

TITLE PAGE

**TITLE: The Anthropogenic Consequences of Energy consumption in E7 Economies:
Juxtaposing roles of Renewable, Nuclear, Oil and Gas Energy: Panel Quantile Evidence**

Bright Akwasi Gyamfi¹

Faculty of Economics and Administrative Sciences
Cyprus International University
Nicosia, North Cyprus
Via Mersin 10, Turkey
Email: brightgyamfi1987@gmail.com

Festus Fatai Adedoyin

Department of Accounting, Economics and Finance,
Bournemouth University, United Kingdom
Email: fadedoyin@bournemouth.ac.uk

Divine Q. Agozie

University of Ghana, Business School
Dept. of Operations and Management Information Systems.
Email: dagozie@ug.edu.gh

Murad A. Bein

Cyprus International University
Nicosia, North Cyprus
Via Mersin 10, Turkey
Email: muradabdurahmanb@gmail.com

Festus Victor Bekun

Faculty of Economics Administrative and Social sciences,
Istanbul Gelisim University, Istanbul, Turkey
&
Department of Accounting, Analysis and Audit
School of Economics and Management
South Ural State University, 76, Lenin Aven.,
Chelyabinsk, Russia 454080.

¹ Corresponding author: brightgyamfi1987@gmail.com

Highlights

- The E7 economics were investigated on renewables, nuclear, oil, gas energy sources and CO₂ pollution
- Unlike economic growth, renewable energy decrease CO₂ emission in E7 countries
- We observe at the 0.95 percentile GDP growth strongly contributes to environmental pollution
- Energy diversification in the E7 countries can abate global dwindling energy market

Environmental sustainability is obtained by decoupling from economic growth in the E7 states.

1 **The Anthropogenic Consequences of Energy consumption in E7 Economies: Juxtaposing**
2 **roles of Renewable, Nuclear, Oil and Gas Energy: Panel Quantile Evidence**

3 **Abstract**

4 The emerging seven (E7) countries are not excluded from the Global warming issues which is a major
5 problem for most economics. The region has partaken in the policy to mitigate against global warming
6 in terms of decoupling pollution (CO₂) pollution from economic growth. It is from this motivation
7 that this current study considers the connection regarding economic growth, pollutant emissions, coal
8 rent while accounting for the role of other variables like CO₂ damage and power from oil gas energy
9 from 1990 to 2016. This study adopts the use of Panel Ordinary least squares in conjunction with
10 Quantile regression that shows different characterization on tails of the data is used to identify the
11 coal-rent-energy nexus. The result shows a positive and significant effect of both real GDP and coal
12 rent on CO₂ emissions. Nevertheless, we observe that, the 0.95 percentile GDP growth strongly
13 contributes to environmental pollution while at the median tail i.e. 0.5 percentile renewable energy
14 consumption dampens the adverse effect of environmental degradation. Additionally, renewable
15 energy on the other hand was found negative and significant impact on CO₂ emissions in E7 countries.
16 Moreover, the estimated results indicate that regulation of coal consumption through rent in addition
17 to the cost of carbon damage will further increase the CO₂ emissions in E7 countries. The implication
18 of this is that putting stringent regulations on coal consumption as it concerns rising cost of carbon
19 damage will not be of help to environmental sustainability within the E7 economies. The adoption of
20 nuclear energy sources as well as more cost of carbon damage and oil, coal and gas consumption will
21 reduce CO₂ emissions in E7 countries significantly. This is pointing towards the resistant of nuclear
22 energy sources to produce CO₂ while operating unlike the fossil fuel sources.

23 **Keywords:** CO₂ pollutions, Coal rents, energy utilization, Regulatory quality and E7 countries.

24

25

26

27

28

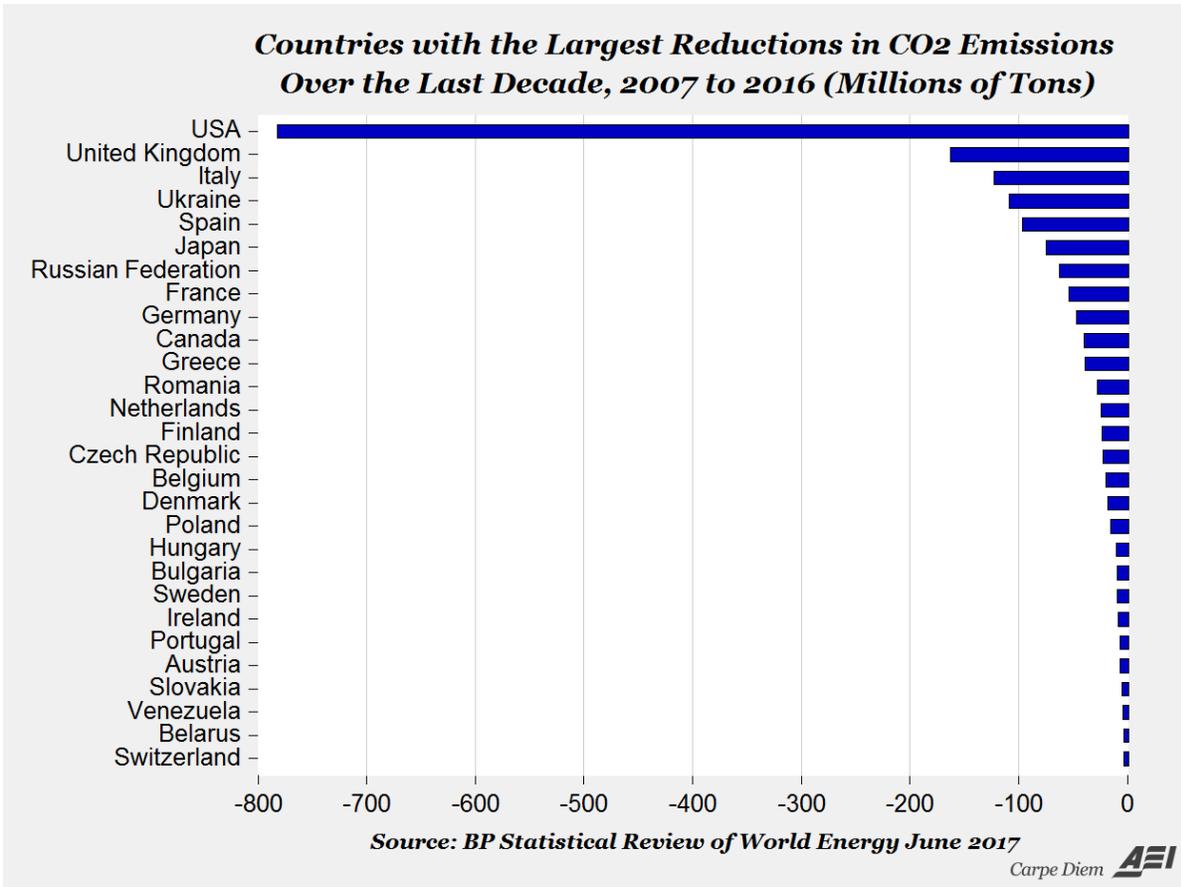
29

30

31 **1. Introduction**

32 Pollutant emissions like CO₂ affects the global atmosphere, resulting in the challenge of global
33 warming. To any viable economy, a stable supply and demand of energy is pertinent to its sustainable
34 economic development. The hallmark of any developing economy is the rate of its developing.
35 Signatories to the Kyoto Protocol, including Brazil, Russia, India, India, China, Indonesia and Turkey
36 (E-7) among others highlight climate change to be one of the significant challenges to sustainable
37 development and economic growth. This consensus comes with the commitment to ensure the
38 reduction of pollutant emissions like greenhouse gas emissions by 2020 (Adedoyin et al., 2019).

