted CIs for up to six months following the hearing decision.

Beginning in early 2010, fuel producers began submitting fuel pathway applications under the Method 2 provisions of the regulation. At the same time, staff began working on yet another directive from Resolution 09-31: developing a new set of priority fuel pathways that could be appended to the Lookup Tables and then used by fuel producers. To date, 106 producer-developed pathways and six staff-developed priority pathways have been posted to the Method 2A/2B web site. The Method 2A and 2B pathways that have been posted are summarized in Table IV-1.

**Table IV-1:** A Summary of the Methods 2A and 2B Pathway Applications Recommended for Approvala and Posted as of 9/16/2011

|  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- |
| Feedstock and Fuel | Number of Applicationsb | Number of Pathways |
| Corn Ethanol | 14 | 46 |
| Corn-Sorghum Ethanol | 5 | 43 |
| Beverage waste | 1 | 1 |
| CBI Cane ethanol | 5 | 15 |
| Natural gas | 1 | 1 |
| Total | 26 | 106 |

**a** 106 pathways do not include the 64 pathways in the original regulation.

**b** Individual applications can contain multiple individual pathways. Multiple pathways allow the applicant to account for variable production parameters such varying amounts of biogas in the thermal energy stream or varying co-product characteristics.

Whereas none of the producer-developed pathways appearing on the 2A/2B web site are for diesel substitute fuels, four of the six posted ARB-developed pathways are for diesel substitutes (see Table IV-2).

**Table IV-2:** ARB Priority Pathways Recommended for Approval and Posted as of 9/16/2011

|  |  |
| --- | --- |
| Feedstock and Fuel | Number of Pathways |
| Midwestern used cooking oil to California biodiesel | 2 |
| North American canola to California biodiesel | 1 |
| Midwestern corn oil to California biodiesel | 1 |
| Midwestern sorghum to Midwestern ethanol | 2 |

The pathways posted to the Method 2A/2B website are recommended for approval rather than approved. Regulatory Advisory 10-04 makes the posted pathway CIs available for use, pending final approval by the Executive Officer. To date, 25 of the posted producer-developed pathways and three of the ARB-developed pathways have been heard by the Executive Officer. Staff presented all 28 of these pathways at an Executive Officer public hearing on February 24, 2011. Due to public comments received on one of the pathways, as well as pathway changes requested by one of the applicants, the approval package was remanded to staff for revision. The requested changes have almost been completed. When they are, a 15-day public comment period will allow for additional input related to these specific revisions. Then staff will prepare a Final Statement of Reasons and submit it to the Office of Administrative Law. Staff expects these pathways to be adopted and added to the LCFS Lookup Table.

### 3. Current Method 2A/2B Applications

Fuel producers are continuing to file Method 2A and 2B applications, and ARB priority pathway development is ongoing. Among the Method 2 applications currently under consideration include corn ethanol, biodiesel, and waste-to-fuel applications. ARB staff is also developing an anaerobic digestion pathway which will utilize organic municipal solid waste as a feedstock.

### 4. Transition from a Regulatory to a Certification Process

LCFS staff is scheduled to submit a package of regulation changes to the Board for approval in December of 2011. Among the proposed changes is language that would remove the current pathway approval process from the regulation change framework and convert it to a certification program. Under this proposal, all Method 2A and 2B submission requirements and all the procedures and criteria used to evaluate applications—as well as ARB-developed pathways—would be spelled out in detail in the regulation. This would obligate ARB staff and the Executive Officer to apply those criteria and procedures objectively and uniformly in all cases. The role of discretion in the approval process would be minimized.

The Lookup Tables will remain in the regulation; however, certified fuel pathways will be listed on ARB’s web page and will be available for immediate use. Periodically, ARB staff will propose to the Board that the Lookup Tables be updated with the certified pathways. The transparency associated with the rulemaking process should be maintained; therefore, staff proposes that applications would continue to be posted for public comment and would be subject to revision based on comments received.

### 5. Future of the Pathway Approval Process and of CA-GREET

Although CA-GREET is widely accepted and generally regarded as technically sound, it is very difficult to use. A near-term priority for ARB staff is to significantly improve the model’s usability while retaining or enhancing its ability to calculate fuel life cycle carbon intensities based on the best available engineering data, and best practices in the area of Life Cycle Analysis. ARB will pursue this goal through a contract with a respected consultant with extensive experience with CA-GREET in particular and lifecycle analysis in general. As of this writing, that contract is being finalized. The resulting improved version of CA-GREET will be used by ARB staff, but will also be made available for use by the LCFS regulated community.

The nature and scope of the modifications that will be made to the model will be determined in consultation with the contractor. Staff currently intends, however, to retain most of the data tables and calculation algorithms found in the existing
CA-GREET version 1.8b. That version of the model has proven itself to be flexible and expandable enough to handle a wide variety of fuel pathways. Based on its extensive experience with version 1.8b of the model, staff has determined that it is unnecessary to adopt a newer GREET version (or another life cycle analysis model) as the basis of planned model modifications.

This approach to the modification of the GREET model is consistent with the overall direction ARB envisions for the LCFS fuel pathway development function. ARB’s experience to date has indicated that it makes more sense to concentrate pathway development efforts on adding new pathways to the Lookup Table than it does to update the pathways already there. Fuel providers who have products with CIs that are lower than the applicable CIs in the Lookup Table can apply for custom pathways through the Method 2A process. ARB staff can also target its pathway development efforts on important emerging fuels that have the potential to contribute significantly to the CI-reduction goals of the LCFS. In sum, ARB staff has seen that the pathway development opportunities currently in place provide fuel providers with ample opportunity to obtain pathway CIs that fairly and accurately reflect their actual production life cycles. As staff is able to transition the pathway approval process away from the resource-intensive regulatory change framework, the development and approval of new pathways will be able to accelerate.

Members of the Advisory Panel have asked whether the pathway development process will begin to incorporate mechanisms that recognize the adoption of sustainable agricultural practices that minimize GHG emissions. There is no question that the adoption of such practices is consistent with the goals of the LCFS. As such, ARB is considering mechanisms to credit such practices through its LCFS Sustainability Workgroup. Unequivocal data on agricultural practices has proven elusive. Even when it can be shown that practices on the farms that supply feedstocks to fuel producers with LCFS pathways, the practices themselves are subject to change from year-to-year as market conditions change. In response to these difficulties, the Method 2A/2B process will not be able to recognize enlightened agricultural practices with detailed and specific data from the actual farms that supply the fuel feedstocks, in combination with appropriate arrangements (such as ongoing data submission requirements) that will provide the certainty that those practices will remain in effect so long as fuel with the CI based on these practices is sold in California. If the Sustainability Workgroup ever proposes mechanisms that can be used to certify low-emissions agricultural practices, however, the Method 2A and 2B processes would consider adopting those mechanisms as part of a public rulemaking process. To the extent that such mechanisms are incorporated into the process, the number of CIs that are based on low-emissions agricultural practices should increase over time.

### 6. Summary of Direct Emissions Lifecycle Analysis

Although newer versions of GREET have been developed since the Board approved the LCFS, staff believes that Version 1.8b is more than adequate to estimate direct emissions from a fuel pathway. On the other hand, the platform on which GREET currently operates makes it difficult to use and manage. To address this issue, ARB is contracting with a consultant fluent with GREET to make modifications that will make the model more user-friendly.

Staff does not expect that the methodology for the estimation of direct emissions for fuel pathways to significantly change in the near future. Should the GREET model be modified to the extent that significant changes are introduced, or a better model is developed, staff will take these changes into consideration and recommend revisions to the fuel pathway CI values in the Lookup Tables as warranted. Should staff propose, and the Board approve, modifications to CI values in the Lookup Tables due to advances in lifecycle analysis, and those modifications impact the LCFS compliance schedule, the revised CI values would presumably take effect at the beginning of a new compliance period (i.e., January 1st) for ease of implementation.

## C. Lifecycle Assessment – Indirect Effects

### 1. Summary of “Original” Indirect Effects Modeling for the LCFS

#### a. Land Use Change (LUC) Modeling for Biofuels

The land use change effects of a large expansion in biofuel production will occur both domestically and internationally. A sufficiently large increase in biofuel demand in the U.S. will cause non-agricultural land to be converted to cropland both in the U.S. and in countries with agricultural trade relations with the U.S. In order to isolate the land use changes resulting specifically from an increase in biofuel production, one must determine the differences in land use between the “world with the increase in biofuel production” and the “world without the increase in biofuel production.” Unfortunately, empirical data on land use is not available for at least one of these “worlds.” Because of this limitation, a model is required to isolate the differences in land use resulting from a change in biofuel production.

##### i. Choice of model

Models used to estimate land use change impacts must be international in scope. The Global Trade Analysis Project (GTAP) model has a global scope, is publicly available, and has a long history of use in modeling complex international economic effects. Therefore, ARB staff determined that the GTAP is the most suitable model for estimating the land use change impacts of the crop based biofuels that will be regulated under the LCFS. A more comprehensive discussion of the models considered by ARB and the choice of the GTAP model is given in Appendix C2 of the LCFS staff report.[[18]](#footnote-18)

##### ii. Model Structure, Inputs and Assumptions

GTAP is a computable general equilibrium (CGE) model. CGE models are designed to seek equilibrium. If a change is introduced—increased demand for crop-based fuels, for example—fuel crops, fuels themselves, and a number of related prices will all change. Prices that rise will stimulate higher production and reduced demand in other sectors. Prices that drop will have the opposite effect. A CGE model will seek that point at which demand is satisfied by supply throughout the modeled economy. Once a new economy-wide equilibrium is reached, the model reports all changes that occurred, as well as the net, economy-wide change.

The primary input to computable general equilibrium models such as GTAP is the specification of the changes that will, by moving the economy away from equilibrium, result in the establishment of a new equilibrium. Parameters such as elasticity values are used to estimate the extent which introduced changes alter the prior equilibrium. Listed below are a few important inputs and parameters that the GTAP uses to model the land use change impacts of increased biofuel production levels. The values presented are for the original LCFS modeling.

* Baseline year: Version 6 of the GTAP database employs the 2001 world economic database as the analytical baseline. This is the most recent year for which a complete global land use database existed at the time of the original modeling.
* Fuel production increase: The primary input to computable general equilibrium models such as GTAP is the specification of the changes that will result in a new equilibrium.
* Yield-price elasticity: This parameter determines how much the crop yield will increase in response to an increase in price for the crop relative to input costs. If the yield-price elasticity is 0.25, a P percent increase in the price of the crop relative to input cost will result in a percentage increase in crop yields equal to P times 0.25. The higher the elasticity, the greater the yield increases in response to a price increase. In the original modeling, scenarios were run in which this elasticity value was varied from 0.2 to 0.4.
* Elasticity of crop yields with respect to area expansion (yield ratio or ETA): This parameter expresses the yields that will be realized from newly converted lands relative to yields on acreage previously devoted to that crop. The original modeling assumed that because almost all of the land that is well-suited to crop production has already been converted to agricultural uses, yields on newly converted lands would be lower than corresponding yields on existing crop lands. Scenarios were run with yield ratio ranging from 0.5 to 0.75. A single value was used for all newly converted lands globally.
* Elasticity of harvested acreage response (flexibility of crop switching): This parameter expresses the extent to which changes occur in cropping patterns of existing agricultural land as land costs change. The higher the value, the more cropping patterns will change (e.g. soybean to corn) in response to land costs.
* Elasticity of land transformation across cropland, pasture and forest land (Constant Elasticity of Transformation or CET function): This elasticity expresses the extent to which expansion into forestland and pastureland occurs due to increased demand for agricultural land.
* Trade elasticity of crops: These elasticity values express the likelihood of substitution among imports from all available exporters. They express the extent to which an importer will respond to a price increase for a given commodity by switching to a different exporter who can supply the commodity at a lower price. The GTAP model uses Armington trade elasticities, which assume a limited willingness to substitute foreign product for domestic or to change trading partners.

##### iii. Emission Factors

GTAP modeling provides an estimate for the amounts and types of land across the globe that is converted to agricultural production as a result of the increased demand for biofuels. The next step in calculating an estimate for GHG emissions resulting from land conversion is to apply a set of emission factors. Emission factors provide average values of emissions per unit land area for carbon stored above and below ground as well as the annual amount of “lost sequestration capacity” per unit land area which results from the conversion of native vegetation to crops. This value may be significant for areas with rapidly growing forests.

In the original modeling, staff chose to use emission factor data from Searchinger et al.[[19]](#footnote-19) These emission factors include carbon-stock data on a wide variety of terrestrial ecosystems that are weighted according to historic land conversion patterns. In deriving the emission factors, ARB assumed that 100 percent of the above-ground living biomass and 25 percent of soil organic carbon (to one meter depth) is emitted over the assumed 30-year time accounting period. Emissions from decomposition of below-ground biomass (roots), deadwood, and litter were not included. Sequestration of carbon in harvested wood products and non-CO2 emissions from land clearing by fire were also not included.

##### iv. Time Accounting

Calculating the carbon intensity for a crop-based biofuel (e.g. corn ethanol) requires that time-varying LUC emissions be accounted for in a manner that allows meaningful comparison with the carbon intensity of a reference fuel (e.g., gasoline displaced by the biofuel) that releases greenhouse gases at a relatively constant rate over the years in which it is used. To compare emissions for the two fuels in the LCFS, we need to convert the time-varying LUC emissions for biofuels into an equivalent series of constant annual emissions. In the original modeling, staff chose to annualize LUC emissions over a 30-year time horizon. In other words, the LUC carbon intensity value was calculated by dividing the GHG emissions resulting from land conversion by the energy content of 30 years of fuel production. Other methods considered by ARB for time accounting are discussed in chapter four and appendix C of the LCFS staff report.[[20]](#footnote-20)

#### b. Indirect Effects for Fuels Other than Biofuels

ARB identified indirect land use changes as a significant source of additional GHG emissions for some crop-based biofuels, and included the emissions associated with these changes in the carbon intensity values assigned to those fuels in the LCFS. Most scientific studies, including modeling performed for the LCFS, show that land use change effects for crop-based biofuels constitute a large percentage, and in some cases a majority, of the overall GHG emissions associated with fuel production and use.

As part of the original rulemaking, ARB identified no other significant indirect effects that result in large GHG emissions that would substantially affect the LCFS framework for reducing the carbon intensity of transportation fuels. In addition, stakeholders did not provide any quantitative analysis that demonstrates that these impacts are significant. ARB concluded that excluding the indirect effects from the carbon intensity values of other fuels, such as electricity and petroleum, does not have any significant effect on the overall global warming potential of these fuels and does not substantially affect the assessment of the strategies and pathways that are likely to be used to comply with the regulation. But exclusion of the indirect effects from the carbon intensity values of some biofuels would give a completely erroneous assessment of the global warming potential and would introduce substantial errors in the assessment of the strategies and pathways that would likely be used to comply with the regulation. This would delay the development of truly low-carbon fuels and jeopardize the achievement of a ten percent reduction in fuel carbon intensity by 2020.

As part of Resolution 09-31, the Board directed the Executive Officer to convene an Expert Workgroup to assist the Board in refining and improving the land use and indirect effect analysis of transportation fuels. The Expert Workgroup formed a subgroup to specifically investigate the potential for indirect effects related to fuels other than biofuels. The Expert Workgroup process and recommendations made by the subgroup are discussed in subsequent sections of this document.

### 2. Advances in Indirect Effects Modeling

#### a. Revisions to GTAP Model

##### i. July 2010 Report from Purdue University

In April 2010, Purdue University researchers led by Professor Wally Tyner released an updated analysis of land use changes associated with corn ethanol, which was requested and partially funded by Argonne National Laboratories. The analysis was subsequently revised in July 2010, at which time the model was made available.[[21]](#footnote-21) GTAP model changes discussed in this report include:

* Addition of cropland pasture in the U.S. and Brazil and Conservation Reserve Program lands to the model and updating the land supply nesting structure.
* Revised energy sector demand and supply elasticity values.
* Improved treatment of production, consumption, and trade of DDGS.
* Revised structure of the livestock sector.
* Revised response of crop yields to price.
* Improved estimation of the productivity of marginal cropland.

##### ii. Recent Model Changes

In September 2011, Professor Tyner submitted an interim report describing preliminary results and sensitivity analyses associated with short-term model revisions performed for ARB.[[22]](#footnote-22) In addition to the model changes listed above for the July 2010 report, these short-term model changes included:

* Introducing biofuels into the 2004 version 7 GTAP data base
* Improving treatment of soy oil, soy meal, and soy biodiesel
* Adding greater flexibility in acreage switching among different crops in response to price changes
* Including an endogenous yield adjustment for cropland pasture in response to changes in cropland pasture rent

In August 2011, Purdue researchers working with Argonne National Lab published a report titled “Global Land Use Changes due to the U.S. Cellulosic Biofuel Program Simulated with the GTAP Model.”[[23]](#footnote-23) In addition to many of the model changes listed above, this work focused on the introduction of advanced cellulosic biofuels into the GTAP modeling.

#### b. LCFS Expert Workgroup

##### i. Background

In Resolution 09-31, the Board directed the Executive Officer to convene an Expert Workgroup to assist the Board in refining and improving the land use and indirect effect analysis of transportation fuels. This workgroup was tasked with evaluating key factors that might impact the land use values for biofuels including agricultural yield improvements, co-product credits, land emission factors, food price elasticity, and other relevant factors. The Executive Officer has coordinated this effort with similar efforts by the U.S. Environmental Protection Agency, European Union, and other agencies pursuing an LCFS.

Formation of the Expert Workgroup:Staff initiated efforts to convene the LCFS Expert Workgroup in August 2009. Staff shared with stakeholders and discussed during a workshop in August 2009 a preliminary proposal for the workgroup. This proposal contained staff's recommendations for the structure of the workgroup, the proposed member criteria and selection process, and potential topics for discussion. Subsequent member recruitment efforts took into consideration stakeholder feedback on the preliminary proposal.

Staff released the official solicitation for members on September 17, 2009. We also received member nominations from several stakeholders, including BP America, Illinois Corn Growers Association, California Grain and Feed Association, Brazilian Sugarcane Industry Association, California Department of Food and Agriculture (CDFA), and ConocoPhillips. For these nominations, we considered only those persons who actually submitted an application.

The Expert Workgroup was established in February 2010. The workgroup was comprised of 30 members, including eight representatives of other agencies involved in LCFS-type activities. Technical expertise to tackle major issues of concern was a key consideration in our selection of members. The individuals invited to participate in the Expert Workgroup are world-class specialists and represent a breadth of experience in their respective disciplines. The selected individuals come from diverse stakeholder groups, such as government agencies, academic institutes and national laboratories, the biofuel and oil industries, and environmental groups. The membership list can be accessed at <http://www.arb.ca.gov/fuels/lcfs/workgroups/ewg/ewg-members-list.pdf>.

Expert Workgroup Meetings:The first meeting of the Expert Workgroup was held on February 26, 2010, and seven additional meetings were held at approximately monthly intervals through November 2010. The meetings were open to the public and broadcast electronically via either webcast or webinar. Meeting minutes and documents presented or discussed at these meetings were posted for public availability at the Expert Workgroup website (<http://www.arb.ca.gov/fuels/lcfs/workgroups/ewg/expertworkgroup.htm>). A facilitator from Sacramento State University assisted in running the meetings. During the first meeting, the workgroup members identified the most critical topics to address for the coming meetings. Eight working subgroups were formed with each subgroup focusing on one of the following topical areas:

* Elasticity Values
* Co-Product Credits
* Land Cover Types
* Uncertainty in Land Use Change Estimates
* Indirect Effects of Fuels Other than Biofuels
* Carbon Emission Factors
* Time Accounting
* Comparative and Alternative Modeling Approaches

Each subgroup developed a work plan that was discussed at the April 8 meeting. At the June 17 meeting, a ninth subgroup was formed to address issues related to the modeling of food consumption effects. During the June, July, August, and September meetings, the subgroups presented informative interim reports. Several additional technical experts, who were either invited by the subgroups or by ARB staff, also presented during these meetings. On October 14 and 15, each subgroup presented draft recommendations, and on November 5, final recommendations were discussed.

2010 Purdue Analysis of Corn Ethanol:As stated earlier, Purdue University researchers led by Professor Wally Tyner released an updated analysis of land use changes associated with corn ethanol, which was requested and partially funded by Argonne National Laboratories. At the June Expert Workgroup meeting, Professor Tyner presented the updated analysis, which consists of three distinct simulation methodologies that result in land use change carbon intensity estimates ranging from one third to one half lower than that currently used in the LCFS regulation. ARB staff identified key provisions of the updated analysis, distributed these to appropriate subgroups of the Expert Workgroup, and asked these subgroups to evaluate these updates as part of their overall effort.

ARB staff also contracted with two independent experts to review the July 2010 Purdue analysis. These experts are Professor John Reilly, Co-Director of the Joint Program on the Science and Policy of Global Change at MIT Sloan, and Professor Steve Berry, James Burrows Moffatt Professor of Economics at Yale University. Professor Reilly performed a “top down” assessment of land use change modeling approaches and the GTAP modeling structure. Professor Berry performed a “bottom up” assessment of the model inputs to GTAP and the empirical basis for these inputs. In September, both independent reviewers presented initial findings to the Expert Workgroup and in November delivered written reports to ARB staff.

##### ii. Summary of Key Findings and Recommendations

In reports submitted to ARB, the subgroups were asked to summarize their recommendations in three categories: 1) near-term analysis, 2) short-term work/research, and 3) long-term work/research. ARB staff presented these documents for public comment as submitted by the subgroups and without edit. Although many of the topics presented in these documents were discussed at Expert Workgroup meetings, these documents are products of the subgroups and not of the Expert Workgroup as a whole. Moreover, please note that some of these documents were wholly or substantially written by only a few active members of the subgroups as indicated on the title pages of the documents. The reports can be accessed at <http://www.arb.ca.gov/fuels/lcfs/workgroups/ewg/expertworkgroup.htm>.

#### c. Summary of Other Studies

There is insufficient time to summarize all academic and government studies related to LUC. This discussion is limited to identifying a few major efforts to synthesize information on LUC modeling and to compare results.

The European Commission has conducted the most comprehensive analysis of LUC modeling. Detailed reports describing results of this analysis are available online at: <http://ec.europa.eu/energy/renewables/studies/land_use_change_en.htm>. These reports include two modeling studies[[24]](#footnote-24),[[25]](#footnote-25), a literature review of LUC modeling[[26]](#footnote-26), and a comparison of LUC models and results.[[27]](#footnote-27)

The Netherlands Environmental Assessment Agency also analyzed several LUC modeling issues in a series of reports titled:

* Identifying the indirect effects of bio-energy production[[28]](#footnote-28)
* Are models suitable for determining ILUC factors?[[29]](#footnote-29)
* Evaluation of the indirect effects of biofuel production on biodiversity: assessment across spatial and temporal scales[[30]](#footnote-30)
* The contribution of byproducts to the sustainability of biofuels[[31]](#footnote-31)
* Indirect effects of biofuels: intensification of agricultural production[[32]](#footnote-32)

Additional summaries of recent LUC literature can be found in reports prepared by:

* USDA Economic Research Service[[33]](#footnote-33)
* Winrock International[[34]](#footnote-34)

### 3. Present Status and Future Work on Indirect Effects Modeling

#### a. LUC modeling

##### i. Contracts

ARB has several active and pending contracts involving various aspects of LUC modeling.

* Professor Wally Tyner at Purdue University is under contract to make short-term revisions to the GTAP model and provide revised LUC estimates for U.S. corn ethanol, U.S. soy biodiesel, and Brazilian sugarcane ethanol. We intend to discuss these estimates at the December 2011 Board hearing.
* Purdue University has also been granted a two-year contract to explore longer-term model changes and prepare LUC estimates for several new pathways.
* Professor Holly Gibbs at University of Wisconsin-Madison is under contract to develop a data base of spatially explicit carbon stock estimates for both forests and soil carbon. These carbon stock estimates are being used to develop revised land conversion emission factors. Professor Gibbs is also quantifying the types and amounts of land included and excluded from the GTAP land use data base and suggesting possible means to improve the selection of land types for cropland expansion within the GTAP model.
* Professor Michael O’Hare and Dr. Richard Plevin at UC Berkeley are in the final stages of a contract that includes the development of new, spatially explicit emission factors.

##### ii. Short-term Revisions to LUC CI Values

ARB staff conducted a review of recommendations from the Expert Workgroup subgroups and independent reviewers to determine which recommendations were appropriate and could be completed in a timely manner for this round of model revisions. Recommendations not included in this round of revisions may be addressed as part of longer-term model updates. For several issues, disagreement over the recommended course of action existed between Expert Workgroup members or between Expert Workgroup members and the independent experts. In these situations staff carefully weighed the evidence and consulted further input prior to deciding on a course of action. Both ARB staff and Purdue researchers received additional information and comments from stakeholders and subject matter experts after the completion of the Expert Workgroup process. Some of these recommendations are also included in the revised modeling. Specific model updates included in the revised modeling are:

* Use of the GTAP 7 database
* Addition of cropland pasture in the U.S. and Brazil and updating the land supply nesting structure
* Re-estimated energy sector demand and supply elasticity values
* Improved treatment of biofuel by-products and modified structure of the livestock sector
* Improved method of estimating the productivity of new cropland
* Adopting a consistent model version and set of model inputs for all biofuel pathways
* More comprehensive and spatially explicit set of emission factors
* Revised yield response to price
* Revised demand response to price
* Increased flexibility of crop switching in response to price signals
* Incorporation of an endogenous yield adjustment for cropland pasture

Use of the GTAP 7 Database: The original LUC modeling used version 6 of the GTAP database which depicted the world economy in the year 2001. More recently, version 7 of the GTAP database, which depicts the world economy in the year 2004, has become available. Version 7 was first introduced by Purdue researchers in 2009; however, it wasn’t until 2011 that GTAP version 7 received the necessary updates for land use data to be used for LUC modeling[[35]](#footnote-35). In order to take advantage of these data, which represent a more recent state of the world economy and therefore is considered an improvement over version 6, the global production, consumption, and trade of first generation biofuels were introduced into the database. The detailed steps used to construct the new database are described in Appendix A of the August 2011 report for Argonne National Laboratories.[[36]](#footnote-36)

Addition of cropland pasture in the U.S. and Brazil and updating the land supply nesting structure: In 2010, Birur introduced two new land categories, cropland-pasture and unused cropland, into the supply of land in GTAP.[[37]](#footnote-37) Cropland-pasture was added as a land category in both the U.S. and Brazil while unused cropland was added in the U.S. only. Cropland-pasture is defined by the USDA as: “Cropland used only for pasture generally is considered in the long-term crop rotation, as being tilled, planted in field crops, and then re-seeded to pasture at varying intervals. However, some cropland pasture is marginal for crop uses and may remain in pasture indefinitely. This category also includes land that was used for pasture before crops reach maturity and some land used for pasture that could have been cropped without additional improvement. Cropland pasture and permanent grassland pasture have not always been clearly distinguished in agricultural surveys.”[[38]](#footnote-38) Unused cropland is primarily land which has been retired into the U.S. Conservation Reserve Program (CRP). Both cropland-pasture and unused cropland are explicitly defined as components of cropland. However, since cropland-pasture is largely used as an input to the livestock industry, an industry was added to the model that uses cropland-pasture as an input and sells its output to the livestock industry. This linkage facilitates the transition of cropland-pasture from the livestock industry to crop production and vice versa. Unused cropland (CRP) mainly provides environmental benefits and is an input into the GTAP sector that provides these services.

Re-estimated energy sector demand and supply elasticity values: The energy sector demand and supply elasticity values were re-estimated and calibrated to the 2006 reality using the widely used GTAP-E model of energy and climate policy.[[39]](#footnote-39) This investigation revealed that demand and supply specifications in the previous modeling were too high; elasticities of substitution between petroleum and other fuels were too high; consumer demand elasticity for petroleum products was too high for many countries; and supply response in the petroleum sector appeared too large. These revised parameter specifications are now included in the GTAP-BIO-ADV modeling for LUC.

Improved treatment of biofuel by-products and modified structure of the livestock sector: In recent years, substantial effort has been made to improve the treatment of production, consumption, and trade of biofuel byproducts.[[40]](#footnote-40),[[41]](#footnote-41)

These improvements include:[[42]](#footnote-42)

* Using a multi-level nesting structure for demand of feedstuffs in the livestock industry
* Separation of soybean from other oilseeds
* Separation of soybean oil from other vegetable oils and fats
* Separation of soybean meal from other oilseed meals
* Assigning elasticities of substitution to the different components of the demand for feed to replicate changes in the prices for DDGS and meals in the U.S. and European Union during the time period of 2001 to 2006. This includes an elasticity of substitution between energy and protein feedstuffs to account for the potential of DDGS to displace oilseed meals in some feed rations.[[43]](#footnote-43)

Improved method of estimating the productivity of new cropland: The GTAP parameter ETA represents the ratio of the productivity of crops produced on newly converted forest or pasture land to the productivity of crops on existing cropland. In the original modeling ARB ran several scenarios with ETA ranging from 0.5 to 0.75. In their July 2010 report, Tyner et al. discusses use of the Terrestrial Ecosystem Model (TEM), a bio-process-based biogeochemistry model, to generate a set of regional ETAs at the AEZ level.[[44]](#footnote-44) The process used to generate these ETA values is discussed in detail in Appendix A of that report.

Adopting a consistent model version and set of model inputs for all biofuel pathways:

In the original modeling, the LUC value for each pathway was an average of multiple scenarios run with different input values for key parameters, such as yield-price elasticity and ETA. Unfortunately, there was inconsistency between the number of scenarios run and the input parameters used for different pathways. In the revised modeling the number of scenarios and input values are the same across all pathways.

More comprehensive and spatially explicit set of emission factors: The land conversion estimates made by GTAP are disaggregated by world region and agro-ecological zones (AEZ). In total, there are 19 regions and 18 AEZs. In the original modeling, each region had separate emission factors for forest and pasture conversion to cropland but these emission factors did not vary by AEZ within each region. Because land conversion estimates within each region differ significantly by AEZ and both biomass and soil carbon stocks also vary significantly by AEZ, emission factors specific to each region/AEZ combination are appropriate.

ARB contracted researchers at UC Berkeley, Stanford University, and UC Davis to develop the agro-ecological zone emission factor (AEZ-EF) model. The model combines matrices of carbon fluxes with matrices of changes in land use by land-use category projected by the GTAP model. The AEZ-EF model contains separate carbon stock estimates (Mg C ha-1) for biomass and soil carbon, indexed by GTAP AEZ and region. The model combines these carbon stock data with assumptions about carbon loss from soils and biomass, mode of conversion (i.e., whether fire is used), quantity and species of carbonaceous and other GHG emissions resulting from conversion, carbon remaining in harvested wood products and char, and foregone sequestration. The model relies heavily on IPCC greenhouse gas inventory methods and default values, augmented with more detailed and recent data where available. Details of the process used to estimate carbon stocks and translate these values into emission factors are given in preliminary reports submitted to ARB in September 2011.[[45]](#footnote-45),[[46]](#footnote-46)

Revised yield response to price: In the GTAP model, the response of crop yields to crop price is determined by the yield-price elasticity value. In the original modeling, ARB used a yield-price elasticity value range of 0.2 to 0.4. In subsequent modeling, Purdue researchers have used a single yield-price elasticity value of 0.25 based on an econometric estimate made by Keeney and Hertel.[[47]](#footnote-47) The elasticity subgroup, as part of its final Expert Workgroup recommendations suggested that ARB should maintain a value of 0.25 for this elasticity.

In contrast, the independent reviewer Steve Berry concluded that there is little relationship between changes in crop yields and price.[[48]](#footnote-48) In this report, Professor Berry demonstrates that several research papers, including those which form the basis of the Keeney-Hertel yield-price elasticity estimate of 0.25, find that the yield-price elasticity cannot be distinguished from zero. Furthermore, in recent work with Wolfram Schlenker, Professor Berry uses an instrumental variables approach to estimate the “net yield” response to price. When crop prices rise there are two possible effects on yield. First, the yields on existing land may increase as farmers invest in inputs and technology to increase yields and maximize profits. Second, new land may come into production that has a different yield as compared to the existing land. The net yield elasticity takes both of these effects into account. Berry and Schlenker conclude that the net yield elasticity is near zero and that observed yields are generally explained by a very nearly linear “technology” time trend combined with the observed set of weather variables. Based on this conclusion, they provide an illustrative calculation that shows that if newly converted land is only two-thirds as productive as existing cropland, the short-run yield-price elasticity value should be no more than 0.1.[[49]](#footnote-49)

Revised demand (food/feed consumption) response to price: The GTAP model predicts that an increase in biofuel production will lead to increased crop and food/feed commodity prices. These increases in prices in turn lead to an increase in supply of crops (through area expansion and potentially through increase in yields) as well as a decrease in demand for crops. The decrease in demand for crops occurs through substitution of biofuel co-products (e.g., dry distillers’ grain and solubles [DDGS]) for animal feed, reduced direct human consumption of crops, and reduced human consumption of livestock, which in turn leads to reduced consumption of crops for feed. The reduction of food and feed consumption has a very significant effect on the amount of land conversion and consequently the LUC carbon intensity value. Using the same model used for ARB in the original modeling, Hertel et al. held global food consumption constant using a series of country-by-commodity subsidies.[[50]](#footnote-50) Holding food consumption fixed resulted in an increase in LUC carbon intensity of 41 percent for corn ethanol (from 27 to 38 g/MJ).

The effect on LUC from reduced food and feed consumption is similar in other studies using different models. The EU Joint Research Center (JRC) performed a comparison of LUC estimates using different models[[51]](#footnote-51). FAPRI, GTAP, and IMPACT models all show a significant reduction in LUC because of the reduced consumption of food and feed. For most scenarios the LUC credit ranged from 30 to 50 percent, although there were some scenarios with credits above and below this range. The one exception is the LEITAP model, which shows very little reduction in food and feed consumption but also gives much larger LUC estimates than the other models. Therefore, it does not appear as if GTAP is assuming a food and feed consumption response that is any different than most other models used to estimate LUC. However, it is likely that government policy interventions to hold food prices constant are not captured in the model.[[52]](#footnote-52) The overall impact of these policy interventions on food production and consumption is unknown.

