

Most Up-to-Date Methodologic Approaches: Evidence from the Wavelet Coherence Approach

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INTRODUCTION

The expected outcome of the 21st conference of parties (COP21) and 11th session of the parties to the Kyoto protocol (CMP11) held in Paris in December 2015 is a new international agreement on climate change targeting to keep the increase in global average temperatures below 2°C. Boden, Andres, and Marland (2017) report that the United States and China account for 15% and 30% global share of greenhouse gas emission (GHG), respectively. Besides, China, as the largest developing country, is responsible for 80% increase in worldwide CO₂ emissions backed with high economic growth rates since 2008 (Liu et al., 2013). This abrupt increase in Chinese GHG emissions, at the same time with a gradual emission reduction performance of the United States, proposes the relation between a country's economic growth and environmental position. The environmental Kuznets curve (EKC) hypothesis fundamentally and very basically stands for: While income per capita increases in a country, the environmental damage first rises and then diminishes (Stern, 2004). Panayotou (1993) first defines it as a Kuznets curve because it is similar to the seminal work of Kuznets (1955) explaining the relation between economic growth and inequality. The EKC relation considers an inverted U-shaped curve, which examines a mixed relationship between the environmental degradation and income.

An inverted U-shaped EKC hypothesis can be more generally defined as during a country's low-income level state, where the economy develops, first the environmental pollution increases and then starts to slow down till some income level threshold. After reaching this certain (threshold) income level, this turns out to be an environmental improvement (Grossman &

Krueger, 1995; Solarin, Al-Mulali, & Ozturk, 2017; Stern, 2004). The EKC hypothesis indicates an environmental evolutionary progress through a country's economic development that in early stages an economy performs more an energy and natural resource intensive growth where it emits more pollution, thus environmental quality diminishes. The increase in economic activity shifts the previous phase of production to industrial production, in which both technical progress and information technologies become important. At the last stage of economy, technical improvement triggers the new energy-efficient technologies and cleaner energy investments, which later overwhelm the negative effect of economic growth backed environmental degradation (Bo, 2011; Kaika & Zervas, 2013). As a result, environmental pollution growth would be gradually decreasing and later environmental quality would improve (Panayotou, 1993). These just defined three determining effects of the relationship between economic growth and environmental degradation: scale, structural, and technological effects (Bilgili, Koçak, & Bulut, 2016; Bilgili, Öztürk et al., 2016).

The aim of this chapter is to introduce the wavelet methodology, as a state of art method of causality testing, with an applied application. This wavelet-based application will be examining (1) (wavelet coherence) the interrelation between the cycles of income and CO₂ emission data series and (2) (partial wavelet coherence) reconsidering this relation by factoring out some other explanatory variables. Besides, (3) phase difference observations will be able to reveal a lead-lag analysis between these series. After presenting a brief review of the EKC hypothesis testing in Section 2, Section 3 covers the wavelet methodology and empirical data. Section 4 provides an empirical instance of

wavelet coherency and phase analysis with its results, and lastly Section 5 concludes.

LITERATURE REVIEW

In the early stages of EKC research literature, the validation test of an inverted U-shaped function of income per capita for different polluters has been examined by environmental economists including those of Panayotou (1993), Selden and Song (1994), Shafik (1994), Grossman and Krueger (1995), and Stern, Common, and Barbier (1996), and they all confirm an inverted U-shaped function for different pollution indicators. However, Stern et al. (1996) argue that first of all, due to the simultaneity (the choice of instrumental variables problem) and probable low data quality, the reduced form estimation of EKC parameters would not be econometrically strong enough for a future policy suggestion, and secondly, the EKC literature is mainly observed that it is valid for some specific pollution indicators rather than overall environmental degradation or quality. For instance, while one may expect an upward trend in sulfur dioxide (SO₂) emission, a flat deforestation rate in a specific time-interval is seen (Shafik, 1994). Selden and Song (1994) observed an exhibited EKC for air pollutants in the very long run; however, this may conclude very tricky policy implications, in favor of economic growth, if this very long run is beyond an irreversible environmental deterioration threshold (Panayotou, 1993).

Despite the fact that the EKC relationships are investigated for specific type of environmental damage indicators, such as deforestation, clean water, or ecologic footprint, and pollutants, such as SO₂, nitrous oxides (NO₂), and carbon dioxide (CO₂), Dinda (2004) reviews that inverted U-shaped curve of economic growth prevails mostly with respect to residential air pollutants, for example, carbon monoxide (CO) or solid particulate matter (SPM). Nahman and Antrobus (2005) and Acaravci and Akalin (2017, p. 10) provide brief review surveys of recent EKC studies that use different pollutants. Besides, Shahbaz and Sinha (2016) provide a detailed literature survey on EKC hypothesis testing, which set CO₂ emission as an independent variable. Shahbaz, Dube, Ozturk, and Jalil (2015), Shahbaz, Solarin, Sbia, and Bibi (2015) and Shahbaz and Sinha (2016) review that from the findings of both single- and multicountry data, there is no common convincing conclusion, which either validates or rejects the EKC relation for CO₂ emissions. On the other hand, Al-mulali, Weng-Wai, Sheau-Ting, and Mohammed (2015) investigate the existence of EKC hypothesis in

93 countries from various income levels by testing EKC hypothesis for ecologic footprint rather than air pollutants or CO₂ because carbon emissions are only responsible just for the half of total environmental degradation. This work has found out that there is an existing inverted U-shaped relationship except lower-middle income and low-income countries.

Shahbaz and Sinha (2016) state that although there are a vast number of studies for testing the validation of EKC hypothesis, most of these researches perform common model specifications. In addition to the specification of a model with respect to different environmental pollution indicators, we may also group the studies on the EKC validation regarding to (1) the estimation methodology used and depending on, (2) how income enters, and (3) which extra explanatory variables are inserted into estimation equation. The data methodology of EKC hypothesis can be primarily grouped into time series analysis and panel data analysis. Time series analysis typically stands for a single-country investigation of the EKC, whereas panel data analysis enables to simplify the result of EKC hypothesis for a group of countries. Each group of data reveals different results describing the association between environmental indicators and economic growth. The estimation methodology has a long variety; for example: ordinary least squares (OLS), autoregressive distributed lag (ARDL), dynamic OLS (DOLS), generalized method of moments (GMM), panel least squares (PLS), vector error correction method (VECM), etc. A recent summary of EKC validation literature using cointegration and causality tests is given in Table 10.1. The EKC hypothesis investigations of single- (time series) and multicountry (panel data) cases are presented in section (A) and (B), respectively. In addition to as usual methods, a summary of literature that uses methods for testing EKC hypothesis with parameter estimations other than causality and cointegration methods is presented in Table 10.2.

Income per capita, or sometimes rate of income growth (Coondoo & Dinda, 2002), can be included into EKC estimation equation with itself (linear), its second power (quadratic), and/or third power (cubic) forms. Depending on the estimated values of the parameters defining income, the EKC relation between environmental pollution indicators and income would be concluded. For instance, in any EKC testing equation, if all of the parameter estimates are not significantly different from zero, then there will be no relation between environmental degradation and economic growth. Moreover, there occurs an inverted U-shaped curve that confirms the EKC hypothesis, if the level and the second power of income have

TABLE 10.1
Environmental Kuznets Curve (EKC) Studies.