39 Since the late 1990s, many countries have worked toward reducing their greenhouse gas
40 emissions (Ozturk & Acaravci 2009, Ozturk, 2010), because global interest in pollution and
41 greenhouse gas emissions have risen. For instance, a review of the British Petroleum Global Energy
42 Statistical Review (2017) showed eleven (11) states have significantly reduced pollutants pollution over
43 the last decade (2007 to 2016). A similar report emerged from the United States, which was found to
44 have reduced its pollutant by almost 800 million tons, a feat which is five times more than the case of
45 the United Kingdom. According to the BP Global Energy Statistical Review the top ten states that
46 have achieved significant reduction in CO₂ include, the US, UK, Italy, Poland, Spain, Japan, the
47 Russian Federation, France, Germany, and Greece. It appears from the list that, the Russian
48 Federation emerged the only E7 member state to have successfully achieved significant reduction in
49 its pollutants over the last decade. The complete list of twenty-six states and the amount of pollutant-
50 reduction attained over the past decade is shown in figure 1.



51

52 Sources: BP Statistical review of the world energy, June 2017.

53 **Figure 1. Top ten countries with levels of CO₂ pollution reduction**

54 In the fight against ecological degradation to mitigate negative effects of climate change and global
 55 warming, the 21st session in Paris Conference for the Parties (COP21) emerges as focal point to this
 56 objective (Esso & Kehe 2016). From the conference, participating countries would shift to renewable
 57 energies that produce less pollutant that will not endanger the environment. Among the E7 member
 58 states, India emerges as one of the pioneers of world renewable energy producers and currently, it
 59 spends more on sustainable power than on coal and oil. After achieving a 40% level of renewable
 60 energy generation in 2016, a target it set for 2030 for its renewable energy sustainability, its current
 61 success is so fast that this aim could be met ten years early. Climate experts estimate that India's plan
 62 is consistent with the 2⁰ C rise, but it could be 1.5⁰ C incompatibility with its national energy plan if
 63 the country abandons plans to build new coal-fired plants. Moreover, China, another prominent
 64 member of the E7 states is also nearing the achievement of its renewable energy objectives agreed in
 65 Paris. However, these targets are exceedingly inadequate, and not realistic enough to reduce warming

66 to below 2⁰C or 1.5⁰C, as stipulated in the Paris agreement, unless there is a considerably higher
67 commitment by other countries to make substantially greater reductions. Although some current
68 reports suggest, Chinese greenhouse gas emissions are expected to rise till at least 2030, it also expected
69 that China can also make significant strides at peaking gains at reducing pollutants ten years earlier.¹
70

71 Nevertheless, extant studies highlight several causal connections between G7, E7, BRIC,
72 BRICS, OECD, and Sub-Saharan African States in addition to energy consumption and sustainable
73 development (Solarin & Shahbaz, 2013, 2015 Bekun et al., 2019a; Bekun et al., 2019b). The energy
74 consumption and social development nexus established in literature have proven to be bi-directional
75 and unidirectional. By implication, it is suggested that energy consumption influences the degradation
76 of the environment (Yoo, 2006; Apergis and Payne, 2010, and Cowan et al., 2014). A practical
77 implication of this assertion is that increased coal power consumption may enhance the replenishment
78 of the environment, although, this assertion raises a lack of consensus among researchers (Bekun et
79 al., 2019b). For instance, Bekun et al., (2019a) reveals that E7² member states are heavily reliant on
80 energy-intensive industries, as other nations across the globe considering fast population growth rates,
81 technology, lifestyle changes and urbanization. These features facilitate the increased demand for
82 energy consumption, thus, posing significant threats to anthropogenic global warming. The increased
83 demand for power and its accompanying global environmental crises raises concerns with how nations
84 pursue their environmentally friendly and sustainable development goals. In the light of economic,
85 political, social diversity, and differing environment-friendly strategies, global concerns regarding the
86 capacity of countries to keep pace with their energy demands and the rising rates of pollutants related
87 to anthropogenic environmental warming, presents a significant problem. Issues as these require
88 continuous focus on the causal relationships between energy consumption, productivity expansion,
89 and pollutant rate or CO₂ emissions by policymakers.

90

- 91 1. ¹ Climate change report card: These countries are reaching target.
92 <https://www.nationalgeographic.com/environment/2019/09/climate-change-report-card-co2-emissions/>
93 2. E7 Countries: Group of seven global national emergency economies: Brazil, Russia , India, China, Indonesia , Mexico
94 and Turkey, which are all mostly emerging and newly industrialized nations, but which have a big, frequently fast-
95 growing economy and large genetic impact; all are members of the G 20.

96

97 In pursuing this goal, the need to first consider climate change reports of major countries, as
98 to whether they are reaching the globally acceptable target. Next, the need to ensure E7 countries (a
99 group of emerging and industrialized nations), are not adversely affecting the global environment with
100 their increased industrial operations. This is because, in observing how energy generated is consumed,
101 consequential to environmental and social challenges such as pollution, and greenhouse gas emission,
102 indicates pollutant emissions mainly emanates from energy generation and utilization (IPCC, 2013).
103 An energy source such as coal, is mainly from fossil fuels, which is highlighted to influence pollutants,
104 green and sustainable growth (Adedoyin et al., 2020). Ben-Amar (2013) commits that energy is an
105 essential factor for socioeconomically progress and other vital mankind action, however, the increased
106 utilization of energy has increased ecological degradation consequences. While the require for
107 socioeconomically revolution rests a crucial tool of government policy within a lot of nations,
108 international pressures created by the threat of global warming and climate change continue to mount
109 on countries. Thus far, the link between economic growth and energy consumption and pollution,
110 particularly coal consumption, must be examined further (Rodionova et al. 2017).

111 Relative to the current study, coal consumption exists as an essential determinant of economic
112 performance (Rodionova et al. 2017). Along with the nations which rely on coal, E7 member states
113 have shown ample coal supplies and will possibly fulfill their existing and potential energy
114 requirements in terms of socioeconomic progress and ecological change (Figures 2 to 5 illustrate). The
115 E7 countries' ongoing dependency on coal as crucial to their economic growth and future renewable
116 development electricity illustrated by nuclear power (Fig. 2), oil, gas, and coal (Fig. 3), coal rents (Fig.
117 4), and CO₂ pollutions per capita (Fig. 5).