If the models are properly estimating the response of food and feed consumption to price changes induced by biofuel expansion, the potential impacts on human welfare are significant. These impacts are estimated in reports published by De Hoyos and Medvedev[[53]](#footnote-53) and by Goklany[[54]](#footnote-54). De Hoyos’s work estimates the price increases and poverty effects from the growth of crop-based biofuels over the time period of 2004 to 2010 due to existing global mandates for corn and sugarcane ethanol and biodiesel (e.g. the Renewable Fuel Standard). The modeling suggests that food commodity price increases, occurring in response to biofuel production, are heavily biased toward poorer regions of the world. In turn, these price increases are estimated to result in an additional 32 million people falling below the extreme poverty level and an additional
47 million falling below the moderate poverty level for the time period of 2004 to 2010. The increase in poverty is concentrated in two regions: South Asia and Sub-Saharan Africa, with by far the greatest impact in South Asia. Goklany’s work builds upon De Hoya’s results and develops what he describes as an “exploratory analysis” that provides an “order of magnitude” estimate of death and disease increases in developing countries. Goklany estimates 192,000 hunger-related excess deaths in 2010 and
6.7 million Disability Adjusted Life Years (DALYs) lost to hunger-related disease in response to global biofuel expansion between 2004 and 2010.

We want to be careful to point out that the estimates presented by De Hoyos and Medvedev and by Goklany are relevant to existing crop-based biofuel production levels that are largely mandated by government programs. The market signal from the California LCFS to increase production of crop-based biofuels relative to the existing global mandates is expected to be extremely small. Moreover, this market signal is expected to diminish over time as second- and third-generation biofuels become commercialized and replace crop-based biofuels as viable alternative fuels within the LCFS.

As part of the September 2011 interim report prepared for ARB, staff asked Professor Tyner to perform a sensitivity analysis on the effect of food consumption changes on the LUC estimate.[[55]](#footnote-55) In addition to model runs using the standard GTAP response of reduced food consumption to price increases resulting from expanded biofuel production, two additional scenarios were run:

* Holding food consumption constant in developing countries using a series of country by commodity subsidies
* Holding food consumption constant worldwide using a series of country by commodity subsidies.

The results of these sensitivity runs show that the LUC estimate is highly sensitive to the allowed reduction in food consumption within the model. ARB staff is evaluating these sensitivity runs as well as seeking stakeholder comments.

Increased flexibility of crop switching in response to price signals: The GTAP parameter that governs the acreage shift among alternative cropping industries in response to shifts in relative prices was calibrated to historical data from the 1900s. During this time period, government programs, not relative price, largely drove farmers’ decisions on which crops to plant. Recently, Purdue researchers performed a regression analysis to test the hypothesis that farmers now respond to relative crop prices more than what was observed prior to 2000. They conclude that between the years of 2000‑2010, changes in corn and soybean revenues were a major driver of changes in corn acres.[[56]](#footnote-56) Similar regression analysis for earlier time periods shows no significant relationship. For this reason, they increased the land supply transformation elasticity, which governs the degree to which land is switched from one type of crop to another, from ‑0.5 to ‑0.75.

Incorporation of an endogenous yield adjustment for cropland pasture: Cropland-pasture is currently used primarily as an input to the livestock industry. As cropland-pasture is converted to dedicated crop production in response to biofuel expansion, land rents will rise, which may lead to investments to increase productivity of the land. This potential response led researchers at Purdue University to define a module to link productivity of cropland-pasture with its rent through an elasticity parameter.[[57]](#footnote-57) However, Purdue researchers acknowledge that there is no empirical basis for the elasticity parameter proposed for this endogenous yield adjustment.

##### iii. LUC Values for Additional Pathways

LUC carbon intensity estimates for several new pathways will be developed as part of longer-term modeling work to be performed by researchers at Purdue University over the next two years. These pathways include:

* Sorghum ethanol
* Palm oil biodiesel
* Corn oil biodiesel
* Canola oil biodiesel
* Cellulosic ethanol
* Cellulosic bio-gasoline and bio-diesel

##### iv. Long-term Issues for Research

Researchers at Purdue University are under contract to explore longer-term model changes, most of which were recommended by the Expert Workgroup. These issues are listed below with reference made to the Expert Workgroup subgroup, independent reviewer final report, or Purdue report which describes the recommendation or model revision:

* Consider a broader range of significant indirect emissions from land use changes such as, but not limited to, those related to livestock and rice production and from crop switching.[[58]](#footnote-58)
* Consider accounting for the effects of non-Kyoto climate forcing gases and particles (e.g., black carbon) in addition to carbon dioxide, methane, and nitrous oxide.[[59]](#footnote-59)
* Explore a modeling framework that allows for the dynamic nature of land use change that can incorporate time dependent changes such as technology driven yield improvements and food demand (influenced by the dynamics of economic and demographic change). This will likely involve use of the dynamic version of GTAP (GTAP-DYN).[[60]](#footnote-60)
* Evaluate alternative approaches to calculating yields on new agricultural lands based on statistical analysis of climate and management factors using updated datasets.[[61]](#footnote-61) Estimates of yields on newly converted lands should also factor in economics of land selection.[[62]](#footnote-62)
* Continue to update and improve the land pools within GTAP deemed to be accessible for conversion to cropland. Additional land pools may include “inaccessible” forests; unmanaged shrub land, grassland, and savanna; idle/fallow/abandoned cropland; and other marginal (low productivity) lands.[[63]](#footnote-63)
* Evaluate alternative approaches to how the model determines which land types (e.g., forest or pasture lands) are converted to cropland. This either involves a significant change in model structure (changing the CET function as recommended by the elasticity values subgroup) or the use of land conversion probabilities for each region of the world which are exogenous to the model. Currently the model estimates both the amount of land converted to crops and the type of land converted. Observed land conversion probabilities could be used to better calibrate the model estimates of type of land converted (i.e., calibrate the CET function parameter on a regional level). Alternatively, the model could be used to predict only the amount of land converted and observed data for land conversion probabilities could be used to estimate the type of land converted.[[64]](#footnote-64),[[65]](#footnote-65)
* Evaluate the use of Armington versus Heckschler-Ohlin structures for modeling international trade. The use of Armington structure for trade in GTAP, although appropriate in the short term, may be unrealistic over the long term. Armington assumptions give much preference to meeting increased demand with domestic production or from normal trading partners. In contrast, the Heckschler-Ohlin structure assumes similar crops of different origin are nearly perfect substitutes[[66]](#footnote-66),[[67]](#footnote-67)
* Characterize the uncertainty in each major model component to allow the propagation of uncertainty through an integrated model of indirect effects.[[68]](#footnote-68)
* Compare alternative methodologies for time accounting as research results become available in the peer-reviewed literature.[[69]](#footnote-69)
* Ensure consistency in co-product treatment between direct and indirect effects modeling and conduct a comprehensive sensitivity analysis to better understand the model response to different values for the elasticity of substitution between energy and protein feedstuffs.[[70]](#footnote-70)
* Consider constraints on use of irrigation as part of the LUC modeling as presented in recent work by researchers at Purdue. In July 2011, Purdue researchers presented a paper at the Agricultural and Applied Economics Association meeting which explored the role of irrigation in biofuel induced LUC estimates.[[71]](#footnote-71) In this study, the authors developed a new model version which distinguished irrigated and rain fed crops and placed constraints on the expansion of irrigated cropland.

#### b. Modeling of Indirect Effects for Fuels Other than Biofuels

##### i. Contracts

ARB has a short-term contract with Adam Brandt (Stanford University), Jim Bushnell (UC Davis), and Chris Knittel (MIT) to create a plan of research needs for evaluating potential market effects of petroleum-based fuels in the LCFS.

##### ii. Intentions for Future Work

The “Indirect Effects of Other Fuels” subgroup of the Expert Workgroup made the following recommendations for analysis and research:[[72]](#footnote-72)

* Conduct an analysis, including but not limited to economic modeling, of the marginal supply of oil, the marginal supply of natural gas, the potential market‑mediated effect on the electric power market of using increased quantities of natural gas in the transportation sector, and the impact of petroleum substitutes on refinery operations.
* Conduct a reevaluation of the marginal supply of electricity.
* Conduct an analysis of the substitution of fossil fuels with alternative fuels. This analysis should include all factors affecting the substitution process in the short, medium, and long-term (market power of the OPEC Cartel, correlation between production cost and carbon intensity, predictions of conventional and unconventional fuels).
* Conduct a preliminary scoping analysis of the potential direct and indirect effects of upstream heavy metal mining and processing and if significant effects are identified, conduct an analysis of these effects.

As mentioned above, ARB currently has a contract to investigate potential market effects of petroleum-based fuels and plans to enter into similar contracts to investigate market effects within the natural gas and electricity sectors.

## D. Summary and Conclusions

ARB is committed to using the best available science in performing the lifecycle assessments and determining carbon intensity values for transportation fuels. ARB recognizes that lifecycle assessment of transportation fuels and, in particular, LUC modeling will evolve over time and therefore carbon intensity values may likewise change. However, ARB is also cognizant that investments in low carbon fuels to meet the demands of the LCFS require some market certainty that the carbon intensity values will not change frequently and significantly. This apparent dichotomy leads to several very important questions including:

* What are the criteria for determining whether new studies merit consideration and what is the process for incorporating future advances into the regulation?
* What potential impacts do the advances have on stakeholders? The regulation?
* If updates to the lifecycle methodology lead to shifts in the carbon-intensity for a particular or set of fuels, how should the compliance schedule be adjusted to take this into account and ensure a consistent market signal?
* How do we balance the need for market certainty with the need for timely integration of advancements in lifecycle analysis?

In response, ARB understands that it must balance improvements in lifecycle assessment modeling with the need for some degree of market certainty. We believe that the requirement for periodic program reviews, the deliberate and measured response of ARB to new studies and model updates, the full public process used by ARB for changing LUC carbon intensity values and compliance schedule targets, and the Method 2 certification process described in this chapter should provide both a strong signal of market certainty while providing flexibility for individual fuel producers to quickly receive a direct carbon intensity value that is representative of their fuel pathway.

Should staff propose, and the Board approve, modifications to CI values in the Lookup Tables due to advances in lifecycle analysis, and those modifications impact the LCFS compliance schedule, the revised CI values would presumably take effect at the beginning of a new compliance period (i.e., January 1st) for ease of implementation.

# V. Technology Assessment, Supply, and Availability

## A. Introduction

This chapter addresses both a status update on transportation fuel technologies, as well as updates on supply and availability of these fuels, the infrastructure needed for these fuels, and the vehicles needed to use the fuels. This leads to a discussion on investment, both public and private, into “second generation” biofuels—that is, the biofuels on the horizon. The chapter also includes a discussion on how to incent these ultra-low-carbon biofuels. The technology assessment section of this programmatic review deals primarily with analysis of technology that is available, as of 2011, to help fulfill the requirements of the LCFS and the technology that is expected to come on line in the next several years. Further, this review also looks at potential hurdles or barriers to market penetration for these technologies. Morever, this section discusses supply availability and impact on State fuel supplies, focusing primarily on analyses of current and future availability of fuels that may help fulfill the requirements of the LCFS.

This portion of the review includes the following topics, as specified in section 95489 of the LCFS regulation, which states that the:

“Scope of each review shall include, at a minimum, consideration of the following areas:

\* \* \* \* \*

(4) Advances in fuels and production technologies, including the feasibility and cost-effectiveness of such advances;

(5) The availability and use of ultralow carbon fuels to achieve the LCFS standards and advisability of establishing additional mechanisms to incentivize the use of higher volumes of these fuels;

(6) An assessment of supply availabilities and the rates of commercialization of fuels and vehicles;

(7) The LCFS program’s impact on the State’s fuel supplies; and

(11) Identification of hurdles or barriers (e.g., permitting issues, infrastructure adequacy, research funds) and recommendations for addressing such hurdles or barriers.”

## B. Technology Assessment, Fuel Supply, Vehicle Supply, Infrastructure and Barriers

This section addresses the current state of technology, the past and projected consumption or availability of fuel, past and projected vehicle populations, status of infrastructure, and any hurdles or barriers that the fuels might be encountering when trying to enter California’s transportation fuels market, where data are available. This section is organized by fuel.

### 1. Gasoline

There are currently 12 refineries in California that produce gasoline for motor vehicle use. These 12 refineries produce the bulk of the gasoline that is consumed in California. In order to produce reformulated gasoline for the gasoline market, California refineries employ some of the most technologically advanced techniques employed by refineries, including reformation, alkylation, polymerization, and isomerization.

#### a. Historic consumption

California annually consumes four times more gasoline than diesel. In recent years, gasoline consumption held steady at around 16 billion gallons per year until 2008, when gasoline prices spiked due to crude prices soaring well over $100 per barrel. Annual gasoline consumption dropped by 800 million gallons—about four percent—with no recovery yet. The table below shows California gasoline consumption from 2006 to 2010, the latest year that data are available. As the data suggest, there has been very little fluctuation in the gasoline consumption since the original staff report was published in 2009. The data are from California Energy Commission (CEC) and Board of Equalization (BOE) analyses.

**Table V-1:** Gasoline Consumption in California, 2006-2010

|  |  |
| --- | --- |
| **Year** | **Gasoline****(Million Gallons)** |
| 2006 | 15,821 |
| 2007 | 15,658 |
| 2008 | 14,917 |
| 2009 | 14,804 |
| 2010 | 14,861 |

#### b. Future Demand

The table below shows projected California gasoline consumption based on the Low and High Petroleum Demand cases from the CEC’s 2011 Integrated Energy Policy Report (IEPR). The high petroleum demand case (“Gasoline High”) represents primarily faster economic recovery and low crude prices. The low petroleum demand case (“Gasoline Low”) represents primarily increases in fuel efficiency and lower alternative fuel prices. Due to policies favoring low-carbon fuels and technology advancements, the long-term trend for gasoline demand is projected to decrease.

**Table V-2: Projected Gasoline demand in California**

|  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- |
| **Year** | **Gasoline Low****(Million Gallons)** | **Gasoline High****(Million Gallons)** |
| 2011 |  14,920 |  15,290 |
| 2012 |  14,620  |  15,470 |
| 2013 |  14,540  |  15,520  |
| 2014 |  14,350  |  15,480  |
| 2015 |  14,100  |  15,310  |
| 2016 |  13,980  |  15,180  |
| 2017 |  13,920  |  15,020  |
| 2018 |  13,680  |  14,820  |
| 2019 |  13,380  |  14,670  |
| 2020 |  13,110  |  14,540  |

#### c. Vehicles, Infrastructure, and Barriers

There are currently around 25 million gasoline-powered vehicles operating in California. These vehicles are predominantly light-duty passenger vehicles and are the primary method of individual transportation in the State. These vehicles fuel at terminals and dispensing facilities that predominantly sell gasoline. To date, short of a poor economy playing a role in lower consumption, there have not been any barriers to bringing gasoline into the California market.

### 2. Diesel

California diesel fuel is produced at 15 refineries in California. In 2010, California refineries processed about 600 million barrels of crude and produced about ~104 million barrels of California diesel fuel, an average daily production of about 12 million gallons. Both federal and California regulations limit the sulfur content of diesel fuel to 15 parts per million by weight. In addition, the California diesel fuel regulations require a reduction in aromatic hydrocarbon content from conventional diesel fuel. California diesel fuel is produced through distillation of the crude into boiling-point range fractions, then catalytic reaction of the diesel portion of the distillate with hydrogen (hydro-treating) at high temperature and pressure, to reduce the sulfur and aromatic contents of the fuel.

#### a. Historic Consumption

The table below shows California diesel consumption from 2006 to 2010, the latest year that data are available. The data are from CEC and BOE analyses. Diesel consumption saw a slight decrease in 2008, comparable to that seen in gasoline consumption. Though diesel use has increased slightly from 2009 to 2010, the overall consumption of diesel has not fluctuated significantly since the publication of the 2009 staff report.

**Table V-3:** Diesel fuel consumption in California 2006-2010

|  |  |
| --- | --- |
| **Year** | **Diesel****(Million Gallons)** |
| 2006 | 3,736 |
| 2007 | 3,805 |
| 2008 | 3,429 |
| 2009 | 3,200 |
| 2010 | 3,295 |

#### b. Future Demand

The table below shows projected California diesel consumption based on the Low and High Petroleum Demand cases from the CEC’s 2011 IEPR. The high petroleum demand case (“Diesel High”) represents primarily faster economic recovery and low crude prices. The low petroleum demand case (“Diesel Low”) represents primarily increases in fuel efficiency and lower alternative fuel prices. In general, projected increases in goods movement and increased use of diesel engines lead to an outlook of increasing diesel demand. This trend is likely to be complimented by current and future fuel economy policies because diesel vehicles are more fuel efficient than their gasoline counterparts.

**Table V-4: Projected diesel demand in California**

|  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- |
| **Year** | **Diesel Low****(Million Gallons)** | **Diesel High****(Million Gallons)** |
| 2011 |  3,280 |  3,310 |
| 2012 |  3,340  |  3,400  |
| 2013 |  3,410  |  3,480  |
| 2014 |  3,510  |  3,620  |
| 2015 |  3,590  |  3,720  |
| 2016 |  3,650  |  3,810  |
| 2017 |  3,700  |  3,890  |
| 2018 |  3,760  |  3,990  |
| 2019 |  3,800  |  4,080  |
| 2020 |  3,850  |  4,170  |

#### c. Vehicles, Infrastructure, and Barriers

The number of diesel vehicles in California has been increasing; in 2008, there were nearly one million diesel vehicles in the State. About 83 percent of these vehicles were commercial vehicles, with another eight percent being government vehicles and nine percent owned by private individuals. The distribution infrastructure for diesel is mature, although the number of dispensing facilities that offer diesel is likely to increase with the expected increase in diesel use for personal vehicles.

### 3. Fuel Ethanol

The primary source of ethanol in California is ethanol derived from corn. Ethanol is currently blended into gasoline as an oxygenate at 10 percent, by volume. Ethanol is also used as the principle component of E85. Both of these fuels are used for transportation in California. In this section, we will first discuss the sources of ethanol, then specifically its use in E85.

#### a. Historic Consumption

The volume of fuel ethanol consumed in California has been on a rising trend over the last few years. This is because of the blend volume of ethanol being set to 10 percent and the volume mandate set by the federal RFS2. Currently, the volume of ethanol consumed is hovering around the blend limit of 10 percent of the gasoline volume. The table below shows California fuel ethanol consumption from 2006 to 2010, the latest year that data are available. The data are from CEC and DOE analysis.

**Table V-5:** Ethanol Consumption in California 2006-2010

|  |  |
| --- | --- |
| **Year** | **Ethanol** **(million gallons)** |
| 2006 | 950 |
| 2007 | 942 |
| 2008 | 990 |
| 2009 | 972 |
| 2010 | 1,493 |

#### b. Future Consumption

The amount of fuel ethanol to be consumed in California will be highly dependent on overcoming the hurdles of additional E85-compatible vehicles, increasing the E10 blend limit, or both. Ethanol pricing competitiveness, compared to petroleum fuels, will also have a significant influence on the amount of ethanol consumed in the future. In general, ethanol consumption in the State is expected to increase due to policy directives, such as the LCFS and RFS2, as well as subsidies.

The table below shows projected California fuel ethanol consumption based on the Low and High Petroleum Demand cases from the CEC’s 2009 IEPR. The high petroleum demand case (“Ethanol High”) represents primarily faster economic recovery and low crude prices. The low petroleum demand case (“Ethanol Low”) represents primarily increases in fuel efficiency and lower alternative fuel prices.

**Table V-6: Projected fuel ethanol demand in California**

[Awaiting 2011 data from CEC]

|  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- |
| **Year** | **Ethanol Low****(Million Gallons)** | **Ethanol High****(Million Gallons)** |
| 2011 | 1,480 | 1,530 |
| 2012 | 1,510 | 1,560 |
| 2013 | 1,630 | 1,640 |
| 2014 | 1,820 | 1,810 |
| 2015 | 2,050 | 2,020 |
| 2016 | 2,210 | 2,160 |
| 2017 | 2,350 | 2,280 |
| 2018 | 2,510 | 2,410 |
| 2019 | 2,650 | 2,520 |
| 2020 | 2,780 | 2,640 |

#### c. Vehicles, Infrastructure, and Barriers

The state of ethanol distribution and blending infrastructure in the state is mature, with most terminals having dedicated tankage and facilities to accommodate ethanol.

There are several remaining barriers in the way of further ethanol penetration. While the US EPA has certified vehicles 2001 and newer to use E15 ethanol blends, this fuel cannot be legally sold yet under Federal or State regulations because it has not yet been registered with US EPA. As a practical matter, this means that ethanol used in California will be E10 and E85 for the near future. Further, ethanol cannot be shipped by pipeline within the current infrastructure, which means that it must continue to be delivered by less efficient trucks and trains. Additionally, there is currently no rack blending of ethanol with CARBOB to produce E85, creating blend stock and transportation inefficiencies.

#### d. Historic Consumption of E85

The table below shows California E85 consumption from 2006 to 2010, the latest year that data are available. The data are from CEC and BOE analyses.

**Table V-7:** E85 Consumption in California 2006-2010

|  |  |
| --- | --- |
| **Year** | **E85****(Million Gallons)** |
| 2006 | 2.23 |
| 2007 | 4.37 |
| 2008 | 26.6 |
| 2009 | 13.2 |
| 2010 | 9.98 |

#### e. Future Demand of E85

The demand for E85 is expected to grow. The growth in E85 use is related to the rate of growth in E85-compatible, flex-fuel vehicles (FFVs). The table below shows the projected California E85 consumption based on the Low and High Petroleum Demand cases from the CEC’s 2011 Integrated Energy Policy Report. The high petroleum demand case (“E85 High”) represents primarily faster economic recovery and low crude prices. The low petroleum demand case (“E85 Low”) represents primarily increases in fuel efficiency and lower alternative fuel prices.

**Table V-8:** Projected future demand for E85

|  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- |
| **Year** | **E85 Low****(Million Gallons)** | **E85 High****(Million Gallons)** |
| 2011 |  13.9  |  15.0  |
| 2012 |  16.5  |  19.2  |
| 2013 |  142  |  88.0  |
| 2014 |  326  |  263 |
| 2015 |  589  |  521 |
| 2016 |  789  |  705  |
| 2017 |  963  |  914  |
| 2018 |  1,220  |  1,170  |
| 2019 |  1,480  |  1,390  |
| 2020 |  1,740  |  1,630 |

#### f. Vehicles, Infrastructure, and Barriers for E85 Use

Flexible fuel vehicles (FFVs) run on E85, gasoline, or a mixture of both. Because E85 is expected to play a part in meeting the LCFS standards, staff would need to estimate E85 volumes and the number of FFVs required to consume those E85 volumes. Staff also looked at how much E85 and FFVs would be required to meet the federal Renewable Fuel Standard (RFS2).

RFS2 requires fuel producers to use progressively increasing amounts of biofuels, culminating in at least 36 billion gallons of biofuel by 2022. Using the volume requirements, staff estimated the number of FFVs that will be needed under RFS2. To determine the estimated number of FFVs, staff estimated 23.3 mpg for the average fuel economy for E10 gasoline and 17.4 mpg for E85 in the analyses for 2020.  Staff used the same energy requirement to propel the vehicles (4.97 MJ/mi) for E10 and E85.  Based on these assumptions, staff estimated a range of FFVs needed to comply with RFS2, which are shown in Table 2 for both 100 percent refueling with E85 and 75 percent refueling with E85. The approach used in arriving at these estimated ranges is described in more detail below.

To determine future vehicle population, staff used the EMissionFACtors (EMFAC2007) model, which is used to calculate emission rates from all motor vehicles operating on highways, freeways and local roads in California, to forecast the number of 2012 model year and newer light-duty vehicles for calendar years 2012 through 2020.

To estimate future FFV population, staff determined upper- and lower-bound estimates. As an upper-bound estimate, assuming 100 percent refueling on E85, the EMFAC2007 projections were among the factors taken into consideration. This estimate also includes an assumption of the “Big Three” American automotive manufacturers (GM, Ford and Chrysler) producing 50 percent FFVs beginning in 2012. It was also projected that the Japanese manufacturers will ramp up their FFV production in California from 2012 through 2019 to 50 percent.

As a lower bound estimate, the estimated projection for FFVs is based on already known commitments from automobile manufacturers, including commitments from GM, Ford and Chrysler in doing 50 percent FFVs beginning in 2012, but not including commitments from the Japanese manufacturers. The table below illustrates the lower and upper bounds of the projected FFV population. Based on the calculations, there will be an ample number of FFVs available to consume E85 volumes that may play a role in meeting the LCFS.

**Table V-9:** Projected FFV population

|  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- |
| **Year** | **FFV Population(Lower Bound)** | **FFV Population(Upper Bound)** |
| 2010 | 359,000 | 359,000 |
| 2011 | 505,094 | 505,094 |
| 2012 | 686,143 | 702,082 |
| 2013 | 942,170 | 974,244 |
| 2014 | 1,194,293 | 1,325,782 |
| 2015 | 1,450,903 | 1,737,864 |
| 2016 | 1,698,482 | 2,194,012 |

Reaching the RFS and LCFS standards through E85 will also require increased access to retail infrastructure. We note that there may be scenarios where little to no E85 will be necessary to meet the LCFS if “drop-in” renewable fuels - chemically similar to gasoline or diesel - are produced in sufficient quanitities. That said, according to the CEC IEPR data, California will require between 4,800 and 36,000 E85 dispensers by 2022. Considerable investment by industry with support from government will be required to reach the number of E85 dispensers needed to supply adequate volumes. The CEC estimates that, at a minimum, an average of 530 new E85 dispensers per year would be needed to be installed in California between 2014 and 2022, costing between $27M and $106M per year (based on a cost range of $50,000 to $200,000 per installation).[[73]](#footnote-73)

According to the CEC, this level of investment is 1.5 to 6 times higher than the total annual profit of a typical retail station. This makes E85 dispensers a difficult investment for retail station operators, who have no obligation to market and sell E85 under the RFS and LCFS, without an appropriate level of financial incentives from the fuel suppliers or other sources.

There is also substantial uncertainty associated with the future pricing of E85 to consumers. E85 is ideally priced at a level that reflects its average fuel economy compared to E10 gasoline. Today. that price differential is supported by wholesale ethanol’s price discount to gasoline, RIN values, California’s state fuel tax differential, and the Federal blender’s credit (VEETC). The VEETC, at $0.385 per gallon of E85, is set to expire at the end of 2011. In the absence of an extension or other subsidy adjustments, the resulting price increase will either be passed along to the customer through higher prices at the pump, or retailers will tighten or eliminate their margins. Because E85 sales are not directly mandated but are instead dependent on consumer choice, either scenario could lead to reduced sales that could impact the State’s ability to meet its ethanol targets.

### 4. Fuel Ethanol Feedstocks

#### a. Corn (Grain) Ethanol

Since the original LCFS staff report was published in 2009, some facilities producing corn ethanol have increased their overall energy efficiency. These plants incorporate modern plant design developed by ICM inc. and other firms, which results in less energy use in the plant. The reduction in energy use is generally derived from incremental improvements in different production steps, including increases in ethanol yield, lower electricity use, installation of combined heat and power (CHP), lower temperatures for fermentation, more efficient enzymes, and more efficient natural gas boilers and other process equipment. In some cases, the reduction in carbon intensity (CI) can be attributed to use of low carbon-intensity inputs, such as biogas rather than natural gas powered equipment. Many of the facilities utilizing these technologies have been applying for custom CI values through the Method 2A/2B process. These facilities have submitted applications for over 100 additional pathways with total CI values as low as 73.2 gCO2e/MJ.

#### b. Sugarcane Ethanol

Sugarcane ethanol is produced in much the same way as corn ethanol, with minor modifications to production infrastructure. Ethanol derived from sugarcane is chemically indistinguishable from ethanol produced from other sources, and as such has all the same performance benefits and difficulties that ethanol from other sources have (e.g., transportation limitations and octane boosting properties). Sugarcane ethanol is expected to come primarily from Brazil, with some limited U.S. production in Hawaii and Florida. The carbon intensity of sugarcane ethanol from Brazil ranges from 58.4 to 78.9 gCO2e/MJ, or 18 to 39 percent less than gasoline.

#### c. Cellulosic Ethanol

Ethanol derived from cellulosic material is on the horizon. The most researched pathway to produce cellulosic ethanol from biomass is through hydrolysis and fermentation. This process is similar to production of ethanol from grains, except that it is significantly more difficult now to hydrolyze cellulose than starch. An alternative pathway involves gasification of cellulosic biomass to produce syngas. The syngas can be converted to ethanol using a modified Fischer-Tropsch synthesis or by fermentation techniques. More background on types of technologies can be found in Chapter III of the LCFS staff report.

The commercial production of cellulosic ethanol has not met the expectations contained in RFS2 mandates. Under RFS2, U.S. EPA can respond to market conditions and revise the mandated volumes. For example, U. S. EPA reduced the 2011 mandated volume of cellulosic ethanol for the RFS2 from 250 million gallons to six million gallons. EIA suggests that a more likely 2011 production total for cellulosic biofuels is approximately four million gallons. U.S. DOE is still processing grants to help stimulate cellulosic biofuels.

The prior consumption of cellulosic ethanol is essentially insignificant, and on the order the low millions of gallons for the entire U.S. Likely very little of that volume was consumed in California.

The U.S. EPA annually sets a cellulosic ethanol volume standard that is based on projected production volume for the following calendar year. The annual standard adjusts the target volume for that calendar year from the RFS2 to the projected production volume. The U.S. EPA’s projections of cellulosic ethanol production volume for the following year are required to consider independent projections by the U.S. Energy Information Administration (EIA).

The U.S. EPA and the EIA each conduct a comprehensive analysis of cellulosic ethanol projects at different stages of development in the United States. The cellulosic ethanol volume projections are based on identification of facilities that currently are in the planning stage, pilot stage or are expected to commence operation. EIA’s *Annual Energy Outlook* reference case also tracks cellulosic ethanol trends. The 2011 *Annual Energy Outlook (*AEO 2011) reference case provides EIA’s current projections of domestic cellulosic biofuel production through 2035.

The AEO 2011 reference case projects no cellulosic ethanol production during 2011 and projects a steady increase in cellulosic ethanol production to 2020, reaching a potential volume of approximately 2.5 billion gallons by 2020.

**Graph V-1:** Projected cellulosic biofuel volume 2010 to 2020

U.S. EPA set the cellulosic ethanol volume standard for the first time in 2010 at 6.5 million gallons, a reduction from 100 million gallons identified in RFS2. The 2011 standard was set at 6.6 million gallons, a reduction from 250 million gallons identified in RFS2; and the 2012 cellulosic ethanol volume standard has been proposed to be reduced from 500 million gallons to a volume within the range of 3.55 million gallons to 15.7 million gallons. The 15.7 million gallon cellulosic ethanol estimate includes 8.0 million gallons of cellulosic ethanol and 7.7 million gallons of non-ethanol cellulosic liquids that can substitute for gasoline. U.S. EPA listed nine facilities in the United States that are projected to have the potential to make cellulosic ethanol available for transportation use in 2012. The list consists of facilities that are either in the pilot stage, as of July 2011, or are expected to commence cellulosic ethanol production by the end of 2011. U.S. EPA has identified five facilities that may begin production of cellulosic ethanol on a commercial scale by 2013: Coskata, Enerkem, Poet, Abengoa, and Mascoma.

**Table V-10:** Cellulosic Ethanol Projections for 2010 - 2020

|  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- |
| **Year** | **RFS2 Cellulosic Biofuel Standard Volume Requirements**[[74]](#footnote-74)**(Billion Gallons)** | **EIA cellulosic ethanol projections** **(Billion Gallons)** | **California’s Proportional “Share” of Cellulosic Biofuel****(Billion Gallons)**  |
| **2010** | 0.10 | 0.00 | 0.00 |
| **2011** | 0.25 | 0.00 | 0.00 |
| **2012** | 0.50 | 0.02 | 0.002 |
| **2013** | 1.00 | 0.09 | 0.010 |
| **2014** | 1.75 | 0.18 | 0.020 |
| **2015** | 3.00 | 0.32 | 0.036 |
| **2016** | 4.25 | 0.49 | 0.055 |
| **2017** | 5.50 | 0.75 | 0.085 |
| **2018** | 7.00 | 1.12 | 0.127 |
| **2019** | 8.50 | 1.68 | 0.190 |
| **2020** | 10.50 | 2.47 | 0.279 |

The infrastructure and vehicle compatibility for cellulosic ethanol should not be any different than for corn ethanol. However, there are significant barriers to expanded use of cellulosic ethanol, primarily the infancy of the technology required to convert cellulose to sugar as well as the need for further investment.

### 5. Natural Gas

While there have not been technological advances in the infrastructure for delivery, natural gas use in the transportation sector—both as compressed natural gas (CNG) and liquefied natural gas (LNG)—has increased over the last few years. Table 1 below shows the consumption of natural gas as transportation fuel in California from 2006 to 2009. The consumption has increased at an average rate of nine percent per year. This increase could be attributed, at least in part, to potential fuel cost savings from natural gas relative to traditional fossil fuels, such as gasoline and diesel. On an energy-equivalent basis, natural gas fuel is less expensive than gasoline or diesel. If these fuel savings are maintained, natural gas use should continue to increase. The use of natural gas provides additional benefits, such as emission reductions for greenhouse gases, criteria pollutants, and toxics.

#### a. Historic Consumption

California vehicular natural gas consumption has been increasing. The table below shows California vehicular natural gas consumption from 2006 to 2010, the latest year that data are available. The data are from the EIA. As can be seen in the table, natural gas use has increased by about 50 percent over this period, from approximately 9,900 million standard cubic feet (mmscf) or 84 million gallons gasoline equivalent (millions GGE) in 2006 to 14,800 mmscf or 117 million GGE in 2010.

**Table V-11:** Vehicular natural gas consumption in California, 2006-2010

|  |  |
| --- | --- |
| **Year** | **Natural Gas, as CNG or LNG** |
| **(mmscf)** | **(million GGE)**[[75]](#footnote-75) |
| 2006 | 9,889 | 84 |
| 2007 | 11,015 | 93 |
| 2008 | 11,705 | 99 |
| 2009 | 13,132 | 111 |
| 2010 | 14,798 | 125 |

#### b. Future Demand

California vehicular natural gas consumption is projected to increase. This increase is directly tied to greater penetration of new vehicles compatible with natural gas or vehicles converted to use natural gas, as well as installation of additional natural gas refueling infrastructure. The table below shows the projected California CNG consumption based on the Low and High Petroleum Demand cases from the CEC’s 2011 Integrated Energy Policy Report. The high petroleum demand case (“Natural Gas High”) represents primarily faster economic recovery and low crude prices. The low petroleum demand case (“Natural Gas Low”) represents primarily increases in fuel efficiency and lower alternative fuel prices.