Author	Country	Data	Variable	Method	Result	EKC
SECTION A: SINGLE-COUNTRY CASE (TIME SERIES)^a						
Jalil and Feridun (2011)	China	1953–2006	FD, EG, EC, CE, RLL	ARDL	(EC, GDP, TO) \Rightarrow CE	Valid
Nasir and Rehman (2011)	Pakistan	1972–2008	CE, GDP, TRD	Johansen cointegration	EG \Rightarrow EC.	Valid
Xu (2011)	China	1990–2009	CE, GDP, INV, FIXC, M1	ARDL, Granger causality	(INV, GDP, FIXC) \Rightarrow CE	Valid
Ahmed and Long (2012)	Pakistan	1971–2008	CE, EG, EC, TRL, POP	ARDL	(POP(-), TRL(+)) \Rightarrow CE	Valid
Esteve and Tamarit (2012)	Spain	1857–2007	CE, GDP	Threshold cointegration and nonlinear adjustment	Nonlinear causality exists	Valid
Hamit-Haggar (2012)	Canada	1990–2007	EC, CE, EG	Granger causality	Short-run: CE \Rightarrow EC; EG \Rightarrow EC Long-run: EC \Rightarrow EG.	Valid
Saboori, Sulaiman, and Mohd (2012)	Malaysia	1980–2009	GDP, CE, EG	ARDL, VECM	Long-run EG \Rightarrow CE	Valid
Shahbaz, Lean, and Shabbir (2012)	Pakistan	1971–2009	EC, CE, EG, and TO	ARDL	EG \Rightarrow CE	Valid
Abdallah, Belloumi, and Wolf (2013)	Tunisia	1980–2010	TVA, EC, CE	Johansen cointegration	TVA \Rightarrow CE	Not valid
Saboori and Sulaiman (2013b)	Malaysia	1980–2009	ECD, EC, EG, CE	ARDL	EKC is valid for ECD but not for EC	Not observed
Shahbaz, Ozturk, Afza, and Ali (2013)	Turkey	1970–2010	EI, EG	VECM, Granger causality	EG//CE	Valid
Tiwari, Shahbaz, and Hye (2013)	India	1966–2011	EG, CE, TO	ARDL, Granger causality	(TO, EG) \Leftrightarrow CE	Valid
Katircioğlu (2014)	Singapore	1971–2010	TOD, CE	Granger causality	TOD(-) \Rightarrow CE.	Valid
Loganathan, Shahbaz, and Taha (2014)	Malaysia	1974–2010	CTAX, EG, EDEG	Granger causality	CTAX, EG, EDEG are cointegrated	Valid
Onafowora and Owoye (2014)	Selected countries	1970–2010	EG, EC, POP, TO, CE	ARDL, Granger causality	mixed results GDP \sim CE	Not observed
Shahbaz, Khraief, Uddin, and Ozturk (2014)	Bangladesh	1975–2010	ELC, CE, TO, IND	ARDL, IAA	ELC \Rightarrow CE, IND; FD \Rightarrow TO; TO \Rightarrow IND	Valid
Shahbaz, Uddin, Rehman, and Imran (2014)	Tunisia	1971–2010	EG, EC, TO, CE	ARDL, IAA, VECM	EG \Rightarrow CE; TO \Rightarrow EC	Valid

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TABLE 10.1
Environmental Kuznets Curve (EKC) Studies.—cont'd

Author	Country	Data	Variable	Method	Result	EKC
Tan, Lean, and Khan (2014)	Singapore	1975–2011	CE, EC, GDP	Granger causality	CE(-) ⇒ EG	Valid
Abid (2015)	Tunisia	1980–2009	EG, CE, GDP	Cointegrated VECM, Granger causality	EG ⇒ CE; GDP ⇔ EC	Not valid
Ahmed, Shahbaz, Qasim, and Long (2015)	Pakistan	1980–2013	EDEG, EG, EC, TO, POP	ARDL, VECM	(EG, TO) ⇒ EC; EG ⇔ EC	Valid
Ajmi, Hammoudeh, Nguyen, and Sato (2015)	G7 countries	1960–2010	CE, EC, GDP	Time-varying Granger causality	EKC is not supported	Not valid
Tang and Tan (2015)	Vietnam	1976–2009	CE, EC, FDI, EG	Cointegration, Granger causality	CE ⇔ GDP; EC ⇒ (CE, EC, FDI, GDP)	Valid
Ahmad et al. (2016)	India	1971–2014	EC, CE, EG	ARDL, VECM	EG ⇔ CE; EC(+)- ⇒ CE Valid	
Bento and Moutinho (2016)	Italy	1960–2011	CE, GDP, NREP, REP, TRD	ARDL, Granger causality	TRD ⇒ (CE, NREP); GDP ⇒ NREP; NREP ⇒ REP	Valid
Ertugrul, Cetin, Seker, and Dogan (2016)	Selected developing countries	1971–2011	GDP, EC, TO, CE	ARDL with structural break, VECM, Granger causality	EKC is not valid for all selected countries	Not observed
Shahbaz, Solarin, and Ozturk (2016)	19 African countries	1971–2012	GDP, EI, GLB	ARDL	EKC is not valid for all countries	Not observed
Ahmad et al. (2017)	Croatia	1992–2011	GDP, CE	ARDL, VECM	In the short-run, EG ⇒ CE; in the long run EG ⇔ CE	Valid
Ali, Abdullah, and Azam (2017)	Malaysia	1971–2012	EC, CE, EG, FD, TO	ARDL, Granger causality	EC ⇔ CE; (EC, EG, FD) ⇒ CE	Valid
Charfeddine (2017)	Qatari	1970–2015	EG, EC, TO, UR, FD, EDEG, ECF	Cointegration with Markov switching model	EKC is valid only for CE	Not observed
Danish, Zhang, Wang, and Wang (2017)	Pakistan	1970–2012	REC, NREC, CE	ARDL, causality testing	CE ⇔ REC; CE ⇔ NREC	Valid
Kharbach and Chfadi (2017)	Morocco	2000–11	GDP, CE, POP, EG	Cointegration	EG(-) ⇒ CE	Valid

Shahbaz, Solarin, Hammoudeh, and Shahzad (2017)	USA	1960–2016	GDP, EX, IM, TO, BEC, CE	ARDL, VECM	Inverted U- and N-shaped EKC for EG and CE	Valid
Shahzad, Kumar, Zakaria, and Hurr (2017)	Pakistan	1971–2011	EC, TO, FD, CE	ARDL, Granger causality	EC \Leftrightarrow FD	Valid
Solarin et al. (2017)	China and India	1965–2013	CE, HEC, UR, GDP	ARDL, Granger causality	GDP \Leftrightarrow CE; HEC \Leftrightarrow CE	Valid
Bello, Solarin, and Yen (2018)	Malaysia	1971–2016	HEC, FFC, EDEG, GDP, UR	ARDL, VECM	GDP \Leftrightarrow EDEG	Valid
Zambrano-Monserrate, Silva-Zambrano, Davalos-Penafiel, Zambrano-Monserrate, and Ruano (2018)	Peru	1980–2011	GDP, CE, RELC, NGC PC	ARDL, VECM	(GDP, RELC, NGC, PC) \Rightarrow CE	Not valid
SECTION B: MULTICOUNTRY CASE (PANEL DATA)^a						
Pao and Tsai (2011)	BRICS countries	1980–2007	CE, EC, FDI, GDP, EG, FD	Panel cointegration	EC \Rightarrow CE; GDP \Leftrightarrow CE; GDP \Leftrightarrow EC;	Valid
Zilio and Recalde (2011)	Latin America and the Caribbean	1970–2007	EC, GDP	Cointegration approach	//	Not valid
Arouri, Youssef, Mhenni, and Rault (2012)	12 MENA countries	1981–2005	CE, EC, GDP	Panel cointegration	//	Not observed
Ozcan (2013)	12 Middle East countries	1990–2008	CE, GDP, EG, EC	Panel causality	Mixed results GDP \sim CE	Not observed
Saboori and Sulaiman (2013a)	ASEAN countries	1971–2009	CE, EC, GDP	ARDL, VECM	CE \Leftrightarrow CE	Valid
Farhani and Shahbaz (2014)	MENA region	1980–2009	RELC, NRELC, CE, GDP	Granger causality	(RELC, NRELC, GDP) \Rightarrow CE; EC \Leftrightarrow CE	Valid
Baek (2015)	12 major nuclear-generating countries	1980–2009	NE, EC, GDP, CE	Cointegration	NE(-) \Rightarrow CE	Valid
Omri, Daly, Rault, and Chaibi (2015)	MENA region	1990–2011	FD, CE, TRD, EG, TO	Simultaneous-equation panel	TO \Leftrightarrow FD; CE//FD; FD \Rightarrow EG; TO \Rightarrow CE	Valid

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TABLE 10.1
Environmental Kuznets Curve (EKC) Studies.—cont'd