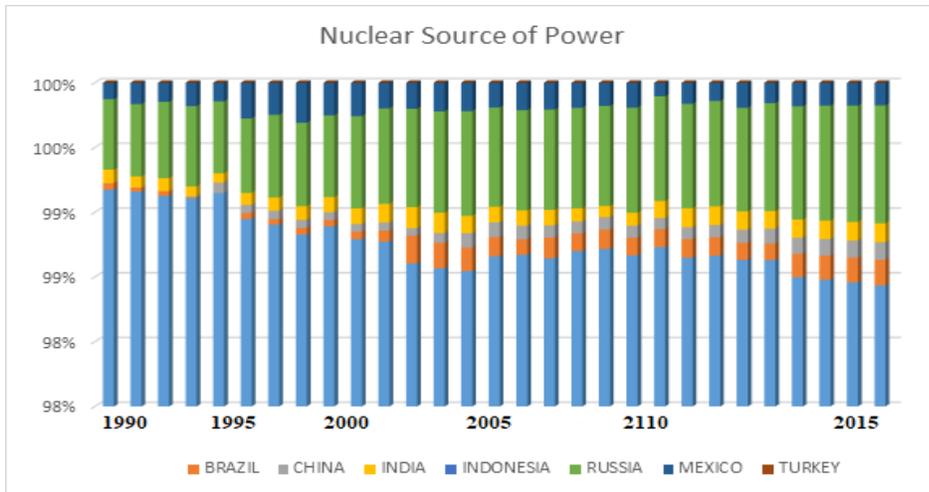


Figure 2. Nuclear power generation (in millions tones) in E7 countries

118

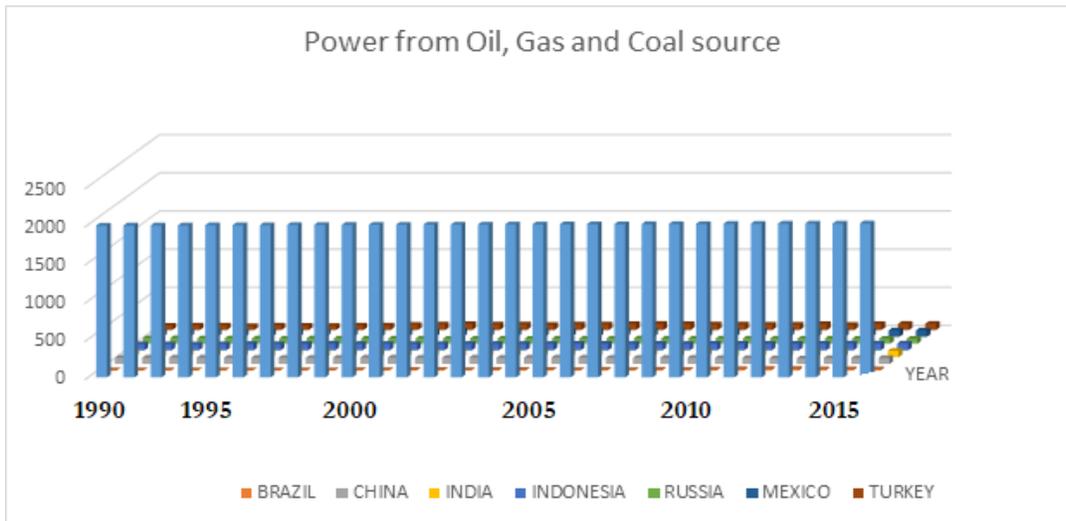


Figure 3. Power from Oil, Gas and Coal (in million tons) in E7 countries

119

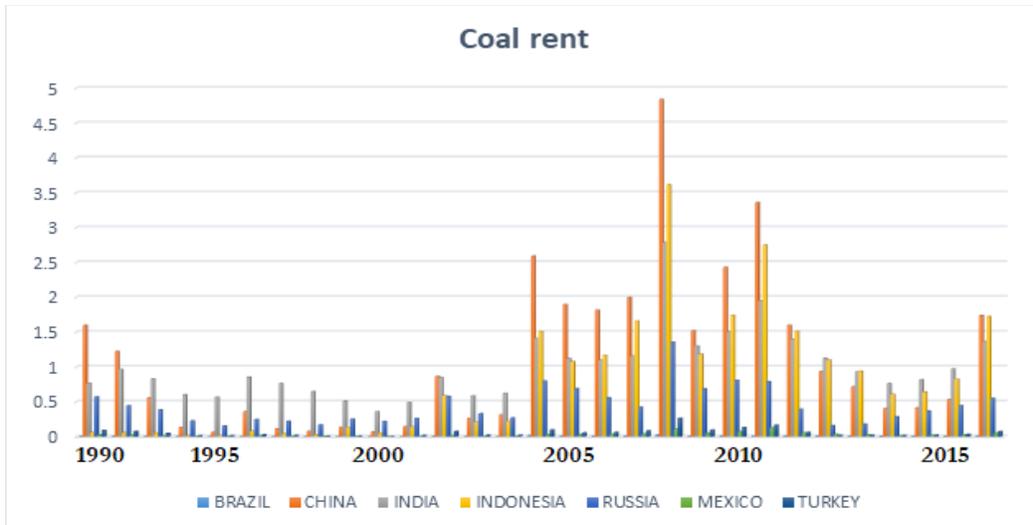
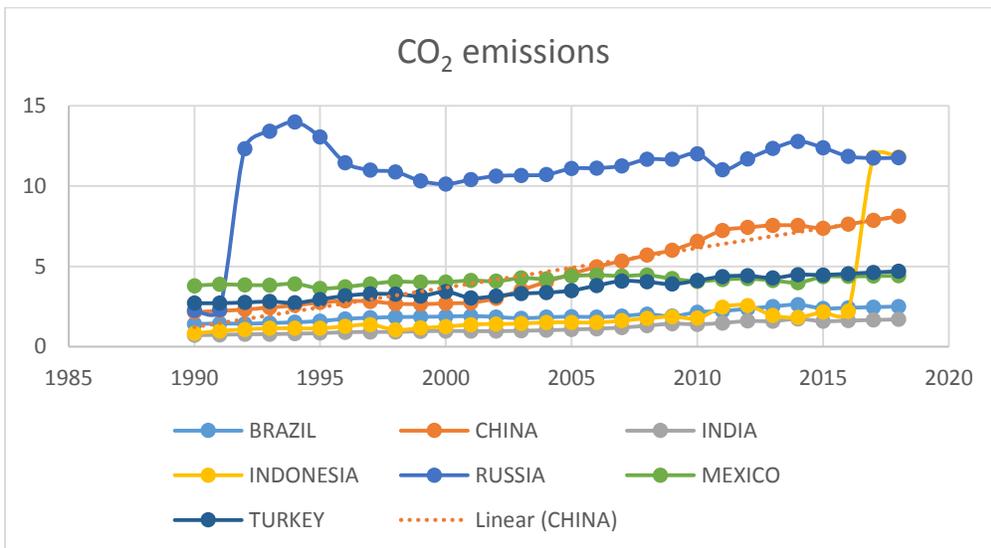