**Table V-12:** Projected future demand for Natural Gas

|  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- |
| **Year** | **Natural Gas Low****(Million GGE)** | **Natural Gas High****(Million GGE)** |
| 2011 |  132  |  134 |
| 2012 |  135 |  142  |
| 2013 |  144  |  150  |
| 2014 |  155  |  158  |
| 2015 |  166 |  166  |
| 2016 |  177 |  174 |
| 2017 |  187  |  181 |
| 2018 |  195  |  188  |
| 2019 |  201  |  195 |
| 2020 |  207 |  202  |

#### c. Vehicles, Infrastructure, and Barriers

The expansion of the natural gas vehicle (NGV) population has played an important role in increasing volumes of natural gas use. NGVs can be categorized into two vehicle classes: light duty vehicles (LDVs) and heavy-duty vehicles (HDVs), which actually include what may be described as medium-duty vehicles (MDVs). The table below shows the NGV population from 2006 - 2010; these values have been estimated from the California Department of Motor Vehicles’ (DMV) database. As shown in the table, the increased natural gas consumption was driven by the HDV-class growth. While the LDV was stagnant, the HDV has grown by more than 60 percent over this period.

**Table V-13: Natural Gas Vehicles in California, 2006-2010**

|  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- |
| **Year** | **LDVs** | **HDVs**[[76]](#footnote-76) | **Total** |
| 2006 | 24,900 | 7,900 | 32,800 |
| 2007 | 25,200 | 8,600 | 33,800 |
| 2008 | 24,800 | 9,700 | 34,500 |
| 2009 | 24,800 | 11,300 | 36,100 |
| 2010[[77]](#footnote-77) | 24,800 | 12,900 | 37,700 |

Barriers to expanded natural gas usage include infrastructure and vehicle conversion. The infrastructure to deliver natural gas to consumers exists but a key missing element is the relatively low number of public stations. Fleet users have been the primary natural gas users to date, because they are able to install the necessary infrastructure on-site, and don’t have to rely on public availability. The low number of vehicles that come stock with the ability to use natural gas leads to the necessity of conversion, which is costly and may not be warranted by the vehicle manufacturer.

### 6. Biogas

It has been projected that biogas generation could expand based upon the current sources of biomass and agricultural waste products. EPA’s joint program, AgSTAR, projects that the number of anaerobic digesters could increase by at least tenfold.[[78]](#footnote-78) Various studies by CEC and other California agencies suggest that biogas could displace diesel use (in California) by a few billion gallons depending on biomass allocation and technological availability.

Most renewable natural gas (RNG) is being produced outside the state and directed into California for use via the natural gas pipeline distribution network. However, there are specific instances where renewable gas is entering California via truck or rail lines depending on the sales volume and transportation distance. Transport of RNG into the state through pipelines has an estimated transportation cost of $0.75 to $2.50/MMBtu. Projects within the state that are utilizing biomethane generated on-site include Waste Management’s Altamont Facility and the Hilarides Dairy. There are other dairies operating anaerobic digesters; however, in most scenarios that energy is being converted to electricity. Waste Management’s facility produces 13,000 gallons per day of LNG that support both the facilities energy needs and the fleet of waste haulers. The Hilarides Dairy in Lindsay generates its own fuel from anaerobic digestion lagoons, providing energy to its facilities and equipment.

There are several barriers to bringing California biogas to market, including: the low cost of fossil natural gas; tariffs prohibiting pipeline injection of landfill gas; pipeline safety standards; the economics of linking the output from small agricultural processing facilities and farms into a central processing facility; the cost of building a pipeline interconnect at each biomethane production facility; and incentives that favor the conversion of biogas to electrical production over direct pipeline injection. Further, permitting requirements in California can be more time-intensive and require an increase in capital investments due to their thorough nature; this may cause hesitation when constructing a biomethane gas processing and distribution station.

Currently, a multimillion dollar investment is required to build an interconnect between an RNG source and the public utility pipelines. RNG producers have suggested that implementing standardized interconnect designs or a rate-based developer cost associated with each interconnect would increase the feasibility of additional sources. AgSTAR currently identifies about a dozen active anaerobic digester sites in California, however a majority of these are currently converting their biogas to electricity.[[79]](#footnote-79) While there is a possibility for additional expansion throughout the nation, sites that would be economically feasible for individual interconnects would limited at this time without an additional influx of funding.

In current situations where interconnects are not feasible, the fuel requires additional processing before transport. The costs associated with this endeavor require gas to be liquefied (compression and chilling costs) and then transported to another location for fueling. Biomethane gas is rarely produced in the same location in which it will be used that is effective for fueling a fleet; notable exceptions may be landfill and dairy equipment. In instances were interconnects are feasible, there are still pipeline quality standards that need to be met before the gas can enter the pipeline. These standards are defined in tariffs agreed upon by the pipeline companies and public utilities; therefore, depending on the location of injection, the pipeline tariffs may limit the ability of biogas producers to market the fuel.

The current federal tax credits create an incentive for the production of self-generated electricity on site when biomethane is produced. Self-generated electricity tends to be less efficient and may cause more emissions than if the gas were injected into the pipeline where central stations would convert the natural gas into electricity. If the same incentives were applied to both electrical generation and injection of clean and safe renewable gas into the pipeline, the ability to market the gas more broadly would generate greater market activity without adversely impacting local air pollution control efforts.

Overall capital investors need more assurances that the market will be stable to properly plan and allocate funding or incentives. Investors seek certainty to avoid poor investment decisions in the future; these uncertainties may be the result of a new barrier being established or additional incentives, which are directed towards competing fuels or technologies.

#### a. Historic Consumption

To date there has been no significant use of biogas to power vehicles. However, there have been recent projects, such as the joint venture between Waste Management and Linde North America, to use LNG converted from landfill gas generated at the Altamont landfill to power Waste Management’s LNG-powered refuse trucks.

#### b. Future Demand

Due to its low carbon intensity, it is expected that the use of biogas to power vehicles will have a long-term positive growth trend. However, it may be several years before this growth is realized due to the current commercial barriers to distribution.

#### c. Vehicles, Infrastructure, and Barriers

Biogas is mostly methane, the same primary component in natural gas. As long as the gas can meet pipeline and motor vehicle standards for natural gas, it should be fully compatible with vehicles currently operating on natural gas, or those converted to operate on natural gas.

There are several barriers to bringing biogas to market, including: the low cost of fossil natural gas; the prohibition of injecting landfill gas into natural gas pipelines because of concerns about vinyl chloride contamination; the cost of building an interconnect at each biomethane production facility; and the economic advantages in many cases of using biogas for electricity generation due to less fuel clean-up requirements. Further, permitting requirements in California can be more time-intensive and require an increase in capital investments due to their thorough nature; this may cause hesitation when constructing a biomethane gas processing and distribution station.

Currently, where biogas is allowed to be introduced into natural gas pipelines, a two million dollar investment is typically required to use an RNG source to build an interconnect line into the public utility pipelines. As noted, possible solutions for this problem include standardizing the interconnects or attaching a rate-based developer cost to each interconnect to reduce the long-term costs of potential products. Currently, there are over a thousand sites where biomethane could be produced but would currently require an investment upwards of two billion dollars to connect all of them into the pipeline.

In current situations where interconnects are not feasible, the fuel requires additional processing before transport. The costs associated with this endeavor require gas to be liquefied (compression and chilling costs) and then transported to another location for fueling. Biomethane gas is rarely generated in the same location that is effective for fueling a fleet; exceptions may be landfill and dairy equipment. In some instances, the pipeline may accept the gas into their system; however, with only one buyer the purchase price is not nearly as lucrative if there were multiple bidders for the gas.

The current federal tax credits incent the production of electricity on site when biomethane is produced, but this can be inefficient and may cause more emissions than if the gas were injected into the pipeline where a major natural gas electric power generation unit was converting the energy. If the same incentives were applied to both electrical generation and injection of renewable gas to the pipeline, the ability to sell to more than one buyer would generate additional security in the market. Note that the production of electricity from RNG sources is becoming more difficult in non-attainment air districts. .

Capital investors need more assurances that the market will be stable to properly plan and allocate funding or incentives. Investors seek as much certainty as possible to make informed investment decisions; uncertainties may be the result of a new barrier being established or additional incentives that are directed towards competing fuels or technologies.

### 7. Biodiesel

Biodiesel is defined as a fatty acid mono-alkyl ester derived from vegetable oils, animal fats or other renewable oils. Biodiesel is commercially available, supplying about five million gallons of fuel in California in 2010, and about 350 million gallons of fuel in the U.S. Nationwide biodiesel production peaked in 2008 at 690 million gallons. If current production stays stable, the biodiesel industry will reach about 800 million gallons of production this year.

The primary feedstocks available for biodiesel production in California are waste vegetable oil, animal fats, inedible corn oil, canola oil, and soybean oil. Of these feedstocks, waste vegetable oil, animal fats, and inedible corn oil are waste feedstocks and may be used to produce biodiesel that has very low carbon intensity. The majority of biodiesel production facilities in California are multi-feedstock plants that are designed primarily to use these traditional waste feedstocks. Biodiesel production facilities should require little to no infrastructural change to accommodate algae oil, if algae oil becomes more readily available.

According to the LCFS staff report in 2009, California biodiesel production facilities had a combined nameplate capacity of about 35 million gallons. Staff’s update conducted for this review has determined that nameplate capacity has doubled—to about 70 million gallons—as of 2011. According to U.S. EPA RFS2 facility registrations, as well as other sources, U.S. biodiesel production capacity is approximately 2.1 billion gallons.

#### a. Historic Consumption

The table below shows California biodiesel consumption from 2006 to 2010, the latest year that data are available. The data are from BOE.

**Table V-14:** Biodiesel consumption in California 2006-2010

|  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- |
| **Year** | **Biodiesel consumption****(Million gallons)** | **Average biodiesel content** |
| 2006 | 19.610 | 0.53% |
| 2007 | 17.459 | 0.46% |
| 2008 | 11.702 | 0.34% |
| 2009 | 6.921 | 0.22% |
| 2010 | 5.398 | 0.16% |

There are several factors that have likely played a part in the decrease in biodiesel consumption including: implementation of State Water Resources Control Board rules for underground storage tanks, delayed implementation of the RFS2, and the temporary expiration of the federal blender’s tax credit in 2010. Further, there are multiple viewpoints regarding the impact of the economic downturn on biodiesel consumption. On the one hand, lower diesel fuel prices led to a similar reduction in biodiesel prices; but on the other hand, lower economic production may have led to companies and individuals having less capital and less ability to pay the marginal cost of biodiesel over diesel fuel.

#### b. Future Demand

The LCFS and RFS2 are expected to drive additional demand for biodiesel in California. The table below shows the projected consumption of biodiesel in California based on the Low and High Petroleum Demand cases from the CEC’s 2009 Integrated Energy Policy Report. The high petroleum demand case (“Biodiesel High”) represents primarily faster economic recovery and low crude prices. The low petroleum demand case (“Biodiesel Low”) represents primarily increases in fuel efficiency and lower alternative fuel prices

**Table V-15:** Projected future demand for Biodiesel in California

[Awaiting 2011 data from CEC]

|  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- |
| **Year** | **Biodiesel Low****(Million Gallons)** | **Biodiesel High****(Million Gallons)** |
| 2011 | 48.9 | 47.3 |
| 2012 | 61.0 | 58.4 |
| 2013 | 62.0 | 59.3 |
| 2014 | 63.2 | 60.3 |
| 2015 | 65.2 | 61.9 |
| 2016 | 64.5 | 61.4 |
| 2017 | 65.8 | 63.1 |
| 2018 | 67.0 | 64.7 |
| 2019 | 68.0 | 66.2 |
| 2020 | 68.7 | 67.9 |

The federal RFS-2 requires fuel importers and refiners to blend substantial amounts of biomass-based diesel fuel in the coming years. For example, 800 million gallons are required in 2011; 1 billion gallons are required in 2012; and 1.28 billion gallons are required in 2013. Many of the same companies are obligated parties under both the federal RFS2 and the California LCFS. Therefore, these entities would appear to have an incentive to blend biodiesel in California. This is because the same activity would help meet RFS2 obligations while also earning credits toward LCFS compliance obligations. For this reason, it is possible that biodiesel volumes in California could be significantly higher in the future than those reported in previous years or the projection above.

#### c. Vehicles, Infrastructure, and Barriers

Depending on the blend level, biodiesel can be used in all diesel engines with little to no modification. More than 60 percent of engine manufacturers currently include positive warranty statements for biodiesel up to and including 20 percent (B20). Some manufacturers include positive warranty statements for B100. All major manufacturers include positive warranty statements for blends of B5 and below. A number of manufacturers are currently engaged in testing programs to evaluate use of B20 in engines they produce, potentially leading to greater acceptance of biodiesel at B20 and higher blend levels.

Biodiesel is currently transported in the U.S. on the East and West Coasts in pipelines that do not carry jet fuel. However, no pipelines in California are shipping biodiesel currently, or are expected to ship biodiesel in the near-term. Federal Aviation Administration regulations prohibit the presence of non-approved additives or renewable components in jet fuel, which is the primary reason no pipeline companies in California will ship biodiesel (i.e., because they ship jet fuel in nearly all the pipelines in the State).

Additionally, the level of biodiesel allowed in ASTM jet fuel specifications is currently 5 parts per million (ppm). While biodiesel blends are commonly transported throughout Europe on pipelines that carry jet fuel, U.S. pipelines are larger, more complex, and carry more products than their European counterparts, making it more difficult to manage biodiesel levels below 5 ppm. A multimillion dollar joint research and testing project between the U.S. and Europe is currently underway to determine if a 100 ppm tolerance for biodiesel is acceptable.

The cost of installation of mid-stream storage and blending infrastructure has also prevented more B20 from entering the market. B20 requires local storage of biodiesel blendstocks at scale for efficient supply economics, and in many locations the necessary rail handling and rack-blending infrastructure does not exist.

### 8. Renewable Diesel

Unlike biodiesel, which has a tightly defined ASTM International quality and performance specification, renewable diesel is a broad term that encompasses many different production technologies. The most common and only commercial renewable diesel production technology is hydrogenation-derived renewable diesel (HDRD). HDRD is produced by hydrogenation of vegetable oils and animal fats. HDRD can be produced standalone, through a dedicated batch or facility, or by co-processing with crude oil derived feedstocks. Both standalone and co-processed HDRD are liquid hydrocarbon fuels that have very similar chemical properties to petroleum diesel.

In addition to producing HDRD as a standalone product, some refineries may be capable of co-processing triglyceride feedstocks and petroleum feedstocks, resulting in a diesel product that is partially derived from renewable sources. This co-processed diesel may be produced by inserting the triglyceride feedstock into the refinery stream prior to the refineries hydro-treating unit resulting in n-paraffins with carbon chain lengths between 12 and 24 as well as propane, water, and CO2 by-products.

Co-processed HDRD may be produced by some refineries via the insertion of atriglyceride feedstock into the process prior to hydro-treating**,** resulting in a partially renewable end product. To date, however, there has been little experimentation with this process by major refiners due to the risk to valuable refinery assets as well as the opportunity cost of downtime for possible maintenance.

Standalone HDRD is not currently available in commercial quantities in California**,** but several demonstration and one commercial scale projects are currently operating throughout the United States. The most common current feedstock for HDRD in the U.S. is animal fat. For example, Syntroleum and Tyson have partnered on a joint venture, Dynamic Fuels, to produce renewable diesel derived from animal fat. The hydro-treated renewable diesel is produced in Arkansas in a recently completed facility with a nameplate capacity of 75 million gallons of fuel per year.

#### a. Historic Consumption

Currently, California renewable diesel consumption is limited to demonstration-scale projects of one to several vehicles. The consumption of renewable diesel has yet to take place on a commercial scale.

#### b. Future Demand

Because renewable diesel is a fully compatible replacement for petroleum diesel, the potential use of renewable diesel can theoretically approach the total volume of petroleum diesel, disregarding feedstock limitations. Currently, the major limiting factors for renewable diesel consumption and future demand are economic and transportation limits. For example, there are currently no commercial-scale facilities producing renewable diesel in California, which means that any future demand must be satisfied by out-of-state production facilities, requiring additional costs.

Like biodiesel, standalone HDRD is eligible for RIN generation within the federal RFS2 program’s biomass-based diesel category. These required volumes increase from 800 million gallons in 2011 to 1.28 billion gallons in 2013 and offer a potential growth opportunity for the standalone renewable diesel industry. The amount of renewable diesel consumed will depend largely upon the amount of renewable diesel production that is commercially available and obligated parties’ preference for that product or biodiesel.

#### c. Vehicles, Infrastructure, and Barriers

Currently**,** the major limiting factors for HDRD consumption and future demand are related to production, economics, feedstock availability, quality assurance, and transportation. For example, no commercial-scale facilities producing renewable diesel exist in California, meaning that any future demand must be satisfied by production facilities located outside the state; combined with the fact that HDRD typically requires more energy to produce than biodiesel, has higher capital costs, and yields less fuel from the feedstock utilized, this results in competitive challenges for the fuel in the commercial marketplace.

As a hydrocarbon fuel, renewable diesel is generally thought to be chemically similar enough to petroleum diesel such that it can be used in current vehicles with little to no modification. Currently, no engine manufacturer explicitly includes renewable diesel as a recommended fuel type, at any level, in its vehicle warranty statement. Therefore, there is some debate as to whether renewable diesel may be used in engines without voiding warranties. However, ASTM D975 (the industry standard for diesel fuel quality) has language which allows hydrocarbon oils, regardless of feedstock, to be components of diesel fuel, suggesting that as long as the fuel meets the specified properties of D975 it is acceptable as diesel fuel.

With the exception of co-processed HDRD at acceptably low levels of bio-derived component, HDRD requires many of the same infrastructure investments necessary for biodiesel. For example, at some point in the fuel stream the product must be stored and blended into petroleum diesel. However, unlike biodiesel, this may be done at more centralized locations, such as at refineries prior to introduction to the pipeline, since renewable diesel should technically be able to be transported by pipeline. Storage and blending infrastructure for renewable diesel is limited in California and would need to be expanded to accommodate significantly increased use of the fuel.

Co-processed renewable diesel receives relatively little government support, compared to other biofuels. Co-processed renewable diesel receives a tax credit that is half the amount provided standalone renewable diesel (and biodiesel) and does not qualify for the biomass-based diesel category within the federal RFS2 program.

### 9. Electricity

The largest deployment of electric vehicle infrastructure in history is currently underway through the U.S. Department of Energy’s (DOE) Electric Vehicle (EV) Project. The Project includes the installation of approximately 7,000 residential chargers and
1,600 public chargers in California. The Project provides the opportunity to evaluate EV use and the effectiveness of charging infrastructure.

Electric vehicle growth may be further monitored through an existing state regulation proposed to include electricity. The Clean Fuels Outlet (CFO) regulation mandates alternate fuels’ infrastructure when a certain number of vehicles using that alternative fuel are on the road.[[80]](#footnote-80) Recently proposed modifications to the CFO regulation would include hydrogen stations and monitoring electric vehicle growth to better understand infrastructure challenges and needs.[[81]](#footnote-81)

As the annual CI standards tighten throughout the decade, the amount of credits earned by EVs diminishes because of the smaller difference between the CI of electricity and the CI of the lower standard. For example, in 2020, when the CI standard is 10 percent lower than 2010, staff estimates that battery electric vehicles would earn approximately 1.7 credits per vehicle, while plug-in hybrids would earn 1.3 credits per vehicle. The number of credits projected for the year 2020 varies considerably based on the projected number of electric vehicles. Based on these scenarios, LCFS credits available in 2020 could be 700,000 to 2,500,000 MTCO2e. Compared to the total reduction of CO2e in 2020, credits could be 3 to 10 percent of the total reduction. The potential value of the credits based on a range of $15 to $50 per credit, could range from $10 to $124 million.

####

#### a. Historic Consumption

The table below shows California vehicular electricity consumption from 2007 to 2010, the latest year for which data are available. The data are from CEC.

**Table V-16:** Vehicular electricity consumption in California 2007-2010

|  |  |
| --- | --- |
| **Year** | **Vehicular Electricity****(Megawatt-hours)** |
| 2007 | 835 |
| 2008 | 841 |
| 2009 | 845 |
| 2010 | 856 |

####

#### b. Future Demand

The table below shows the projected consumption of gasoline in California based on the Low and High Petroleum Demand cases from the CEC’s 2009 Integrated Energy Policy Report. The high petroleum demand case (“Electricity High”) represents primarily faster economic recovery and low crude prices. The low petroleum demand case (“Electricity Low”) represents primarily increases in fuel efficiency and lower alternative fuel prices.

**Table V-17:** Projected future demand for vehicular electricity in California

[Awaiting 2011 data from CEC]

|  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- |
| **Year** | **Electricity Low****(Megawatt-hours)** | **Electricity High****(Megawatt-hours)** |
| 2011 | 960 | 917 |
| 2012 | 1,169 | 1,086 |
| 2013 | 1,617 | 1,479 |
| 2014 | 2,240 | 1,999 |
| 2015 | 2,869 | 2,536 |
| 2016 | 3,449 | 3,024 |
| 2017 | 3,969 | 3,460 |
| 2018 | 4,552 | 3,968 |
| 2019 | 5,113 | 4,468 |
| 2020 | 5,656 | 4,958 |

#### c. Vehicles, Infrastructure, and Barriers

Staff estimates that in 2011, there will be 5,000 to 11,000 electric vehicles operating in California. This includes full-electric vehicles like the Nissan Leaf and Tesla Roadster, and plug-in hybrids like the Chevy Volt. Based on typical annual miles traveled using electricity supplied from the California grid, a battery-electric vehicle could earn about two credits in 2011, while a plug-in hybrid could earn one-and-a-half credits in 2011 (one credit is equal to one MTCO2e). LCFS illustrative scenarios were based on 490,000 to 1,780,000 electric vehicles (both battery and plug-in hybrid) in 2020.

### 10.       Hydrogen

Currently, hydrogen stations are co-funded through ARB Hydrogen Highway (nine locations, 60-140 kg/day) and CEC AB 118 funding (eight new locations, 180-240 kg/day).  The major challenges in establishing hydrogen infrastructure include:  1) Fuel Cell Vehicle (FCV) roll-out projections are based on infrastructure being available ahead of vehicles, 2) good station coverage is needed to ensure consumer convenience, 3) early stations are costly, and 4) government funding is needed to offset capital and operations and maintenance (O&M) when fuel demand is low.

Based on a joint ARB and CEC survey of OEMs in 2009, the number of FCVs operating in California is expected to be less than 1,000 through 2013.  However, the survey and OEM announcements indicates a marked increase in the number of FCVs from 2014 (approximately 2,000 vehicles) to 2017 (approximately 45,000 vehicles).

### 11. Butanol

As a renewable fuel, butanol has a number of advantages over ethanol. Butanol has higher energy density than ethanol, can be mixed with gasoline in more flexible proportions than ethanol, and is less corrosive, less volatile, and less water soluble than ethanol. As a result, butanol can be transported through existing fuel pipelines. However, the incomplete combustion of butanol can result in small amounts of butyric acid, which has a strong odor. Biobutanol is produced by fermentation of sugar using either genetically modified organisms or carefully selected, naturally occurring micro-organisms. On the horizon is the possibility of producing biobutanol using lignocellulosic material in a way similar to lignocellulosic ethanol production.

Currently biobutanol is not available in commercial quantities. Three companies are currently pursuing biobutanol production in the U.S.: Butamax (a joint venture of BP and DuPont), Cobalt biofuels, and Gevo.

### 12. Algal Biofuels

Algae are generally considered an attractive potential feedstock for fuel because of the possibility of similar or relatively high yields compared to conventional crops, and the ability to use marginal or even desert land to cultivate the algae. Some estimates place algae’s potential yield as high as 1,000 to 6,500 gallons of biofuel per acre, compared to about 600 gallons per acre for the most productive conventional crops.[[82]](#footnote-82)

When producing fuel from algae, the algae can serve one of two purposes. The algae can either act as a source of rapid-growing biomass, which is harvested, dried, and put through a gasification and liquefaction reaction to produce fuel. Alternatively, the algae can act as a bio-reactor to produce either triglyceride oil, which can then be converted to fuel, or fuel directly. The most commonly explored method for producing fuel from algae is to use the algae as a bio-reactor to produce triglyceride oil, which can then be converted to fuel.

Algae-derived triglyceride oils can be processed in the same way that vegetable oil or animal fat can to yield either biodiesel or renewable diesel, depending on the process employed. There are generally two methods of producing triglyceride oil from algae that are currently being explored: photo-bioreactors (derives carbon from CO2 and energy from light), and fermentation (derives carbon from sugars and other non-CO2 sources and energy from input heat).

Algae can be cultivated through a fermentation process to generate triglyceride oils. Algae oil fermentation can be completed using any source of available sugar, for example: corn starch, sugar cane, and cellulosic materials. Algal fermentation processes are not fundamentally different from the yeast fermentation processes used to produce ethanol. Algae fermentation removes CO2 from the atmosphere indirectly, by conversion of the carbon from the feedstock into triglyceride oil or fuel.

Photo-bioreactors can include open ponds, where the light source is the sun, or interior setups, where the light source is artificial. The preferred method of algae cultivation for fuel that has been studied is the open pond method, due to the inherently lower cost. Photo-bioreactor cultivation of algae for fuel was the subject of a large program funded by the US DOE from 1978-1996, known as the Aquatic Species Program[[83]](#footnote-83). Photo-bioreactor cultivation of algae removes CO2 from the atmosphere directly by conversion of CO2 into triglyceride oil or fuel. Additionally, co-placement with high CO2 emitting facilities with photo-bioreactors holds promise due to the potential of algae to sequester a portion of the CO2 emissions during growth.

### 13. Renewable Gasoline

Drop-in replacement gasoline derived from renewable resources is a technology that is on the horizon, partially due to policy signals such as the LCFS and RFS2. Renewable gasoline production is still in the research and development stage, with no commercial plants in the U.S. Most current research endeavors relating to renewable gasoline are centered on the use of a gas-to-liquid technique with a modified catalyst to produce the desired target molecules in the gasoline range rather than in the diesel range. However, this approach seems to have yielded little so far due to the tendency of the catalysts to produce less desirable gasoline molecules, which may require further processing prior to use as a finished fuel. Alternatively, renewable gasoline may be produced directly by the use of algae, yeast, or other organisms, to produce gasoline range chemicals rather than ethanol or oil.

## B. Investment

From start-ups to publicly traded companies, the advanced biofuel industry is experiencing significant activity and growth. Government regulations such as RFS2, the LCFS, and the European Fuels Quality Directive, in conjunction with rising oil prices and technological advances, have improved investment opportunities over the last five years.

### 1. Funding for Advanced Biofuels

The advanced biofuel industry is a new, cleantech sector with many market entrants and players. As can be expected in an emerging industry, the number of advanced biofuel companies changes constantly. Consequently, very few, if any, comprehensive lists of active biofuel companies exist. The absence of such a database does not represent a lack of data or activity, merely the difficulty in tracking an ever-moving target.

####

The Cleantech Group forecasts the market of low-carbon fuels at $33.4 billion by 2020. This is nearly double the future market of energy efficiency ($17.3 billion), and significantly higher than renewable electricity ($20 billion).[[84]](#footnote-84) To seize this opportunity, venture capitalists have invested at least $1.76 billion in active North American companies from 2007 through the first quarter of 2011, according to publicly available data.

### 2. Policies, Programs & Tax Incentives for Advanced Biofuels

#### a. DOE Guarantees

The U.S. Department of Energy (DOE) has been routinely awarding grants and loans to emerging fuels and vehicle technology over the last several years. These funds have typically been directed toward advanced technology such as cellulosic fuel and electric drive vehicle technology. Much of the loan guarantees have gone to new demonstration or commercial facilities producing advanced biofuels. In addition to promoting advanced technologies and fuel, a major goal of the DOE funding is to promote energy sources that are secure and domestic.

#### b. AB 118

Assembly Bill 118 authorizes the Energy Commission to spend about $100 million per year for over seven years to “develop and deploy innovative technologies that transform California’s fuel and vehicle types to help attain the state’s climate change policies.” The statute, amended by AB 109 (Nunez, 2008), directs the CEC to create an advisory committee to help develop and adopt an Investment Plan for the program. The Investment Plan is intended to determine program priorities and opportunities, and describe how funding will complement existing public and private investments, including existing state and federal programs. The ARB is represented on the advisory committee.

Funds are awarded through the CEC process beginning with a Grant Solicitation for specific category; all proposals are then ranked by adherence to technical criteria, and those receiving priority rankings are funded. Mid-way into the second funding cycle of the Alternative and Renewable Fuel and Vehicle Technology Program, investment plans have guided the awarding of monies to six fuel categories. A total of $174 million dollars have been awarded to date:

* + $42.5 million for electric (charging infrastructure, medium- and heavy-duty advance vehicle demonstrations, manufacturing facilities and equipment)
	+ $15.7 for hydrogen (fueling stations)
	+ $5.7 million for natural gas (fueling infrastructure)
* $35.3 for biomethane (production)
* $10.5 million for ethanol (E-85 fueling stations, production incentive program, fuel production)
* $8.2 million for biodiesel (upstream fueling infrastructure, and fuel production)

Under AB 118, ARB receives between $30 and 40 million annually (depending on revenues) for the Air Quality Improvement Program (AQIP) to fund clean advanced technology vehicle and equipment projects which reduce criteria pollutants and toxics and also provide climate change benefits. The Board approves an annual Funding Plan describing how AQIP funds will be spent each year. Two funding cycles have been completed, with $58 million in ARB funds awarded to date:

* $39 million for vouchers for California businesses to buy lower-emitting and fuel-efficient hybrid and zero-emission trucks and buses through the Hybrid Truck and Bus Voucher Incentive Project (HVIP). About 900 vehicles have been funded to date, and the Energy Commission has augmented the project with $4 million of its AB 118 funding to help meet demand.
* $9 million for consumer rebates toward the purchase of light-duty zero-emission or plug-in hybrid passenger vehicles through the Clean Vehicle Rebate Project (CVRP). About 2,000 vehicles have been funded to date, and the Energy Commission has augmented the project with $2 million of its AB 118 funding to help meet demand.
* $4 million for technologically promising demonstration projects needed for California to meet its longer-term air quality goals. Ten projects are in progress demonstrating advanced emission controls on locomotives, marine engines, and commercial lawn and garden equipment.
* $2.6 million to expand air district program which provide rebates to consumers who scrap old gasoline powered lawn mowers and replace them with zero-emission models. Over 12,000 lawn mowers have been replaced to date.
* $2 million for an off-road hybrid construction equipment demonstration project
* $1.1 million for a zero-emission agricultural utility terrain vehicle rebate project

On July 21, 2011, ARB approved the *Proposed AB 118 Air Quality Improvement Program Funding Plan for Fiscal Year 2011-12*. For this third funding year, staff proposed continued funding for its three largest project categories:

* $15 -21 million for the CVRP.
* $11-16 million for the HVIP.
* $2-3 million for advanced technology demonstration projects.

The AQIP is authorized through 2015, subject to annual funding appropriations by the Legislature.

In addition to the above programs, AB 118 provides the Bureau of Automotive Repair about $30 million annually through 2015 for an Enhanced Fleet Modernization Program. This is a voluntary, vehicle-retirement program for high-polluting cars and light- and medium-duty trucks. The program is available statewide.

#### c. VEETC

The Volumetric Ethanol Excise Tax Credit (VEETC) is a federal policy to subsidize the production of ethanol in the United States. It is set to expire at the end of 2011, and all indications are that its expiration will result in an ethanol price increase and an associated decrease in the demand for ethanol fuels. The effect on E85 is likely to be particularly severe, with the price of the fuel likely to increase significantly, possibly exceeding the price of gasoline.

####

## C. Ultralow-Carbon Fuels

The LCFS is a market- and performance-driven regulation designed to provide a durable framework that uses market mechanisms to spur the steady introduction of lower carbon fuels. The primary objective of the LCFS is to ensure lower carbon intensity fuels are used in the California fuels market. The framework establishes market-driven performance standards that fuel producers and importers must meet each year beginning in 2011. One standard is established for gasoline and the alternative fuels that can replace it. A second similar standard is set for diesel fuel and its replacements. Each standard is set to achieve an average 10 percent reduction in the carbon intensity of the State’s transportation fuels mix by 2020.

Currently, the LCFS does not contain any special provisions for the use of ultralow carbon fuels; these are treated like all other fuels subject to the LCFS (i.e., they are given a CI commensurate with their lifecycle GHG emissions). The concept of incenting the use of ultralow carbon fuels, with provisions specific to these fuels, was discussed during the development of regulation. However, such fuel-specific incentives ultimately were not included because the Board, as well as a fair portion of stakeholders, believed at the time of the hearing that the LCFS should remain fuel‑neutral. It was thought at the time that the inclusion of provisions for ultralow carbon fuels would create “winners and losers” within the program and make the LCFS less driven by market forces and performance and more driven by incentives and mandates. Additionally, incentives such as credit multipliers, presumably would impact the real‑world reductions that would otherwise be achieved under the program.

With that said, the LCFS relies on the development of ultralow carbon fuels in order to meet the 2020 goals, and the program will undoubtedly need them to meet any State targets set for post-2020. Because the fuels generally have very low CIs, they have the potential to generate credits under the LCFS. In recognition of this, the LCFS regulation (section 95489(a)(5)) directs the Executive Officer, as part of the program reviews, to consider the advisability of establishing additional mechanisms to incent higher volumes of these fuels to be used.

To date there is significant activity leading to the commercial production of ultralow carbon fuels. A report issued by E2 examined the potential production capacity of fuels with a CI of 24 gCO2e/MJ or below, and found evidence that domestically, the industry could produce over 3 billion gallons of ultralow carbon fuel by 2015. (See http://www.e2.org/ext/doc/E2%20Advanced%20Biofuel%20Mkt%20Report%202011.pdf)

If we are not seeing the development of these fuels in sufficient volumes based solely on the need for regulated parties to comply with the LCFS, special provisions within the regulation may aid in their development and ought to be discussed. However, because the LCFS is still in the infancy of its implementation, it is premature to determine how companies will comply with the more stringent goals of the later years of the program. If their main choice of compliance is banking credits in the earlier years when the regulation goals are less stringent, perhaps the LCFS may need to consider provisions to further encourage the development of ultralow-carbon fuels.

However, as indicated above, we believe it is premature to recommend such adjustments given that the program is in its early stages. Nevertheless, we are interested in stakeholder perspectives on the issue. But it is important to note that any recommended adjustments would need to be informed by technical analysis and full vetting through a stakeholder process.