Author	Country	Data	Variable	Method	Result	EKC
Shahbaz, Dube et al. (2015), Shahbaz, Solarin et al. (2015)	Sub-Saharan African countries	1980–2012	EG, CE, EI, GDP	VECM, Granger causality	$EI \Rightarrow (EG, CE)$; $EG \Rightarrow CE$	Valid
Al-Mulali and Ozturk (2016)	27 advanced economies	1990–2012	CE, GDP, REC, NREC, TO, UR, ENP	Panel Kao and Fisher cointegration, panel VECM, Granger causality	$GDP, EC, UR \Rightarrow CE$; $(REC, TO, ENP) (-) \Rightarrow CE$.	Valid
Al-Mulali, Ozturk, and Solarin (2016)	7 selected regions	1980–2010	CE, GDP, UR, TO, FD	Pedroni and Fisher type cointegration, Granger causality	EKC is restrictively valid	Valid
Apergis (2016)	15 countries	1960–2013	CE, GDP	Time varying panel cointegration	EKC is valid for only 12 countries	Valid
Dogan and Seker (2016)	Top renewable energy countries	1985–2011	GDP, REC, NREC, TO, FD, CE	Heterogeneous panel with cross-section dependence, cointegration	$REC(-) \Rightarrow CE$; (NREC, $GDP, FD) (+) \Rightarrow CE$	Valid
Jebli, Youssef, and Ozturk (2016)	OECD countries	1980–2010	CE, GDP, REC, NREC, IM, EX	Panel Granger causality	$REC \Leftrightarrow IM$; $REC \Leftrightarrow NREC$; $NREC \Leftrightarrow TRD$; $EX \Rightarrow REC$; $TRD \Rightarrow CE$; $GDP \Rightarrow REC$.	Valid
Moutinho and Robaina (2016)	European countries	1991–2010	REP, CE, GDP	Cointegration and causality	EKC is mainly determined by REP between 2001 and 2010	Valid
Youssef, Hammoudeh, and Omri (2016)	Countries within income levels	1990–2012	EDEG, GDP, EG, EC, FD	Simultaneous two- equation models and causality	$EG \Leftrightarrow EDEG$	Valid
Ahmed (2017)	BRICS countries	1991–2013	EC, TO, EG, FD	Panel cointegration and causality	EKC is valid between (EC,FD); (EC,TO)	Valid
Ahmed, Rehman, and Ozturk (2017)	Selected South Asian countries	1971–2013	CE, EC, GDP, TO, POP	Panel cointegration	$EC, TO, POP \Rightarrow CE$; $EC \Leftrightarrow TO$	Valid

Charfeddine and Mrabet (2017)	19 MENA countries	1975–2007	ECF, EDEG, GDP	Granger causality, VECM	ECF \Leftrightarrow GDP	Valid
Dong, Sun, and Hochman (2017)	BRICS countries	1985–2016	CE, GDP, NGC, REC	Cointegration, AMG	CE \Leftrightarrow (NGC, REC)	Valid
Zhang et al. (2017)	China	1990–2014	EG, WPD	Granger causality, cointegration	EG \Leftrightarrow WPD	Valid
Zoundi (2017)	25 selected African countries	1980–2012	CE, GDP, RELC, POP, EC	ARDL, causality	GDP(+) \Rightarrow CE; in the long-run RELC(-) \Rightarrow CE	Not valid
Boutabba, Diaw, and Lessoua (2018)	17 sub-Saharan African countries	1995–2013	IGT, CE, GDP, CE	Panel cointegration, causality	In the long-run (GDP, IGT) \Leftrightarrow CE; in the short-run IGT \Rightarrow CE	Valid
Le and Quah (2018)	14 countries selected from Asia and Pacific	1984–2012	CE, EC, EG	Cointegration, Granger causality	EKC is valid only for developed countries	Not observed
Saleem, Jiandong, Zaman, Elashkar, and Shoukry (2018)	Next 11 countries	1975–2015	ED, POP, EDEG, GDP, EG	Cointegration	EDEG \Leftrightarrow GDP; ED \Rightarrow EG	Valid
Ulucak and Bilgili (2018)	Countries within income levels	1961–2013	GDP, ECP	Cointegration	Cointegrated relation between GDP and EFP	Valid

^a See Notes (1, 2, 3) given in [Appendix](#).

TABLE 10.2
A Summary of Environmental Kuznets Curve (EKC) Validation Literature (With Methods Other Than Causality Methods).^a

Author(s)	Country	Period	Variables	Methodology	Conclusion
Grossman and Krueger (1991)	NAFTA	1972–88	Economic growth and air quality	Panel data	N-shaped EKC (for SO ₂ , and SPM dark matter)
Shafik and Bandyopadhyay (1992)	149 countries	1960–90	Economic growth and environmental quality	Panel data	Positive relation
Panayotou (1993)	30 developed and developing countries	1982–94	Economic development and environmental degradation	Cross-section data	Inverted U-shaped EKC
Grossman and Krueger (1995)	42 countries	1977–88	Income and environmental indicators	Regression	N-shaped EKC (for relationship with arsenic and income)
Holtz-Eakin and Selden (1995)	130 countries	1951–86	Economic growth and CO ₂	Panel data	Positive relation
Roberts and Grimes (1997)	47 countries	1962–91	The economic development and CO ₂	OLS	Inverted U-shaped EKC (for high income countries)
De Bruyn, Bergh, and Opschoor (1998)	Netherlands, UK, US, and Western Germany	1961–93	Economic growth and emissions	Panel data	Inverted U-shaped EKC
Kaufman et al. (1998)	23 countries	1974–89	Income and SO ₂	Panel data, pooled OLS	Inverted U-shaped EKC
Suri and Chapman (1998)	33 countries	1971–91	Economic growth, trade, and pollutants	FGLS	Inverted U-shaped EKC
Torras and Boyce (1998)	19–42 countries	1977–91	Income, inequality, and pollution	Regression	Inverted U-shaped EKC
Galeotti and Lanza (1999)	110 countries	1971–96	GDP per capita and CO ₂	Panel data	Inverted U-shaped EKC
Koop and Tole (1999)	76 developing countries	1961–92	GDP per capita and deforestation	Regression	Nonsignificant relationship
List and Gallet (1999)	48 US states	1929–94	Income and emission	Panel data	Inverted U-shaped EKC
Dinda, Coondoo, and Pal (2000)	33 countries	1979–82, 1983–86, 1987–90	Economic growth and air quality	OLS and LAE regressions	U-shaped EKC
Hettige, Mani, and Wheeler (2000)	13 countries	1975–94	Economic development and industrial pollution	OLS	Inverted U-shaped EKC (without water pollutant)
Panayotou, Peterson, and Sachs (2000)	17 OECD countries	1870–1994	Income and CO ₂	FGLS panel data	Inverted U-shaped EKC
Dijkgraaf and Vollebergh (2001)	24 OECD countries	1960–97	GDP per capita and pollution	Panel data	Inverted U-shaped EKC

Seppala, Haukioja, and Kaivo-oja (2001)	Germany, Japan, US, Netherlands, Finland	1975–94	Economic growth and direct material flows	Regression	Nonsignificant relationship
Stern and Common (2001)	73 countries	1960–90	GDP per capita and SO ₂	OLS, GLS	Inverted U-shaped EKC
Harbaugh, Levinson, and Wilson (2002)	45 countries	1971–92	National income and pollution	Regression	Inverted U-shaped EKC
Lindmark (2002)	Sweden	1870–1997	Economic growth, technology, oil price, and CO ₂	Structural time series	Inverted U-shaped EKC
Halkos (2003)	73 OECD and non-OECD countries	1960–90	Economic growth and SO ₂	GMM	Inverted U-shaped EKC
Bhattarai and Hammig (2004)	20 Latin American, 12 Asian, and 23 African countries	1980–95	National income and deforestation	Panel data	Inverted U-shaped EKC
Cole (2004)	18 OECD countries	1980–97	GDP and air pollutant, trade	Regression	Inverted U-shaped EKC
Martínez-Zarzoso and Bengochea-Morancho (2004)	22 OECD countries	1975–98	Income and CO ₂	Panel data	N-shaped EKC
Shi (2004)	50 countries	1951–99	GNI and CO ₂	Panel	Inverted U-shaped EKC
Aldy (2005)	US states	1960–99	Income and CO ₂	OLS and FGLS	Inverted U-shaped EKC
Bertinelli and Strobl (2005)	122 countries	1950–90	GDP per capita, CO ₂ , and SO ₂	Semiparametric kernel regression	U-shaped EKC
Galeotti and Lanza (2005)	108 countries	1971–95	GDP per capita and CO ₂ per capita	Linear and log-linear model	N-shaped EKC
Azomahou, Laisney, and Van (2006)	100 countries	1960–96	GDP per capita and CO ₂	Panel (nonparametric)	Positive relation
Culas (2007)	14 tropical developing countries from Latin America, Africa, and Asia	1972–74	Income and deforestation	Pooled regression	Inverted U-shaped EKC (only Latin America)
Kunnas and Myllyntaus (2007)	Finland	1800–2003	Economic growth and air pollution	Regression	Positive relation
Managi and Jena (2008)	India	1991–2003	Income and environmental productivity	Panel	Negative income effect
Akbostancı, Türüt-Aşık, and Tunç (2009)	Turkey	1992–2001	Income and environmental degradation	Panel	N-shaped EKC
Aslanidis and Iranzo (2009)	77 non-OECD countries	1971–97	Income and environmental degradation	Regression	Positive relation (for low-income countries)