Figure 4. Coal rent (in million tons) in E7 countries

120



121

122 Figure 5. CO₂ emissions per capita (in million tons) in E7 countries

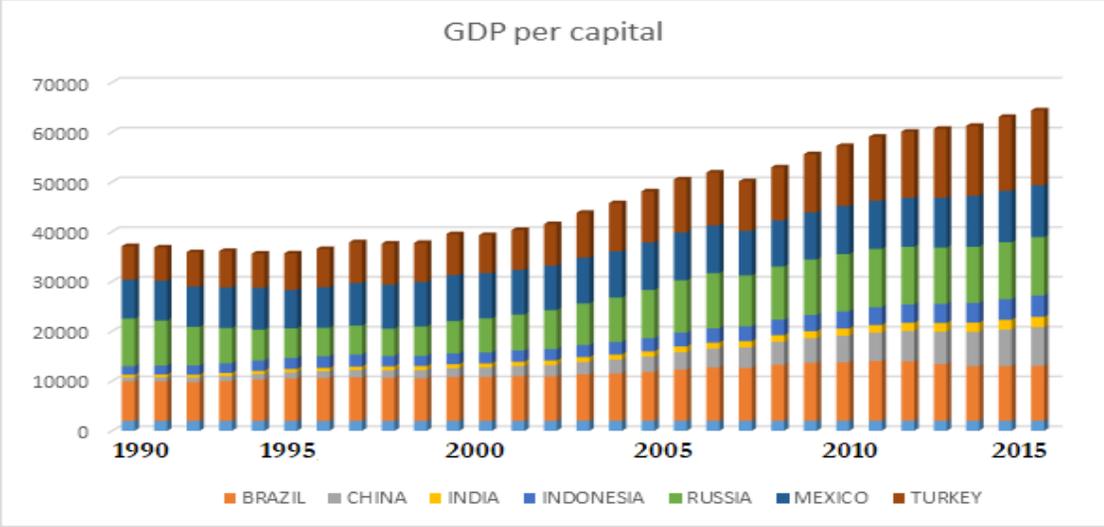


Figure 6. GDP per capita (in millions) in E7 countries

123

124 The heavy dependency of most E7 nations and several other developing economies on coal
 125 usage and the subsequent strong pollutant emissions requires an awareness of actual impact of rents
 126 in coal and environmental growth (Rodionova et al. 2017). Coal rent from coal power offers benefits
 127 to coal-exploration firms to use coal to produce power (Arnason, 2008; Mehrara & Baghbanpour,
 128 2015) an indication that coal production is mainly used for power generation. It is estimated that coal
 129 rent in E7 markets account for a significant (Brazil 0.01%, China 0.41%, India 0.76%, Indonesia,
 130 0.64%, Russia 0.37%, Mexico 0.02% and Turkey 0.02%)³ proportion of their GDP. This evidence
 131 presupposes that, coal rents play a crucial role in economic development, as with all other natural
 132 resources, including oil rents. It is crucial to demonstrate the impact that these natural resources have
 133 on environmental sustainability. Owing to the relevance of coal, many prior studies appear to focus
 134 on the extent to which electricity or fuel use, economic growth, and pollutant pollutions (CO₂) are
 135 mixed (Menyah and Wolde-Rufael, 2010, Lin and Wesseh, 2014).

136 For emerging markets, coal is still an important source of power. The negative impact
 137 associated with coal use has raised criticisms from local and international agencies. This makes the
 138 need to reduce carbon footprints every nation's obligation. However, many developing economies as
 139 well as some developed ones are at crossroads with their energy, climate, and social strategies (ref).

140 The quest to attain economic parity, and social justice have relegated sustainable development and
141 environmental degradation objectives to the background. If causality between socio-economic
142 development, energy use, and pollutants (CO₂) exists, then current research must focus on methods
143 in which nations will move to clean productions and ecological progress. With the above
144 consideration, this study contributes to this gap to offer an understanding into the influence of coal
145 rents (the disparity between the demands at international prices for robust as well as soft coal output
146 and the overall cost of output) on CO₂ emission in the E7.

147 The preference of the E7 states is important to this examination since more than 70% of the
148 power supply in most of the E7 nations are generated from coal usage (Adedoyin et al., 2020). Several
149 studies exist on exploring the causal relation involving socioeconomic progress and energy utilization,
150 in addition to extra factors, there are no analysis considering coal rent, nuclear power generation, and
151 pollutants (CO₂), especially in the E7 context.

152 Although several studies exist on supporting the economic expansion and energy emissions
153 nexus, these studies have neglected the consideration of coal as an energy source, as such literature on
154 coal rents, energy consumption and economic expansion among E7 states is quite deficient (Zakarya
155 et al. 2015). This study is different from previous studies like (Cowan et al. 2014; Zakarya et al. 2015)
156 that examined emission determinants and other energy structures, including electricity. The current
157 study leans toward the discussion on coal rents as well as nuclear energy and its connection to
158 emissions from pollutants (CO₂) in the energy-emissions-growth debate. The study also analyzes how
159 carbon dioxide damage consistency in the E7 states influences this connection, utilizing data from
160 1990 to 2016 and concentrating on relevant panel research. Moreover, the second-generation
161 estimation was employed to identify how the selected variables affect environmental degradation
162 within the E7 economics. In summary, the report analyzes the connection between coal rents, clean
163 energy association with pollution, and the interaction of energy consumption from oil, gas, coal, and
164 carbon dioxide damage with this connection.

165 The remainder of this study is structured as follows: a literature summary is provided in the
166 second part of the study. Econometric methods and information are presented in the third section.
167 The fourth section focuses of analytical observations, while the last section contains conclusion and
168 policy implications for implementation.

169

170 2. Literature Review

171 Literature on the correlation between coal output and sustainable development has produced
172 a litany of mixed results³. For example, Yang (2000) and Taiwan and Yoo (2006) all found negative
173 causal association between coal utilization and sustainable development, while Wolde-Rufael (2004)
174 contrary to the inverse association earlier reported, showed that coal utilization increases sustainable
175 development. Similar differing findings are reported for coal utilization and economic development
176 between OECD and non-OECD states (Jinke et al. 2008)³.

177 Mainly, analysis on this issue establish one-way causality from the social development and coal
178 usage nexus in China and Japan, whereas no causality is identified in the cases of India, South Africa,
179 and South Korea and the intersection of coal use economic development for 2 OECD countries is
180 analyzed by Apergis & Payne (2010), in the form of a multivariate stand. Actual financial development,
181 usage of coal, actual creation of gross fixed capital and labor

182 Nevertheless, the connection between coal output and sustainable development establishes a
183 positive association between the two in the long-term. For instance, Wolde-Rufael (2010) reviewed
184 the emissions and sustainable development correlation among the top six coal using nations. India and
185 Japan showed an, unidirectional causality formed from coal usage to productivity expansion, while
186 China and South Korea attained increased productivity gains from coal usage. However, between coal
187 usage and social expansion in the case of South Africa and the United States, a bi-directional causality
188 was found.

189 Further, Bhattacharya et al. (2013) emphasizes that, in the case of China, improving
190 productivity of the coal sector would lead to sustainable growth, while Shahbaz et al. (2015) consider
191 that the manufacture and use of industrial coal by Granger induces more CO₂ pollution for India in a
192 comparative analysis between China and India.

193 On the other hand, in South Africa, Odhiambo (2016) establish a causal one-way connection
194 between coal usage to job creation, and a causal bidirectional connection between jobs and
195 socioeconomic development. Likewise, there was a bi-directional association between coal production
196 and economic growth.

197 3. Soytaş and Sari (2006) and others discuss in context of total energy, we restrict here to coal related studies. See,
198 Ozturk and Acaravci (2013) for an excellent review
199

200

201 In addition, there is a unidirectional association between China's GDP and its coal usage. A related
202 uni-directional causality link exists between coal usages to economic growth for India (Li & Li, 2011),
203 Apergis & Payne (2010) disclosed that the causality involving economic progress and coal intake being
204 negative in the short and bidirectional. Studying the very identical base, Wassung (2010) on Water-
205 Energy Connection in South Africa clarified that electricity production involves large volumes of clean
206 aquatic for freezing, and that the problem is expected to be further exacerbated as more solar energy
207 plants will be constructed to solve South Africa's growing demand for energy.

208 Over the recent century, academics in the areas such as economics and climate had been
209 charged with the issues to boost output in markets and progress on social deterioration, as a result of
210 pollutants (CO₂) from industrial development, which are deemed the key cause of climate change.
211 This illusion has been the subject of several studies primarily designed to examine the link involving
212 socioeconomic progress and carbon pollutions and to examine the Kuznets Curve (EKC)
213 environmental theory and to implement interventions for environmentally friendly management and
214 effective development. For example, Odhiambo (2012) explained in South Africa that the causal
215 relation flows uni-directionally from development to pollutant emissions, whereas Granger's energy
216 usage causes both pollutant emission and productivity expansion. Results from Dinda (2009) vary
217 from other reports for the OECD and non-OECD nations. Though CO₂ pollutions may not stimulate
218 economic growth development has been shown to improve economic development in non-OECD
219 countries in OECD countries. Accordingly, Richmond & Kaufmann (2006) identified no clear causal
220 connections regarding economic development and pollutant pollution, validating the hypotheses'
221 neutrality.