## D. Impact on State Fuel Supplies

### 1. RFS2

Congress enacted the Energy Independence and Security Act of 2007 (EISA) in December 2007, which required EPA to institute a second, and stronger, Renewable Fuels Standard (RFS2). In 2010, the EPA promulgated the RFS2 regulation, which requires that 16 billion gallons of advanced biofuels and 36 total gallons of biofuels be produced in the U.S. by 2022.

The RFS2 provisions are complementary to the LCFS in that much of the technology required to produce the amounts of fuel required by the LCFS is the same technology required to produce the RFS2 fuels. However, the RFS2 calculates carbon intensity differently and does not provide the same incentive to all fuels as does the LCFS. Implementation of both of these regulations should lead to a more diverse fuel pool in California. Although the RFS2 regulation is meant to be technology forcing, the EPA so far has been revising the requirements to be more in line with the current state of technology, so the RFS2 may not be as effective in driving investment as initially perceived. As such, the RFS2 impact on the State’s fuel supplies may not be transformative in and of itself.

### 2. LCFS

#### a. LCFS Requirements Effect on Fuel Pool

Because the LCFS does not require specific volumes of any fuel, it may be difficult to accurately predict the impact it will have on State fuel supplies. However, the LCFS will almost certainly increase the amount of alternative fuels that are consumed in the State, including ethanol, natural gas, biodiesel, renewable diesel, electricity, and hydrogen.

The quantitative mix of fuels will be determined significantly by the RFS2 requirements, and beyond that the feedstock carbon intensity, combined with the production economics should determine the remainder. For example, if a fuel has a very low carbon intensity and is derived from low production cost feedstocks, that fuel will likely contribute significantly to the non-RFS2 amount of fuel in the State. Conversely, if a fuel has either a high carbon intensity or is derived from high production cost feedstocks, that fuel is unlikely to contribute significantly to the non-RFS2 amount of fuel in the State.

#### b. Supply and Demand

A pertinent question is whether the effect of the LCFS on State fuel supplies will impact the ability of the fuels market to satisfy demand. The answer to this question lies primarily in the future development of alternative fuels from an economic and technology advancement perspective. These advances are derivative of factors including: government policies at the national and state level, investment, and diminishing resources.

In order for the fuels market to meet the projected demand for transportation fuels, two things must happen. First, the current state of technology and the ability to produce fuels from difficult feedstocks, such as cellulosic feedstocks, animal and human waste products, and solar radiation, must advance in order to increase commercial ability to supply these fuels. Second, the economics of these production processes must develop such that they can meet demand at prices competitive to conventional fuels. Both of these advancements will be influenced by multiple factors.

Government policies, including fuel standards, tax credits, subsidies, and other policies all have the potential to lead to increased penetration of low carbon fuels in the market, in sufficient quantities, and at lower costs to the consumer. These policies can help to drive technological and economic development of low carbon fuels by providing economic incentives, or by incentives to comply with regulations. National and state policies of this nature should be complementary to the LCFS and should improve the ability of low carbon fuels to meet the fuel demands of the State.

Investment, whether by government or private entity, in low carbon fuels, is a necessity to provide enough fuel that meets the requirements of the LCFS in the coming years. To the extent that investment in low carbon fuels is high enough and invested in fuels that have commercial viability, investment will be a key factor in whether the State’s fuel demand is met at the same time as the LCFS is fulfilled.

In addition to investment and government policies, availability and cost of natural resources will determine the effect the LCFS has on the ability of the market to meet fuel demand. For example, if natural resources, such as petroleum and natural gas, are abundant and prices are low, it will change the cost of low carbon fuels, and possibly increase the overall cost of fuel relative to conventional fuels. However, if natural resources become more scarce and prices for conventional fuels increase, low carbon fuels may be able to compete for relatively less cost or even a lower cost than conventional fuels.

### 3. Blend Limits

Currently, there are several alternative fuels whose market penetration, and therefore their ability to contribute to LCFS compliance, is limited by legal and other restrictions on the blend level of these fuels. This issue is distinct and different from availability based on prevalence of vehicles capable of operating on a specific fuel, such as natural gas. The primary fuels that are affected by this provision are ethanol and biodiesel.

Currently, ethanol blend limits are either at or below 10 percent by volume or E85 for use in FFVs. In order to change this, a rulemaking must be undertaken to increase the limit beyond 10 percent. The U.S. EPA recently waived the E10 limit for certain newer vehicles, approving an E15 blend, but the emergence of E15 in California as a transportation fuel will take several years of testing and rule development should the State decide to move in that direction.

Although ARB has no specific blend limit for biodiesel, the blends are effectively limited by two factors. First, the Division of Measurement Standards (DMS) of the California Department of Agriculture enforces the ASTM limits of 20 percent biodiesel blended with diesel fuel. Any biodiesel above this amount requires an exemption from DMS regulations. Second, most engine manufacturers recommend limiting the use of biodiesel to no more than five percent blends, which will likely limit purchasing habits of individuals to five percent biodiesel until more engine manufacturers raise that recommendation to 20 percent, as some have already done.

## E. Future Monitoring

#### 1. LRT

The LCFS Reporting Tool (LRT) is an online system that enables regulated parties to report quarterly and annually to meet their LCFS reporting obligations. It is designed to store data associated with the quantities of transportation fuels reported and to calculate the LCFS credits and deficits generated for each regulated party. The credit calculation is based on the carbon intensity (CI) of the fuels reported and the compliance obligation associated with the type of fuel transaction (production, import, purchase, etc.). As of July 2011, there were over 70 LCFS regulated parties registered in the LRT. The total number of fuel transactions has surpassed 160,000 MT for three quarters of reporting (Q3, Q4 2010, and Q1 2011) and expected to grow per quarter as additional regulated parties register in the LRT. The LRT will have over 100 transportation fuel entities long-term and the number of reporting regulated parties is expected to have a five to ten percent growth rate during the initial compliance years as additional fuel entities opt into the program.[[85]](#footnote-85)

Quarterly LCFS reporting in the LRT enables ARB to track conventional and alternative fuels produced, imported, purchased and sold under the LCFS Program. The LRT is designed to capture and store LCFS data on a quarterly basis, which will be converted into a variety of informational reports. These reports will include trends, as well as credit availability and trading activity. Trend reports will eventually be available on a regular basis for all reported fuels, with potential upgrades to the LRT increasing the informational content as well as inclusion of credit market reports. Additional information will also be accessible because of the tight integration of the Biofuel Producer/Facility Registration and the LCFS Method 2A/2B Application Process with the upgraded LRT. Additional data from these two processes will also assist ARB in more accurately projecting transportation fuel outlooks for the future in California.

#### 2. CEC

The California Energy Commission is the regulatory agency responsible for determining whether California has enough resources to provide the energy needs of the State on a continuing basis. One of the major tools the CEC employs to meet this goal is its biennial Integrated Energy Policy Report (IEPR), in which they examine the available energy supplies and identify areas where supplies are deficient. ARB staff works closely with CEC staff and will be collaborating with them in CEC’s examination of energy supplies. In doing so, ARB staff aims to use the IEPR as a tool to help determine what impact the LCFS is having on State transportation fuel supplies.

# VI. Meeting the Targets and Assessment of Whether Adjustments Are Needed

## A. Introduction

The LCFS requires regulated parties to reduce the carbon intensity of their transportation fuel pools by at least 10 percent by 2020. To this end, separate compliance schedules establish yearly CI targets through 2020 for gasoline, diesel, and their substitutes. During the early years, the “back-loaded” LCFS sets modest targets to allow for the long-term development of lower-CI fuels, needed to meet the standard later in the decade (see Appendix A), and for increased market penetration by

alternative-fueled vehicles using such lower-CI fuels. Meeting the targets may be achieved through various means, including but not limited to, purchasing low-CI biofuels, using credits previously generated, or acquiring credits from other parties to offset deficits.

For this review, the Panel was interested in the following: the capability of regulated parties to meet the targets in the near- and mid-term; the generation of credits to assist compliance in later years; the compliance challenges regulated parties might encounter in later years; and whether current data, coupled with plausible assumptions, are sufficient to estimate compliance capability for the next several years .

While this chapter provides staff’s review of these topics with the Panel’s input, it is important to reiterate that this 2011 evaluation was conducted during the first year of full program implementation. Thus, by its very nature, this assessment is limited by the fact that the program is in its infancy, and data on compliance strategies being employed over the next five to ten years are relatively meager. Staff anticipates that more meaningful data, reflecting actual compliance and investment strategies being used by regulated parties, would be available by the next scheduled formal review in 2014.

To address the topics suggested by the Panel, this chapter is organized as follows:

* Meeting Near-, Mid-, and Long-Term Targets
	+ 2009 Illustrative Scenarios
	+ 2011 Illustrative Scenarios
	+ First and Second Quarter 2011 Credit/Deficits Generated
* Strategies for and Challenges to Meeting the Targets
* Potential Alternative Compliance Mechanisms
* Summary and Conclusions

## B. Meeting Near-, Mid-, and Long-Term Targets

Based on its assessment, ARB staff is confident that regulated parties can and will meet the near and mid-term targets. There are two reasons for this conclusion: 1)\_2011 compliance scenarios show various plausible paths to meeting the targets through 2015-2017 or beyond; and 2) analysis of information submitted to the LRT shows substantial credits generated in Q1 and Q2 of 2011. These credits, along with credits to be generated in the next several years, will likely be banked by the credit owners for use in later years, or traded to other regulated parties under favorable market conditions.

### 1. Original 2009 Illustrative Compliance Scenarios

For the 2009 rulemaking, staff produced a set of illustrative plausible scenarios that relied, in part, on California receiving its proportional share of the cellulosic ethanol volumes originally mandated in the RFS2. Since then, the United States Environmental Protection Agency (U.S. EPA) has drastically reduced the mandated volumes of cellulosic ethanol, and the Energy Information Administration (EIA) has severely reduced its projections of cellulosic ethanol production over the next 10 years. The lack of sufficient volumes of low-CI, cellulosic ethanol in the market has generated concerns that regulated parties may not be able to meet the LCFS requirements after the next couple of years. Therefore, updating the illustrative compliance scenarios is a critical component to estimating whether regulated parties can meet LCFS targets and if there is a need to adjust the compliance schedule.

### 2. Updated 2011 Illustrative Compliance Scenarios

Based on current and developing fuel and vehicle technologies, feedstock availabilities, and other factors, ARB staff has analyzed a number of plausible scenarios to illustrate potential outcomes under various circumstances. It is important to note that these illustrative plausible scenarios were developed explicitly for the LCFS Advisory Panel work. These scenarios were not developed in support of the upcoming December 2011 LCFS rulemaking or any other rulemaking. Thus, illustrative scenarios developed in support of LCFS rulemakings in the future will likely differ from the ones presented in this report.

In this analysis, staff presents fourteen illustrative compliance scenarios – eight for gasoline and its substitute fuels and six for diesel fuel and its substitute fuels. These scenarios include a mix of fuels that may satisfy the LCFS targets. As noted, these scenarios are substantially different from the 2009 illustrative scenarios for various reasons, including the assumptions used and the substantial reduction in the RFS2 mandate for cellulosic ethanol. Thus, staff believes a direct comparison between the 2009 and 2011 illustrative scenarios would not serve to inform this formal program review. Nevertheless, to the extent the reader is interested in the main differences between the 2009 and 2011 illustrative scenarios, a brief comparison is provided in Appendix B to this chapter.

The 2011 plausible scenarios illustrate how the CI standards might be met, based on various assumptions about future conditions. It is important to emphasize that the scenarios are not predictions or forecasts, but rather illustrations of plausible combinations of fuels that could meet the LCFS targets (along with the vehicles that would use such fuels). Because there are numerous such combinations and permutations, the illustrative scenarios shown in this report represent a mere handful of the possible scenarios that could be evaluated. A full assessment of all such possible scenarios is beyond the scope of this report.

The rate of future fuel and vehicle technological development remains uncertain. The technologies that are most likely to produce commercial quantities of lower-carbon fuels, or the vehicles designed to use such fuels over the near- to mid- term could encounter delays. The development of other, currently less well-developed technologies, could achieve breakthroughs. In addition, since the proposed regulation is performance-based, fuel producers and importers can decide on how to achieve compliance. One or more of these outcomes could result in a set of compliance scenarios that is different from those described below.

#### a. Common Scenario Assumptions

For all the revised gasoline and diesel scenarios, staff used several common assumptions. The common gasoline and diesel assumptions are presented in
Appendix C; these assumptions are based on regulatory mandates (e.g., low emission vehicle regulation) and expected technological advances.

#### b. Gasoline and Diesel Scenarios

As noted, staff developed eight illustrative gasoline and six diesel scenarios, using different assumptions are shown in Tables V-1 and V-2 below. For a more-detailed look at the scenarios in tabular form, please refer to Appendix V-C.

**Table V-1.** Summary of Updated 2011 Illustrative Scenarios for Gasoline

|  |  |
| --- | --- |
| *Scenario 1* | * California gets about 75 percent of EIA cellulosic projections;
* Low corn ethanol use in 2016 and after; large FFV use using E85 50 percent of the time;
* Substantial early surplus credit generation before 2017;
* Annual deficits generated between 2017 and 2020, but some credits remain after 2020.
 |
| *Scenario 2* | * California gets nearly all (80 to 90 percent) of EIA cellulosic projections;
* Low sugarcane ethanol use and low corn ethanol use in 2020; relatively low FFV use;
* Fueling with E85 about 50 percent of the time before 2018 and about 60 percent of the time after; substantial early surplus credit generation before 2017
* Annual deficits generated between 2017 and 2020, but some surplus credits remain after 2020.
 |
| *Scenario 3* | * Delayed cellulosic ethanol introduction; mostly corn ethanol used until 2015;
* Increasing sugarcane ethanol use through 2020;
* California gets about a quarter to a third of EIA nationwide cellulosic projection;
* High FFV use beginning in 2015 using E85 a high percentage of the time;
* Surplus credits accumulate until 2019;
* Deficits generated in 2019 and 2020, but some surplus credits remain after 2020.
 |
| *Scenario 4* | * Only corn and sugarcane ethanol until 2015; high corn and sugarcane ethanol through 2020;
* Cellulosic ethanol introduced in 2015 up to only about a third of EIA nationwide projection for 2020; very high FFV use, fueling with E85 100 percent of the time;
* Less surplus credit accumulation before 2019 than in Scenario 3;
* Deficits generated between 2018 and 2020, but some surplus credits remain after 2020.
 |
| *Scenario 5* | * Small amounts of cellulosic ethanol begins in 2014; drop-in fuel begins in 2015;
* Cellulosic about 20 percent of EIA 2020 nation-wide projection;
* No FFVs; substantial surplus credits in early years;
* Deficits generated between 2018 and 2020, but some surplus credits remain after 2020.
 |
| *Scenario 6* | * Only corn ethanol is used until 2014; sugar cane ethanol and cellulosic ethanol begin in 2014; Drop-in fuel begins in 2015; cellulosic about a third of EIA 2020 nationwide projection; no FFVs;
* Early credits generated with corn ethanol; compliance is achieved every year up to 2020;
* Surplus credits from early generation remain after 2020.
 |
| *Scenario 7* | * Similar to Scenario 6, but with a small number of FFVs operating on E85 50 percent of the time; early surplus credits remain after 2020.
 |
| *Scenario 8* | * Large number of FFVs operating on E85 50 percent of the time;
* Sugarcane and cellulosic ethanol introduced in 2015; drop-in fuel starts in 2016;
* Cellulosic about 25 percent of EIA 2020 nation-wide projection;
* Compliance is achieved every year between 2011 and 2020, and early surplus credits are generated as in Scenario 7, which remain after 2020;
* Less drop-in fuel than Scenario 7, but large number of FFVs used so that projected E85 use is in line with CEC projections; sugarcane ethanol and cellulosic ethanol begin in 2014.
 |

**Table V-2.** Summary of Updated 2011 Illustrative Scenarios for Diesel

|  |  |
| --- | --- |
| *Scenario 1* | * Diesel is blended with non-conventional diesel initially at four percent in 2012 up to 20 percent by 2017 and thereafter.
* Soy biodiesel is the predominant biofuel used through 2018 with increased use of unused cooking oil thereafter.
* Deficits generated early in the program can be offset with additional gasoline credits until blends reach the appropriate volumes to be self-sustaining in 2013.
* Annual deficits generated between 2017 and 2020, but some credits remain after 2020.
 |
| *Scenario 2* | * Similar assumptions to Scenario 1;
* However, also includes canola oil, which displaces other biodiesel feedstocks.
 |
| *Scenario 3* | * Similar assumptions to Scenario 2;
* However; also includes small amounts of corn oil.
 |
| *Scenario 4* | * Similar assumptions to Scenario 3;
* However, also includes small amounts of tallow renewable diesel, further diversifying the mix of biodiesel types (i.e. soy, corn, canola and UCO) quantities.
 |
| *Scenario 5* | * Similar assumptions to Scenario 4;
* However, also includes small amounts of drop-in renewable diesel in 2014 with moderate increases through 2020.
* Introduction of renewable diesel significantly reduces amounts of soy biodiesel.
 |
| *Scenario 6* | * Similar assumptions to Scenario 5;
* However, includes the effect of adding 10,000 CNG heavy duty vehicles by 2020.
 |

#### c. 2011 Illustrative Scenario Results

Detailed results of the fourteen scenarios evaluated by staff for gasoline and diesel are provided within Appendix C. The results collectively represent outcomes that could result from the effects of various assumptions about future compliance options over the course of the LCFS compliance schedule.

The gasoline and diesel scenario results provide an illustration of how credits may be generated or deficits created given the assumptions inherent in each scenario. The scenarios consider: fuel and vehicle technologies (current and developing), the availability of low carbon blendstocks and fuels, and other factors. Each of the scenarios includes a mix of fuels that could potentially meet the LCFS targets. The results of the scenarios are presented as follows.

##### i. Gasoline Scenario Results

Table V-3 below summarizes the credits or deficits created annually under the various gasoline scenarios and the cumulative credit totals for the years 2011 to 2020. The annual and cumulative credits and deficits are expressed in thousand metric tons (1000 MTs); a positive value represents a credit, while a negative value represents a deficit. Positive cumulative balances or neutral balances indicate scenarios that meet the target overall for a given year.

**Table V-3.** Summary of Gasoline Scenario Credits/Deficits

|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| **Scenario** | **Credits/Deficits (1000 MTs)** | **2011** | **2012** | **2013** | **2014** | **2015** | **2016** | **2017** | **2018** | **2019** | **2020** |
| 1 | Annual | 556 | 704 | 538 | 401 | 144 | 807 | -120 | -480 | -176 | -104 |
|  | **Cumulative** | 556 | 1260 | 1798 | 2199 | 2343 | 3150 | 3030 | 2550 | 2374 | 2270 |
| 2 | Annual | 556 | 674 | 564 | 399 | 79 | 711 | -62 | -471 | -59 | -904 |
|  | **Cumulative** | 556 | 1230 | 1794 | 2193 | 2272 | 2983 | 2921 | 2450 | 2391 | 1487 |
| 3 | Annual | 556 | 564 | 183 | 46 | -117 | 388 | 354 | 270 | -370 | -1113 |
|  | **Cumulative** | 556 | 1120 | 1303 | 1349 | 1232 | 1620 | 1974 | 2244 | 1874 | 761 |
| 4 | Annual | 556 | 652 | 398 | 121 | -221 | 241 | 40 | -100 | -180 | -449 |
|  | **Cumulative** | 556 | 1208 | 1606 | 1727 | 1506 | 1747 | 1787 | 1687 | 1507 | 1058 |
| 5 | Annual | 556 | 564 | 183 | 15 | 17 | 301 | 321 | -22 | -245 | -679 |
|  | **Cumulative** | 556 | 1120 | 1303 | 1318 | 1335 | 1636 | 1957 | 1935 | 1690 | 1011 |
| 6 | Annual | 556 | 564 | 183 | 5 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
|  | **Cumulative** | 556 | 1120 | 1303 | 1308 | 1309 | 1309 | 1309 | 1309 | 1309 | 1309 |
| 7 | Annual | 556 | 564 | 183 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
|  | **Cumulative** | 556 | 1120 | 1303 | 1304 | 1304 | 1304 | 1304 | 1304 | 1304 | 1304 |
| 8 | Annual | 556 | 564 | 183 | 5 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 2 |
|  | **Cumulative** | 556 | 1120 | 1303 | 1308 | 1309 | 1309 | 1309 | 1310 | 1311 | 1313 |

In general, all eight gasoline scenarios show positive (green shading) substantial cumulative credit balances from 2011 through 2020. This indicates that meeting the targets through 2020 is plausible under these scenarios, despite some years having no credits (no shading) or having annual deficits (yellow shading) at various points.

There are a number of useful observations that can be gleaned for specific scenarios. For scenarios 1 and 2, note that the early use of low CI ethanol creates substantial credits before 2017 that can be banked and used in later years to offset deficits in those years. Note also that, although there are deficits generated in the latter years, there are sufficient credits remaining from the accumulated bank after 2020. Further, a review of these scenarios in Appendix C shows that cellulosic ethanol, even if used in low but gradually increasing levels, can reduce the demand for corn ethanol.

For scenario 3, it is worth noting that delayed penetration of cellulosic ethanol can result in deficits generated in 2015, with credits generated from 2016 to 2018. Even with those deficits, the scenario shows sufficient credits can be accumulated so that a positive balance can remain after 2020.

For scenario 4, credits are accumulated at a lesser pace than with scenario 3 and annual deficits would be generated from 2018 to 2020. Nevertheless, the accumulated credits are sufficient to ensure that surplus credits remain after 2020. Also, if corn ethanol volumes remain near current levels, increased use of E85 in FFVs would be needed. By contrast, scenario 5 shows that if drop-in gasoline becomes available by 2015, no FFVs using E85 would be necessary to meet the LCFS targets.

For scenarios 6, 7, and 8, note that annual compliance is achieved through 2020 by using surplus credits generated through 2013. A small annual surplus is generated each year from 2014-2020.

Based on the above, staff believes the illustrative scenarios evaluated show a variety of pathways toward meeting the LCFS targets through 2020, even as the standards tighten in the latter years and it becomes more challenging for fuel providers to generate credits.

##### ii. Diesel Scenario Results

Table V-4 below summarizes the credits or deficits created annually under the various diesel scenarios and the cumulative credit totals for the years 2011 to 2020. The annual and cumulative credits and deficits are expressed in thousand metric tons (1,000 MTs); a positive value represents a credit, while a negative value represents a deficit. Positive cumulative balances or neutral balances indicate scenarios that meet the target overall for a given year.

**Table V-4.** Summary of Diesel Scenario Credits/Deficits

|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| Scenario | Credits/Deficits(1000 MTs) | **2011** | **2012** | **2013** | **2014** | **2015** | **2016** | **2017** | **2018** | **2019** | **2020** |
| 1 | Annual | -105 | -7 | 0 | 0 | 21 | 17 | 27 | 23 | 17 | 7 |
|  | **Cumulative** | -105 | -112 | -112 | -112 | -91 | -74 | -47 | -24 | -7 | 0 |
| 2 | Annual | -105 | -7 | 5 | 2 | 18 | 27 | 15 | 16 | 25 | 9 |
|  | **Cumulative** | -105 | -112 | -107 | -105 | -87 | -60 | -45 | -29 | -4 | 5 |
| 3 | Annual | -105 | -7 | 5 | 1 | 13 | 16 | 18 | 26 | 13 | 23 |
|  | **Cumulative** | -105 | -112 | -107 | -106 | -93 | -77 | -59 | -33 | -20 | 3 |
| 4 | Annual | -105 | -7 | 5 | -2 | 16 | 15 | 19 | 21 | 15 | 27 |
|  | **Cumulative** | -105 | -112 | -107 | -109 | -93 | -77 | -59 | -38 | -23 | 4 |
| 5 | Annual | -105 | 2 | 16 | 15 | 11 | 14 | 16 | 11 | 10 | 13 |
|  | **Cumulative** | -105 | -103 | -87 | -72 | -61 | -47 | -32 | -21 | -11 | 2 |
| 6 | Annual | -105 | 3 | 9 | 10 | 12 | 13 | 15 | 14 | 17 | 14 |
|  | **Cumulative** | -105 | -102 | -93 | -83 | -72 | -58 | -43 | -29 | -12 | 2 |

As first glance, the scenarios evaluated by staff seem to show a different picture than that for the gasoline scenarios. These diesel scenarios conservatively assume a gradual increase in biodiesel use from B0 in 2011 to B20 by 2017. In general, these diesel scenarios suggest that, during the first two or three years of the LCFS program, there may deficits generated annually as biodiesel begins to be incorporated into the diesel pool. However, this is somewhat misleading, as explained below.

The illustrative scenarios above notwithstanding, it is important to note that the diesel sector would not actually experience the ongoing cumulative deficits suggested by the diesel scenarios. This is because the regulation requires that deficits in one year be completely reconciled by the end of the following year. Therefore, to the extent cumulative deficits occur in 2011 deficits, the regulation requires those deficits to be completely reconciled by the end of the 2012. And because diesel regulated parties are generally the same fuel providers as the gasoline regulated parties, they will by necessity reconcile the 2011-2012 deficits by applying credits generated within their gasoline pools or credits purchased from other regulated parties. As the gasoline scenarios showed, there should be ample credits generated in the early years for that fuel sector.

Thus, in reality, all the scenarios above should start with no deficits or positive credit balances in 2013 and continue to accrue credits, both annually and cumulatively, through 2020 as biodiesel and renewable diesel increase their penetration into the diesel fuel pool. Staff did not show this in the scenarios since the scenarios were intended to be standalone, but the reconciliation requirement in the LCFS would ensure that the diesel sector would accrue credits annually, as indicated by the green shaded cells for most of the diesel scenarios.

Given the above considerations, surplus credits should continue to accumulate up to and after 2020. It should be noted that, given the large difference in carbon intensities between various biodiesel feedstock sources (e.g., soy oil, used cooking oil, canola oil, corn oil and tallow renewable diesel), credit generation outcomes were highly sensitive to biodiesel feedstock choice. Further, the above scenarios are based on a gradual penetration of biodiesel and renewable diesel. To the extent the use of biodiesel and renewable diesel is accelerated in the early years, along with alternative-fueled heavy duty vehicles (e.g., CNG/LNG vehicles), the accumulation of credits shown in the scenarios may occur faster than indicated.[[86]](#footnote-86)

#### d. First and Second Quarter 2011 Credit/Deficits Generated

As the illustrative plausible scenarios discussed above show, substantial credit generation in the early years can assist regulated parties in meeting the LCFS targets through 2020. This is borne out by data from the LCFS Reporting Tool (LRT). Figure 1 below shows staff’s analysis of the LRT data for the first two quarters of 2011. The figure shows that regulated parties generated about 225,000 metric tons (MT) credits in the first quarter and about 300,000 MTs credits in the second quarter, a total of about of 525,000 MTs of fungible credits. This compares favorably to the less than 300,000 MTs of deficits. In other words, the amount of “excess” credits (i.e., beyond those needed to offset the deficits) is about 225,000 MTs. To the extent that regulated parties bank these credits, the banked credits can provide substantial assistance to regulated parties in meeting the LCFS targets in the latter phase of the program.[[87]](#footnote-87)

Source: LCFS Reporting Tool.

## C. Strategies for and Challenges to Meeting the Targets

### 1. Strategies for Meeting the Targets

Several potential strategies to meet compliance targets include: stockpiling initial credits, diversification of product slate, and investment in the commercialization of new technology.

As noted in the scenario results discussion, the generation of additional credits in early years, to allow for potential shortfalls as potential technical or market barriers are overcome, could be a reasonable approach to provide some safeguards towards future CI deficit years. With the inherent possibility that forecasted fuel, projections may be higher or lower, regulated parties should consider taking cautious steps to ensure the capability of compliance if fuel supplies are not available.

Regulated parties may also be able to diversify their holdings so shortfalls will not affect their potential compliance targets. As regulated parties determine how compliance will be achieved, the advent of new technology, low CI fuels, and blendstocks in the market will provide for stable and effective compliance options. Use of these options will provide regulated parties with more flexibility in achieving compliance.

Interchangeable use of gasoline and diesel credits may also be used to achieve compliance. While there may be excess credits generated using gasoline fuels through the use of ethanol blends, higher blends of non-conventional diesel may progress and become credit generators in the mid-term of the program.

To the extent possible, investment towards commercialization of new and advanced production and blending technology could pay dividends if technology advancement leads to efficient and more cost effective means of fuels production and marketing.

### 2. Challenges to Meeting the Targets

As discussed above, staff believes that the near and mid-term targets are clearly achievable. This conclusion is supported by the substantial generation of credits to date and by illustrative plausible scenarios done by both CEC and ARB staff, which show there are numerous scenarios in which these targets may be met. With regard to the long-term targets, staff believes that it is too early in the program’s implementation to identify with certainty the strategies regulated parties would likely use to meet those targets. Nonetheless, illustrative plausible scenarios were developed that also illuminate approaches and combinations of fuel technologies that can achieve the
long-term targets.

As noted, the LCFS is a “back-loaded” performance standard that is designed to require only modest CI reductions in the near and mid-term. The LCFS is designed this way to provide sufficient time and investments for advanced fuel technologies, many of which exist today in limited quantities, to become fully commercialized in time to meet the more stringent standards in the 2018-2020 timeframe. As a practical matter, some of the fuel technologies that may be used to meet the targets may have some challenges to commercialization. Because the Panel was interested in discussing this topic, staff worked with panelists to identify some of these challenges.

A potential constraint to meeting the targets fully is if all fuels that are expected to help achieve compliance are in short supply for extended periods. For example, if production capacity for lower-CI ethanol, biodiesel and drop-in fuels is not high enough, meeting the targets will be a challenge unless the vehicle population has increased their shift towards alternative fuels such as natural gas, electricity and hydrogen. Staff notes, however, that for the near and mid-term horizon, production capacity for lower-CI ethanol and biodiesel appears to be ample for meeting California’s needs.

Yet another potential barrier would be the shortage of feedstocks needed for the production of low CI fuels. If substantial quantities of biofuel feedstocks are redirected towards food production for any reason, fuel use may need to be re-evaluated to determine if adjustments to the illustrative scenarios are needed. A full discussion of these challenges is beyond the scope of this chapter; Chapter V discusses more extensively these and other possible challenges for specific fuels.

Further, if the costs of supplying the appropriate CI fuels to the vehicle population are higher than anticipated, people may defer to lower cost options with higher CI. A full discussion of economic challenges is beyond the scope of this chapter; Chapter VII discusses the economic challenges more extensively.

## D. Potential Flexible Compliance Mechanisms

### 1. Staff’s Perspective on the Need for Flexible Compliance Mechanisms

In addition to discussing challenges, some panelists were interested in discussing whether a flexible compliance mechanism was appropriate for inclusion in the regulation. It was suggested that ARB consider a flexible compliance mechanism for use in case a regulated party may not able to meet the compliance target in a given compliance period despite its good faith efforts to do so. Staff agreed to take a closer look into such a mechanism as part of this review and make a preliminary determination if such an option has merit sufficient to warrant further investigation for possible inclusion within the LCFS program. Staff asked interested panelists to prepare a separate white paper to identify the elements of what the panelists believe are appropriate flexible compliance mechanisms. The main elements of the white paper are discussed later in this chapter.

As suggested, the concept is not intended as a substitute for the overall LCFS compliance schedules (i.e., so that regulated parties would have a choice between complying with the LCFS standards or the flexible compliance mechanism at any given time). Instead, the suggested concept of a flexible compliance mechanism would only come into play should specified adverse market conditions occur. Further, the concept would provide a given regulated party that can demonstrate compliance difficulties due to those adverse conditions with a short-term alternative with which to comply. One such set of circumstances could occur if the credit market is short at some point in the program (e.g., if regulated parties hold onto their credits rather than trade them en masse); several panelists suggested a flexible compliance mechanism that might, for example, be set up to enable ARB to provide sufficient credits to the market to equalize such market perturbations.[[88]](#footnote-88)

At this time, staff believes consideration of including a flexible compliance mechanism is premature as it would require considerable evaluation and stakeholder dialogue. Also, based on data in the LCFS Report Tool (LRT), we note that there are substantially more credits in the market currently than there are deficits. Staff’s analysis of first quarter 2011 data shows that there are about 75,000 MT of CO2e “net” credits (more credits than deficits generated) registered in the LRT. Further, staff’s preliminary analysis of second quarter 2011 data suggests that the number of net credits has increased significantly relative to the first quarter. This is an indication that, at this time, there are companies that are on track to meet or exceed their compliance obligations.

While the existing LCFS regulation already allows credit trading between regulated parties, establishing the specific “ground rules” that govern trading in LCFS credits will help create a favorable market trading framework. This in turn would help make these credits more accessible for purchase by regulated parties who need such credits to meet their obligations. To this end, staff has developed specific credit trading provisions to be proposed for the Board’s consideration at its December 2011 hearing. Developed in consultation with stakeholders, the proposed credit trading provisions are intended to establish the ground rules for credit trading in the LCFS market and to help foster robust trading between regulated parties.

After the Board hearing in 2011, staff anticipates following up with stakeholders to further investigate the feasibility of developing the concept of a flexible compliance mechanism. As a preview to that follow-up, the next section presents a brief overview of the above-noted white paper on the concept of flexible compliance mechanisms.

### 2. Panelists’ Perspectives on the Need for Flexible Compliance Mechanisms

Predicting the market availability and rate of deployment of low carbon fuels is difficult at this early stage of the LCFS compliance schedule. As regulated parties consider economic tradeoffs, the market will begin its transition to lower CI fuels. As such, the market may experience periods when demand for low carbon fuels exceeds supply leading to shortfalls which may hamper the ability of regulated parties to comply with the LCFS targets. Because of the instability such a shortfall may bring to the low carbon fuel market, potential flexible compliance mechanisms (FCM) may need to be considered in order to maintain market stability and reduce the risk of high LCFS credit prices.

Since developing fuel markets come with some inherent uncertainty, developing a FCM that can reduce the risk of high credit prices may increase market confidence and encourage investment.

Ideally any FCM would be long-term, transparent and predictable. An alternative compliance mechanism addresses how the program will operate in the event that an obligated party fails to meet its obligation with market-sourced fuels or credits. A well-designed flexible compliance mechanism must:

* Be fair to parties that successfully comply with their obligation under the LCFS as well as to parties that temporarily cannot comply because of limited availability of LC fuels.
* Ensure the stability of the LCFS program even as the market expansion of available LC fuels proceeds in a naturally unpredictable, uneven manner.
* Provide a clear, dependable signal to obligated parties and potential LC fuel investors about how ARB would act in the event of a supply shortfall so that parties can make efficient long-term investment decisions.