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TABLE 10.2
A Summary of Environmental Kuznets Curve (EKC) Validation Literature (With Methods Other Than Causality Methods).^a—cont'd

Author(s)	Country	Period	Variables	Methodology	Conclusion
Lee, Chiu, and Sun (2009)	89 countries	1960–2000	Income and environmental quality	GMM	N-shaped EKC (for whole) Inverted U-shaped EKC (for middle income, American European countries)
He and Richard (2010)	Canada	1948–2004	GDP per capita and CO ₂ per capita	Semiparametric and flexible nonlinear parametric model	Positive relation
Bo, Suying, Junbiao, and Haishan (2011)	China	2000–08	Agricultural output per capita and carbon intensity of agricultural land	Regression	Inverted U-shaped EKC
Gao (2011)	Hennan providence (China)	1994–2009	GDP per capita and pollution emissions	Regression	Inverted U-shaped EKC (only the industrial waste water emission)
Iwata, Okada, and Samreth (2011)	28 countries	1960–2003	GDP per capita, CO ₂ , and nuclear	Pooled mean group	Positive relation
Borhan and Ahmed (2012)	Malaysia	1996–2006	GDP per capita and water pollution	Simultaneous equations	EKC valid
Borhan, Ahmed, and Hitam (2012)	ASEAN-8	1965–2010	GDP per capita and CO ₂	Simultaneous equations	EKC valid
Hitam and Borhan (2012)	Malaysia	1965–2010	GDP growth, FDI, and the environmental degradation	Regression	EKC valid
Apergis and Ozturk (2015)	14 Asian countries	1990–2011	GDP per capita and CO ₂	GMM	Inverted U-shaped EKC
Sahli and Rejeb (2015)	21 MENA countries	1996–2013	GDP per capita and CO ₂	Dynamic panel data	EKC valid
Ersin (2016)	13 developed countries	1870–2011	GDP per capita and CO ₂	Dynamic panel-STAR	EKC valid
Ozokcu and Özdemir (2017)	26 OECD countries	1980–2010	Economic growth, energy, and environmental degradation	Panel data	N-shaped EKC and inverted- N-shaped EKC
Adu and Denkyirah (2018)	7 West African countries	1970–2013	Economic growth and environmental pollution	Panel data	Nonsignificant relationship

^a See Notes (4) presented in [Appendix](#).

significantly positive and negative parameter estimates, respectively. Empirical applications, which analyze the confirmation of EKC hypothesis in China, reveal consistent results with the inclusion of quadratic and cubic form of income. The EKC research papers, which use the quadratic form of income in estimation equation, mostly support an inverted U-shaped function of income particularly for the post-1970 period CO₂ emissions of China, including those of [Jalil and Mahmud \(2009\)](#), [Pao and Tsai \(2011\)](#), [Jalil and Feridun \(2011\)](#), [Jayanthakumaran, Verma, and Liu \(2012\)](#), [Onafowora and Owoye \(2014\)](#), [Ertugrul et al. \(2016\)](#), and [Jin, Duan, Shi, and Ju \(2017\)](#).

Finally, the EKC estimation equations usually consist of other explanatory variables other than income per capita. These most frequently included independent variables such as trade openness, energy consumption, renewable energy consumption and/or fossil fuel consumption, urbanization, and sectoral shares in national income. [Suri and Chapman \(1998\)](#) notify that the EKC relation exposes by the trade flow of manufacturing goods from industrialized to developing countries and vice versa. Energy consumption especially based on fossil fuel is mainly characterized with the primary driver of growth, besides it is argued for environmental degradation. On the contrary, the recovery in environmental quality stems from renewable energy consumption.¹ Therefore, the associated causality between energy consumption, economic growth, and environmental support researches to comprehend the structural changes in the economy, namely the inflection of inverse U-shaped curve. Furthermore, one of the most important reasons behind the presence of the urbanization or any other social indicators in EKC equation is their power to indicate the structural shifts of developing countries.

METHODOLOGY

The fundamental spectral decomposition techniques of both financial and economic time series are Fourier and wavelet transformations. The Fourier transform, one of the spectral decomposition techniques, is a transformation technique that allows the analysis of the content of a signal in the time domain. In Fourier transform, a function in the time domain is transformed into a function in the frequency domain. Then the Fourier coefficients of the function are analyzed for each

frequency ([Graps, 1995](#)). Basically, sinusoidal waves for the Fourier series are chosen as the main function. The properties of the emerging dilatation are examined in [Burrus, Gopinath, and Guo \(1998\)](#). The mathematical expression of the Fourier transform is explained by the following equations:

In a function $f(\xi)$ with period T ([Illing, 2008](#)):

$$f(\xi + T) = f(\xi) \quad (10.1)$$

To make the function $2\pi i$ periodic, we can redefine the value of ξ . A new independent variable, then, is defined as, $t = \frac{2\pi i}{T}\xi$, as a result:

$$f(t + 2\pi i) = f(t) \quad (10.2)$$

Since the function is periodic, we only need to consider behavior in a range of length $2\pi i$, for example on the interval $(-pi, pi)$. After Joseph Fourier (1768–1830), the series of Fourier has been transformed into [Eq. \(10.3\)](#), taking into account the infinite sum of sine and cosine functions.

$$f(x) = \frac{a_0}{2} + \sum_{m=1}^{\infty} [a_m \cos(mt) + b_m \sin(mt)] \quad (10.3)$$

In [Eq. \(10.4\)](#), constant coefficients of a_m and b_m are called Fourier coefficients. Estimation with integers using the orthogonality properties of a_m and b_m coefficients of [Eq. \(10.3\)](#) are presented in [Eqs. \(10.4\)](#) and [\(10.5\)](#).

$$a_m = \frac{1}{\pi i} \int_{-\pi i}^{\pi i} f(t) \cos(mt) dx \quad (10.4)$$

$$b_m = \frac{1}{\pi i} \int_{-\pi i}^{\pi i} f(t) \sin(mt) dx \quad (10.5)$$

As it can be seen from the equations above, the Fourier series is a linear component of sines and cosines. Each of these sines and cosines is a function of frequency. Therefore, the Fourier transform can be considered a separation on the basis of frequency by frequency ([Gençay, Selçuk, & Whitcher, 2002](#)).

On the other hand, Fourier analysis can localize signal in frequency domain successfully as it cannot use signal in time domain. It gives the knowledge of the whole time span and does not reveal the time-point information at a particular point. Fourier transformation is, therefore, a successful approach to the analysis of time-invariant signals. That is, the Fourier basic function (sines and cosines) is more suitable when working with stationary time series. However, restricting ourselves to stationary time series is not

¹[Ozturk \(2010\)](#), [Omri \(2014\)](#) and [Tiba and Omri \(2017\)](#) provide detailed literature reviews for the studies that investigate the relationship between economic growth, energy consumption and environmental degradation.

very appealing because most economic/financial time series exhibit highly complex patterns (e.g., complex trends, sudden changes, and volatility clustering). Conventional signal analysis tools, such as Fourier analysis, miss these frequency components. For this reason, in a nonstationary time series, Fourier transformation cannot effectively detect complex events (Gençay et al., 2002). For example, the Fourier transformation is not suitable for the nonstationary series, and the transformation is insufficient because it gives the whole time-domain knowledge, not the information of the specific time unit. Because of this deficiency, the wavelet transform is used for complex events through scale-based analyses.