222 Moreover, many moderating variables like trade, urbanization as well as globalization were
223 identified to factor with respect to the factors of pollutants (CO₂). For example, there is a significant
224 association regarding real GDP, trade accessibility and power usage, whereas urban settlement has a
225 negative correlation to low-income, middle-income as well as high-income panels by Sharma (2011).
226 Nevertheless, oil use in addition to real GDP are statistically major factors of pollutants, while
227 electricity use has adverse impact on pollutant emissions.

228 Again, studies to analyze causality among socioeconomic progress and pollutant pollutions in
229 the E7 nation's ecological and financial parts of energy usage was also carried out. BRIC panel nations

230 are correlated with causal correlations in the increase in total power use including energy use, pollutant
231 emissions, and real GDP, increasing pollutant levels from Fossil Oils Pao & Tsai (2010). The causality
232 among power intake and pollutant emissions according to Wang et al. (2011) implies economic growth
233 which the biggest sources of CO₂ pollutions in China are also power intake. Bloch et al. (2012)
234 acknowledged the cause-related link among CO₂ and demand-side coal consumption (D) and supply-
235 side GDP consumption (S). According to these studies, coal intake and factory output in India were
236 Granger's cause of CO₂ emissions, whereas for China the same was the case for feedback among CO₂
237 pollutions as well as coal use Farhani et al. (2014). And pollutant emissions are driven by the utilization
238 of coal. The determinants of CO₂ pollutions from energy use in Brazil have been analysis by De Freitas
239 & Kaneko (2011) to show that economic and demographic development are the key factors explaining
240 Brazil's pollutant pollutions increase.

241 The study on causality in some nations in the E7 indicates causal relations among all factors
242 but varies in directions within the nations (Cowan et al., 2014). The presence of co-integration in
243 China was established but was not established in India as presented in the analysis of Govindaraju and
244 Tang (2013), while the same two countries had a causal unidirectional association involving economic
245 development to CO₂ pollutions. Pao et al. (2011) revealed a positive correlation regarding pollutant
246 pollutions, energy intake and real GDP, in assessment of Russia. In short, considering the different
247 causes, we find that there is a need for further investigation on varying energy outlets, their growth
248 and their impact on pollutants less particularly in the E7 blocks.

249 **3. Data and Methodology**

250 **3.1 Data and Variables**

251 Past studies have examined the energy consumption and environmental consequence nexus
252 with different macroeconomic and energy variables (see, Adedoyin, Abubakar, Bekun, & Asumadu,
253 2020; Adedoyin, Alola, & Bekun, 2020; Adedoyin, Bekun, & Alola, 2020; Adedoyin, Gumede, Bekun,
254 Etokakpan, & Balsalobre-lorente, 2020; Adedoyin & Zakari, 2020; Adedoyin, Ozturk, Abubakar,
255 Kumeka, & Folarin, 2020; Etokakpan, Adedoyin, Vedat, & Bekun, 2020; Kirikkaleli, Adedoyin, &
256 Bekun, 2020; Udi, Bekun, & Adedoyin, 2020, Gyamfi et al., 2020a, Gyamfi et al., 2020b). This current
257 study explores the channels through which energy from carbon dioxide damage influence the
258 relationship between coal rent, renewable energy, nuclear energy utilization and CO₂ emissions in E7
259 states. This study considers a data series spanning from 1990 to 2016, with second-generation

287 To identify the right analytical technique(s) to employ, the authors used the cross-section dependency
 288 (CD) test. The outcome from the CD test helps in either going for the first-generation or second-
 289 generation panel data econometric technique. The analysis will be bias, meaningless and inconsistence
 290 if CD test is not carried out (Dong et al. 2018; Nathaniel et al., 2020). To make sure the mention
 291 problems does not occur, the authors employed three CD test which are the Pesaran (2007) CD test
 292 and the Pesaran (2015) scaled LM test for the sake of robustness check. More attention was place on
 293 the Pesaran (2015) scaled LM test because of how our dataset is shows ie, the time frame (T) figure is
 294 larger than that of the cross-sections (N) number. The CD test equation is shown in Eq. 1 as:

$$295 \quad CD = \left(\frac{TN(N-1)}{2} \right)^{\frac{1}{2}-P} \quad (3)$$

296 Whereas from equation (3), $P = \left(\frac{2}{N(N-1)} \right) \sum_{i=1}^{N-1} \sum_{j=i+1}^N P_{ij}$, P_{ij} is the Pairwise cross-sectional
 297 correlation coefficient of the residual from the ADF regression. T and N are the sample and panel
 298 scope separately.

299 Panel stationarity technique

300 The proof of CD make in the estimation brings out inefficiency in the first-generation stationarity
 301 technique (e.g., Im et al., 2003). Therefore, the authors employed a second-generation stationarity
 302 technique (CIPS) to solve the problem of inefficiency in the estimation. From the Pesaran (2007) the
 303 CIPS unit root test estimation is shown as;

$$304 \quad \Delta Y_{it} = \Delta \varphi_{it} + \beta_i X_{it-1} + \rho_i T + \sum_{j=1}^n \theta_{ij} \Delta X_{i,t-j} + \epsilon_{it} \quad (4)$$

305 Where φ_{it} , x_{it} , Δ , T, and ϵ_{it} represent the intercept, study variables, difference operator, time span,
 306 and disturbance term respectively. A second-generation cointegration test is performed in the
 307 proximity of first differences stationary variables, to assess the long run effects of the factors under
 308 consideration.

309 Panel cointegration test

310 The findings related to the Westerlund (2007) experiment to obtain proof of co-integration between
 311 the parameters. The error correction form (ECM) of the estimation is shown as:

$$312 \quad \Delta y_{it} = \delta_i d_t + \varphi_i y_{it-1} + \lambda_i x_{it-1} + \sum_{j=1}^{pi} \phi_{ij} \Delta y_{it-j} + \sum_{j=0}^{pi} \gamma_{ij} \Delta x_{it-j} + \epsilon_{it} \quad (5)$$

313 Where $\delta t = (\delta i_1, \delta i_2)'$, $dt = (1, t)'$, and ϕ are the vector of parameters, deterministic components, and
 314 the error correction parameter respectively. To identify cointegration existence, four tests was carried
 315 out. These technique (4) were centered on the OLS technique of ϕ_i in Eq. 3. Group mean statistics
 316 was made up of two out of the four estimations and shown as;

$$317 \quad G\tau = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N \frac{\hat{\alpha}_i}{SE(\hat{\alpha}_i)} \quad \text{and} \quad G\alpha = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N \frac{T\hat{\alpha}_i}{\hat{\alpha}_i(1)}$$

318

319 Where, $\hat{\alpha}_i$ is denoted by $SE(\hat{\alpha}_i)$ as the standard error. The semiparametric kernel technique of
 320 $\hat{\alpha}_i(1)$ is $\hat{\alpha}_i(1)$. Two of the four remaining panel mean estimations which proof that the whole
 321 panel is cointegrated is shown as;

$$322 \quad P\tau = \frac{\hat{\alpha}_i}{SE(\hat{\alpha}_i)} \quad \text{and} \quad P\alpha = T\hat{\alpha}_i$$