## E. Summary and Conclusions

The LCFS is in the initial stage of implementation, and only limited data have been reported under the LCFS reporting tool. Nonetheless, the data that have reported to date strongly suggest that regulated parties are able to meet the targets at this point. Not only that, but the reported data also indicate that large numbers of credits are being banked for future use in meeting the more challenging standards in the later years. The information presented in this chapter, including analysis of the illustrative scenario results, suggests that many viable paths exist to attain compliance with the carbon intensity standards through 2020. The actual fuel mix that regulated parties would use is difficult to predict. But, the scenarios show that various means exist to meet compliance.

Through discussions with ARB vehicular program staff and coordination with the CEC and EIA, staff prepared a set of 2011 illustrative scenarios that show a variety of ways that regulated parties in the aggregate may use to meet the LCFS targets through 2020. The scenarios we assessed that yielded the least amount of excess credits in 2020 rely on regulated parties generating excess credits in the early years and using those credits to comply with the later, more difficult targets. Scenarios with the most amount of excess credits in 2020, suggest that compliance can be met through 2020 and beyond without credit deficits in the later part of the program.

Panel discussions around regulated parties and the targets of the LCFS were robust and included not only a discussion of what activity has been reported thus far, but the state of both new technologies and investments in those technologies. With the variety of panelists participating in the conversation, many different viewpoints were heard. Traditional fuel providers generally expressed belief that there were not enough low carbon fuels available to meet near-term goals, while biofuel providers generally expressed belief that there was opportunity to generate credits using fuels that are currently available, especially if the use of these fuels is expanded. There were also several panel members who provide fuels that are banking credits in the system.

Some panelists have suggested that ARB consider a more flexible compliance mechanism for those regulated parties who are not able to meet the targets due to inadequate supply of complying fuels. Staff agreed to take a closer look into such a mechanism as part of this review and make a preliminary determination if such an option has merit sufficient to warrant further investigation for possible inclusion within the LCFS program.

In evaluating this suggestion, staff determined that including an alternative compliance mechanism at this time is premature, especially given the early stage of implementation, but merits further evaluation. Further, it appears that sufficient credits may exist in the market at this time to obviate the need for such an alternative compliance mechanism at this time. One of the goals for the upcoming December 2011 rulemaking is to help make credits more accessible in the marketplace. The upcoming proposed amendments would help establish a favorable market-trading framework that, in turn, should help make these credits more accessible for purchase by regulated parties who may need such credits to meet their obligations.

# VII. Economic Assessment

## A. Introduction

This chapter discusses the challenges and approaches of conducting an economic impact analysis for the LCFS, considering the following issues: 1) expiring biofuel subsidies and tariffs; 2) the proper accounting of biofuel costs borne by the federal renewable fuel standard (RFS2) (i.e., what is the incremental cost of the LCFS over the RFS2 program?); 3) estimating what volumes and percentages of lower-CI fuels California will attract from other states and countries; 4) estimating the relative prices of alternative fuels with various CIs; 5) properly accounting for costs of the fuels (primarily petroleum fuels) displaced by lower-CI alternative fuels.; and 6) potential LCFS amendments, such as an alternative compliance mechanism, that would act to control or cap price increases

ARB staff has been working on estimates for item 4 using current market data and varying the price of carbon (in $/MTCO2e) to estimate relative prices among biofuels of various CIs. Applying these prices to the illustrative plausible scenarios can generate an estimate of economic impact; however, this approach does not take into account market mechanisms (such as competition), technological improvements (lower cost of biofuel production), the price of competing petroleum-based transportation fuels at projected crude prices, and the incremental cost of biofuels used for LCFS compliance relative to what is being produced to satisfy RFS2, among other influences. Clearly these forces will not all exert the same directional impact on prices. Some, such as the cost of carbon, will tend exert an upward pressure. Others, such as technological innovation, will have the opposite effect. The overall net effect will be challenging to determine, as the 2009 LCFS Initial Statement of Reasons recognized when it stated that the actual costs of the program are subject to an array of future conditions that were unpredictable at the time.

Staff convened a conference call with a few members of the Panel who had volunteered to assist with the economic analysis to discuss estimating biofuel prices based on carbon intensity over a range of carbon prices ($15/MTCO2e - $200/MTCO2e). Participants discussed the merits and shortcomings of this approach. One member of the Economic Subgroup who could not participate on the call submitted comments to staff on this approach.

There has not been a comprehensive discussion with the Economic Subgroup regarding the assumptions and possible approaches to conducting an economic impact analysis—one that is commensurate with the charge of the Advisory Panel: technically sound, but not comprehensive or exhaustive. To that end, staff plans to recommend that the Economic Subgroup convene as soon as can be arranged to have such a discussion. Furthermore, staff has been working with the California Energy Commission (CEC) as they conduct an economic analysis on their illustrative scenarios. Therefore, further input from CEC’s will be valuable. Finally, staff is considering using a contractor to conduct a more comprehensive economic analysis of the LCFS. Such an analysis would not be completed until sometime in 2012 or early 2013.

Meanwhile, staff has posed questions in this draft chapter to solicit input from the Panel on proceeding with the economic analysis of the LCFS. Staff’s goal is to complete an economic analysis for inclusion in the report to the Board in December, giving panelists time for review and comment. As specified in section 95489 of the LCFS regulation, the economic impacts analysis should consider the following areas:

“The scope of each review shall include, at a minimum, consideration of the following areas:

(8) The LCFS program’s impact on state revenues, consumers, and economic growth;

(12) Significant economic issues…

## B. Background

### 1. 2009 Approach

As part of the original Initial Statement of Reasons (ISOR) covering the LCFS, staff estimated the cost difference between producing the baseline transportation fuels–gasoline, diesel, and CNG—and producing the lower-carbon-intensity (CI) transportation fuels that could be used to meet the requirements of the LCFS.

The analysis that estimated the economic impacts of the LCFS was based on engineering production cost studies and, necessarily, assumptions about economic and market conditions. Staff calculated the economic impacts for the gasoline baseline and diesel baseline scenarios separately and individually.

#### a. Assumptions

Staff assumed that the price of crude oil for 2010 – 2020 would be $66 - $88/bbl. This assumption came from the 2007 California Energy Commission (CEC) Integrated Energy Policy Report (IEPR) and was also the assumption used for the AB 32 Scoping Plan.

Staff assumed that the refineries in the State would continue to operate at normal throughput levels and would become net exporters of CARBOB if in-state consumption declined. The importers and in-state producers of fuel blendstocks and finished fuels would be impacted by the LCFS because California transportation fuels usually demand a premium price compared to transportation fuels exported to out-of-state markets.

#### b. Methodology

For the cost of producing cellulosic ethanol, staff used analyses conducted by the National Renewable Energy Lab (NREL) and updated the costs to 2007 dollars, also taking into account expected technological improvements.

No vehicle marginal production costs were included in the original economic analysis, as the LCFS does not mandate the use of specific vehicles. Additional zero-emission vehicles (ZEVs) and flexible-fuel vehicles (FFVs) would come into the market either through additional mandates or customer preference.

The ethanol and biodiesel tax incentives that were (and that, for a short time, will continue to be) available were included in cost calculations, as appropriate, because, as with other ARB regulations, staff estimated the cost of compliance with the proposed regulation—the impact at the pump.

#### c. Results

Staff determined that the overall impact on the State was a potential savings, given the assumptions summarized above. The analysis resulted in an estimated potential cost savings of $0 - $0.08 per gallon for Californians. As a result of the requirements of the federal RFS2, any infrastructure costs could have been attributed to the federal program and not the LCFS; however, at the time, staff assumed all infrastructure costs were borne by the LCFS. The analysis also concluded that crude oil prices, production of low-CI fuels, future subsidies and tariffs, and timing of alternative fuels penetration could greatly affect the cost of transportation fuels, and that the LCFS could result in overall costs, not savings. Current conditions have demonstrated the validity of these caveats. We see that subsidies and tariffs are expiring, and that cellulosic fuels are much slower coming to market than originally anticipated. These factors will tend to exert upward pressure on prices.

The LCFS was found to have no adverse effect on small businesses because regulated parties are mostly large businesses. Fueling service stations were considered to be the only small business the regulation had the potential to impact, but—since the LCFS regulation does not mandate the installation of E85, CNG, and hydrogen dispensers at any specific fueling station—station owners who choose to invest in providing this infrastructure were assumed to do so with the expectation of recovering costs and increasing profits.

## C. 2011 Analysis

Much of the economic analysis the original LCFS ISOR remains valid. However, due to changes in the market and to expiring subsidies, delays in low-CI fuel development, and overall cost structures, an updated economic analysis is warranted.

Instead of using the same methodology as was used in the 2009 economic analysis—comparing the cost difference between *producing* the baseline transportation fuels and *producing* the lower-CI transportation fuels—staff has been exploring estimating the cost of the LCFS from more of a regulated party’s perspective. If the updated illustrative plausible scenarios show that compliance can be achieved over some period of time, the next question is how much will that cost?

Staff has been focusing its efforts on trying to estimate the relative wholesale price of lower-CI fuels based on the cost of carbon and then applying those prices to the updated plausible scenarios. This approach, therefore, has been narrowly focused and does not take into account other aspects of an economic analysis, such as the impact on ethanol prices in a post-subsidy, post-sugarcane-tariff world; properly accounting for what costs should be borne by RFS2; taking into account petroleum prices; or, in a more comprehensive analysis, estimating GHG emission damage functions which could be used to estimate the co-benefits of reduced GHG emissions (e.g., avoided climate change adaptation measures and public health benefits).

Staff has not yet attempted to estimate the marginal price of LCFS credits, which will be determined by the cost of purchasing the marginal lower-CI fuel needed to meet the current compliance obligation. Furthermore, if an Alternative Compliance Mechanism (ACM) is introduced into the LCFS program, it would effectively cap the price impact of the LCFS on retail transportation fuels should insufficient volumes of lower-CI fuels or credits be available for compliance. Some Panelists are discussing an ACM for the LCFS, but that work is not yet available to inform this analysis.

### 1. Assumptions

Conducting an economic analysis for the LCFS—or the RFS2, for that matter—is necessarily assumption-driven. Staff has identified some of the major assumptions below:

Federal biofuel subsidies that are due to expire at the end of 2011 will not be renewed;

RFS2 will result in additional biofuels being produced and imported to satisfy its requirements;

Insufficient amounts of cellulosic ethanol will be produced to satisfy original RFS2 mandates and to meet minimum production levels assumed in ARB’s LCFS compliance scenarios;

California, through the LCFS, will attract some higher volume and percentage of lower-CI alternative fuels than would be its “proportional share” of national volumes;

These lower-CI fuels will command some premium price in the California marketplace;

This premium price will contribute to the incremental price of the LCFS on regulated parties;

Therefore, the development of a CI-based price signal appears likely;

If there are insufficient volumes of lower-CI alternative fuels to meet LCFS CI requirements, regulated parties will have to purchase or use banked credits to achieve compliance;

The price of LCFS credits will probably be approximately equal to the cost of the marginal unit of low-CI fuel needed to achieve compliance. Since units are purchased in price order (least expensive first), the marginal unit will be the most expensive; and

Some biofuels, because of the cost of production, will only become available when prices are sufficiently high (though subsequent competition and technological refinement will drive prices down); and

An alternative compliance mechanism can set a cap on the economic impact of the LCFS by not allowing credit prices to rise above some preset level.

### 2. Discussion

#### a. Ethanol - California Premium Price

In the 2009 economic analysis, staff assigned all of the additional ethanol infrastructure costs to the LCFS, then said that most of that should be borne by RFS2 since the LCFS is not requiring additional volumes of ethanol, just ethanol with lower carbon intensities. Similarly, if lower-CI fuels are being produced to meet the requirements of RFS2, what is the incremental premium realized by sending these biofuels to California, and therefore what is the incremental cost to the regulated parties? Staff attempted to estimate that market premium by assuming CI the relationship between CI and price makes it possible to impute a unit cost of carbon emissions.

In order to impute the price of carbon, staff used the relationship between carbon intensity (CI) and GHG emissions (in MT CO2e). The imputed price of carbon may be a determinant in the price of lower-CI biofuels. The process of imputing the price of carbon begins with the equation below, which represents the relationship between CI and the market price differentials between two fuels of different carbon intensity.

*Equation VII-1:*

$\$/MTCO2e =\frac{(Δprice of two fuels, \$/gal) X (1 x 10\^6 g/MT)}{(Energy content of biofuels, MJ/gal) X (Base fuel CI – lower-CI fuel, g CO2e/MJ)}$

If one knows the price of one fuel, then the price of the other fuel may be estimated using the equation below:

*Equation VII-2:*

$(Δprice of two fuels, \$/gal) =\frac{\left(Energy content of biofuels,\frac{MJ}{gal}\right) X \left(\$/MTCO2e\right) X (Base fuel CI – lower-CI fuel, g CO2e/MJ)}{(1 x 10\^6 g/MT)}$

These equations assume than only relative carbon intensities set relative prices. While this is true for current corn ethanol prices in California—90.1 CI corn ethanol enjoys a penny-a-gallon premium over 98.4 CI corn ethanol—this approach does not take into account other market influences.

For example, sugarcane ethanol prices are volatile and vary seasonally. The CEC, in its draft 2011 Integrated Energy Policy Report (IEPR), estimated that for 2010 the delivered price of Brazilian ethanol to California had a premium of $1.04 per gallon compared to Midwest corn ethanol, but for the first half of 2011 that premium was $1.75 per gallon—just before the 2011 sugarcane harvest, when sugarcane ethanol prices drop again due to available supply. These prices are not a function of carbon intensity. Furthermore, in 2009, staff estimated that the cost of producing a gasoline-gallon-equivalent (gge) of corn ethanol was about $2.90; for sugarcane ethanol—including the tariff and ad valorem tax—that estimate was $3.26/gge. The cost of production alone also does not account for the market differential price. If the import tariff is removed—which is expected—then one would assume the price of sugarcane ethanol would drop, but then the demand for it to satisfy both RFS2 and LCFS requirements would have an upward pressure on its price as well. Additional analysis is required to estimate the estimated marginal price of sugarcane ethanol, given all of these factors, and it is a commodity that exists in today’s market. What will be the marginal cost of cellulosic ethanol when it arrives in the market?

#### b. Diesel

Unlike with corn ethanol, where carbon intensity values seem to play some role in relative pricing, the same is not true for biodiesel prices. To illustrate, Equation VII-1 predicts that the price of soy biodiesel should be $3.02 per gallon, assuming it is priced on its CI alone and diesel is $3.00/gal. Yet, according to the September 29, 2011, OPIS report, B100, including RIN, is selling for $6.09/gallon. Clearly CI value alone does not explain this market price differential.

## D. Conclusions and Recommendations

Staff attempted to estimate the relative price differential of various biofuels according to its attractiveness to the California fuels market (i.e., its price premium based on its carbon intensity). This exercise was informative, but incomplete. Additional factors, not all of which exert the same directional influence on cost, must also be considered. A model—perhaps an econometric model—that can calculate a new cost based on the interactions of these various factors is needed.

Staff proposes to convene the Economic Subgroup to discuss what parameters are key drivers in the economic analysis of the LCFS; what other considerations inform the analysis; and what data are available to conduct an economic analysis commensurate with the requirements set forth in the regulation (i.e., the program’s impact on state revenues, consumers, and economic growth) within the next few weeks, considering the nascent nature of the program.

# VIII. Environmental Impacts

## A. Introduction

This chapter begins with a summary of the analysis that staff performed in 2009, which included an evaluation of the potential environmental impacts of the LCFS. We also discuss whether there is significant change from the data used in the original analysis; if the fuel pool in California has fundamentally changed; and if the existing permitting process is sufficient to prevent any adverse impacts on local, state, and federal levels. Additionally, we cover potential mitigation measures that can be used to minimize local impacts. We discuss the protocol that staff has developed for identifying proposed projects potentially related to the LCFS and the biorefinery siting guidance document, which was developed as a guide for local air districts. Lastly, we discuss how sustainability will be addressed along the full supply chain (i.e., from the field to the biorefinery), how its criteria can inform and support future environmental impact assessments and whether we are collecting the necessary data to continue to monitor potential environmental impacts of the LCFS as the program moves forward.

This chapter addresses topics 9, 10 and 12 from the regulation that require consideration of the following areas:

(9) An analysis of the public health impacts of the LCFS at the state and local level, including the impacts of local infrastructure or fuel production facilities in place or under development to deliver low carbon fuels, using an ARB-approved method of analysis developed in consultation with public health experts from academia and other government agencies;

(10) An assessment of the air quality impacts on California associated with the implementation of the LCFS; whether the use of the fuel in the state will affect progress towards achieving state or federal air quality standards, or results in any significant changes in toxic air contaminant emissions; and recommendations for mitigation to address adverse air quality impacts identified; and

(12) Significant economic issues; fuel adequacy, reliability, and supply issues; and environmental issues that have arisen.

Through this review process, staff has determined that the public health and air quality impacts estimated in 2009 have not changed significantly throughout the first implementation year of the LCFS. This is due to many factors, including only slight changes in California’s transportation fuel consumption, which cannot be solely attributed to the LCFS; no new fuel facilities being built in the state since the 2009 environmental impacts analysis; and no new fuels that could potentially be used in the State completing the multimedia process. As suggested, because 2011 is the first implementation year, the program is still in its infancy. The changes expected in the early years will be relatively minor.

That being said, as the LCFS annual carbon-intensity (CI) standards get more stringent, additional fuels will undergo the multimedia process, and investment will begin to flow more freely to ultra-low carbon fuel producers, so there will be impacts associated with the LCFS program—potentially positive or negative. Ongoing monitoring and assessment of emission impacts, as well as promotion of sustainability principles for air quality and other environmental concerns is necessary to protect against unintended negative outcomes. Staff has developed two methods to help ensure the preservation of air quality due to changes in the transportation fuel sector. This includes drafting the biorefinery siting guidance document for local air districts, other agencies, and community members to use to minimize air pollution from biorefineries, and fulfilling the directive from the Board to participate in the environmental review of proposed projects, working with local air districts and others. We will also continue monitoring the state of transportation fuels within California as well as the accompanying infrastructure and vehicles associated with these transportation fuels.

## B. Summary of the 2009 Environmental Analysis

The original environmental analysis focused on the significant GHG reductions that the regulation would provide due to the production and use of lower-CI transportation fuels. It also included the potential reductions due to changes in the vehicle fleet composition that would available to use these lower-CI transportation fuels. Staff estimated that a reduction of about 16 million metric tons of CO2-equivalent (MMTCO2e) would come solely from the combustion of transportation fuels in California in 2020. If the full-fuel-lifecycle is included in the GHG benefits of the LCFS—taking into account GHG reductions outside of California—there would be an estimated reduction of about 23 MMTCO2e.

As part of the analysis, staff estimated the number of potential new transportation fuel facilities that could be built in California. This estimate relied on the volume of biomass available in the state, projects that were undergoing the permitting process at the time of the analysis, and the projected demands of both the LCFS and RFS2 in 2009. It was estimated that a potential six ethanol facilities, 18 cellulosic ethanol facilities, and six biodiesel facilities could be operational in the State by 2020. In the 2009 analysis, staff did not anticipate any changes in the emissions from petroleum refineries, power plants, or existing corn facilities over the baseline projections. This was because we assumed that refining would not ramp up or slow down based solely on California consumption. We also assumed that any additional electricity use would be offset by the switch to a 33 percent renewable portfolio standard and off-peak charging. Lastly, at the time of writing the staff report, the California corn ethanol facilities were among the cleanest in the nation and we did not anticipate them needing to upgrade their facilities within the 2020 time frame. Therefore, any impacts above the baseline were attributed solely to potential new biorefinery facilities operating in the State.

In addition to the GHG benefits, staff also expected the LCFS to result in no additional adverse impacts to California’s air quality due to criteria and toxic air pollutants. When calculating the emissions from potential new facilities, staff assumed the cleanest conversion and air pollution control technologies. This assumption was based on stringent New Source Review regulations affecting the permitting of these facilities. Staff recommended that any emissions from these facilities, if permitted, would be mitigated, consistent with local air district and CEQA requirements. Staff identified that the major source of criteria pollutant emissions were related to the number of truck trips associated with the delivery of feedstock and finished fuel. Staff proposed that these emissions could be offset by reduced motor vehicle emissions and by using newer trucks for the trips, as prescribed by other state and federal regulations (such as LEV and CAFE standards). Staff also recognized that there was still a potential for localized impacts, which prompted a further evaluation as described below.

Staff performed a health risk assessment to estimate the potential cancer risk from a biorefinery. To establish a plausible upper-bound, staff evaluated a scenario consisting of three co-located facilities. Details of this analysis can be found in Chapter VII of the 2009 ISOR. The highest potential cancer risk associated with on-site emission risk was estimated to be 0.4-out-of-a-million at the fence line of the facility. When including both on-site and off-site emissions in the risk analysis, it was estimated to be 5-out-of-a-million. In addition to the potential cancer risk, staff also analyzed the impacts related to PM2.5. This analysis estimated an additional 20 premature deaths, seven hospital admissions, and 314 cases of asthma, acute bronchitis, or lower respiratory symptoms.

When staff analyzed the ambient ozone impacts, it was determined that the air quality model could not reliably predict the impact because the concentrations of smog-forming pollutants associated with the LCFS were not statistically significant above the baseline.

Lastly, staff provided qualitative, and in a few cases quantitative, evaluations of impacts on other types of media. This included water use and water quality, agricultural resources, biological resources, geography and soils, hazardous materials, mineral resources, solid waste, and others. There was also a brief discussion on the commitment to develop a plan to address sustainability components related to the production of feedstock and transportation fuels.

## C. Tools and Methods for Assessing the Environmental Impacts in the 2009 Staff Report

### 1. Greenhouse Gas Emission Benefits

In the GHG analysis, staff evaluated the benefits of the LCFS in two ways. In the first analysis, staff evaluated the fuel energy required to meet the LCFS standard in each year using only the “tank-to-wheel” carbon intensity. In a “tank-to-wheel” analysis, only the emission reductions seen at the tailpipe of the vehicles combusting low carbon fuels are considered. This analysis reasonably represents the emissions that would occur in California and is similar to the analysis used in the Scoping Plan. In the second analysis, staff used the full lifecycle carbon intensity to estimate the overall CO2 emission reductions associated with the LCFS.

One of the key parameters underlying the LCFS is estimating the volumes of fuels needed to propel California’s vehicle fleet each year. Staff estimated projections from 2010 to 2020 using a business-as-usual scenario for both gasoline and diesel fuel. The fuel use is expressed in terms of gasoline gallon equivalent (gge) to account for the different types of fuel used. By estimating the emissions associated with these petroleum-based fuels, and the alternative fuels used to displace a portion of them, staff can calculate the GHG emission reduction benefits of the LCFS.

### 2. Health Risk Assessment

Staff conducted a health risk assessment (HRA) study to evaluate the potential health impacts associated with toxic air contaminants emitted from typical biofuel facilities within California. The HRA focused on the potential cancer risk associated with diesel PM emissions associated with biofuel facilities. Specifically, the analysis focused on the diesel PM emissions from vehicles expected to deliver feedstocks to biofuel facilities.

The HRA follows The Air Toxics Hot Spots Program Risk Assessment Guidelines (OEHHA, 2003) published by the California Office of Environmental Health Hazard Assessment (OEHHA). The HRA is based on the facility specific emission inventory and air dispersion modeling predictions.

### 3. Ambient Ozone Impacts

National ambient ozone levels are regulated under the U.S. EPA national ambient air quality standards (NAAQS). To ensure attainment of the national standards in each state within specified time frames, U.S. EPA requires states to submit State Implementation Plans (SIPs) that show how each air basin within a state plans to meet the ozone NAAQS.

The SIP air quality modeling process begins with replicating field measurements of hourly ozone concentrations for a period of days using a modeling system that is comprised of: (1) an EPA-approved photochemical model; (2) representative meteorological- and boundary-condition inputs; and (3) a base case emissions inventory. After the modeling system has demonstrated the ability to reasonably replicate measured concentrations (i.e., based on regulatory model performance guidelines), it can be used to assess potential SIP control strategies for attaining or maintaining ambient ozone levels prescribed in the NAAQS. In general, this attainment demonstration step is accomplished through a process of applying control strategy emission reductions to the baseline emissions inventory, then determining whether the corresponding model response at ozone field-monitoring locations would yield the needed percentage reduction in measured ozone at the same locations to achieve attainment.

### 4. Health Impacts

A substantial number of epidemiologic studies have found a strong association between exposure to ambient PM2.5 and a number of adverse health effects. For the 2009 staff report, ARB staff quantified seven non-cancer health impacts associated with the change in exposure to NOx and PM2.5 emissions from increased transportation associated with new biorefineries and transporting imported ethanol within California. This analysis has been updated since the March 2009 ISOR was published to include: 1) updated emissions factors, 2) potential emissions benefits of advanced vehicles and 3) recognition of the potential programmatic overlap with the federal RFS2 program.

### 5. Multimedia Evaluation

Senate Bill 529, enacted in 1999 and set forth in Health and Safety Code (H&S) section 43830.8, generally prohibits ARB from adopting a regulation establishing a specification for motor vehicle fuel unless the fuel undergoes a multimedia evaluation. Since the LCFS is not a fuel specification, it does not trigger additional multimedia evaluations, although any new fuel introduced into California would be subjected to this analysis.

“Multimedia evaluation” means “the identification and evaluation of any significant adverse impact on public health or the environment, including air, water, or soil, that may result from the production, use, or disposal of the motor vehicle fuel that may be used to meet the state board’s motor vehicle fuel specifications.”

To oversee the multimedia evaluation process, the California Environmental Protection Agency formed the multimedia working group (MMWG), which makes recommendations to the California Environmental Policy Council (EPC) regarding the acceptability of the fuel and any significant adverse impacts on public health or the environment.

Proposed future rulemakings that may establish motor vehicle fuel specifications are subject to H&S §43830.8 and include biodiesel, compressed natural gas, E85, and biobutanol.

## C. New Tool and Methods Developed to Aid in the LCFS Reviews Moving Forward

### 1. Proposed Review Protocol for CEQA Documents

#### a. Introduction

Resolution 09-31 for the Low Carbon Fuel Standard (LCFS) directs Air Resources Board (ARB) staff to participate in the environmental review of projects in California directly related to the production, storage, and distribution of transportation fuel subject to the LCFS program. ARB staff has two primary opportunities to participate in the review of the air quality impacts of proposed new and expanding biorefinery projects through our role in (1) the California Environmental Quality Act (CEQA) process, and (2) the local air district permitting process. Flow charts illustrating the CEQA process and general district permitting process are attached, as Figures 1 and 2.

#### b. CEQA Process

A CEQA review usually requires the participation of local planning agencies, local air districts, and state agencies. Under CEQA, these agencies serve as lead agencies[[89]](#footnote-89), responsible agencies[[90]](#footnote-90), or interested agencies.[[91]](#footnote-91) For biorefinery projects in California, it is expected that the city or county planning department will serve as the lead agency, the district will serve as a responsible agency, and the ARB will participate as an interested agency.

ARB staff does not expect biorefinery projects to be exempt from CEQA review nor to qualify for a negative declaration under CEQA, and therefore expects that the CEQA lead agency will be required to prepare a detailed environmental impact report (EIR).[[92]](#footnote-92) The CEQA review is separate from the local air district’s normal New Source Review permit process, although the two reviews may have some common considerations and requirements. The local air district (district) would assist the lead agency in specifying and reviewing information needed for evaluation of the project pertaining to air quality. When participating as a responsible agency, the district’s decision-making must consider the lead agency’s findings regarding air quality impacts.

The scope of the CEQA review for air quality could be substantially greater than that for district permit issuances. A CEQA review must include the effect of suspected toxic emissions and non-criteria emissions for which there are limited or no regulatory requirements yet developed, an analysis of cumulative air quality impacts, an analysis of project alternatives, and the analysis of source-related emissions (such as from motor vehicles associated with the project).

An EIR is usually produced in draft or initial versions that are followed by a final product. In accordance with the CEQA process, the draft EIR will be available for review by responsible agencies, interested agencies, and the public during the public review period, which is generally 30 days. The State Clearinghouse of the Governor’s Office of Planning and Research coordinates the distribution of environmental documents prepared under CEQA to state agencies for their review and comment.

#### c. Local Air District Permitting Process

In addition to the environmental review process that takes place under CEQA, a project that is a direct source of emissions will also need a permit from the local air district. The permitting process starts with the submission of an application. The application will contain pertinent information such as equipment to be installed and processes that may emit air pollutants. After the district deems an application complete, the district normally has up to six months to process the application. During the application review period, most districts will prepare an engineering analysis that documents emission calculations, satisfaction of applicable district and state air quality regulations, assumptions used to evaluate the acceptability of the project, and required conditions of design and operation to achieve and maintain compliance. Many districts will also generate proposed permits (authorities to construct) that detail the specific air quality related operational and administrative requirements with which the facility must comply. If the project is large enough, a 30-day public review and comment period is required before a final district decision on the project. If public review and comment is required, the engineering analysis and proposed permits are made available to Region 9 of the United States Environmental Protection Agency, ARB, and the public.

#### d. ARB Participation in CEQA and District Permitting

The Project Assessment Branch within the ARB’s Stationary Source Division receives CEQA documents that are filed with the State Clearinghouse, as well as district proposed authority-to-construct permits that trigger a public notice.

ARB staff will review all CEQA documents received for biorefinery projects submitted via the State Clearinghouse and all authority-to-construct permits submitted by the districts. ARB staff’s role will be to provide comments to ensure that the proposed CEQA conditions of certification and district permit conditions will comply with all applicable orders, rules, and regulations of the district and the ARB, and are consistent with the recommendations outlined in ARB’s Air Quality Guidance for Siting Biorefineries in California (October 2010). If deficiencies are noted, ARB staff will submit comments on the environmental documents prior to the end of the public review period.

ARB staff is confident that it will receive adequate notice of new and expanding biorefinery projects via the established CEQA review and district permit review mechanisms described above, as well as through staff’s regular interaction with the California Air Pollution Control Officers Association on district permitting issues.

### 2. Air Quality Guidance for Siting Biorefineries in California

#### a. Introduction

Implementation of the LCFS is expected to result in the installation of new biofuel production facilities (herein referred to as biorefineries) and expansion of existing facilities in California. In the LCFS rulemaking documents, ARB staff recommended that the emissions associated with biorefineries be fully mitigated consistent with local air pollution control and air quality management district (district) and California Environmental Quality Act (CEQA) requirements. To assist with this process, ARB staff has developed the Air Quality Guidance for Siting Biorefineries in California (guidance or report) to help stakeholders in assessing and mitigating air emissions associated with biorefinery activities in California.

The guidance addresses both stationary-source and mobile-source emissions associated with biorefinery operation. The primary purpose of this guidance is to: (1) identify the most stringent permitted emission limits from individual pieces of process equipment currently used or expected to be used at biorefineries, and (2) identify available options for mitigating air emissions from mobile sources at biorefineries.

This guidance is intended to provide districts, regulated parties, and other stakeholders with information that can be used to ensure that new or expanding biorefineries are constructed and operated in a way that eliminates or minimizes adverse air quality impacts. While this guidance is intended to promote general consistency in local permitting decisions, ARB recommends interested parties consult their local air district for specific requirements.

#### b. Background

This section briefly discusses the content of the guidance. Stakeholders should consult the actual guidance report for additional details and complete information regarding the recommendations made in this report.

##### i. Purpose of Guidance

The purpose of this report is to provide guidance to assist districts, local land use planners, environmental and public health groups, project proponents, and other stakeholders in site selection, air quality permitting considerations, and identification of potential CEQA mitigation measures. The guidance can assist stakeholders in evaluating the relative air quality impacts of various conversion technology options that are available for biofuels. Proponents of biorefinery projects may use the guidance to inform environmental and public health groups and other interested stakeholders about the emissions levels of proposed stationary equipment at biorefineries and the range of options that could be used to mitigate mobile source emissions that are associated with the construction and operation of biorefineries. The guidance is not intended to substitute case-by-case permitting decisions conducted by local air quality, environmental, or planning agencies. In addition, this report is not intended to preempt, replace, or devalue the decision-making processes that are associated with the outcomes of transportation planning analyses, site specific air quality modeling, risk assessments, SIP modeling, or future rules and regulations adopted for the purpose of controlling emissions of criteria pollutants, toxic air contaminants (TAC), or greenhouse gases (GHG).

##### ii. Biofuel Processes Evaluated

The information in the guidance was compiled from ARB staff's evaluation of the types of biofuels that could potentially be produced at a California biorefinery, the commercially available conversion technologies used to produce these fuels, the process equipment and air pollutants associated with these technologies that would be subject to district permit requirements, and the most current stringent permitted emission levels for these processes. The biofuels evaluated include: ethanol from grains, sugarcane, and cellulose; biodiesel; renewable diesel; biogas; hydrogen; and biogasoline. The conversion technologies evaluated include: fermentation, hydrolysis, gasification, transesterification, anaerobic digestion, reformation, and acid fermentation. Staff also evaluated motor vehicles and mobile equipment that would typically be associated with biorefineries. These could include trucks used to deliver raw material to a facility, excavators used to maintain the facility infrastructure, and chippers used to process raw material.

##### iii. Air Pollutants Addressed

The air pollutants evaluated include: oxides of nitrogen (NOx), particulate matter (PM), volatile organic compounds (VOC), oxides of sulfur (SOx), carbon monoxide (CO), and toxic air contaminants (TACs). Corresponding ammonia (NH3) slip emission limits for stationary sources equipped with control technologies that use ammonia for the reduction of NOx are identified in the report for informational purposes.

Strategies to specifically mitigate GHG emissions from biorefineries were not evaluated, and ARB staff has deferred to the work being undertaken to satisfy the requirements in the California Global Warming Solutions Act of 2006, also known as Assembly Bill 32 (AB 32). However, many of the mitigation strategies identified in the guidance will provide GHG reductions by promoting overall efficiency in energy conversion technologies and encouraging the recovery of energy and other marketable products from biomass feedstocks.