Wavelet transformation is a more recent and more complicated methodology compared with Fourier transformation. It has similar mathematical representation with Fourier transform; however, it comes up with a new property, called scaling. Wavelet has the advantage of localizing signals both in time and frequency domain simultaneously. The wavelet transform, as the best technique for the nonstationary time series, is filtered into different frequency bands, which are divided into segments in the time domain (Zhao, Jiang, Diao, & Qian, 2004). The wavelet function (or mother wavelet function) can be expressed as a linear combination of the scaling function. Nonetheless, with condition $\omega \in \mathbb{R}$ and $m \in \mathbb{R}^+$, every scaled and translated wavelet function $\beta_{(m,\omega)}(t)$ can be written in terms of the mother wavelet:

$$\beta_{(m,\omega)}(t) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{|m|}} \beta\left(\frac{t-\omega}{m}\right) \tag{10.6}$$

where the term $1/\sqrt{|m|}$ denotes normalization, factor ensuring unit variance of wavelet. The mother wavelet $\beta(\cdot)$ contains two control parameters m (scaled) and ω (located). The parameter m controls the width of the wavelet and indicates the position of the wavelet. Parameter ω is the translation or location parameter that controls the location of wavelet and represents the position of the wavelet in the time domain. When evaluated in terms of frequency, rapidly changing details capture at lower scales, namely high frequencies, while slower details capture higher scales, namely low frequencies. In other words, an increasing m (scaling) capture low frequency (long-run) properties of time series; however, a descending m compresses it to measure high-frequency (short-run) properties. This situation indicates a negative relationship between the frequency and the scale.

The continuous wavelet transform (CWT) is obtained by projection a specific wavelet $\beta(\cdot)$ onto the examined time series $\check{X}(t) \in L^2(\mathbb{R})$ in regard to wavelet $\beta_{(m,\omega)}(t)$ is written as:

$$W_{\check{X}}(m, \omega) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \check{X}(t) \frac{1}{\sqrt{|m|}} \beta^*\left(\frac{t-\omega}{m}\right) dt \tag{10.7}$$

where $W_{\check{X}}(m, \omega)$ represents CWT and $*$ denotes complex conjugation. Because of a function to be accepted as CWT, it must carry out the following conditions (Conraria and Soares, 2014);

- The integral of $\beta(\cdot)$ is zero,

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \beta(t) dt = 0, \tag{10.8}$$

- It is square of $\beta(\cdot)$ integrates to unity,

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} |\beta(t)|^2 dt = 1, \text{ and,} \tag{10.9}$$

- Admissibility condition as is given in Eq. (10.10).

$$\check{\mathcal{Y}}_{\partial} = \int_0^{\infty} \frac{|\theta(\mathcal{N})|^2}{\mathcal{N}} d\mathcal{N} < \infty, \tag{10.10}$$

Wavelets defined as a small wave generally do not have the same properties. In this respect, wavelets are divided into different groups according to their particular features. These types of wavelets include Haar, Daubechies, Symlets, Coiflets, Biorthogonal, Gauss, Mexican Hat, Morlet, Meyer, Shannon, etc. The Morlet wavelet transform has both imaginary and real parts, thereby it allows to analysis both phase and amplitude. The Morlet wavelet, a sine wave damped by a Gaussian envelope, is expressed as:

$$\lambda_{\varphi}(t) = \pi i^{-1/4} \left(e^{i\varphi t} - e^{-\varphi^2/2} \right) e^{-t^2/2}, \tag{10.11}$$

where parameter φ denotes the central frequency parameter of Morlet wavelet $\lambda_{\varphi}(t)$. Moreover, $e^{i\varphi t}$ is the complex exponential function, and it is normalized by $\pi i^{-1/4}$ that provides a function with unit energy (Addison, 2002). $e^{-\varphi^2/2}$ is the correction term, which corrects the nonzero mean of the complex sinusoid, and it is negligible if $\varphi > 5$. This yields a simplified version of Morlet wavelet function written as:

$$\lambda_{\varphi}(t) = \pi i^{-1/4} e^{i\varphi t} e^{-t^2/2} \tag{10.12}$$

The value 6 for φ ensures the admissibility condition, where λ is the Fourier period (Farge, 1992). The admissibility condition of wavelets, introduced in Eq. (10.10), is important comes from in fact it ensures that it is possible to recover $\ddot{x}(t)$ from its wavelet transform. When \mathcal{O} is analytic and $\ddot{x}(t)$ real a reconstruction equation formula written as is in Morlet and Grossman (1984),

$$\ddot{x}(t) = (\mathcal{Y}_{\mathcal{O}})^{-1} \int_0^{\infty} \left[\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} W_{\ddot{x}}(\mathfrak{m}, \omega) \phi_{(\mathfrak{m}, \omega)}(t) d\omega \right] \frac{d\mathfrak{m}}{\mathfrak{m}^2} \quad (10.13)$$

In addition to CWT, preserves the energy or variance of preservation of the examined time series;

$$\|\ddot{x}\|^2 = (\mathcal{Y}_{\mathcal{O}})^{-1} \int_0^{\infty} \left[\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} |W_{\ddot{x}}(\mathfrak{m}, \omega)|^2 d\omega \right] \frac{d\mathfrak{m}}{\mathfrak{m}^2} \quad (10.14)$$

where, the wavelet power spectrum $|W_{\ddot{x}}(\mathfrak{m}, \omega)|^2$, which shows the distribution energy of $\ddot{X}(t)$ of time series in both frequency and time domain, is shown. In addition, this feature is used to define the wavelet correlation, wavelet variance, and wavelet covariance. The cross-wavelet power² of two time series, $W_{xy}(\mathfrak{m}, \omega)$ can be defined as the local covariance between these time series at each scale (frequency band) and each time. The cross-wavelet power of two time series $x(t)$ and $y(t)$ was first presented by Hudgins, Friehe, and Mayer (1993) as below:

$$W_{xy}(\mathfrak{m}, \omega) = W_x(\mathfrak{m}, \omega) \overline{W_y(\mathfrak{m}, \omega)} \quad (10.15)$$

where $W_x(\mathfrak{m}, \omega)$ and $W_y(\mathfrak{m}, \omega)$ are CWT of time series $x(t)$ and $y(t)$ as $W_{xy}(\mathfrak{m}, \omega)$ is the cross-wavelet power. In addition, \mathfrak{m} is scale and ω is location parameter as they appear in CWT formula in Eq. (10.7). After, that is, two time series, the cross-wavelet transforms represent the local covariance between the time series at each scale (Vacha & Barunik, 2012). According to Aguiar-Conraria, Magalhães, and Soares (2013), the wavelet coherency of two time series, $W_x(\mathfrak{m}, \omega)$ and $W_y(\mathfrak{m}, \omega)$ can be defined as follows:

$$R_{xy}(\mathfrak{m}, \omega) = \frac{|S(W_{xy}(\mathfrak{m}, \omega))|}{\left| S(|W_{xx}(\mathfrak{m}, \omega)|) \right|^{1/2} \left| S(|W_{yy}(\mathfrak{m}, \omega)|) \right|^{1/2}} \quad (10.16)$$

where R_{xy} represents the correlation, parameter ranging from one (strong consistency) to zero coherency (no

coherency) in both time and frequency domain. In addition, S refers to the required smoothing parameter. Otherwise, coherency will always be strong consistency (one). The phase difference analysis detects phase relationships between components, for instance, the correlation direction (positive and negative correlation), and lead or lag relation. The phase difference (with $\xi_{x,y} \in [-\pi i, \pi i]$) between time series $x(t)$ and $y(t)$ can be depicted as:

$$\xi_{x,y}(\mathfrak{m}, \omega) = \frac{1}{\tan} \left(\frac{\Im(W_{xy}(\mathfrak{m}, \omega))}{\Re(W_{xy}(\mathfrak{m}, \omega))} \right) \quad (10.17)$$

In Eq. (10.17), $\Im(W_{xy})$ and $\Re(W_{xy})$ are referred to imaginary and real parts, respectively. If $\xi_{xy} \in (0, \frac{\pi i}{2})$, the series move in phase and $x(t)$ leads $y(t)$; if $\xi_{xy} \in (0, -\frac{\pi i}{2})$, the series move again in phase, then, $y(t)$ is leading. If $\xi_{x,y} \in (\frac{\pi i}{2}, \pi i)$, there is antiphase relation, in this case, the series move again out of phase where $y(t)$ is leading. Antiphase relation exists, when phase difference is πi or $-\pi i$. If $\xi_{x,y} \in (-\pi i, -\frac{\pi i}{2})$, then, the series follow antiphase relation as $x(t)$ is leading. Finally, a phase difference of zero indicates that $y(t)$ and $x(t)$ move together.

DATA AND WAVELET ESTIMATION OUTPUT

This work considers mainly the inspecting the comovements between GDI and CO₂ (million metric tons of CO₂) in a wavelet model for the United States for the quarterly period from 1980:1 to 2018:2.