323 **Ordinary Least Square (OLS) and Quantile Regression (QR)**

324 The analysis uses the technique for OLS and QR. The existence of cointegration assesses a
 325 long-term connection utilizing the OLS econometrically rational. They use the OLS with standard
 326 errors made by Driscoll and Kraay (1998). This method allows (1) heteroscedasticity, (2) serial
 327 interaction and (3) cross-sectional dependency to be considered. Nevertheless, the QR was the chosen
 328 statistical tool based on its superior to the OLS for different reasons. The standard circulation as well
 329 as the zero mean approval of the OLS error concept is rather unrealistic, since there may be multiple
 330 distribution models for socioeconomic measures (De Silva et al. 2016). The QR reinforces this deficit
 331 (Salman et al. 2019; Nathaniel et al., 2020). The methodology (QR) does not presume the function of
 332 the period (Zhu et al. 2016a, 2016b). In the case of outliers (Bera et al. 2016), forecasts remain robust.
 333 No predictions for distribution (Sherwood and Wang, 2016) have been made. The model for QR is
 334 shown as;

$$335 \quad \text{Quant}_\theta (y_i/x_i) = x\beta_\theta + \mu_\theta, \quad 0 \leq \theta \leq 1 \quad (6)$$

336 Where x is the exogenous factors, while y is the endogenous factors. The equilibrium place and
 337 disruption word of the explicit vector are θ th and μ simultaneously. We use the contingent quantile
 338 regression that explores the effect of the regressors to be used in our econometric analysis on the

339 foundation of the preliminary factors values. In the past, the QR-technology was utilized in Hübler
 340 (2017), Xu & Lin (2018), and Nathaniel et al. (2020) and other studies.

341

342 **MODEL**

343 The STIRPAT structure is the foundation of this analysis. The STIRPAT hypothesis notes that the
 344 destruction of the ecosystem is both economic and social.

345
$$I_t = \vartheta_0 P_t^{\xi_1} A_t^{\xi_2} T_t^{\xi_3} \mu_t \quad (7)$$

346 From Eq. 7, I is a pointer of ecological deprivation, P, A, and T represents population,
 347 affluence, and technology respectively. $\varphi_1 - \varphi_3$ and μ are the factor evaluators and the error term
 348 respectively. T may be broken down based on the purpose of the study (Bello et al. 2018; Anser 2019;
 349 Nathaniel et al. 2020). Base on the analysis of Solarin and Al-Mulali studies (2018) and Nathaniel et al.
 350 (2020), I, in this analysis, identify the environmental factors in this analysis as stated earlier. From a
 351 different perspective, P and A are denoted by economic sustainability and economically globalization
 352 respectively. The authors then adopted Foreign Direct Investment (FDI) and renewable energy
 353 utilization as a proxy T. The extended layout is shown as:

354
$$I_t = \vartheta_0 GDP_t^{\xi_1} REC_t^{\xi_2} NPG_t^{\xi_3} CR_t^{\xi_4} CD_t^{\xi_5} OGC_t^{\xi_6} \mu_t \quad (8)$$

355 By taking the logarithm of each of the variables, the formula is further formulated as;

356
$$\ln I_t = \vartheta_0 + \xi_1 \ln GDP_t + \xi_2 \ln REC_t + \xi_3 \ln NPG_t + \xi_4 \ln CR_t + \xi_5 \ln CD_t + \xi_6 \ln OGC_t + \mu_t \quad (9)$$

357 Where GDP, REC, NPG, CR, CD and OGC denote economic growth, renewable energy
 358 intake, power from nuclear sources, coal rent, carbon dioxide damage and oil, gas and coal sources. I,
 359 on the other hand represent the environmental indicator used in this analysis, thus, CO₂. To analysis
 360 the impact of GDP, REC, NPG, CR, CD, OGC and their regulatory policies on I at the selected
 361 quantile level, the authors formulated Eq (10) which is shown as;

362
$$Q\tau (\mathbf{LnCO}_2) = \vartheta\tau + \xi_{1\tau} \mathbf{LnGDP}_{it} + \xi_{2\tau} \mathbf{LnREC}_{it} + \xi_{3\tau} \mathbf{LnNPG}_{it} + \xi_{4\tau} \mathbf{LnCR}_{it} + \xi_{5\tau} \mathbf{LnCD}_{it} + \xi_{6\tau} \mathbf{LnOGC}_{it} +$$

 363
$$\xi_{7\tau} \mathbf{Ln} (CR*CD)_{it} + \xi_{9\tau} \mathbf{Ln} (NPG*CD)_{it} \quad (10)$$

364 Whereas the remaining variables maintain their original description, CO₂ represent CO₂
 365 emission. For the explicative variables, the reference point is τ . $Q\tau$ corresponds to the τ th
 366 distributional point regression analysis that can be determined using the formulae in Eq. (11)

$$367 \quad Q\tau = \arg \min \sum_{k=1}^q \sum_{t=1}^T \sum_{i=1}^N (|y_{it} - \alpha_i - X_{it} Q\tau| H_{it}) \quad (11)$$

368 Where q , T , N and H_{it} shows the number of quantiles, years, cross-sections, and weight of the i th
 369 nations in the i th year respectively.

370 4. Results and Discussions

371 4.1 Pre-estimation Diagnostics

372 The study provided the summary of statistics of the variables of interest, which include the
 373 mean, median, standard deviation, minimum, maximum, skewness, Kurtosis, Jarque-Bera, probability
 374 values, sum of deviation cum squared deviation and the total number of the observations. The
 375 outcome of the summary statistics reveals that all the variables of interest are negatively skewed except
 376 CO₂ emissions and the Jarque-Bera test confirms the normal distribution of the data series. Based on
 377 the average, real GDP has the highest average value of 8.45 with a maximum and minimum of 9.62
 378 and 6.36 respectively.

379 The correlation matrix is reported in Table 2 to show the level of multicollinearity among the variables
 380 of interest. It is discovered that CO₂ emissions has a strong and positive association with all the
 381 variables except with renewable energy consumption.

382 **Table 1. Summary statistics**

VARIABLES	LNCO ₂	LNCR	LNGDP	LNREC
Mean	1.105777	-2.334471	8.450213	2.967051
Median	1.032805	-1.966998	8.901547	3.188131
Maximum	2.637626	1.576340	9.620394	4.071636
Minimum	-0.343899	-11.77640	6.355242	1.171799
Std. Dev.	0.774087	2.452974	0.908782	0.914188
Skewness	0.279070	-0.918048	-0.795720	-0.643109
Kurtosis	2.253909	4.026182	2.295779	2.165751
Jarque-Bera	7.343290	37.42217	25.61699	19.87985

Probability	0.025435	0.000000	0.000003	0.000048
Sum	224.4726	-473.8976	1715.393	602.3114
Sum Sq. Dev.	121.0404	1215.451	166.8285	168.8195
Observations	189	189	189	189

383

384

385

386

387 **Table 2. Correlation Matrix**

	LnCO₂	LnCR	LnGDP	LnREC
LnCO₂	1.000			
P-value	-			
LnCR	0.102	1.000		
P-value	(0.15)	-		
LnGDP	0.638a	-0.510a	1.000	
P-value	(0.00)	(0.00)	-	
LnREC	-0.952a	-0.141b	-0.566a	1.000
P-value	(0.00)	(0.04)	(0.00)	-

388 **NOTE: a, b, c represents 1%, 5% and 10% significant levels**

389 **4.2 Estimated Results**

390 The results of the cross-sectional dependence are reported in Table 3, which depicts signal for
 391 the rejection of the null hypothesis of independent cross-section of the variables under investigation.
 392 In short, the analyzed variables of interest are dependently cross sectional

393 In lieu of the results of the cross-sectional dependency test, we adopt Pesaran's IPS and CIPS
 394 panel unit root tests and of which the results are depicted in Table 4. The results of the panel unit
 395 root tests are presented at level and first difference while considering the intercept and intercept cum
 396 trend. At level, only three variables (coal rent, carbon damage and oil, gas and coal power sources) are
 397 stationery as demonstrated in the CIPS unit root test while other variables are found to be stationery

398 at first difference. Thus, the mixed order arrangement of the variables between level and first
399 difference requires more advanced estimation techniques that will be applied in the study The
400 Westerlund, (2007) Cointegration Test is thereby presented in Table 5 to confirm the existence of
401 cointegration among the variables of interest. The cointegration test presents both the group statistics
402 and panel statistics and the outcomes of both provide evidence for the existence of cointegration
403 among the variables in the model. The results obtained from the cointegration test lead us to the
404 application of the appropriate estimation techniques, that is, Ordinary least square (OLS) and Quantile
405 regression (QR).