##### iv. Topics Covered

The guidance addresses the following areas:

California’s air regulatory structure and regulation of stationary sources: provides a broad overview of the air regulatory structure in California, major provisions for permitting stationary equipment at new or expanding biorefineries, and CEQA requirements that apply to proposed projects in the State;

Biofuel production conversion technologies and stationary source emissions: describes commercially available biofuel pathways and conversion technologies, identifies stationary process equipment associated with each biofuel pathway, and identifies the air pollutants associated with each process;

Most stringent emission limits for stationary source equipment at biorefineries: discusses the emissions data evaluated by ARB staff and staff’s rationale in identifying the most stringent permitted emission limits for stationary equipment at biorefineries;

Mitigation of mobile source emissions associated with biorefineries: identifies vehicle and mobile equipment associated with new or expanding biorefineries, ARB mobile source regulations, and options to mitigate emissions from mobile sources at biorefineries; and

Other considerations and future updates: identifies other factors to consider when evaluating the impacts of a new or expanded biorefinery, such as proximity to low-income communities identified as highly impacted by air pollution and other socioeconomic factors, the need for possible additional mitigation measures, and outlines the update process for the guidance.

##### v. Development of Guidance Report

ARB staff solicited volunteers from interested stakeholders and formed a working group with representation from the districts, biorefinery and waste management industries, and environmental and public health groups. Beginning in August 2009, the working group met by teleconference 11 times to discuss the drafting of the guidance. In addition, ARB staff held two public workshops (August 2009 and January 2010) that included an update on progress and discussion of the report. Staff posted a draft version of the guidance report and notified interested parties on ARB’s LCFS listserve and the Bioenergy listserve at the California Energy Commission (CEC) on October 11, 2010, for a public review period ending on December 1, 2010. ARB staff also conducted a publicly-noticed meeting on October 14, 2010, on the draft report. After considering the comments, ARB is finalizing the document and expects to post it shortly.

#### c. Recommendations

The basis for the recommendations in the guidance are the result of ARB staff’s compilation of the most current stringent emission limits for process equipment used at biorefineries and options available to mitigate mobile source emissions associated with biorefineries, through review of:

Adopted and proposed district rules;

Control techniques required as Best Available Control Technology (BACT) or Lowest Achievable Emission Rate (LAER);

Emission levels achieved in practice, as verified by test results;

More stringent control techniques which are technologically and economically feasible, but are not yet achieved in practice;

Business, Transportation, and Housing and the California Environmental Protection Agency’s Goods Movement Action Plan (2007);

California Air Pollution Control Officers Association’s Health Risk Assessment for Proposed Land Use Projects (2009);

California Air Resources Board’s Air Quality and Land Use Handbook: A Community Health Perspective (2005);

State and local CEQA guidelines; and

Draft and final Environmental Impact Reports (EIR) for various industrial facilities.

##### i. Stationary Source Emission Limits from Biorefineries

Tables 1, 2, and 3 in Appendix IX-1 summarize the most stringent emission limits for stationary process equipment that might be used at biorefineries. The tables are classified by equipment type—evaporative loss sources, combustion sources, and miscellaneous sources. ARB staff will continue to evaluate new emissions data and periodically provide updates using the process described later in this chapter.

##### ii. Mitigating Mobile Source Emissions from Biorefineries

On-road vehicles, off-road vehicles, and portable equipment used at biorefineries are a source of criteria pollutants, TACs, and GHGs. ARB staff recommends that on-road trucks serving biorefineries should have at a minimum 2007 model year or better engines, especially in areas where residents and sensitive receptors are present. To put this into context, an average on-road diesel truck equipped with a 2003 model year engine operating for an 8-hour day emits approximately 21 pounds per day NOx and 0.5 pounds per day PM. Whereas, that same truck equipped with a 2007 model year engine emits 6 pounds per day NOx (71 percent reduction) and 0.05 pounds per day PM (90 percent reduction). In addition, if that truck was equipped with a 2010 model year engine, the NOx emissions would be even less at about 1 pound per day (a 95 percent reduction compared to 2003 model year). Other options to mitigate mobile source emissions associated with biorefineries include repower, retrofit, new purchases, replacement, or use of alternative fuels to achieve earlier, more aggressive, or more comprehensive (e.g., including exempt equipment) emission reductions that go beyond regulatory requirements for in-use diesel-fueled mobile sources. Additional mitigation options are detailed in the full guidance report.

##### iii. Considerations for Highly Impacted Communities

Some communities in California are disproportionately impacted by air pollution from multiple sources. Any environmental analysis for a new or expanding biorefinery project should include consideration of these cumulative impacts, public vetting of those impacts, and recommendations for mitigation of any significant impacts. The guidance provides various tools for stakeholders to use during the project-specific analyses for new or expanding biorefinery projects that pertain to community impacts in areas that are already disproportionately affected by air pollution. These tools will be available on ARB’s Biorefinery Guidance website before the end of August 2011.

#### iv. Additional Strategies

In addition to the guidance provided for stationary-source process equipment and mitigation of mobile-source emissions, the report contains broader strategies that could be used to mitigate emissions from biorefineries. Some of these strategies include: use of onsite distributed generation (DG) and combined heat and power (CHP) systems in the form of fuel cells, microturbines, and other ultra-clean technologies; and the use of pipeline injection of biogas, rather than on-site combustion of biogas as a strategy to reduce emissions of NOx in areas that do not achieve the federal or State Ambient Air Quality Standards for ozone.

### d. Updates to the Guidance

ARB staff’s near-term update activities will focus on the distribution of new and updated BACT determinations, new source test results, new technologies, newly approved regulations (including test methods), and an updated list of existing biorefineries in California. This information will be posted to ARB's Biorefinery Guidance website at http://[www.arb.ca.gov/](http://www.arb.ca.gov/)fuels/LCFS/bioguidance/bioguidance.htm. ARB staff will send e-mail notifications to the LCFS listserve at ARB and the Bioenergy listserve at CEC when new information is posted to this website. ARB staff plans to provide these updates on a periodic basis or as biorefinery project activity dictates.

In addition, to ensure the information provided in this report stays current, ARB staff will perform periodic updates at intervals that correspond to the review periods set forth in the LCFS regulation. As part of these updates, staff will assess the geographic distribution of biorefineries in the state, and where appropriate, integrate additional mitigation measures for the purpose of protecting against disproportionate air quality impacts that arise from the concentration or co-location of multiple biorefineries.

## D. Sustainability and the LCFS

### 1. Introduction

When the Board approved the LCFS on April 23, 2009, it directed staff in Resolution 09-31 to work with the Interagency Forest Work Group (IFWG), appropriate state agencies, environmental advocates, regulated parties, and other interested stakeholders to present a workplan to the Board by December 2009 for developing sustainability provisions to be used in implementing the LCFS regulation. Furthermore, the Board stated that the workplan should provide a framework for how sustainability provisions could be incorporated and enforced in the LCFS program, and it should include a schedule for finalizing feasible and appropriate sustainability provisions by no later than December 2011.

Sustainability is generally considered to be the ability to meet the needs of the present without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs. A more scientific definition would be: the long term viability of natural resource consumption in balance with the supporting ecosystem. The three major components of sustainability are environmental, social, and economic sustainability.

### 2. Key Elements for Addressing Sustainability within the LCFS

A report[[93]](#footnote-93) published by researchers at the University of California at Davis (UC Davis) examined a range of sustainability requirements for biofuels and considered a possible framework for LCFS sustainability provisions. This section briefly discusses some of the key elements of the proposed sustainability framework.

The study reviewed sustainability requirements and criteria being implemented or proposed by governments promoting biofuel programs—particularly the United Kingdom and the European Union. The study also reviewed the sustainability principles and criteria proposed by the Roundtable on Sustainable Biofuels (RSB). RSB is an international initiative involving stakeholders across the entire biofuel supply chain, nongovernmental organizations, experts, governments, and inter-governmental agencies.

Some of the key elements identified in the study for a sustainability provision include:

* Principles and criteria
* Benchmarking and/or third-party certification requirements
* Supply chain and reporting requirements
* Legality

## E. Changes in the California Transportation Fuel Pool

In Chapter VI of this review, staff presented the past consumption and future demand of transportation fuels. It was apparent from the data that in 2008 there was a decrease in the volume of major transportation fuels, with the exception of increased volumes of ethanol. This increase in ethanol consumption is due to the fact that California has moved from E6 to E10 in 2010. This increase was anticipated in the original analysis and therefore included in the 2009 baseline environmental impacts. Staff does not believe that these slight variations are caused by the LCFS and any small fluctuations can be attributed to factors outside of the LCFS, such as the economy. These small fluctuations do not lead to a significant change in the impacts from the 2009 impact assessment.

### 1. Changes to the Data Used to do the 2009 Impact Analysis

At this time, there have been no significant changes in the transportation fuel production capacity in California. No additional production facilities have been added since the baseline and impacts were calculated in 2009. Additionally, there have been no significant updates to the emission factors used in the 2009 analysis. In relation to additions in infrastructure, there has been an increase in E85 and biodiesel stations; however, past consumption data does not show an increase in consumption since the original environmental impacts analysis. Additionally, the increase in these stations cannot, with certainty, be associated with the LCFS. This increase can also be related to the federal RFS2, as it plays a role in the consumption of ethanol and biodiesel.

That being said, there are several multimedia evaluation updates that are being conducted that potentially impact the environmental analysis. These updates would most likely have a positive impact on the environment with relation to the LCFS. This includes biodiesel, E85, CNG, and biobutanol. Once these evaluations are complete and updates are proposed to the fuel specifications, staff intends to update the impacts analysis. This will potentially happen for the 2015 mandatory review that staff is required to perform.

In addition to the multimedia process, staff intends to use data found in the LCFS reporting tool to estimate the GHG benefits. At this stage, there is only one quarter of data in the system that has been completely evaluated. From the first quarter data, regulated parties generated 150,000 MTCO2e of deficits and 225,000 MTCO2e of credits, thereby generating 75,000 MTCO2e of “net” credits. Preliminary review of the second quarter suggests a greater generation of net credits than in the first quarter.

### 2. Anticipated Environmental Impacts for 2011

Based on the current data available compared to the data of 2009, staff does not believe that there is a significant difference in the transportation fuels used in the State to warrant a new environmental impacts analysis. Staff will prepare another quantitative review of the impacts once more data is collected through the multimedia process.

Nevertheless, there are several potential new aspects to the LCFS that may have either positive or negative environmental impacts, such as the sustainability provisions, adjusted land use values, and amendments to the high carbon intensity crude oil provisions in the LCFS. At this time, staff is developing the regulatory language for these amendments. When proposing amendments, staff is required to do an environmental and economic impact assessment of those proposed amendments. These analyses will be included in the staff report associated with the proposed regulatory amendments.

## F. Summary and Conclusions

Since the initial staff report in 2009, staff has been continuing to monitor the potential environmental impacts of the LCFS. From monitoring the changes in the transportation fuel pool, the production facilities, and the permitting processes, there are no significant changes to the environmental impacts analysis originally conducted in 2009. In addition to this monitoring, we have been progressing on several key elements that will continue to support ARB’s healthy air quality mission. These include: developing sustainability provisions; implementing a review process for CEQA documents related to transportation fuel projects; and developing a guidance document for the air quality districts related to siting practices. Although two years has passed since the adoption of the LCFS, 2010 was a reporting year and 2011 was the first implementation year for which a reduction in the carbon intensity of transportation fuels is required. Because this review is occurring early on in the program, there are not enough data to suggest that there are environmental impacts associated with the LCFS. Staff will continue to monitor the progress of the program and will revisit the environmental impact analysis again for the 2015 review.

# IX. High Carbon Intensity Crude Oil

## A. Overview

The HCICO provision was established to help ensure that the LCFS program accounts for potential increases in the carbon-intensity of crude oils used by California refineries (and the resulting gasoline and diesel carbon intensity). The inclusion of HCICOs in the LCFS regulation recognizes that some crude oils require additional energy to produce (e.g., bitumen mining or thermally enhanced oil recovery techniques) or emit higher levels of GHG emissions during the production process (e.g., excessive flaring) significantly beyond the average carbon intensity value used in the baseline. A performance-based accounting system is necessary to ensure that additional emissions from California’s diesel and gasoline fuel are captured. A second goal of the HCICO provision is to provide a signal for oil producers to engage in emission-reduction activities such as reducing flaring, improving energy efficiency, and using carbon capture and sequestration.

The LCFS regulation requires regulated parties to use the carbon intensity (CI) values in the Lookup Tables associated with high-carbon-intensity crude oils (HCICOs) and to calculate and report the associated deficits from these sources
(section 95486(b)(2)(A)). The purpose of this requirement is to account for additional emissions generated beyond the 2006 gasoline and diesel baseline from the use of HCICOs and to encourage emission-reduction activities from these sources. If those CI values have not yet been determined and published in the Lookup Tables, the regulated party is required to propose a new pathway for its HCICO and obtain approval of the Executive Officer. Since no CI values for HCICOs yet exist in the Lookup Tables, regulated parties are required to develop CI values by using Method 2B. Staff convened a Crude Screening Workgroup to establish a screening process to identify those crudes that are clearly not HCICO, thereby reducing the number of crudes that would be subject to the more rigorous technical analyses. The screening process to implement Section 95486(b)(2)(A) is complete and can be used together with an interim default CI value until more specific pathways for HCICOs are determined.

Petroleum refiners in California assert that the current HCICO provisions are overly burdensome to their industry, unnecessarily discriminatory toward sources of crude oil, will result in global crude-shuffling that increases GHG emissions, and would put California refiners at an economic disadvantage to out-of-state refiners. Therefore, they have requested that the 2006 baseline value be used for all production of CARBOB, and diesel fuel regardless of the type of crude supplies used by a refiner (i.e., no differentiation between the carbon intensities of crude oils). On the other hand, other stakeholders are equally as adamant that the LCFS should continue to prevent increases in lifecycle carbon emissions that could occur if higher intensity crudes are used to replace existing supplies. They assert that absent a HCICO provision, increased use of HCICOs would largely offset the emission benefits of increased use of low carbon fuels, that ignoring increased emissions from HCICOs was discriminatory and unfair toward low-carbon fuels treated with full lifecycle accounting, that no incentive would exist for oil companies to innovative and improve their upstream practices, and that California would be sending a bad signal to other jurisdictions pursuing a similar approach. They also argued that crude shuffling already occurs in the industry and that a performance-based approach treats foreign and domestic producers equally. ARB staff has been meeting with stakeholders to better understand concerns and to secure supporting documentation to identify and assess viable alternatives. This issue was one of the topics of discussion at the July 1, 2011, Advisory Panel meeting. At that meeting, both the representatives of environmental community and oil industry presented their views on the HCICO provision. We have also received written comments from several stakeholders that reflect different viewpoints on this issue.

This chapter provides additional background information on the current regulation, including the need to address HCICOs; a brief description of six possible approaches that have come to our attention for addressing HCICOs; and a description of the guiding principles and other criteria for assessment of these approaches to help inform our decision-making process. Staff conducted a preliminary qualitative evaluation of each approach with respect to the guiding principles and included them in this chapter. As noted earlier, ARB staff initiated a public process to discuss amendments to the HCICO provisions for consideration by the Board at the end of the year.

## B. Background

### 1. Regulation Requirements

* + 1. Basis for Compliance Schedule: The California baseline crude oil mix is used to calculate average Lookup Table values for CARBOB[[94]](#footnote-94) and diesel. Gasoline compliance targets are calculated relative to CI for CaRFG[[95]](#footnote-95) (90% CARBOB and 10% Average Ethanol). Diesel compliance targets are calculated relative to CI for ULSD[[96]](#footnote-96).
		2. Base Deficit: All producers of gasoline (diesel) calculate a “Base” deficit using the difference between the average Lookup Table value for CARBOB (ULSD) and the compliance target in that year.
		3. Incremental Deficit: An incremental deficit is applied only to those companies which use HCICO from non-baseline sources[[97]](#footnote-97). HCICO is defined as crude oil with a production and transport CI greater than 15 g/MJ.
		4. Promoting Innovation: For HCICO, the average CI values from the Lookup Table may be used if the oil is produced using innovative methods such as CCS or other methods which reduce the CI to less than 15 g/MJ.

### 2. Summary of Crude Screening Workgroup Process and Progress

When the Board approved the LCFS regulation on April 23, 2009, it directed staff, through Resolution 09-31, to work with stakeholders to develop an informal screening process for assessing the CI of new or modified fuel pathways. In response to the Board’s direction, staff convened the Crude Screening Workgroup in March 2010 to address new fuel pathways for HCICOs. The intended outcome of the screening process was to identify those crudes which are clearly not HCICO, thereby reducing the number of crudes that would be subject to the more rigorous technical analyses under Method 2B.

The Crude Screening Workgroup comprised of industry, government, environmental, and academic representatives with an objective to assist in developing a screening process for determining the CI value of crude oil sources under the LCFS. The workgroup met a total of six times and a smaller subgroup formed to discuss details of the screening process met weekly over a period of six weeks. Working with the crude oil screening workgroup, ARB staff has developed an interim process for determining which non-baseline crude oil sources are non-HCICO and assigning an appropriate default carbon intensity value to those sources that are determined to be potential HCICO. The intent is that the interim process will remain in place until a standardized tool/method which can be used to calculate CI values for all crude sources is developed and approved.

The draft screening process was applied with the assistance of California Energy Commission (CEC) staff to approximately 250 crude sources, of which approximately 80 percent were identified as non-HCICO. A list of marketable crude oil names was evaluated and a list of non-HCICOs was created. The remaining sources which are designated as potential-HCICO are those produced using thermal recovery methods, bitumen mining, excessive flaring, or upgrading.

### 3. Regulatory Advisory 10-04A

On November 18, 2010, staff presented to the Board an update on LCFS implementation activities, including the development of a screening tool for HCICOs. Through Resolution 10-49, the Board directed staff to issue guidelines regarding the implementation of the LCFS in 2011. Two regulatory advisories were issued to provide LCFS implementation guidelines that included clarifications related to HCICO provision, amongst others.

Regulatory Advisory 10-04 issued in December 2010 provided an extension through June 30, 2011 for the use of interim CI values for fuels derived from potential HCICOs. The advisory stated that ARB staff will continue to work with stakeholders to develop guidelines addressing the generation and banking of credits during 2011, as potentially affected by crude oil purchases that are not part of the 2006 baseline.

Supplemental Regulatory Advisory 10-04A issued in July 2011 provided another extension, through the end of 2011, for the use of interim CI values for fuels derived from potential HCICOs. The supplemental advisory provided guidance on the treatment of credits and deficits generated from the blending of CARBOB or ULSD derived from potential HCICO, which was noted as a future action in Regulatory Advisory 10-04. Additionally, a list of 160 marketable crude oil names representing crude oil considered non-HCICO was provided as an attachment to the supplemental advisory to assist the regulated parties in identifying potential HCICOs. This list of non-HCICOs to be used during the advisory period is expected to assist the regulated parties in identifying potential HCICOs and is subject to change based on further ARB staff review and analysis.

## C. Potential Approaches for Regulation Amendments

This section outlines six potential approaches to the treatment of HCICOs in the LCFS regulation. These approaches are a combination of those suggested by stakeholders and/or identified by ARB staff. These approaches were presented at a workshop and comments were requested from the stakeholders. The comments received are posted at <http://www.arb.ca.gov/fuels/lcfs/hcicocomments.htm>

### 1. Current Approach with Amendments

* These amendments clarify the regulation requirements and provide details for implementation. Amendments are based on the draft Crude Screening proposal that has been used to generate the list of non-HCICO sources attached to Regulatory Advisory 10-04A. The amendments may:
* Include Step 1 of the screening process to codify the method used to generate the non-HCICO list. This will be presented as a certification process allowing for Executive Officer approval of additions to the non-HCICO list.
* Include a provision that a regulated party will not be retroactively penalized if a crude source which has been added to the non-HCICO list is later removed.
* Include language which sets an interim default HCICO CI for non-baseline crudes that are not on the non-HCICO list.
* Briefly outline the process by which a regulated party must get a crude source that “fails” the initial screen either added to the non-HCICO list or determined to be HCICO.
* Include a provision that a regulated party can retroactively use the average CI in place of the default HCICO CI if a crude source is later determined to be non-HCICO and put on the non-HCICO list.

### 2. California Average Approach

The base deficit is calculated the same as in the current approach. However, an incremental deficit is applied to all companies if the average crude slate refined in California becomes more carbon intensive over time. This allows for “the industry as a whole” to shift its crude slate and not be penalized as long as the average CI of the California crude slate does not increase over time relative to the baseline year.

* Base Deficit: All producers of gasoline (diesel) will calculate a “Base” deficit using the difference between the average Lookup Table value for CARBOB (ULSD) and the compliance target in that year. This calculation is the same as currently in the regulation on page 52 and will be the same for each company regardless of their own crude slate.
* California Average Incremental Deficit: For the California crude refining industry:
	+ Each year of the regulation, a “current” California average CI would be calculated using the crude slate refined in CA during a prior year.
	+ If the “current” California average CI is greater than the “baseline” California average CI, then all companies will incur an incremental deficit calculated using the difference between the current CI and the baseline CI.
	+ An individual company can earn credits if it purchases crude from sources that have implemented innovative methods such as CCS to reduce emissions for crude recovery. The number of credits will be tied to the emissions reduction achieved by the innovative method.

A variation of this approach provides the regulated parties option to report company specific CI values through an approach analogous to the Hybrid Approach B (see option 3 discussed below) instead of being subject to the California average CI value in a given year. Those companies opting to report company specific CIs would be excluded from the California average CI calculation for that year. Any credit generation opportunities would be premised on a company choosing to report their own company specific baseline.

### 3. Hybrid California Average/Company Specific Approach

The base deficit for individual companies is calculated the same as in the current approach. However, individual companies only incur an Incremental Deficit if their own crude slate becomes more carbon intensive over time relative to their crude slate refined in the baseline year. This allows for individual companies to shift the crude slate they refine in California and not be penalized as long as the average CI of their own crude slate does not increase.

* Base Deficit: All producers of gasoline (diesel) will calculate a “Base” deficit using the difference between the average Lookup Table value for CARBOB (ULSD) and the compliance target in that year. This calculation is the same as currently in the regulation on page 52 and will be the same for each company regardless of their own crude slate.
* Company-Specific Incremental Deficit (Approach A): For each oil company:
	+ A “baseline” volume of HCICO would be determined using the crude slate refined by that company in CA during the baseline year.
	+ Each year of the regulation, a “current” volume of HCICO would be calculated using the crude slate refined by that company in CA during a prior year.
	+ If the company’s “current” volume of HCICO is greater than its “baseline” volume of HCICO, then the company will incur an incremental deficit calculated using the difference between the current volume and the baseline volume.
	+ An individual company can earn credits if it purchases crude from sources that have implemented innovative methods such as CCS to reduce emissions for crude recovery. The number of credits will be tied to the emissions reduction achieved by the innovative method.
* Company-Specific Incremental Deficit (Approach B): For each oil company:
	+ A “baseline” CI value would be calculated using the crude slate refined by that company in CA during the baseline year.
	+ Each year of the regulation, a “current” CI would be calculated using the crude slate refined by that company in CA during a prior year.
	+ If the “current” company-specific CI is greater than the “baseline” company-specific CI, then the company will incur an incremental deficit calculated using the difference between its current CI and its baseline CI.
	+ An individual company can earn credits if it purchases crude from sources that have implemented innovative methods such as CCS to reduce emissions for crude recovery. The number of credits will be tied to the emissions reduction achieved by the innovative method.

### 4. Company Specific Approach

Each oil company will have distinct Lookup Table values and compliance targets for gasoline and diesel which are based on the crude slate refined by that company in California in the baseline year. Individual companies only incur an Incremental Deficit if their own crude slate becomes more carbon intensive over time. This allows for individual companies to shift their crude slates and not be penalized as long as the average CI of their own crude slate does not increase.

* Company-Specific Base Deficit: Each producer of gasoline (diesel) will calculate a “Base” deficit using the difference between their average Lookup Table value for CARBOB (ULSD) and their compliance target in that year.
* Company-Specific Incremental Deficit: For each oil company:
	+ Each year of the regulation, a “current” CI would be calculated using the crude slate refined by that company in CA during a prior year.
	+ If the “current” company-specific CI is greater than the “baseline” company-specific CI, then the company will incur an incremental deficit calculated using the difference between its current CI and its baseline CI.
	+ An individual company can earn credits if it purchases crude from sources that have implemented innovative methods such as CCS to reduce emissions for crude recovery. The number of credits will be tied to the emissions reduction achieved by the innovative method.

### 5. Worldwide Average Approach

This approach bases the average Lookup Table CI values for CARBOB and diesel and the compliance schedule on worldwide average crude oil production and refining emissions in the baseline year. A Base Deficit is calculated using the difference between the average Lookup Table values for CARBOB (diesel) and the compliance target for the current year. An Incremental Deficit is applied to all companies if the worldwide average crude production and refining becomes more carbon intensive over time.

* Worldwide Average Base Deficit: All producers of gasoline (diesel) will calculate a “Base” deficit using the difference between the average Lookup Table value for CARBOB (ULSD) and the compliance target in that year.
* Worldwide Average Incremental Deficit:
	+ Each year of the regulation, a “current” worldwide average CI would be calculated using the crude slate produced and refined worldwide during the previous year.
	+ If the “current” worldwide average CI is greater than the “baseline” worldwide average CI, then all companies will incur an incremental deficit calculated using the difference between the current CI and the baseline CI.

A variant of this approach bases the average Lookup Table CI values for CARBOB and diesel and the compliance schedule on California average crude oil production and refining emissions in the baseline year. The other provisions remain the same.

### 6. California Baseline Approach

All gasoline and diesel fuels use the existing CI values in the Look-Up Table. When reporting, refiners will only calculate and be subject to the Base Deficit for all refined products regardless of crude. The Look-Up Table values for gasoline and diesel would not be updated.

## D. Assessment of Potential Approaches for Regulation Amendments

ARB staff are considering and evaluating the potential approaches for regulatory amendments or revisions. Staff’s intention is to recommend an alternative approach for the treatment of petroleum fuels (a variant of one of the approaches from section C above or a different alternative yet to be identified) to the Board in December 2011 as a proposed regulatory revision. The guiding principles that form the basis for our assessment of the alternatives are outlined below. These principles ensure that the core objectives of the HCICO provision are achieved.

### 1. Key Guiding Principles

* *Accurate accounting for emissions from production of crude oil:* Since the LCFS regulation takes into account full lifecycle GHG emissions for fuel pathways, including all stages of feedstock production and distribution, the upstream emissions from energy-intensive crude recovery methods need to be accounted for to provide consistent treatment versus other regulated fuels. Establishing an accurate performance-based accounting system will ensure that additional emissions in the carbon intensity of gasoline and diesel fuels from the baseline are captured.
* *Discouraging potential increases in emissions:* An incremental deficit for backsliding with respect to the baseline will ensure that the GHG emission contributions from the petroleum sector do not increase over time.
* *Promoting innovation for emission reduction activities:* Providing credits for purchase of crude from production facilities that have implemented innovative methods, such as carbon capture and storage, to reduce emissions for crude recovery is consistent with the goal of promoting innovation, at the same time accurately accounting for the reduction in upstream emissions. Apart from providing a market signal for cleaner production, credits generated through such activities can provide extra flexibility for meeting LCFS GHG reduction targets.
* *Discouraging potential for crude shuffling to generate credits, avoid deficits, or otherwise comply with the regulation:* Providing flexibility to choose crude oils based on a performance metric will minimize potential carbon leakage out of California. Additionally, a program design that can be exported to other jurisdictions will result in minimizing such leakages as other jurisdictions adopt consistent programs.
* While abiding with the above-mentioned key guiding principles to achieve the intended GHG benefits, amendments to the HCICO provision would be designed to avoid incremental adverse environmental and economic impacts. Additionally, considerations for a successful implementation, such as simplicity of methodology, availability of data, and administrative burden, as well as other issues such as fuel supply impacts, etc., would reflect on the decision-making process.

## E. Summary and Conclusions

The Panel focused on the bigger issues relate to HCICO, including discussing if the HCICO provision is achieving its objective; if modification to the provision is needed; and encouraged staff to develop a set of principles to guide us through alternative proposals. Although most panelists agreed that the current provisions needed modifications, there were a wide range of opinions on what those modifications should include. Staff will continue working with stakeholders on this important issue and will workshop proposed regulatory amendments. In addition, it should be noted that staff commits to performing economic and environmental analyses related to any regulatory amendments that we propose.

# X. LCFS Credit Market

## A. Introduction

This chapter was developed with constructive input from interested Advisory Panel members who formed Credit Market Subgroup with ARB staff. The chapter begins with background information on the existing LCFS regulatory requirements with respect to credit trading. It then discusses the staff’s upcoming proposed amendments that would establish formal provisions governing credit trading at this early stage of the program.

The subgroup weighed in on the need to get formal rules in place to govern credit trades, provide certainty in trades, and establish procedures for ensuring the transparency of the credit market. The proposed amendments, developed with the subgroup and Panel’s input, are needed at this time in order to establish the LCFS credit market, which is in its infancy. Staff is proposing these changes with an eye toward refining the provisions in the future to maximize the credit program’s utility and effectiveness.

With Panel members’ feedback from their experiences interfacing with similar programs, the chapter then discusses other credit trading programs, including any lessons learned from those programs. Such lessons would hopefully help inform future iterations of the credit trading provisions. Finally, the chapter discusses key design themes suggested by panelists for staff’s consideration when designing the next-generation credit trading system for the LCFS.

The Panel’s perspectives on what makes a robust credit trading system will help to inform recommendations on regulatory provisions and tools that ARB staff develops for the Board’s consideration.

### 1. Current LCFS Regulation

A key feature of the LCFS program is that it allows regulated parties to generate, bank, and trade LCFS credits. Regulated parties generate credits by selling fuel in their fuel pool with carbon intensity that is lower than the applicable CI standard. Conversely, selling fuel with carbon intensity that is higher than the applicable CI standard results in deficits.

While the current regulation establishes a market for LCFS credits, it does not specify provisions that govern credit transactions between regulated parties. Nor does the current regulation specify a mechanism for tracking and reporting of information related to the accrual and disposition of credits. New regulatory provisions will be needed to set the ground rules governing credit trading. Further, tracking these transactions will require the establishment or expansion of tools that the ARB is developing.

Because implementation of the CI standards recently began in 2011 and regulated parties are already generating credits, it is imperative that specific provisions be developed in the near-term to set the ground rules for credit trading. To this end, the staff’s upcoming proposed amendments would provide such ground rules, which are discussed in more detail below.

### 2. Proposed LCFS Amendments for December 2011 Rulemaking

Currently, credit banking, trading and retirement provisions will be released for a formal public review at the end of October 2011 as proposed amendments to the LCFS regulation. Those proposed changes will be considered by the Board at its December 2011 hearing. The proposed amendments will provide the initial set up of the LCFS credit market, which is necessary to establish a reliable, sustainable and transparent credit market. The changes will ensure transparency and utility to the credit market participants by providing key transactional information in a publicly-available format.

The proposed regulatory amendments will address:

* The generation and acquisition of transferable credits;
* The acquisition of carry-back credits to meet the annual compliance obligation;
* Credit transfers and the required information that ARB will need to receive;
* The retirement of credits at the end of the compliance period; and
* The disclosure to the public of credit market activity.

The following provides a short overview of the main credit trading-related provisions in the upcoming proposed amendments.

#### a. Establishes How Credits Are Banked and Traded within the LCFS Program

Proposed changes to section 95484(b) and new section 95488(b) would provide the language describing how a credit is generated, banked and then made available for trade. Generation and banking is dependent upon the submission of a quarterly report before the credit can be placed into a regulated party’s bank. Once that credit is in the bank, the regulated party would be free to sell that credit to another regulated party upon ARB’s confirmation of the transaction.

#### b. Specifies How Credit Balances Are Calculated and Banked for Each Reporting Quarter

The proposed amendments will separate the generation of credits and deficits throughout the quarter and year, making credits fungible as soon as they are generated upon submittal of a quarterly report. As noted, at the end of each quarter, regulated parties will submit their progress reports. Fuel transactions within each quarter will be recorded; credits will be generated for those fuels that have a CI lower than the applicable standard, while deficits will be generated for those fuels with a CI higher than the applicable standards. Once credits are generated and recorded, the regulated parties will be free to trade these credits (upon ARB confirmation), use them to reconcile deficits, or simply bank them for later use.

#### c. Specifies Reporting Requirements for Trades and the Process for Reporting to ARB

The proposed amendments include a requirement for regulated parties to use a specified credit transfer form to account for the trading that will occur between regulated parties. The form currently includes information about the seller and buyer as well as the volume of credits exchanged and their price of the transaction. For tracking purposes, ARB staff is exploring the concept of applying unique identifiers (IDs) to credits that are proposed to be traded. There are a number of reasons why having unique IDs can be useful, including providing ARB with the ability to track fraudulent credits back to the originator. Unique IDs may also enable ARB to determine whether there are any trends embedded in credit transactions (e.g., if regulated parties are preferentially purchasing or retiring certain types of credits and why). If ARB develops such an ID system for LCFS credits, the proposed amendments would require the transfer form to record the applicable IDs for the credits involved.

#### d. Sets Forth Provisions for Credit Carry-Back and Credit Retirement Hierarchy

The proposed amendments include a provision to allow regulated parties to buy credits under specified conditions and apply them retroactively to address a deficit in the prior year (i.e., buy credits to “carry back”). In other words, a regulated party, facing a deficit in a compliance year, would be allowed to purchase, within the first three months of the next compliance year, existing credits that can be “carried-back” to the prior compliance year with the deficit.

Another proposed provision would address the retirement of credits to reconcile a deficit. That is, when a regulated party needs to retire a banked credit, it may have a number of credits in its bank that, for whatever reason, the regulated party wants to retire in a certain order. Because of this, the proposed amendments would require a regulated party to specify its preferred retirement hierarchy when it comes time to retire a set of credits. Failure to specify such a hierarchy would incur no penalty for a regulated party; the proposed amendments would simply retire the desired number of credits in a specified default order.

#### e. Requires ARB Publication of Market Information

To provide useful information to market participants, the proposed amendments would require ARB staff to publish separate reports on information related to the credit market on a monthly and quarterly basis, with the option to report more frequently if ARB staff deems it appropriate and feasible. Information to be published would include transaction prices, volumes of credit bought/sold, total credits and deficits for specified periods, and other relevant information, all in presented in aggregated, averaged, or other form that would provide useful information without compromising confidential business information.

#### 3. Lessons Learned from Other Credit Trading Programs

To help inform further development of the LCFS credit market, staff and interested panelists reviewed three other credit-based trading programs to determine if they yielded useful “lessons learned.” These were the South Coast Air Quality Management District’s Regional Clean Air Market (RECLAIM), the ARB’s own
Cap-and-Trade program, and the federal Renewable Fuel Standard (RFS1/2).