The wavelet model in this work first monitors the influence of GDI on CO₂, later, uses as well control variables to be able to capture cleaner output. The control variables are total fossil fuels consumption (fossil, quadrillion Btu), nuclear electric power consumption (nuclear, quadrillion Btu), and total renewable energy consumption (renewables, quadrillion Btu), respectively, for the United States for the same period.

The CO₂, fossil, nuclear, and renewables have been extracted from US Energy Information Administration Monthly Energy Review (EIA, 2018), and the GDI data have been obtained from Fred data through ESTIMA-RATS 9.1 (Federal Reserve Bank of St. Louis, 2018 August). All estimations have been launched by MATLAB 15 program lines.

Fig. 10.1 depicts the US GDI for the period 1980:1–2018:2, and Fig. 10.2 exhibits the US CO₂ emissions (million metric tons) for the period 1980:1–2018:2. Fig. 10.1 explores that GDI of United States tends to increase from the first quarter of 1980 and the second quarter of 2018. Through polynomial trend

²When $x = y$, we obtain the wavelet power spectrum.

Gross Domestic Income (GDI), 1980:1-2018:2

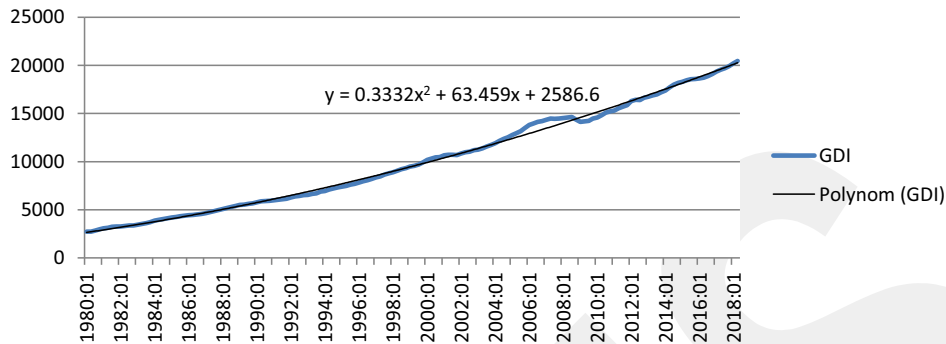
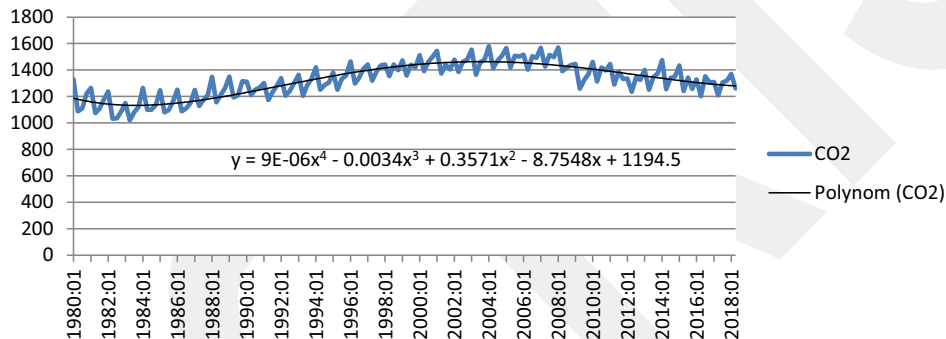


FIG. 10.1 The US gross domestic income.

Carbon Dioxide (CO₂) emissions (million metric tons), 1980:1-2018:2FIG. 10.2 CO₂ emissions.

estimation, one may state that GDI increases by $[63.459 + 0.3332(2x + 1)]$. CO₂ emissions firsts decline until 1984, later increases till 2016, and afterward tends to reduce. The estimated polynomial regression of CO₂ is $y = 9E-06x^4 - 0.0034x^3 + 0.3571x^2 - 8.7548x + 1194.5$.

Figs. 10.3–10.5 denote the trends of the fossil fuel consumption (quadrillion Btu), nuclear electric power consumption (quadrillion Btu), and, renewable energy consumption (quadrillion Btu), respectively, in the United States for the period 1980:1–2018:2.

The fossil fuel consumption, nuclear electric power consumption, and renewable energy consumption follow the fourth degree polynomial, third degree of polynomial, and fourth degree of polynomial, respectively. Fossil fuel consumption tends to increase until 2006 and afterward diminishes. Consumption of renewables tends to enlarge at increasing rate, as nuclear electric consumption expands at decreasing rate from March of 1980 to June of 2018.

Estimating the continuous wavelet models, this section reveals the movements between the US GDI and US CO₂ emissions through time series and frequency analyses. Throughout wavelet estimations, one might inspect the trends of CO₂ as GDI increases at different time periods and frequencies.

Figs. 10.6A, 10.7A, and 10.8A show the outputs of wavelet coherency analyses. Figs. 10.6B and C, 10.7B and C, and, 10.8B and C explore the phase differences, which exhibit the radians between two waves at the same frequency and same time point.

All wavelet analyses in this work aim at observing what happens to level of CO₂ as GDI increases at different time periods and different time frequencies.

In wavelet estimations, the black curve (contour) exhibits 5% significance level of the estimation through an ARMA (p, q) model. AR (p) and MA (q) terms of the ARMA model depict the autoregressive terms and moving average (lagged forecast errors) terms, respectively. Our estimations used ARMA (1, 1) and ARMA

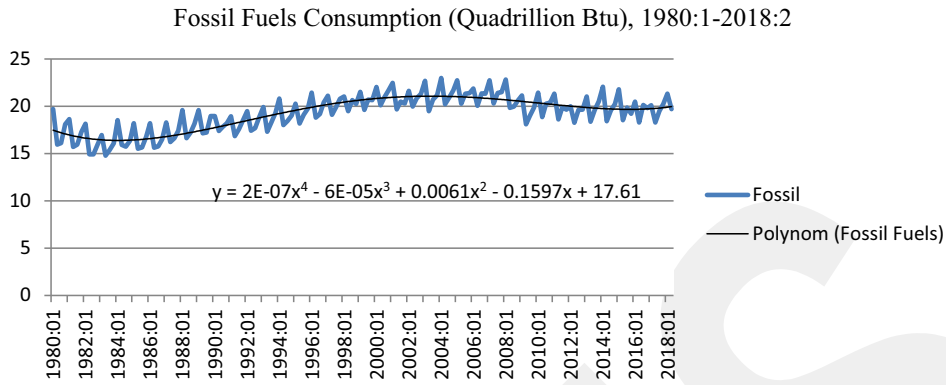


FIG. 10.3 Fossil fuel consumption.

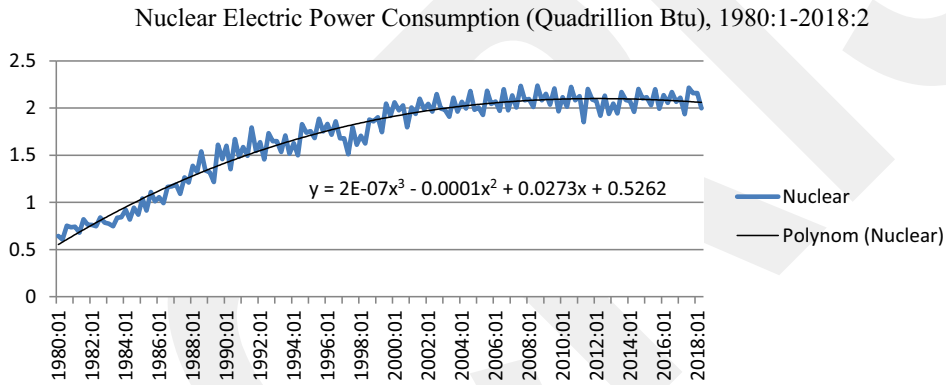


FIG. 10.4 Nuclear electric consumption.