406 The outcomes of the OLS and Quantile regressions for the long run relationships between
407 carbon emission and the independent variables are presented in Table 6 of which the study will focus
408 more on the outcomes of the quantile regression. The OLS estimation shows that real GDP has
409 significantly influences carbon emission positively. Precisely a percent increase in real GDP will cause
410 an estimated 40% increase in carbon emission. Contrarily, increased renewable energy consumption
411 negatively influences carbon emission in E7 economies such that, a 1% increase in renewable energy
412 consumption attracts about 59% reduction in carbon emissions. Additionally, nuclear power sources
413 also showed a significant influence with the coefficient of 0.138. Precisely, a 1% increase in power
414 generated from nuclear sources will increase carbon emission by about 14%. More so, coal rent exerts
415 a positive and significant effect on carbon emissions. In that, a unit increase in coal rent will increase
416 carbon emission by about 9%. The cost of carbon damage also exerts a significant effect, indicating a
417 percentage increase in cost of carbon damage will increase carbon emission by about 51%. Oil, gas
418 and coal power generation sources are showed a negative and statistically significant effect. Such that
419 1% increase in the cost of carbon damage will decrease the carbon emission by about 11%.
420 Furthermore, the OLS estimates shows that, the combined effect of coal rent and cost of carbon
421 damage is positive and statistically significant. Contrarily, the combined effects of power from nuclear
422 sources and cost of carbon damage all exert negative effects on carbon emission and statistically
423 significant at 1%.

424 The quantile regression estimations results (presented in Table 6) showed that, real GDP
425 positively affects carbon emission across all the quantiles. This implies that increased economic growth
426 experienced in E7 economies is a culprit of economic degradation in the region and the implication
427 of this can be found with the uncontrolled growth rate of the industries that contribute more to the
428 deterioration of the environment as the expand. These results align with the findings of Ozcan et al

429 (2019) on 35 OECD countries and Sharif et al (2019) on 74 nations selected globally. In addition, the
430 outcomes discovered for the clean energy intakes are negative and statistically substantial across the
431 observed quantiles. This means that increase in the consumption of renewable energy will reduce the
432 environmental degradation experienced in E7 economies. This is another policy direction for
433 policymakers to adopt cleaner energy sources in place of the traditional non-renewable energy sources
434 in a way to promote environmental quality and sustainable development in the region. These results
435 concur with the findings of Danish et al (2019) and Hanif et al (2019) for BRICS and Asian economies
436 respectively. Additionally, nuclear power sources are observed to be positive in 5th and 25th quantiles
437 but only significant in the 25th quantile while other quantiles show a negative and insignificant impact
438 of nuclear power sources on the environmental deterioration in E7 economies. This implies that
439 adoption of low nuclear power sources as observed for the 5th quantile tends contribute immensely
440 to environmental degradation in E7 economies. This evidence is supported in the study of Sarkodie
441 & Adams (2018) on the economy of South Africa.

442 Furthermore, the outcomes for coal rent are found to be positive across all the observed
443 quantiles but only statistically significant in the three median quantiles, that is, 25th, 50th and 75th
444 quantiles. This indicates that, the introduction of moderate rent on coal consumption in E7 economies
445 observed in the median quantiles increases environmental degradation among the E7 states. This
446 finding is in contrast with findings from Adedoyin et al. (2020) who found no causal relation between
447 coal rent and carbon emission in BRICS. More so, the results for cost carbon damage show a positive
448 effect across all the observed quantiles. This intuitively provides evidence parallel to the claim that,
449 increasing cost of carbon emitted in E7 economies further deteriorates environmental quality if
450 adequate policy measures are not put in place. Power generation from oil, gas and coal sources showed
451 a negative influence across all the observed quantiles, except the 5th quantile where the estimated
452 effect was insignificant. This implies that more power generated from oil, gas and coal sources reduces
453 the level of carbon emission. However, Pata (2018) found contradictory findings with evidence from
454 Turkish.

455 In the bid for more clarification, the analysis further sought to investigate the effect of some
456 expected regulatory measures on carbon emissions in E7 economies. The outcome of the regulatory
457 measures including coal rent and cost of damage showed positive effects across the observed quantiles.
458 This implies that increasing rent on coal consumption alongside increasing cost of carbon damage,
459 increases environmental deterioration. Additionally, generation of power from nuclear sources

460 alongside increasing cost of carbon damage has negative effects on carbon emission across all the
 461 observed quantiles except at 5th quantile. This implies that the regulatory measure that involves
 462 nuclear power sources and cost of carbon damage reduces environmental degradation in E7
 463 economies.

464

465

466

467 Table 3. Cross-sectional dependency test results

	Pesaran(2007) CD Test	Pesaran(2015) LM Test
$\text{LnCO}_2=f(\text{LnGDP}, \text{LnREC}, \text{LnNPG}, \text{LnCR}, \text{LnCD}, \text{LnOGC})$	4.483a	-2.444b

468 NOTE: a, b, c represents 1%, 5% and 10% significant levels

469 Table 4. Panel IPS and CIPS unit root test

Variables	IPS				CIPS			
	Intercept		Intercept & trend		Intercept		Intercept & trend	
	Levels	1 st Diff	Levels	1 st Diff	Levels	1 st Diff	Levels	1 st Diff
LnCO₂	-1.008	-4.707a	-2.210	-4.638a	-2.826	-4.468a	-2.237	-4.456a
LnGDP	-0.160	-3.765a	-2.032	-3.877a	-1.753	-3.041a	-1.345	-3.323a
LnREC	-0.592	-5.034a	-2.632	-4.958a	-2.657b	-4.672a	-2.657	-4.794a
LnNPG	-1.950	-2.070c	-2.570	-2.930b	-1.889	-3.327a	-2.607	-3.668a
LnCR	-2.027	-5.776a	-2.493	-5.668a	-2.623a	-5.011a	-2.872c	-5.591a
LnCD	-1.868	-4.509a	-2.220	-4.435a	-2.087	-4.925a	-2.808c	-4.981a
LnOGC	-2.164	-6.285a	-3.0348	-6.217a	-2.968a	-5.643a	-3.124a	-5.735a

470 NOTE: a, b, c represents 1%, 5% and 10% significant levels

471 Table 5. Westerlund (2007) Cointegration Test

Model/dependent	Group statistics		Panel statistics	
	G τ	G α	P τ	P α
$\text{LnCO}_2=f(\text{LnGDP}, \text{LnREC}, \text{LnNPG}, \text{LnCR}, \text{LnCD}, \text{LnOGC})$	-1.841b	-3.529c	-6.959a	-6.159c