RECLAIM is one of the earliest models for a credit-based system to address stationary source emissions. The RECLAIM program caps the total emissions inventory of the regulated sources, and then decreases the cap over time to reduce emissions. This local district program allows affected parties to market emission reductions amongst themselves. In general, RECLAIM proved to be successful in reducing emissions of SOx and NOx by allowing compliance flexibility, relative to the existing prescriptive regulations, and thereby lowering compliance cost. One important lesson learned from RECLAIM is the utility of real-time publication of transactional information, which enables market participants to better gauge an appropriate value for a credit when negotiating its fair market value.

The ARB’s Cap-and-Trade (C&T) program controls GHGs from major emission

sources (“covered entities”) by setting a firm limit (the “cap”) on GHG emissions while

employing market mechanisms to cost-effectively achieve the emission reduction goals.

The cap for GHG emissions from major sources would commence in 2012 and decline

over time, achieving emissions reductions throughout the program’s duration. The cap

is measured in metric tons of carbon dioxide equivalent (MTCO2e). Covered entities will be able to buy permits to emit (allowances) at auction, purchase allowances from

others, or purchase offset credits (the “trade”). The cap-and-trade program would establish the total amount of GHG emissions that major sources would be allowed (permitted) to emit. ARB would distribute allowances to emit GHGs, and the total number of allowances created would be equal to the total amount (“aggregate cap”) set for cumulative emissions from all covered entities. Each allowance would permit the holder to emit one MTCO2e of GHG.

The C&T program shares many design features with the LCFS. As such, experiences with C&T should prove useful in informing further development of the LCFS credit trading program. However, given that the Board just adopted the C&T program in late October 2011, it is far too early to glean any parallels and lessons from the ARB’s C&T experience.

Finally, the RFS1/2 uses the same concept of tradable credits to promote the use of renewable fuels. However, this program reduces GHG emissions by mandating specific volumes of renewable fuels, as the control mechanism, versus directly controlling carbon emissions like the LCFS. Experience drawn from this federal program supports the use of unique IDs known as “renewable identification number” (RIN) to track renewable fuel volumes.

Nonetheless, the use of unique IDs under RFS2 has not been without issues, and U.S. EPA’s use of unique IDs under RFS2 has evolved over time. The U.S. EPA found that the use of unique IDs added unnecessary complexity by requiring the regulated community to track their own unique IDs. The U.S. EPA found that the program functioned optimally by taking on the responsibility of generating unique IDs themselves and for internal purposes.

Another insight drawn from RFS2 relates to the generation of RINs. Under the current RFS2 program, parties are allowed to generate and market credits on their own; however, a recent review of generated RINs has revealed fraudulent activity by parties generating RINs that are not associated with a renewable fuel volume (i.e., basically, fake credits). This is an important lesson, one which has been incorporated already into the amendments being proposed by staff. That is, the staff’s proposed changes would place ARB in the middle of a credit transaction (i.e., to complete the “handshake” between the buyer and seller). This will help ensure that ARB is in a position to monitor the generation of credits available for trade, thereby increasing market confidence in the validity of credits circulating in the program.

## B. Framework for Further Development of a Credit Market

### 1. Overview

Under the LCFS, regulated parties are required to meet the applicable carbon intensity standards for fuels they produce or market. Their ability to meet the standards depends on the fuel mix produced or sold by the regulated party and whether there are LCFS credits available for purchase if needed. As noted, regulated parties generate credits when their fuels have a carbon intensity that is lower than the standard, deficits when their fuels have a carbon intensity that is higher than the standard. Over time, the standards are set to become more stringent, and the ability to purchase credits from those who have over-complied will become increasingly important as one way to help meet the standards.

A functional, valid and secure credit market is crucial to the development and sustainability of the LCFS program. To facilitate credit trades, especially in the later years, the program needs to include a clear and well-established trading mechanism. Further, the credit market should provide a secure arena for exchange and purchase of carbon reduction credits. An efficient and secure market will incentivize regulated parties to strive for the maximization of credit generation and a return on their investment, while providing the necessary assurances for long-term investing. The structure of the market is important and should contain checks and balances to ensure the validity of credits being exchanged, as well as providing the market with basic economic information (e.g., credit process, volume, price per transaction, etc.) for investors and other regulated parties to be well informed.

Panelists have suggested that further development of the credit market, beyond staff’s proposed amendments for the December 2011 hearing, should be focused on near; mid and long-term goals to maximize the overall achievement of the LCFS program. In the near-term, staff has been focused on developing a manual system to account for transactions that may occur in 2011 and 2012; meanwhile, an automated system is being developed for future use. A credit market subgroup, consisting of Advisory Panel review members, has also been formed to review strategies and to provide input on the development of the credit market structure and market transparency.

In the mid-term, staff will develop a new reporting tool designed with increased functionality to account for credit generation, as well as regulated party transfers of credits. The LCFS Central Information System (L-CIS), the next generation LCFS Reporting Tool under development, will eventually serve as an information hub for regulated parties to submit their LCFS required documentation. At the onset of the credit trading program, ARB will maintain the lead role in development of the market structure, first through tracking of trades through the existing LCFS Reporting Tool. Then, ARB will design and work through the L-CIS to ensure the validity of market transactions. Staff is evaluating, in consultation with stakeholders, various features for possible incorporation into the L-CIS, including near real-time reporting of credit transaction prices, volumes traded, and other information that can be useful to a robust trading market.

Market growth and detailed information about credit transactions in the short- to
mid-term will instruct ARB and the public on how well the credit market is functioning. As discussed below, some panelists have suggested the use of a third party service to handle transactions. The ARB staff’s analysis of the functioning of the market will help ascertain whether a third party entity is necessary for that purpose.

For the mid- to long-term, ARB staff will investigate the feasibility of making the LCFS market accessible to the secondary market (i.e., persons who are not regulated parties, which would include brokers, speculators, and other “willing participants”). If the decision is made to open the LCFS credit market to the secondary market, staff would need to evaluate the L-CIS technology and update it accordingly.

### 2. Key Long-Term Design Considerations for a Robust Trading System

#### a. Role of Market

Panelists have noted that the role of the carbon credit market is to facilitate the purchase, sale and retirement of actual GHG emission reductions. The market’s supportive role is to facilitate impartial good faith business transactions.

A secondary effect of an effective and well-functioning market for LCFS credit exchanges would support efficient deployment of capital to developing and deploying the most viable and least cost low-carbon fuel options. In turn, the lowest cost for LCFS compliance should come to the forefront.

#### b. Role of ARB

Some panelists have suggested that the appropriate role for ARB vis-à-vis the LCFS market is to create and manage the inner workings of the credit market, but likewise strive not to unduly influence the market by providing a hands-off approach to individual transactions. The ARB should be unnoticeable during day-to-day credit trading. Under this vision, the ARB would merely act as a “credit banker” that would account for all transactions and inform the public of general market information.

In order to establish a smoothly functioning market for credit exchanges, the ARB will need to establish the structure and rules that ensure appropriate availability of information regarding credit transactions. There are a number of options for how credit transactions could occur, including:

* Option 1: ARB requires regulated parties to report all credit buying and selling transactions. The ARB publishes only general market indicator information.
* Option 2: ARB requires that authorized third parties conduct all credit buying and selling transactions. Either the ARB or the authorized third parties publish general market indicators.
* Option 3: ARB requires that all buying and selling transactions be conducted through the ARB. The ARB publishes appropriate market indicator information.

As noted previously, staff’s upcoming proposed amendments would follow Option 3. The benefits of this option are that ARB has the chance to evaluate credit transactions and to ensure the validity of the credits being exchanged, which is problematic with Option 1. Eventually, the transactions will also be incorporated into the L-CIS system, where both day-to-day transactions and routine reporting will be managed. As the credit market expands, ARB may consider independent and authorized third party entities to oversee the credit market. But the enforcement mechanisms and liability provisions, among other considerations, would need to be evaluated carefully before third-party credit exchanges and brokerages can be developed.

### c. Transparency

Another important topic that was raised by panelists is the need to provide the market with sufficient transparency. Publication of market-transaction information should be provided on a timely basis. For the LCFS, public availability of appropriate credit transaction information will enable more-informed business and investor
decision-making. However, this need for transparent information must be balanced by the need to protect confidential business information and other information that is protected from disclosure.

Market awareness of transaction details such as price, volume, and timing of credit trades, will help inform market participants in their understanding of market valuations. Beyond the necessary market information, other data that is prohibited from disclosure under State law will remain strictly confidential. This may include, but not be limited to, the identity of parties to a transaction and the amount of credits any one party may have in its account at a given time. Panelists suggested that the types of information related to a credit market, which need to be collected or published, depending on the nature of the information, include the following:

*Information needed by ARB to determine the health of the credit market:*

* A list of all buyers in the market
* A list of all sellers in the market
* Credit prices
* Amount of credits circulating in the market
* Feedstock/fuel type

*Information to be made available to the public:*

* Credit price range
* Average credit prices and trends
* Credit sales/traded volumes

*Information that may be claimed confidential:*

* Buyer and seller identification
* Specific feedstocks used in generating the credits

#### d. Ensuring Credit Trading is a Competitive Exchange

The most effective method for ensuring that credit trading is a competitive exchange is to maintain a clear and transparent system, which is free of fraudulent activity.  As credit traders develop confidence in and feel comfortable with the accuracy, validity and relative speed of transactions, the carbon reduction credit market will evolve to operate similar to other well-established markets.

Panelists from the Credit Trading Subgroup have suggested that the LRT subgroup, which helped develop the existing reporting tool, be reformed to provide input toward the development of the next generation L-CIS. Panelists have also suggested that use of a third party marketer would potentially increase the volume and transactions that occur. However, with the current market structure and the limited number of regulated parties involved, this option may not provide the best approach at the current time.  Further evolution of the program may determine how competitive the market will become and whether there will be a need to institute third-party market exchanges.

It has also been recommended by some panelists to make the market accessible to parties outside the program. In theory, this opening of the LCFS to the secondary market would infuse additional capital into the market by bringing in “willing participants” beyond those parties that are required to participate as regulated parties.  As noted above, the LCFS program is in its infancy, and it is premature to develop this concept at this time, particularly given that additional ARB resources that would likely be needed to track and enforce such a broad expansion of the LCFS market. However, if this concept is pursued by ARB in the future, a “trigger” of some sort may be needed to limit the potential for a party to corner the market (i.e., establish a holding limit for credits). This trigger would alert the market if an outside party has a substantial holding of credits but is not trying to maintain compliance through the holding of obligated fuels.

#### e. Protection from Fraudulent Use of the System

To assure a secure credit market, panelists have remarked that ARB must employ a zero tolerance policy against fraudulent activity.  To this end, measures can be developed to provide protections against fraud.  For example, routine auditing of suspect transactions may yield invalid transactions.  Evaluation of credit pricing or unexplained price spikes may be investigated to rule out impropriety. Selected sampling and data mining may also yield valuable information that can root out fraudulent transactions.

As an added option, ARB staff is considering assigning unique identification numbers to all credits generated. These unique IDs would allow for a comprehensive auditing capability.  This idea would need to be evaluated in detail as part of the L-CIS development. Implementing such identifiers would likely necessitate sufficient software development to handle the process and ensure that recording and reporting the ID information do not become burdensome on the regulated parties.[[98]](#footnote-98)

The ARB staff believes there is merit in using unique credit IDs (whether they are for external or internal use) because of the benefits they can provide to the sellers and buyers of credits. These potential benefits include elimination of fraudulent credits; credits being claimed by multiple parties; tracking the movement of credits within the market; and identifying the market variability of credits being exchanged through regulated parties.

#### e. Ensuring Longevity and Robustness in the Credit Trading Market

Some panelists have noted that the credit market has been established to facilitate compliance with the low carbon fuel standard. A major benefit of the credit market is to provide alternative compliance options during the fuel industry’s transition towards lower carbon intense fuels. If the credit market functions as designed and compliance with the carbon intensity factors is attained, then the purpose of the credit market may shift, from obtaining lower carbon emissions in the fuels mix through 2020, to maintaining compliance for the years after 2020.

## C. Conclusions and Summary of Panel Findings

Staff’s current rulemaking efforts will provide the necessary regulation provisions to enact an effective credit market at this initial stage of the program. The credit market is a necessary component of the LCFS regulation and provides regulated parties with options for how they will comply with the carbon intensity standards. The ARB’s role at this time is to provide the market structure, administration and validation for a secure and effective carbon reduction credit trading system. Over time, ARB will further develop electronic systems to administer the credit market and to improve reliability, performance and security. Additional roles for ARB in the credit market need to be explored.

After discussions with panelists, staff identified a number of key aspects that must be present for a functioning credit market.  First, the credit market must be transparent so all parties involved have a clear understanding of the market process and that there is no distinct advantage for one regulated party compared to another.  Second, the market must be competitive and active to encourage trade amongst the parties otherwise the market will not survive.  Third, ARB needs to have oversight on the market to assure market stability in both the near and long-term.  Fourth, ARB should have a role to guard against market fraud and undermining.

Staff determined that a number of observations and suggestions by panel members were useful in informing the staff’s upcoming proposed amendments for the December 2011 hearing. As noted above, other suggestions by the panelists merit further investigation for possible development and implementation in future iterations of the credit trading provisions.

# Appendix V-A. Compliance Schedules for Gasoline and Diesel

*Table A-1. LCFS Compliance Schedule for 2011 to 2020 for Gasoline and*

*Fuels Used as a Substitute for Gasoline.*

|  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- |
| **Year** | **Average Carbon Intensity (gCO2E/MJ)** | **% Reduction** |
| 2010 | Reporting Only |
| 2011 | 95.61 | 0.25% |
| 2012 | 95.37 | 0.5% |
| 2013 | 94.89 | 1.0% |
| 2014 | 94.41 | 1.5% |
| 2015 | 93.45 | 2.5% |
| 2016 | 92.50 | 3.5% |
| 2017 | 91.06 | 5.0% |
| 2018 | 89.62 | 6.5% |
| 2019 | 88.18 | 8.0% |
| 2020 and subsequent years | 86.27 | 10.0% |

*Table A-2. LCFS Compliance Schedule for 2011 to 2020 for Diesel Fuel and*

*Fuels Used as a Substitute for Diesel Fuel.*

|  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- |
| **Year** | **Average Carbon Intensity (gCO2E/MJ)** | **% Reduction** |
| 2010 | Reporting Only |
| 2011 | 94.47 | 0.25% |
| 2012 | 94.24 | 0.5% |
| 2013 | 93.76 | 1.0% |
| 2014 | 93.29 | 1.5% |
| 2015 | 92.34 | 2.5% |
| 2016 | 91.40 | 3.5% |
| 2017 | 89.97 | 5.0% |
| 2018 | 88.55 | 6.5% |
| 2019 | 87.13 | 8.0% |
| 2020 and subsequent years | 85.24 | 10.0% |

Source: Adapted from Title 17, California Code of Regulations, section 95482

# Appendix V-B. Review of Assumptions from the 2009 and 2011 Illustrative Scenarios

Biofuel Feedstocks

* Corn ethanol: Assumptions reflected three categories: 1) Midwest corn ethanol, with a carbon intensity close to CARBOB; 2) California corn ethanol produced in the latest generation of plants, with a carbon intensity about 15 percent below that of CARBOB; and 3) ethanol meeting the performance standard specified in the 2007 EISA: a 20 percent carbon intensity reduction over CARBOB;
* For each gasoline-related scenario, Midwest corn ethanol volumes diminish but 300 million gallons of California lower-CI ethanol remain available in the California market through 2020;
* Other biofuels: Feedstocks available to produce sufficient quantities of cellulosic ethanol, advanced renewable ethanol, sugarcane ethanol, biodiesel, renewable diesel, and other renewable fuels, as necessary. These feedstocks include, but are not limited to cellulosic waste materials from agricultural, sugarcane, forestry wastes, municipal wastes, waste oils, and animal fats.

*Assumption Review*

The initial assumption—that lower-CI ethanol would play a role in overall LCFS compliance—appears to be valid, although not in the manner that staff had anticipated.

Based on reporting data received through the LCFS reporting tool (LRT) for the first two quarters of 2011, regulated parties have documented about 100 million gallons of lower-CI corn ethanol use. If this usage continues through the rest of 2011, the volume of lower-CI corn ethanol will far exceed the 2009 estimates.

What was not expected in 2009 was the number of Method 2A/2B pathways for corn ethanol that would be available for use. As shown in Table B-1, several new pathways were developed for corn ethanol, especially for ethanol with a CI of 90 or lower. It now appears that ethanol will be produced under more pathways than originally envisioned. The table shows the number of new pathways compared to 2009, which grew from 13 to 56 for corn ethanol, most of them Midwest corn ethanol plants that have made efficiency improvements and/or diversified feedstocks.

*Table B-1. Comparison of 2009 versus 2011 pathways for Corn Ethanol*

|  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- |
| Carbon Intensity | 2009 | 2011 |
| CI>95 | 5 | 5 |
| 90<CI<95 | 3 | 11 |
| 85<CI<90 | 2 | 15 |
| 80<CI<85 | 2 | 16 |
| CI<80 | 1 | 9 |
| Totals | 13 | 56 |

Brazilian sugarcane ethanol has just recently arrived in California, although not yet in any significant volume. Our 2009 scenarios, 2011 scenarios, and 2011 scenarios developed by the California Energy Commission (CEC) show Brazilian sugarcane ethanol potentially playing a key compliance role in the next several years, although at some marginal cost.

Commercial cellulosic ethanol is not yet into the commercial production phase. Additional technological developments and cost reductions are necessary for cellulosic ethanol to be produced in appreciable volumes. As mentioned above, EIA estimates are much less than the original RFS2 volumes, so staff has updated the illustrative compliance scenarios, taking the new projections into account. Future implementation assessments will require the monitoring of cellulosic and renewable ethanol production capacity over time; however, inclusion of cellulosic ethanol in the 2011 scenarios is still appropriate. Additional discussion on the state of development for cellulosic ethanol can be found in Chapter IV.

Sufficient quantities of biodiesel feedstocks exist for the production volumes necessary for the market. California supplies of biodiesel are significantly lower than prior years due mainly to the removal of a 2009 federal blenders’ tax credit. (It was later restored, but is expected to sunset at the end of 2011.) Excess biodiesel production capacity exists to meet potential future incremental demand. Staff anticipates that biodiesel will play an increasing role throughout the compliance schedule and would be appropriate to consider under the 2011 scenarios.

Advanced Vehicle Fleets

* Flexible fuel vehicles (FFVs) and/or advanced technology vehicles will be available in sufficient numbers to consume the quantities of E85, electricity, or hydrogen, assumed in each scenario. For ethanol, staff assumed that the gasoline blends consist of the maximum allowable 10 percent (E10) in the gasoline fleet and E85 in the FFV fleet.
* Each gasoline-related scenario includes a number of advanced-technology vehicles that enable vehicle manufacturers to gain credits under the ARB’s zero emission vehicle (ZEV) program. These vehicles could be battery-electric vehicles (BEVs), plug-in hybrid vehicles (PHEVs), or fuel cell vehicles (FCVs). For the purposes of this analysis, we have assumed that the percentage of vehicles in each class of these vehicles is the same as that projected for compliance with the 2008 ARB ZEV regulation.

*Assumption Review*

In 2009, staff ran illustrative compliance scenarios with a wide range of advanced-technology vehicles on the road in 2020: 560,000, 1 million, and 2 million. For the 2011 scenarios, staff used 580,000 vehicles for all scenarios, which reflects ARB’s most current estimate. The annual ramp-up to the 2020 totals was largely the same between 2009 and 2011.

Carbon Intensity of Electricity

In 2009, staff estimated the carbon intensity of electricity based on the California marginal electricity mix, which is a combination of natural-gas combustion equipment: boilers, simple-cycle turbines, and combined-cycle turbines. The average CI for California marginal electricity is estimated at 104.71 gCO2/MJ.

*Assumption Review*

For 2011, staff did not change the CI for marginal electricity. Staff will revisit the grid-average and marginal electricity CI values as the 33 percent Renewable Portfolio Standard takes effect.

Gasoline and Diesel Fuel

For the 2009 analysis, the LCFS baseline for the gasoline and related fuels standard was based on E10 (90 percent CARBOB and 10 percent average corn ethanol
[95.85 CI]) expected in 2010. Staff assumed an annual VMT growth rate of 1.5 percent for gasoline motor vehicles. Staff adjusted the amount of fuel consumed to reflect the implementation of ARB’s Pavley standards for light-duty vehicles, which resulted in a reduction of the total amount of E10 used in 2020 compared to 2010.

The LCFS baseline for the diesel and related fuels standard was based on diesel volumes expected in 2010. Staff assumed about a 2.2 percent annual increase in VMT for diesel fuel between 2010 and 2020.

*Assumption Review*

For 2009, staff estimated the gasoline demand to be 15.4 billion gallons (BG) in 2010 dropping to about 13 BG in 2020. For the 2011 analysis, staff estimated the gasoline demand to be 15.0 BG in 2010 dropping to 12.3 BG in 2020.

For 2009, staff estimated diesel demand at 4.4 BG and 5.4 BG for 2010 and 2020, respectively. For the 2011 analysis, staff used 3.3 BG and 4.0 for 2010 and 2020, respectively. Both the gasoline and diesel demand figures used for the 2011 analysis are consistent with CEC’s “Low Petroleum Demand” scenario in their 2011 Integrated Energy Policy Report (IEPR).

Credit Trading

For each scenario in the 2009 analysis, staff assumed that the regulated parties achieved compliance strictly through the purchase and use of lower-CI fuels. There was no banking of credits assumed – that is, all credits were assumed to be used in the year that they are generated.

*Assumption Review*

For the 2011 analysis, staff assumed some level of over-compliance in the first few years of implementation so that excess credits are generated for later compliance demonstrations. LRT data for the first two quarters of 2011 bear out this assumption: regulated parties are generating and banking substantial quantities of LCFS credits, presumably for later use in complying with the standards as they become more stringent.

# Appendix V-C. Summary of Gasoline and Diesel Illustrative Plausible Scenarios

The purpose of these illustrative scenarios is directly related to the 2011 Low Carbon Fuel Standard (LCFS) program review, which is required by the regulation and due to the Board no later than January 1, 2012. Specifically, the regulation requires an assessment of the need to adjust the compliance schedule, as well as an economic assessment of the LCFS, for which these scenarios will inform. These illustrative scenarios are not projections, but plausible pathways to compliance based on a series of assumptions, which are clearly outlined below. Nor are these scenarios used in support of the upcoming December 2011 rulemaking or any other rulemaking.

*Assumptions Common to All 2011 Gasoline Illustrative Scenarios*

|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
|  | 2011 | 2012 | 2013 | 2014 | 2015 | 2016 | 2017 | 2018 | 2019 | 2020 |
| Corn EtOH CI | 87.8 | 84.7 | 81.6 | 79.0 | 76.6 | 74.3 | 72.0 | 69.9 | 67.9 | 66.0 |
| Cane EtOH CI | 73.4 | 72.0 | 71.0 | 70.0 | 69.0 | 68.0 | 67.0 | 66.0 | 65.0 | 64.0 |
| Cellulosic CI | 25.0 | 25.0 | 25.0 | 25.0 | 25.0 | 25.0 | 25.0 | 25.0 | 25.0 | 25.0 |
| Drop-In CI | 25.0 | 25.0 | 25.0 | 25.0 | 25.0 | 25.0 | 25.0 | 25.0 | 25.0 | 25.0 |
| No. of FCVs (1000s) | 0.9 | 2.0 | 3.0 | 4.0 | 10.0 | 15.0 | 20.0 | 22.9 | 29.2 | 39.8 |
| No. PHEVs (1,000s) | 0.5 | 20.0 | 45.0 | 70.0 | 110 | 150 | 200 | 261 | 337 | 426 |
| No. of BEVs (1,000s) | 3.0 | 5.0 | 7.0 | 9.0 | 20.0 | 30.0 | 40.0 | 53.9 | 81.1 | 119 |

Notes: CI = carbon intensity, expressed in grams CO2 equivalent per megajoule (gCO2e/MJ)

 Drop In = renewable gasoline with hydrocarbon constituents similar to conventional gasoline

 FCV = fuel cell vehicle, PHEV = plug-in hybrid electric vehicle, BEV = battery electric vehicle

 *Assumptions Common to All 2011 Diesel Illustrative Scenarios*

|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| Carbon Intensity | 2011 | 2012 | 2013 | 2014 | 2015 | 2016 | 2017 | 2018 | 2019 | 2020 |
| Soy BD | 83.3 | 83.3 | 83.3 | 83.3 | 83.3 | 83.3 | 83.3 | 83.3 | 83.3 | 83.3 |
| UCO BD | 15.8 | 15.8 | 15.8 | 15.8 | 15.8 | 15.8 | 15.8 | 15.8 | 15.8 | 15.8 |
| Canola BD | 63.0 | 63.0 | 63.0 | 63.0 | 63.0 | 63.0 | 63.0 | 63.0 | 63.0 | 63.0 |
| Corn Oil BD | 5.0 | 5.0 | 5.0 | 5.0 | 5.0 | 5.0 | 5.0 | 5.0 | 5.0 | 5.0 |
| Tallow RD | 29.5 | 29.5 | 29.5 | 29.5 | 29.5 | 29.5 | 29.5 | 29.5 | 29.5 | 29.5 |
| Drop-In RD | 35.0 | 35.0 | 35.0 | 35.0 | 35.0 | 35.0 | 35.0 | 35.0 | 35.0 | 35.0 |

Notes: CI = carbon intensity, expressed in grams CO2 equivalent per megajoule (gCO2e/MJ)

 UCO = unused cooking oil

BD = biodiesel, RD = renewable diesel

Drop-In RD = renewable diesel with hydrocarbon constituents similar to conventional diesel

Scenario 1 - CA gets about three-quarters of EIA cellulosic projections; low corn EtOH use in 2016 and after; large FFV use using EtOH 50% of the time; substantial early surplus credit generation before 2017; annual deficits generated between 2017 and 2020, but some credits remain after 2020.

|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
|  | 2011 | 2012 | 2013 | 2014 | 2015 | 2016 | 2017 | 2018 | 2019 | 2020 |
| Corn EtOH (bgal) | 1.50 | 1.40 | 1.27 | 1.05 | 0.51 | 0.20 | 0.13 | 0.09 | 0.05 | 0 |
| Cane EtOH (bgal) | 0 | 0.08 | 0.18 | 0.38 | 0.76 | 1.46 | 1.41 | 1.33 | 1.16 | 0.69 |
| Cellulosic (bgal) | 0 | 0.01 | 0.04 | 0.07 | 0.22 | 0.36 | 0.57 | 0.87 | 1.31 | 1.95 |
| FFVs (1,000s) | 0 | 50 | 100 | 200 | 300 | 500 | 900 | 1,400 | 2,200 | 2,700 |
| % time E85 | 50 | 50 | 50 | 50 | 50 | 50 | 50 | 60 | 60 | 60 |
| Total EtOH (bgal) | 1.50 | 1.49 | 1.48 | 1.49 | 1.49 | 2.02 | 2.11 | 2.29 | 2.52 | 2.64 |
| Total E85 (bgal) | 0 | 0.02 | 0.04 | 0.07 | 0.11 | 0.17 | 0.30 | 0.55 | 0.84 | 1.00 |
| Total CARBOB (bgal) | 13.5 | 13.3 | 13.1 | 12.9 | 12.6 | 12.0 | 11.7 | 11.4 | 11.0 | 10.7 |
| Avg.% EtOH | 10.0 | 10.1 | 10.2 | 10.4 | 10.6 | 14.4 | 15.3 | 16.8 | 18.6 | 19.8 |
| Annual Credits (1,000s MT) | 556 | 704 | 538 | 401 | 144 | 807 | -120 | -480 | -176 | -104 |
| Cum. Credits (1,000s MT) | 556 | 1,260 | 1,798 | 2,199 | 2,343 | 3,150 | 3,030 | 2,550 | 2,374 | 2,270 |

Scenario 2 - CA gets nearly all (80 to 90 percent) of EIA cellulosic projections between 2011 and 2020; low sugar cane EtOH use and low corn EtOH use in 2020; relatively low FFV use using E85 about 50% of the time before 2018 and about 60% of the time after; substantial early surplus credit generation before 2017; annual deficits generated between 2017 and 2020, but some surplus credits remain after 2020.

|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
|  | 2011 | 2012 | 2013 | 2014 | 2015 | 2016 | 2017 | 2018 | 2019 | 2020 |
| Corn EtOH (bgal) | 1.50 | 1.45 | 1.37 | 1.29 | 1.04 | 1.18 | 0.85 | 0.36 | 0.06 | 0 |
| Cane EtOH (bgal) | 0 | 0.01 | 0.03 | 0.04 | 0.15 | 0.30 | 0.40 | 0.61 | 0.35 | 0 |
| Cellulosic (bgal) | 0 | 0.018 | 0.074 | 0.13 | 0.30 | 0.50 | 0.74 | 1.07 | 1.68 | 2.12 |
| FFVs (1,000s) | 0 | 30 | 60 | 120 | 200 | 400 | 500 | 600 | 700 | 810 |
| % time E85 | 50 | 50 | 50 | 50 | 50 | 50 | 50 | 60 | 60 | 60 |
| Total EtOH (bgal) | 1.50 | 1.49 | 1.47 | 1.47 | 1.49 | 2.00 | 2.01 | 2.05 | 2.09 | 2.12 |
| Total E85 (bgal) | 0 | 0.01 | 0.02 | 0.033 | 0.096 | 0.12 | 0.15 | 0.23 | 0.27 | 0.29 |
| Total CARBOB (bgal) | 13.5 | 13.3 | 13.1 | 12.9 | 12.6 | 12.1 | 11.8 | 11.5 | 11.3 | 11.0 |
| Avg.% EtOH | 10.0 | 10.1 | 10.1 | 10.2 | 10.6 | 14.2 | 14.6 | 15.1 | 15.6 | 16.1 |
| Annual Credits (1,000s MT) | 556 | 674 | 564 | 399 | 79 | 711 | -62 | -471 | -59 | -904 |
| Cum. Credits (1,000s MT) | 556 | 1,230 | 1,794 | 2,193 | 2,272 | 2,983 | 2,921 | 2,450 | 2,391 | 1,487 |

Scenario 3 - Delayed cellulosic EtOH introduction; mostly corn EtOH used until 2015; increasing sugar cane EtOH use through 2020; CA gets about a quarter to a third of EIA nationwide cellulosic projection; high FFV use beginning in 2015 using E85 a high percentage of the time; surplus credits accumulate until 2019; deficits generated in 2019 and 2020, but some surplus credits remain after 2020.

|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
|  | 2011 | 2012 | 2013 | 2014 | 2015 | 2016 | 2017 | 2018 | 2019 | 2020 |
| Corn EtOH (bgal) | 1.50 | 1.48 | 1.46 | 1.53 | 1.16 | 1.66 | 1.56 | 0.95 | 0.62 | 0.33 |
| Cane EtOH (bgal) | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0.08 | 0.57 | 0.81 | 1.41 | 1.94 | 2.26 | 2.47 |
| Cellulosic (bgal) | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0.07 | 0.10 | 0.17 | 0.39 | 0.57 | 0.84 |
| FFVs (1,000s) | 0 | 0 | 0 | 300 | 700 | 1,300 | 2,500 | 2,900 | 3,300 | 3,800 |
| % time E85 | 100 | 100 | 100 | 100 | 100 | 100 | 100 | 100 | 100 | 100 |
| Total EtOH (bgal) | 1.50 | 1.48 | 1.46 | 1.61 | 1.79 | 2.57 | 3.14 | 3.28 | 3.45 | 3.63 |
| Total E85 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0.22 | 0.50 | 0.90 | 1.7 | 1.9 | 2.1 | 2.3 |
| Total CARBOB (bgal) | 13.5 | 13.3 | 13.1 | 12.8 | 12.4 | 11.7 | 11.0 | 10.7 | 10.4 | 10.0 |
| Avg.% EtOH | 10.0 | 10.0 | 10.0 | 11.2 | 12.6 | 18.1 | 22.2 | 23.5 | 24.9 | 26.6 |
| Annual Credits (1,000s MT) | 556 | 564 | 183 | 46 | -117 | 388 | 354 | 270 | -370 | -1,113 |
| Cum. Credits (1,000s MT) | 556 | 1,120 | 1,303 | 1,349 | 1,232 | 1,620 | 1,974 | 2,244 | 1,874 | 761 |

Scenario 4 - Only corn and sugar cane EtOH until 2015; high corn and sugar cane EtOH through 2020; cellulosic EtOH introduced in 2015 up to only about a third of EIA nationwide projection for 2020; very high FFV use using E85 100 percent of the time; less surplus credit accumulation before 2019 than in Scenario 3; deficits generated between 2018 and 2020, but some surplus credits remain after 2020.

|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
|  | 2011 | 2012 | 2013 | 2014 | 2015 | 2016 | 2017 | 2018 | 2019 | 2020 |
| Corn EtOH (bgal) | 1.50 | 1.42 | 1.38 | 1.34 | 1.08 | 1.54 | 1.62 | 1.63 | 1.49 | 1.32 |
| Cane EtOH (bgal) | 0 | 0.07 | 0.15 | 0.24 | 0.51 | 0.72 | 1.00 | 1.32 | 1.58 | 1.85 |
| Cellulosic (bgal) | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0.07 | 0.14 | 0.26 | 0.36 | 0.54 | 0.79 |
| FFVs (1,000s) | 0 | 20 | 125 | 250 | 500 | 1,000 | 2,000 | 3,000 | 3,700 | 4,600 |
| % time E85 | 100 | 100 | 100 | 100 | 100 | 100 | 100 | 100 | 100 | 100 |
| Total EtOH (bgal) | 1.50 | 1.49 | 1.53 | 1.58 | 1.68 | 2.41 | 2.89 | 3.33 | 3.64 | 4.00 |
| Total E85 (bgal) | 0 | 0.016 | 0.095 | 0.18 | 0.36 | 0.70 | 1.35 | 1.96 | 2.35 | 2.84 |
| Total CARBOB (bgal) | 13.5 | 13.3 | 13.1 | 12.8 | 12.5 | 11.8 | 11.2 | 10.7 | 10.3 | 9.8 |
| Avg.% EtOH | 10.0 | 10.1 | 10.5 | 11.0 | 11.9 | 17.0 | 20.5 | 23.8 | 26.2 | 29.0 |
| Annual Credits (1,000s MT) | 556 | 652 | 398 | 121 | -221 | 241 | 40 | -100 | -180 | -449 |
| Cum. Credits (1,000s MT) | 556 | 1,208 | 1,606 | 1,727 | 1,506 | 1,747 | 1,787 | 1,687 | 1,507 | 1,058 |