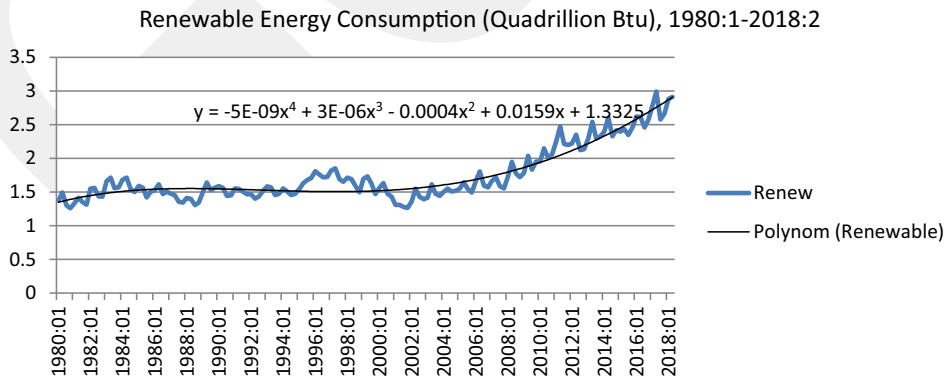


FIG. 10.5 Renewable energy consumption.

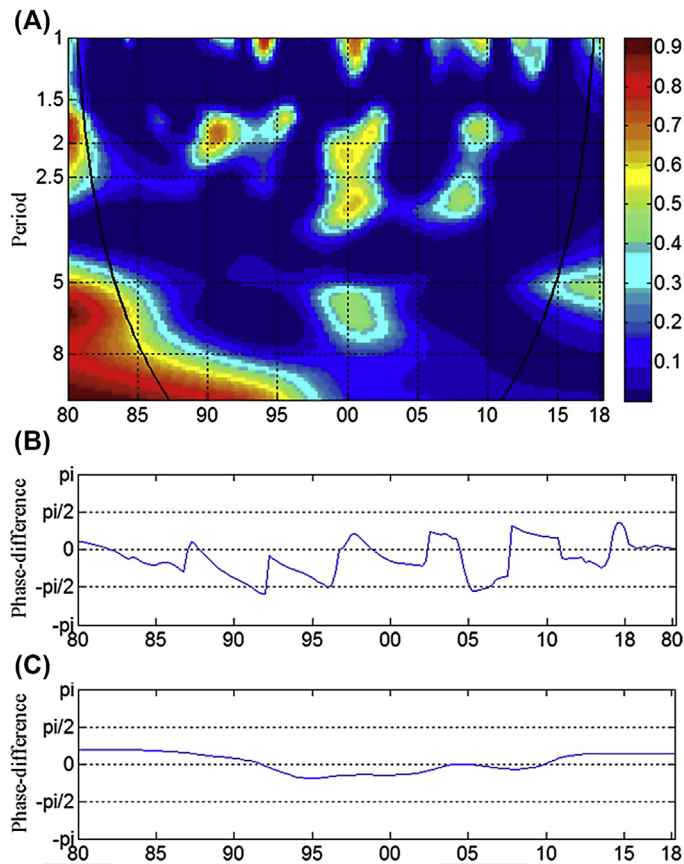


FIG. 10.6 (A) Wavelet coherence (GDI-CO₂), 1980:1–2018:2. (B) 1–3 frequency band, 1980:1–2018:2. (C) 3–8 frequency band, 1980:1–2018:2.

(2, 1) models. The colors to the right of the figures represent the degree of coherency between the variables. It ranges from weak coherency (blue) to strong coherency (red) between the variables. The color code, therefore, explores as well the possible weakest coherence (dark blue) and strongest coherence (dark red). The power of correlation ranging from 0.05 to 0.95 might be considered energy of association. The dark red and dark blue, thereby, correspond to high energy of association and low energy of association between the variables, respectively.

Fig. 10.6A reveals the wavelet coherency between (GDI-CO₂) for the period 1980:1–2018:2. Fig. 10.6A and its phase difference (Fig. 10.6B) reveal little evidence of significant effect of GDI on CO₂ during the first half of the 1990s at 1–3 year frequency band. Figs. 10.6A and C denote that there exists significant association between GDI and CO₂ emissions in 8-year cycle during the second half of the 1980s and the first

half of the 1990s and that GDI enhances CO₂ emissions during the same frequency and time points.

When relevant control variables have been added to wavelet estimations, the coherency analyses have become clearer. Figs. 10.7A and 10.8A observe the movements of relevant pairs of variables by considering the relevant control variables of fossil fuels consumption (Fig. 10.7A) and total energy consumption (Fig. 10.8A). Total energy consumption variable includes the consumptions of fossil fuels, nuclear, and renewables.

Fig. 10.7A indicates that (a) GDI and CO₂ have strong energy association during the first half of the 1990s and 2010s in 1-year cycle (frequency); (b) GDI and CO₂ are slightly associated between years 2003 and 2005 in 1-year cycle; and (c) GDI and CO₂ appear to have strong coherency during the first half of the 1980s, the second half of the 1990s, and, for the period 2012–16 at 3-year frequency.

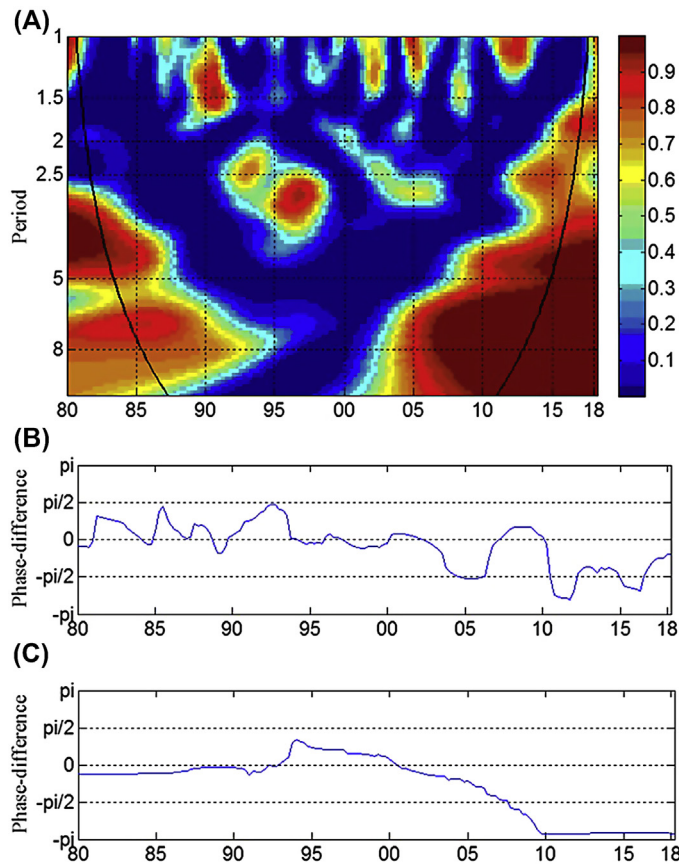


FIG. 10.7 (A) Wavelet coherence (GDI-CO₂ || fossil), 1980:1–2018:2. (B) 1–3 frequency band, 1980:1–2018:2. (C) 3–8 frequency band, 1980:1–2018:2.

The phase difference (Fig. 10.7B) demonstrates that, as GDI increases, the CO₂ increases during the period 1990–94, later, diminishes in 2011–12, and in 2015–16.

As for longer time period (3–8 year frequency), GDI and CO₂ variables present strong coherencies during 1982–90 and 2004–16 (Fig. 10.7C). CO₂ leads GDI during the periods 1982–90 and 2004–07, while GDI causes CO₂ to reduce for the period 2008–16 (Fig. 10.7C).

In Fig. 10.8A, again the wavelet analyses are conducted for the variables of GDI and CO₂ by adding the control variables of fossil, nuclear, and renewable energy consumptions. Considering 1–3 frequency band, strong correlations between GDI and CO₂ are shown in the years 1982–85, 1987–90, 2005, and, 2011–13. The correlation emerges slightly strong during 1998–2000.

Fig. 10.8B yields the evidence that GDI leads CO₂ to increase in 1982–85 and to diminish in 2015. On the other hand, CO₂ is leading positively the GDI variable during periods 1987–90 and 2011–13.

Monitoring 3–8 frequency band in Fig. 10.8A, one might state that GDI and CO₂ follow strong coherencies in time periods of 1982–86 and 2006–16. Fig. 10.8C displays the output that, as GDI increases, CO₂ increases for the period 1982–86 and 2004–06, and shrinks for the period 2011–16.

Following continuous partial wavelet coherence analyses presented in Figs. 10.7A and 10.8A and associated phase difference pictures, we might argue that as GDI of the United States improves initially in the beginning of sample period (second half of 1980 and first half of the 1990s), CO₂ emissions tend to advance, and CO₂ emissions tend to reduce during the quarters of 2008–16.

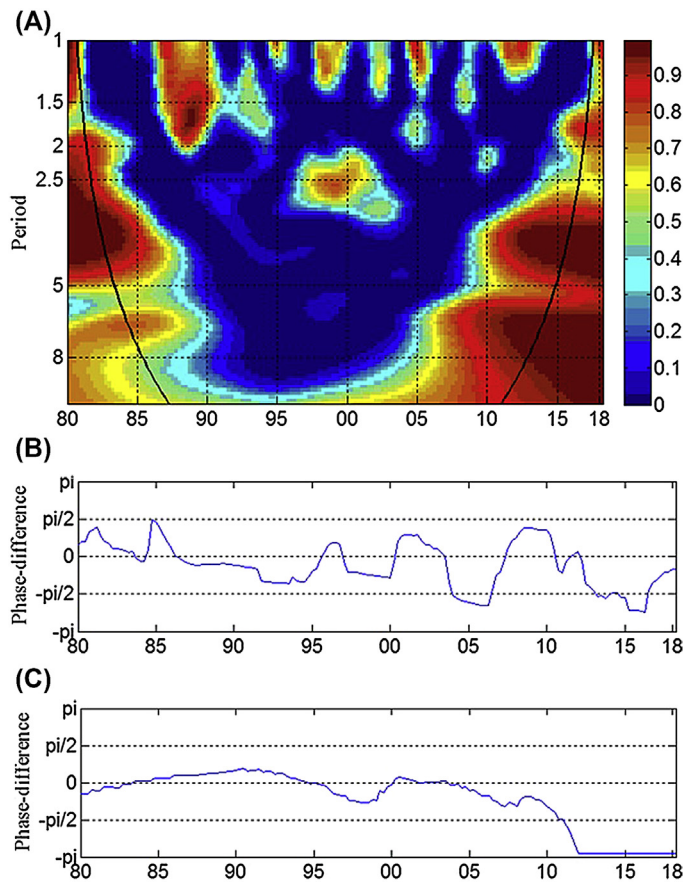


FIG. 10.8 (A) Wavelet coherence (GDI-CO₂ || fossil, nuclear, renewable), 1980:1–2018:2. (B) 1–3 frequency band, 1980:1–2018:2. (C) 3–8 frequency band, 1980:1–2018:2.

CONCLUSION AND POLICY PROPOSALS

The contributions of existing seminal works to the literature of EKC hypotheses are significant. However, time series and panel data estimations of EKC in general follow the same estimated parameters within whole sample period. Although some prominent works consider the structural breaks in cross-section dependence tests of panel data, they reveal eventually constant estimates in observing the effect of GDP (GDI) on environmental degradation for the whole predicted time period. Few articles aim at detecting the relevant estimates of coefficients with one or two structural breaks in a dynamic structure. The dynamic structure of an EKC model can be evaluated through either the effects of leads and lags of independent variable (GDI) on dependent variable (environmental degradation or CO₂ emissions), or, through possible changes in estimated parameters in one or more potential

structural breaks. Furthermore, dynamic structure of an EKC model can be examined through all possible shifts in estimated values at all possible different time periods and at all relevant time frequencies. Such analyses, thereby, observe numerous structural breaks within different time cycles (frequencies) and, hence, might result in more efficient, consistent, and unbiased estimators.

This work first reviews intensively the relevant literature evidence to exhibit the EKC estimations' results through time series and panel data estimations.

The work later, underlining the mathematical advantages of wavelet transformation against Fourier transformation, follows continuous wavelet and partial continuous wavelet coherence analyses.

Fourier analysis can localize signal in frequency domain successfully as it cannot use signal in time domain. Wavelet, on the other hand, has the advantage

of localizing signals both in time and frequency domain simultaneously.

All wavelet analyses here aim at observing what happens to level of CO₂ emissions as GDI increases at different time periods and at different time frequencies in the United States from the first quarter of 1980 to the second quarter of 2018.

In conclusion, following the quarterly time period 1980:1–2018:2, this book reveals that, as GDI of the United States increases, initially in the beginning of sample period (second half of 1980 and first half of 1990s), CO₂ emissions tend to increase, and, CO₂ emissions tend to decline during the quarters of 2008–16.

This output confirms the EKC hypothesis indicating that the level of environmental deterioration gets worse and later becomes better in the United States, as domestic income of the United States goes up.

Increase in income of representative countries might improve the societies' awareness of environmental deterioration within regions/countries. This statement might be confirmed due to new technologic innovations, more efficient usage of natural resources through environmental awareness, improved market mechanism, and, throughout considerations of optimal intertemporal choices of consumption preferences.

The policy-makers and researchers might inspect the role of components of total energy consumption on environmental quality. For instance, in recent literature, some works underline the positive effects of renewables on environmental improvements as depicted in [Ulucak and Bilgili \(2018\)](#), [Bilgili, Koçak, Bulut, and Kuloğlu \(2017\)](#), [Bilgili, Koçak, Bulut, and Kuşkaya \(2017\)](#), [Bilgili, Koçak et al. \(2016\)](#), and [Bilgili, Öztürk et al. \(2016\)](#). They explore the significant positive impact of renewables on quality level of environment in terms of CO₂ emissions. They recommend that renewables, such as consumption of wood and agricultural products, solid waste, landfill gas and biogas, ethanol, and biodiesel should be stimulated to reduce the environmental degradation. By following these works and other seminal researches, this work might suggest that the US policy-makers continue to follow existing and potential future US energy policies.

Indeed, the US energy policies, since the 1970s, have been following the goals of (1) conservation and energy efficiency, (2) efficient domestic supply of fossil fuels, and (3) efficient production/consumption of electricity and electricity from renewables ([Ballotpedia, 2018a](#)). The United States launched Environmental Protection Agency (EPA) in 1971, Comprehensive Environmental Response, Compensation, and Liability Act (CERCLA) in 1980, Kyoto Protocol in 1997, and American

Recovery and Reinvestment Act (2009) as explained in [Ballotpedia \(2018b\)](#).

On the one hand, the United States has been implementing energy policies to protect environment since the 1970s; on the other hand, the US population has been increasing its demand for goods and commodities since then. This might, in turn, cause the United States to have increasing ecologic deficit, which is the difference between biocapacity and ecologic footprints.

However, according to wavelet analyses of this work, the United States has succeeded to improve her environmental quality after the second half of 2000s and during 2010s due to past and current energy policies of the United States.

Among available policies, the Energy Policy Acts of the United States might have relatively more considerable positive impacts on environment among other energy policies/acts. Hence, this book eventually recommends that policy-makers consider following and updating 1992 Energy Policy Act (EPACT) and 2005 EPACT to lower the CO₂ emissions to reach sustainable intertemporal and intergenerational development.

APPENDIX

Notes (1): Causality Signs: \Leftrightarrow (bidirectional causality); \Rightarrow (uni-directional causality from left to the right); \sim (mixed results) and $//$ (lack of causality).

Notes (2): Abbreviations for variables: AEC (alternative energy consumption); BEC (biomass consumption); CE (CO₂ emissions); CTAX (carbon tax); EC (energy consumption); ECD (disaggregated energy consumption); ECF (ecological carbon footprint); ED (energy demand); EDEG (environmental degradation); EG (economic growth); EI (energy intensity); ELC (electricity consumption); ENP (energy price); EX (exports); FD (financial development); FDI (foreign direct investment); FFC (fossil fuel consumption); FIXC (fixed capital stock); GLB (globalization level); HEC (hydropower consumption); IGT (intermediate goods trade); IM (imports); IND (industrialization level); INV (investment expenditures); M1 (money supply); NE (nuclear energy); NGC (natural gas consumption); NREC (non-renewable energy consumption); NREP (non-renewable electricity production); PC (petroleum consumption); POP (population density); REC (renewable energy consumption); RELC (renewable energy consumption); REP (renewable electricity production); RLL (ratio of liquid liabilities to national income); TO (trade openness); TOD (tourism development); TRD (international trade); TRL (trade liberalization); TVA

(transport sector value added); UR (urbanization); WPD (water pollution discharge).

Notes (3): Methods: IAAA (innovative accounting approach); AMG (causality and augmented mean group estimator); ARDL (Auto autoregressive distributed lag model); VECM (Vector Error Correction Method).

Notes (4): Estimation methods: OLS (ordinary least squares); FGLS (feasible generalized least squares; LAE (least absolute deviations); GMM (generalized method of moments); STAR (structural threshold regression or auto-regression), GLS (generalized least squares).

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