Scenario 5 - Small amounts of cellulosic EtOH begins in 2014; drop-in fuel begins in 2015; cellulosic about 20% of EIA 2020 nation-wide projection; no FFVs; substantial surplus credits in early years; deficits generated between 2018 and 2020, but some surplus credits remain after 2020.

|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
|  | 2011 | 2012 | 2013 | 2014 | 2015 | 2016 | 2017 | 2018 | 2019 | 2020 |
| Corn EtOH (bgal) | 1.50 | 1.48 | 1.46 | 1.33 | 1.25 | 1.59 | 1.45 | 1.30 | 1.12 | 0.88 |
| Cane EtOH (bgal) | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0.06 | 0.10 | 0.21 | 0.28 | 0.36 | 0.44 | 0.48 |
| Cellulosic (bgal) | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0.050 | 0.063 | 0.09 | 0.15 | 0.23 | 0.34 | 0.53 |
| Drop-in Fuel (bgal) | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0.13 | 0.17 | 0.34 | 0.47 | 0.57 | 0.70 |
| Total EtOH (bgal) | 1.50 | 1.48 | 1.46 | 1.44 | 1.41 | 1.89 | 1.89 | 1.88 | 1.89 | 1.90 |
| Total E85 (bgal) | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Total CARBOB (bgal) | 13.5 | 13.3 | 13.1 | 12.9 | 12.5 | 12.0 | 11.5 | 11.2 | 10.9 | 10.5 |
| Avg.% EtOH | 10.0 | 10.0 | 10.0 | 10.0 | 10.0 | 13.5 | 13.7 | 13.9 | 14.2 | 14.5 |
| Annual Credits (1,000s MT) | 556 | 564 | 183 | 15 | 17 | 301 | 321 | -22 | -245 | -679 |
| Cum. Credits (1,000s MT) | 556 | 1,120 | 1,303 | 1,318 | 1,335 | 1,636 | 1,957 | 1,935 | 1,690 | 1,011 |

Scenario 6 - Only corn EtOH is used until 2014; sugar cane EtOH and cellulosic EtOH begin in 2014; drop-in fuel begins in 2015; cellulosic about a third of EIA 2020 nationwide projection; no FFVs; early credits generated with corn EtOH; compliance is achieved every year up to 2020; surplus credits from early generation remain after 2020.

|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
|  | 2011 | 2012 | 2013 | 2014 | 2015 | 2016 | 2017 | 2018 | 2019 | 2020 |
| Corn EtOH (bgal) | 1.50 | 1.48 | 1.46 | 1.31 | 1.10 | 1.53 | 1.31 | 1.09 | 0.84 | 0.43 |
| Cane EtOH (bgal) | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0.09 | 0.17 | 0.21 | 0.32 | 0.39 | 0.49 | 0.57 |
| Cellulosic (bgal) | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0.05 | 0.13 | 0.15 | 0.26 | 0.39 | 0.56 | 0.90 |
| Drop-in Fuel (bgal) | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0.09 | 0.11 | 0.26 | 0.39 | 0.51 | 0.63 |
| Total EtOH (bgal) | 1.50 | 1.48 | 1.46 | 1.44 | 1.41 | 1.89 | 1.89 | 1.88 | 1.89 | 1.89 |
| Total E85 (bgal) | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Total CARBOB (bgal) | 13.5 | 13.3 | 13.1 | 12.9 | 12.6 | 12.0 | 11.6 | 11.2 | 10.9 | 10.6 |
| Avg.% EtOH | 10.0 | 10.0 | 10.0 | 10.0 | 10.0 | 13.5 | 13.7 | 13.9 | 14.2 | 14.5 |
| Annual Credits (1,000s MT) | 556 | 564 | 183 | 5 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Cum. Credits (1,000s MT) | 556 | 1,120 | 1,303 | 1,308 | 1,309 | 1,309 | 1,309 | 1,309 | 1,309 | 1,309 |

Scenario 7 - Similar to Scenario 6, but with a small number of FFVs operating on E85 50 percent of the time; early surplus credits remain after 2020.

|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
|  | 2011 | 2012 | 2013 | 2014 | 2015 | 2016 | 2017 | 2018 | 2019 | 2020 |
| Corn EtOH (bgal) | 1.50 | 1.48 | 1.46 | 1.32 | 1.15 | 1.61 | 1.43 | 1.28 | 0.93 | 0.59 |
| Cane EtOH (bgal) | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0.07 | 0.19 | 0.22 | 0.31 | 0.33 | 0.56 | 0.63 |
| Cellulosic (bgal) | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0.04 | 0.11 | 0.12 | 0.22 | 0.35 | 0.50 | 0.80 |
| FFVs (1,000s) | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 150 | 220 | 280 | 350 | 400 | 500 |
| Drop-in Fuel (bgal) | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0.09 | 0.11 | 0.26 | 0.40 | 0.51 | 0.64 |
| Total EtOH (bgal) | 1.50 | 1.48 | 1.46 | 1.44 | 1.45 | 1.93 | 1.96 | 1.96 | 1.99 | 2.01 |
| Total E85 (bgal) | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0.054 | 0.076 | 0.093 | 0.11 | 0.13 | 0.15 |
| Total CARBOB (bgal) | 13.5 | 13.3 | 13.1 | 12.9 | 12.5 | 12.0 | 11.6 | 11.2 | 10.9 | 10.5 |
| Avg.% EtOH | 10.0 | 10.0 | 10.0 | 10.0 | 10.3 | 13.9 | 14.2 | 14.5 | 14.9 | 15.3 |
| Annual Credits (1,000s MT) | 556 | 564 | 183 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Cum. Credits (1,000s MT) | 556 | 1,120 | 1,303 | 1,304 | 1,304 | 1,304 | 1,304 | 1,304 | 1,304 | 1,304 |

Scenario 8 - Large number of FFVs operating on E85 50 percent of the time; sugar cane and cellulosic EtOH introduced in 2015; drop-in fuel starts in 2016; cellulosic about 25% of EIA 2020 nation-wide projection; compliance is achieved every year between 2011 and 2020, and early surplus credits are generated as in Scenario 7, which remain after 2020; less drop-in fuel than Scenario 7, but large number of FFVs used so that projected E85 use is in line with CEC projections.

|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
|  | 2011 | 2012 | 2013 | 2014 | 2015 | 2016 | 2017 | 2018 | 2019 | 2020 |
| Corn EtOH (bgal) | 1.50 | 1.48 | 1.46 | 1.49 | 1.47 | 1.90 | 1.95 | 1.87 | 1.58 | 1.45 |
| Cane EtOH (bgal) | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0.05 | 0.17 | 0.23 | 0.37 | 0.48 | 0.80 | 0.88 |
| Cellulosic (bgal) | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0.016 | 0.10 | 0.13 | 0.22 | 0.33 | 0.44 | 0.61 |
| FFVs (1,000s) | 0 | 0 | 0 | 400 | 1,200 | 1,400 | 2,600 | 3,300 | 3,900 | 4,600 |
| Drop-in Fuel (bgal) | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0.043 | 0.042 | 0.12 | 0.22 | 0.31 | 0.44 |
| Total EtOH (bgal) | 1.50 | 1.48 | 1.46 | 1.55 | 1.74 | 2.26 | 2.54 | 2.68 | 2.82 | 2.95 |
| Total E85 (bgal) | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0.15 | 0.43 | 0.49 | 0.87 | 1.08 | 1.24 | 1.42 |
| Total CARBOB (bgal) | 13.5 | 13.3 | 13.1 | 12.9 | 12.4 | 11.8 | 11.3 | 10.8 | 10.5 | 10.0 |
| Avg.% EtOH | 10.0 | 10.0 | 10.0 | 10.8 | 12.3 | 16.0 | 18.2 | 19.5 | 20.6 | 21.9 |
| Annual Credits (1,000s MT) | 556 | 564 | 183 | 5 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 2 |
| Cum. Credits (1,000s MT) | 556 | 1,120 | 1,303 | 1,308 | 1,309 | 1,309 | 1,309 | 1,310 | 1,311 | 1,313 |

Summary of Diesel Scenarios

Scenario 1 - Use of soy biodiesel and used cooking oil biodiesel

|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
|  | 2011 | 2012 | 2013 | 2014 | 2015 | 2016 | 2017 | 2018 | 2019 | 2020 |
| % Non-Conven. Diesel | 0 | 4 | 6 | 8 | 10 | 15 | 20 | 20 | 20 | 20 |
| Soy BD (mgal) | 0 | 132 | 189 | 249 | 282 | 450 | 595 | 525 | 451 | 344 |
| UCO BD (mgal) | 0 | 1 | 17 | 31 | 75 | 99 | 154 | 241 | 333 | 458 |
| Total BD (mgal) | 0 | 133 | 206 | 280 | 357 | 549 | 749 | 766 | 784 | 802 |
| Total Diesel (bgal) | 3.3 | 3.4 | 3.4 | 3.5 | 3.6 | 3.7 | 3.7 | 3.8 | 3.9 | 4.0 |
| Annual Credits (1,000s MT) | -105 | -7 | 0 | 0 | 21 | 17 | 27 | 23 | 17 | 7 |
| Cum. Credits (1,000s MT) | -105 | -112 | -112 | -112 | -91 | -74 | -47 | -24 | -7 | 0 |

Scenario 2 - Use of soy, used cooking oil, and canola biodiesel

|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
|  | 2011 | 2012 | 2013 | 2014 | 2015 | 2016 | 2017 | 2018 | 2019 | 2020 |
| % Non-Conv. Diesel | 0 | 4 | 6 | 8 | 10 | 15 | 20 | 20 | 20 | 20 |
| Soy BD (mgal) | 0 | 132 | 187 | 245 | 275 | 434 | 566 | 483 | 384 | 249 |
| UCO BD (mgal) | 0 | 1 | 17 | 29 | 72 | 93 | 138 | 222 | 305 | 417 |
| Canola BD (mgal) | 0 | 0 | 2 | 6 | 11 | 22 | 45 | 62 | 94 | 136 |
| Total BD (mgal) | 0 | 133 | 206 | 280 | 358 | 549 | 749 | 767 | 783 | 802 |
| Total Diesel (bgal) | 3.3 | 3.4 | 3.4 | 3.5 | 3.6 | 3.7 | 3.7 | 3.8 | 3.9 | 4.0 |
| Annual Credits (1,000s MT) | -105 | -7 | 5 | 2 | 18 | 27 | 15 | 16 | 25 | 9 |
| Cum. Credits (1,000s MT) | -105 | -112 | -107 | -105 | -87 | -60 | -45 | -29 | -4 | 5 |

Scenario 3 - Use of soy, used cooking oil, canola, and corn oil biodiesel

|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
|  | 2011 | 2012 | 2013 | 2014 | 2015 | 2016 | 2017 | 2018 | 2019 | 2020 |
| % Non-Conv. Diesel | 0 | 4 | 6 | 8 | 10 | 15 | 20 | 20 | 20 | 20 |
| Soy BD (mgal) | 0 | 132 | 187 | 245 | 277 | 438 | 569 | 487 | 402 | 259 |
| UCO BD (mgal) | 0 | 1 | 17 | 26 | 63 | 73 | 109 | 188 | 268 | 375 |
| Canola BD (mgal) | 0 | 0 | 2 | 6 | 11 | 22 | 45 | 61 | 78 | 128 |
| Corn Oil BD (mgal) | 0 | 0 | 0 | 3 | 7 | 17 | 26 | 31 | 35 | 40 |
| Total BD (mgal) | 0 | 133 | 206 | 280 | 358 | 550 | 749 | 767 | 783 | 802 |
| Total Diesel (bgal) | 3.3 | 3.4 | 3.4 | 3.5 | 3.6 | 3.7 | 3.7 | 3.8 | 3.9 | 4.0 |
| Annual Credits (1,000s MT) | -105 | -7 | 5 | 1 | 13 | 16 | 18 | 26 | 13 | 23 |
| Cum. Credits (1,000s MT) | -105 | -112 | -107 | -106 | -93 | -77 | -59 | -33 | -20 | 3 |

Scenario 4 - Use of soy, used cooking oil, canola, and corn oil biodiesel, and tallow renewable diesel

|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
|  | 2011 | 2012 | 2013 | 2014 | 2015 | 2016 | 2017 | 2018 | 2019 | 2020 |
| % Non-Conv. Diesel | 0 | 4 | 6 | 8 | 10 | 15 | 20 | 20 | 20 | 20 |
| Soy BD (mgal) | 0 | 132 | 186 | 245 | 276 | 435 | 566 | 483 | 395 | 253 |
| UCO BD (mgal) | 0 | 1 | 16 | 23 | 57 | 59 | 86 | 161 | 238 | 341 |
| Canola BD (mgal) | 0 | 0 | 2 | 6 | 11 | 22 | 45 | 61 | 78 | 128 |
| Corn Oil BD (mgal) | 0 | 0 | 0 | 3 | 7 | 16 | 26 | 31 | 35 | 40 |
| Tallow RD (mgal) | 0 | 0 | 0 | 3 | 7 | 16 | 26 | 31 | 35 | 40 |
| Total BD and RD (mgal) | 0 | 133 | 204 | 280 | 358 | 548 | 749 | 767 | 781 | 802 |
| Total Conv. Diesel (bgal) | 3.3 | 3.2 | 3.2 | 3.2 | 3.2 | 3.1 | 3.0 | 3.0 | 3.1 | 3.2 |
| Total Diesel (bgal) | 3.3 | 3.3 | 3.4 | 3.5 | 3.6 | 3.7 | 3.7 | 3.8 | 3.9 | 4.0 |
| Annual Credits (1,000s MT) | -105 | -7 | 5 | -2 | 16 | 15 | 19 | 21 | 15 | 27 |
| Cum. Credits (1,000s MT) | -105 | -112 | -107 | -109 | -93 | -77 | -59 | -38 | -23 | 4 |

Scenario 5 - Use of soy, used cooking oil, canola, and corn oil biodiesel, and tallow and drop-in renewable diesel

|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
|  | 2011 | 2012 | 2013 | 2014 | 2015 | 2016 | 2017 | 2018 | 2019 | 2020 |
| % Non-Conv. Diesel | 0 | 4 | 6 | 8 | 10 | 15 | 20 | 20 | 20 | 20 |
| Soy BD (mgal) | 0 | 132 | 188 | 248 | 276 | 447 | 584 | 510 | 420 | 273 |
| UCO BD (mgal) | 0 | 1 | 15 | 17 | 20 | 24 | 31 | 104 | 177 | 273 |
| Canola BD (mgal) | 0 | 0 | 2 | 6 | 18 | 22 | 45 | 50 | 71 | 120 |
| Corn Oil BD (mgal) | 0 | 0 | 0 | 3 | 14 | 17 | 26 | 31 | 35 | 40 |
| Drop-In RD (mgal) | 0 | 0 | 0 | 6 | 29 | 40 | 63 | 73 | 82 | 96 |
| Total BD and RD (mgal) | 0 | 133 | 205 | 280 | 357 | 550 | 749 | 768 | 785 | 802 |
| Total Conv. Diesel (bgal) | 3.3 | 3.2 | 3.2 | 3.2 | 3.2 | 3.1 | 3.0 | 3.1 | 3.1 | 3.2 |
| Total Diesel (bgal) | 3.3 | 3.3 | 3.3 | 3.4 | 3.5 | 3.6 | 3.7 | 3.8 | 3.9 | 4.0 |
| Annual Credits (1,000s MT) | -105 | 2 | 16 | 15 | 11 | 14 | 16 | 11 | 10 | 13 |
| Cum. Credits (1,000s MT) | -105 | -103 | -87 | -72 | -61 | -47 | -32 | -21 | -11 | 2 |

Scenario 6 - Use of soy, used cooking oil, canola, and corn oil biodiesel, and tallow and drop-in renewable diesel. CNG Vehicles up to 10,000 vehicles in 2020.

|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
|  | 2011 | 2012 | 2013 | 2014 | 2015 | 2016 | 2017 | 2018 | 2019 | 2020 |
| % Non-Conv. Diesel | 0 | 4 | 6 | 8 | 10 | 15 | 20 | 20 | 20 | 20 |
| Soy BD (mgal) | 0 | 132 | 189 | 249 | 277 | 448 | 585 | 510 | 420 | 275 |
| UCO BD (mgal) | 0 | 1 | 4 | 17 | 19 | 22 | 29 | 101 | 174 | 268 |
| Canola BD (mgal) | 0 | 0 | 2 | 5 | 18 | 21 | 44 | 49 | 68 | 117 |
| Corn Oil BD (mgal) | 0 | 0 | 0 | 3 | 14 | 16 | 25 | 30 | 34 | 39 |
| Drop-In RD (mgal) | 0 | 0 | 0 | 5 | 29 | 39 | 61 | 71 | 80 | 94 |
| HD CNG Vehicles (1,000s) | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 2.5 | 3.5 | 5.0 | 6.5 | 8.0 | 10.0 |
| Total BD and RD (mgal) | 0 | 133 | 205 | 280 | 357 | 546 | 744 | 761 | 776 | 793 |
| Total Conv. Diesel (bgal) | 3.3 | 3.2 | 3.2 | 3.2 | 3.2 | 3.1 | 3.0 | 3.1 | 3.1 | 3.2 |
| Total Diesel (bgal) | 3.3 | 3.3 | 3.4 | 3.5 | 3.6 | 3.6 | 3.7 | 3.8 | 3.9 | 4.0 |
| Annual Credits (1,000s MT) | -105 | 3 | 9 | 10 | 12 | 13 | 15 | 14 | 17 | 14 |
| Cum. Credits (1,000s MT) | -105 | -102 | -93 | -83 | -72 | -58 | -43 | -29 | -12 | 2 |

1 - In all of the diesel scenarios, the 2011deficits that are shown will be offset by surplus credits from the gasoline regulation. Therefore, small amounts of surplus credits would accumulate between 2012 and 2020 in the above scenarios.

# APPENDIX VIII-1 – Environmental Chapter

| **Table 1. Most Stringent Emission Limits Identified for Process Equipment at Biorefineries – Evaporative Loss Sources** |
| --- |
| Class/Category of Source | NOx | CO | VOC | SOx | PM10 |
| Methanol / Sodium Methoxide receiving and storage |  |  | Emission limit corresponding to use of a VOC control system capable of 99.5% or better control efficiency |  |  |
| Fermentation process: yeast, liquefaction, beerwell, and process condensate tanks |  |  | Emission limit corresponding to use of a VOC control system capable of 99.5% or better control efficiency |  |  |
| Distillation and wet cake processes |  |  | Emission limit corresponding to use of a VOC control system (wet scrubber or equivalent) capable of 95% or better control efficiency |  |  |
| Pumps and compressor seals |  |  | No leak of methane greater than 100 ppm above background and inspection and maintenance program |  |  |
| Valves, flanges, and other types of connectors |  |  | No leak of methane greater than 100 ppm above background and inspection and maintenance program |  |  |
| Storage tank (fixed roof) |  |  | Emission limit corresponding to use of a VOC control system capable of 99.5% or better control efficiency |  |  |
| Storage tank (floating roof) |  |  | Emission limit corresponding to use of a VOC control system capable of 98% or better control efficiency |  |  |
| Liquid fuel loading operations |  |  | Emission limit corresponding to use of a VOC control system capable of 98% or better control efficiency |  |  |
| Liquid fuel transfer and dispensing operations |  |  | Emission limit corresponding to use of an ARB certified Phase I vapor recovery system |  |  |

| **Table 2. Most Stringent Emission Limits Identified for Process Equipment at Biorefineries – Combustion Sources** |
| --- |
| Class/Category of Source | NOx | CO | VOC | SOx | PM10 |
| Natural gas-fired boiler, ≥2 to <5 MMBtu/hr | Non-atmospheric units: 9 ppmvd @ 3% O2(0.011 lb/MMBtu)Atmospheric units: 12 ppmvd @ 3% O2(0.015 lb/MMBtu) | Firetube type: 50 ppmvd @ 3% O2Watertube type: 100 ppmvd @ 3% O2 | Emission limit corresponding to use of natural gas with fuel sulfur content of no more than 1 gr/100 scf | Emission limit corresponding to use of natural gas with fuel sulfur content of no more than 1 gr/100 scf | Emission limit corresponding to use of natural gas with fuel sulfur content of no more than 1 gr/100 scf |
| Natural gas-fired boiler, ≥5 to <20 MMBtu/hr | 6 ppmvd @ 3% O2(0.007 lb/MMBtu) | Firetube type: ≤50 ppmvd @ 3% O2Watertube type: ≤100 ppmvd @ 3% O2 | Emission limit corresponding to use of natural gas with fuel sulfur content of no more than 1 gr/100 scf | Emission limit corresponding to use of natural gas with fuel sulfur content of no more than 1 gr/100 scf | Emission limit corresponding to use of natural gas with fuel sulfur content of no more than 1 gr/100 scf |
| Natural gas-fired boiler, ≥20 MMBtu/hr | 5 ppmvd @ 3% O2(0.0062 lb/MMBtu) | Firetube type: ≤50 ppmvd @ 3% O2Watertube type: ≤100 ppmvd @ 3% O2For units ≥250 MMBtu/hr[[99]](#footnote-99): 10 ppmvd @ 3% O2 | Emission limit corresponding to use of natural gas with fuel sulfur content of no more than 1 gr/100 scf | Emission limit corresponding to use of natural gas with fuel sulfur content of no more than 1 gr/100 scf | Emission limit corresponding to use of natural gas with fuel sulfur content of no more than 1 gr/100 scf |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Natural gas-fired dryer | 0.018 lb/MMBtu(15 ppmv @ 3% O2) | 0.07 lb/MMBtu | Emission limit corresponding to use of a VOC capture and control with thermal or catalytic incineration (98% control) or equivalent | Emission limit corresponding to use of a wet scrubber (95% control) | Emission limit corresponding to use of high efficiency(1D-3D) cyclones and thermal incinerator in series (98.5% control) or equivalent |
| Flare (ethanol production) | 0.05 lb/MMBtu | 0.37 lb/MMBtu | 0.063 lb/MMBtu | 0.00285 lb/MMBtu | 0.008 lb/MMBtu |
| Biomass-fired boiler | 0.012 lb/MMBtu(*9 ppmvd @ 3% O2*) | 0.046 lb/MMBtu(*59 ppmvd @ 3% O2*)Alternate Limit: 0.01 lb/MMBtu(*22 ppmvd @ 3% O2*) | 0.005 lb/MMBtu(*11 ppmvd @ 3% O2*) | 0.012 lb/MMBtu(*7 ppmvd @ 3% O2*) | 0.024 lb/MMBtu(*0.01 gr/scf @ 12% CO2*) |
| Landfill gas-fired flare | 0.025 lb/MMBtu | 0.06 lb/MMBtu | Emission limit corresponding to 98% VOC destruction efficiency or 20 ppmv @ 3% O2 | Emission limit corresponding to use of a wet scrubber with 98% control efficiency | Emission limit corresponding to use of steam injection and/or knockout vessel |
| Manure digester and co-digester gas-fired flare | 0.03 lb/MMBtu(*25 ppmvd @ 3% O2*) | Operate per manufacturer specifications to minimize CO | 0.03 lb/MMBtu | Emission limit corresponding to use of a H2S removal system (dry or wet scrubber or equivalent) | Emission limit corresponding to use of smokeless combustion and LPG or natural gas-fired pilot |
| Biogas-fired microturbine | 0.5 lb/MWhAs of 1/1/2013: 0.07 lb/MWh | 6.0 lb/MWhAs of 1/1/2013: 0.10 lb/MWh | 1.0 lb/MWhAs of 1/1/2013: 0.02 lb/MWh | N/A | N/A |
| Biogas-fired reciprocating internal combustion engine | 11 ppmvd @ 15% O2 (or 0.15 g/bhp-hr) in conjunction with an effective and efficient biogas treatment systemAlternate Limit for dairy digester gas-fired rich-burn engines: 9 ppmvd @ 15% O2 (or 0.15 g/bhp-hr) | 250 ppmvd @ 15% O2 | 20 ppmvd @ 15% O2 | Emission limit corresponding to use of a fuel gas pretreatment system for sulfur removal along with maximum fuel sulfur content limit | 0.1 g/bhp-hr |
| Biogas-fired turbine, <3 MW | 9 ppmvd @ 15% O2 | 60 ppmvd @ 15% O2 | 3.5 ppmvd @ 15% O2[[100]](#footnote-100) | Landfill gas: Emission limit corresponding to use of landfill gas with sulfur content of no more than 150 ppmv as H2SDigester gas: Emission limit corresponding to use of digester gas with sulfur content of no more than 40 ppmv as H2S | Emission limit corresponding to use of a fuel gas pretreatment system for particulate removal |
| Biogas-fired turbine, ≥3 MW | 5 ppmvd @ 15% O2 |
| Biomass syngas-fueled[[101]](#footnote-101) reciprocating internal combustion engine | 5 ppmvd @ 15% O2 | N/A | 25 ppmvd @ 15% O2 | N/A | N/A |
| Diesel-fueled emergency engine generator | Engine meeting emission standards of ARB’s Airborne Toxic Control Measure for Stationary Compression Ignition Engines for applicable horsepower range[[102]](#footnote-102) | Engine meeting emission standards of ARB’s Airborne Toxic Control Measure for Stationary Compression Ignition Engines for applicable horsepower range | Engine meeting emission standards of ARB’s Airborne Toxic Control Measure for Stationary Compression Ignition Engines for applicable horsepower range | Emission limit corresponding to use of CARB, or very low sulfur, diesel fuel (15 ppm sulfur by weight) | Engine meeting emission standards of ARB’s Airborne Toxic Control Measure for Stationary Compression Ignition Engines for applicable horsepower range |

| **Table 3. Most Stringent Emission Limits Identified for Process Equipment at Biorefineries – Miscellaneous Sources** |
| --- |
| Class/Category of Source | NOx | CO | VOC | SOx | PM10 |
| Grain receiving, conveying, and grinding operations |  |  |  |  | Emission limit corresponding to use of a baghouse with 99% control, or equivalent |
| Wet cooling tower |  |  |  |  | Emission limit corresponding to use of a drift eliminator with 0.0005% drift loss |
| Compressed gas dispensing operations | No emissions – use of closed loop system with all vent and excess process gas directed to an on site treatment system, used in vehicles, or directed to another combustion or processing facility that can process the biogas and which has been issued a valid air permit |
| Biogas-fueled fuel cell[[103]](#footnote-103) | 0.5 lb/MWhAlternate Limit: 0.07 lb/MWh | 6.0 lb/MWhAlternate Limit: 0.10 lb/MWh | 1.0 lb/MWhAlternate Limit: 0.02 lb/MWh | N/A | N/A |
| Composting |  |  | Emission limit corresponding to use of a VOC control system (enclosure with biofilter or equivalent) capable of 80% or better control efficiencyAmmonia: Emission limit corresponding to use of an NH3 control system capable of 80% or better control efficiency |  | Emission limit corresponding to use of a PM10 control system capable of 99% or better control efficiency |

1. Panel members listed alphabetically. [↑](#footnote-ref-1)
2. <http://www.arb.ca.gov/fuels/lcfs/workgroups/advisorypanel/advisorypanel.htm>. [↑](#footnote-ref-2)
3. <http://www.arb.ca.gov/fuels/lcfs/workgroups/advisorypanel/20110616_workplan_v2.pdf> [↑](#footnote-ref-3)
4. The draft guidance is expected to be finalized in late 2011 and is available at <http://www.arb.ca.gov/fuels/lcfs/bioguidance/docudrafty.pdf>. [↑](#footnote-ref-4)
5. <http://www.energy.ca.gov/2011publications/CEC-600-2011-007/CEC-600-2011-007-SD.pdf>. [↑](#footnote-ref-5)
6. [http://www.eia.gov/forecasts/aeo/pdf/0383(2011).pdf](http://www.eia.gov/forecasts/aeo/pdf/0383%282011%29.pdf). [↑](#footnote-ref-6)
7. Cheng, David, “Calif**o**rnia in Perspective- A Review of State Energy Policies and Their Impact on High Growth Cleantech Markets.” Cleantech Group, 2010. [↑](#footnote-ref-7)
8. See “Meeting the Targets and Assessment of Whether Adjustments Are Needed” chapter of this report. [↑](#footnote-ref-8)
9. One example suggested by panelist Bob Epstein (E2) and others, citing a recent example in the state of Hawaii, would involve the State of California receiving LCFS credits through a contract to supply the State’s vehicular fleet with lower-CI fuels. A potential use of such credits would be for strategic easing of credit market fluctuations at pre-determined credit prices. [↑](#footnote-ref-9)
10. <http://www.arb.ca.gov/fuels/lcfs/workgroups/advisorypanel/082310advisory_panel_invitation.pdf>. [↑](#footnote-ref-10)
11. <http://www.arb.ca.gov/fuels/lcfs/workgroups/advisorypanel/advisorypanel.htm>. [↑](#footnote-ref-11)
12. Panelists are listed in <http://www.arb.ca.gov/fuels/lcfs/workgroups/advisorypanel/membersv.4.pdf>. [↑](#footnote-ref-12)
13. See <http://www.arb.ca.gov/fuels/lcfs/workgroups/workgroups.htm>. [↑](#footnote-ref-13)
14. See “A Handy Guide to The Bagley-Keene Open Meeting Act 2004,” which is available at <http://www.arb.ca.gov/fuels/lcfs/workgroups/ewg/hg_ca_open_meetings_act.pdf>. [↑](#footnote-ref-14)
15. The eleven states are Connecticut, Delaware, New Hampshire, New Jersey, New York, Maine, Maryland, Massachusetts, Pennsylvania, Rhode Island, and Vermont. [↑](#footnote-ref-15)
16. The economic analysis report and other materials related to the evaluation of a Clean Fuels Standard can be found on the NESCAUM website: <http://www.nescaum.org/topics/clean-fuels-standard/> [↑](#footnote-ref-16)
17. The GREET was originally developed by Argonne National Laboratories and later modified for the development of California-specific fuel pathways by TIAX Associates and Life Cycle Associates. The GTAP was developed by Thomas Hertel and others at Purdue University. [↑](#footnote-ref-17)
18. Air Resources Board, March 2009, Proposed Regulation to Implement the Low Carbon Fuel Standard, Volume 2, Appendices. [↑](#footnote-ref-18)
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20. Air Resources Board, March 2009, Proposed Regulation to Implement the Low Carbon Fuel Standard, Volumes 1 and 2. [↑](#footnote-ref-20)
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22. Tyner, W., September 2011: *Calculation of Indirect Land Use Change (ILUC) Values for Low Carbon Fuel Standard (LCFS) Fuel Pathways*, Interim Report posted online at <http://www.arb.ca.gov/fuels/lcfs/09142011_iluc_wtreport.pdf> . [↑](#footnote-ref-22)
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86. ARB staff recently issued a biodiesel regulatory guidance explaining ARB’s plans for proposing motor vehicle fuel specifications for B20 and above in a late-2012 rulemaking and plans to conduct further research involving B5 over a five-year timeframe. See <http://www.arb.ca.gov/fuels/diesel/altdiesel/20111003BiodieselGuidance.pdf>. This guidance is intended to provide certainty to the biodiesel and diesel industry with regard to ARB’s rulemaking plans and thereby accelerate the introduction of NOx-mitigated B20 into the diesel fuel pool. [↑](#footnote-ref-86)
87. Regulated parties appear to be banking these credits in the absence of explicit provisions governing credit trading; staff is proposing explicit credit trading provisions in the upcoming December 2011 rulemaking to provide the “ground rules” for credit trading and other refinements to the LCFS regulation. See <http://www.arb.ca.gov/fuels/lcfs/regamend/regamend.htm>. [↑](#footnote-ref-87)
88. One example suggested by panelist Bob Epstein (E2) and others, citing a recent example in the state of Hawaii, would involve the State of California receiving LCFS credits through a contract to supply the State’s vehicular fleet with lower-CI fuels. A potential use of such credits would be for strategic easing of credit market fluctuations at pre-determined credit prices. [↑](#footnote-ref-88)
89. The CEQA lead agency is the public agency that has the principal responsibility for carrying out or approving a project and is responsible for determining whether the project will have a significant effect on the environment. The lead agency is normally the agency with general governmental powers, such as a city or county, rather than an agency with a single or limited purpose such as an air district. [↑](#footnote-ref-89)
90. An agency with discretionary permitting authority, besides the lead agency, is the responsible agency. [↑](#footnote-ref-90)
91. Regulatory agencies with no permitting authority for a biorefinery project may still act as interested agencies and may participate in the evaluation of the environmental impacts of a project through the normal public review period built into the CEQA process. [↑](#footnote-ref-91)
92. The purpose of the EIR is to assess any significant effect on the environmental by the project and to evaluate potential mitigation measures. [↑](#footnote-ref-92)
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95. California Reformulated Gasoline [↑](#footnote-ref-95)
96. Ultra Low Sulfur Diesel [↑](#footnote-ref-96)
97. A baseline crude source is a location which contributed two percent or more of the total crude oil refined in CA in the year 2006. These locations are California, Alaska, Saudi Arabia, Ecuador, Iraq, Brazil, Mexico, and Angola. [↑](#footnote-ref-97)
98. The staff’s upcoming proposed amendments would allow, but not require, the development of unique credit identifiers; if such unique identifiers are implemented, the proposed amendments would require credit buyers and sellers to record the identifiers in the credit transfer form covering the credits that are to be traded. [↑](#footnote-ref-98)
99. This CO limit may be required for boilers rated at <250 MMBtu/hr if an oxidation catalyst is found to be cost effective, is necessary to meet toxic best available control technology, or for VOC emission control. [↑](#footnote-ref-99)
100. Due to limited data set available for this Report on achievable VOC emission levels for landfill and digester gas-fired turbines, ARB staff recommends that regulatory agencies consult with the manufacturers on guaranteed emission levels, as well as, evaluate additional source tests to determine the appropriate VOC limit for a turbine. [↑](#footnote-ref-100)
101. BACT guideline that is the basis of these emission limits defines syngas, or synthetic gas, to be “derived from biomass (agricultural waste) by gasification or similar processes. Syngas is distinguished from waste gases by its low methane content (<5%) and comparatively high hydrogen gas content (15% or greater), although frequently over half of the syngas composition is non-combustible gases such as nitrogen and carbon dioxide.” [↑](#footnote-ref-101)
102. Refer to ARB regulations and/or Appendix D Table D-29 of the guidance for the applicable emission standard. [↑](#footnote-ref-102)
103. Emission limits are the 2008 standards for waste gas required by the ARB’s Distribution Generation (DG) Certification Regulation. Alternate limits represent the 2013 standards for waste gas required by the DG Certification Regulation. [↑](#footnote-ref-103)