472 NOTE: a, b, c represents 1%, 5% and 10% significant levels

473

474

475 **Table 6. OLS and Quantile Regression Result for long run relationship**

	OLS	Q.05	Q.25	Q.50	Q.75	Q.95
Dependent variable:						
LnCO₂						
LnGDP	0.400a	0.321a	0.376a	0.468a	0.499a	0.547a
LnREC	-0.588a	-0.593a	-0.636a	-0.564a	-0.575a	-0.479a
LnNPG	0.138b	0.314a	0.079	-0.096	-0.055	-0.042
LnCR	0.088a	0.315	0.086b	0.068c	0.101a	0.054
LnCD	0.508a	0.341a	0.522a	0.642a	0.693a	0.711a
LnOGC	-0.107b	-0.019	-0.130b	-0.140b	-0.250a	-0.128b
LnCR*LnCD	0.072a	0.078a	0.085a	0.061a	0.033b	0.029c
LnNPG*LnCD	-0.096a	-0.022	-0.082a	-0.128a	-0.128a	-0.108a
Constant	-0.290	-0.124	0.060	-0.858	-0.535	-1.658b
F-Statistic	651.72a					
Wald test	5171.33a					
R2/Pseudo R2	0.9704	0.8369	0.8445	0.8517	0.8561	0.8502
Adj R-square	0.9689					
Observation	189	189	189	189	189	189

476 **NOTE: a, b, c represents 1%, 5% and 10% significant levels**

477

478 **4.3 Dumitrescu and Hurlin Causality test**

479 The panel causality test (Dumitrescu and Hurlin causality test) is necessitated by the need to
480 assess the Granger non-causality moving from the explanatory variables to the explained variable as
481 conceptualized in the study of Dumitrescu & Hurlin, (2012) in a non-heterogeneous panel dataset. A
482 uni-directional association running from coal rent to CO₂ emission is observed in the study. This
483 implies that regulations on coal consumption may further affect the activities of industries, which emit
484 high amounts of carbon dioxide into the atmosphere. In other terms, regulations of demand and

485 supply of coal resources will lead to more environmental deterioration in E7 countries and a way to
486 get rid of this as suggested in the literature is to adopt clean energy sources as alternative for the coal
487 energy consumption in order to keep the global economy safe from environment degradation and
488 climate change. A unidirectional relationship exists involving CO₂ pollutions and economic progress
489 in the study. The implication of this is that, activities that are more productive favor the economy but
490 the channels of the growth fuel environmental degradation in E7 countries. A similar result is reported
491 for CO₂, nuclear energy and renewable energy sources moving from the former to each of the
492 separately. This is in line with the recent climate policy that focuses on the adoption of alternative
493 energy sources that will reduce the CO₂ emission in the global world. In another words, this means
494 that environmental degradation in E7 economies will prompt the government to adopt nuclear energy
495 and renewable energy sources as viable alternatives for fossil fuels in order the quench the CO₂
496 emissions in E7 countries.

497 Additionally, a one-way directional relationship is also observed between cost of coal damage
498 to coal rent; coal rent to real GDP; oil, gas and coal sources coal rent; cost of carbon damage to real
499 GDP; nuclear energy sources to real GDP and from renewable energy consumption to nuclear energy
500 sources. The Quantile Regression analysis shows that coal rent has a positive effect on CO₂ emissions,
501 while cost of carbon damage triggers CO₂ emission. Thus, use of coal rent as regulatory measure will
502 increase the cost of producing coal and then accelerate the cost attached to polluting the environment.
503 From another angle, the theoretical basis for these outcomes is that the search for economic
504 transformation through coal consumption will prompt governments and policymakers to map out
505 regulations, which may inform the introduction of coal rent in order to reduce the carbon dioxide
506 emission. Consequently, industrialists would look for alternatives for non-renewable energy sources
507 that deteriorate the environment as claimed in majority of the previous studies found in the literature
508 (see Bekun et al, 2019) by adopting renewable energy and nuclear energy consumption that tend to
509 reduce the CO₂ emissions in E7 countries. However, this has generated a lot debate in the literature.
510 In this regard, the transition from carbon intensive technologies to modern clean technologies will
511 promote sustainable development and reduces the experience of environmental deterioration in E7
512 economies.

513

514

515 **Table 7. Results of Causality Tests**

NULL HYPOTHESIS	F-STATISTICS	P-Value	CAUSALITY FLOW
LnCR↗LnCO₂	4.18337b	(0.0422)	LnCR→LnCO₂
LnCO₂↗LnCR	0.00426	(0.9480)	
LnGDP↗LnCO₂	1.26118	(0.2628)	LnCO₂→LnGDP
LnCO₂↗LnGDP	3.10253c	(0.0798)	
LnNPG↗LnCO₂	1.16505	(0.2818)	LnCO₂→LnNPG
LnCO₂↗LnNPG	5.93176b	(0.0158)	
LnREC↗LnCO₂	0.05665	(0.8121)	LnCO₂→LnREC
LnCO₂↗LnREC	4.26515b	(0.0402)	
LnCD↗LnCR	12.3992a	(0.0005)	LnCD→LnCR
LnCR↗LnCD	3.9E-05	(0.9950)	
LnGDP↗LnCR	2.08027	(0.1508)	LnCR→LnGDP
LnCR↗LnGDP	4.99611b	(0.0266)	
LnOGC↗LnCR	8.07409a	(0.0050)	LnOGC→LnCR
LnCR↗LnOGC	1.81411	(0.1796)	
LnGDP↗LnCD	1.95802	(0.1633)	LnCD→LnGDP
LnCD↗LnGDP	7.10912a	(0.0083)	
LnNPG↗LnGDP	2.77912c	(0.0971)	LnNPG→LnGDP
LnGDP↗LnNPG	0.86123	(0.3546)	
LnREC↗LnNPG	7.06945a	(0.0085)	LnREC↔LnNPG
LnNPG↗LnREC	5.07429b	(0.0254)	

516 **NOTE: a, b, c represents 1%, 5% and 10% significant levels**

517

518 **5. Conclusion and Policy Recommendations**

519 The main objective of this study is to examine the influence of economic growth, coal CO₂
520 damage and power from oil gas energy on carbon emissions. It employs a panel dataset of E7 member
521 states over the period of 1990 to 2016. The study uses an OLS and Quantile regression analyses to
522 understand the dynamics of the hypothesized relationships. The quantile regression approach aids to
523 get rid of the bias of the OLS estimator. The results from the estimation techniques reveal a positive
524 effect of real GDP on carbon emission. Increasing economic activities recorded in the region as result
525 in industrialization and the adoption of more advanced production techniques have led to more
526 environmental depletion. Thus, uncontrolled growth is seen as a driver of environmental degradation
527 in E7 economies. Additionally, renewable energy is found to have negative and significant impact on
528 CO₂ emissions in E7 countries. This confirms the transition of countries from non-renewable energy

529 (fossil fuels, coal) consumption to renewable energy consumption as a viable way to combat the rising
530 CO₂ emissions and to meet the expectation of growing demand for energy resources.

531 Furthermore, nuclear power sources exert a positive effect on carbon emission in E7
532 economies but only when power generated from nuclear sources is low whereas found to have
533 insignificant negative coefficients when more power is generated from nuclear sources. This implies
534 that environmental degradation could be reduced if more power can be generated from nuclear power
535 sources in E7 economies. The results for coal rent show a positive and statistically significant impact
536 of coal rent on carbon emission in E7 economies. However, the influence is most prevalent where
537 coal rent consumption is moderately charged. In addition, the cost of carbon damage shows a
538 positively significant effect on carbon emission. This implies that the rising carbon emissions in E7
539 economies is because of the increasing economic activities compounding pressure on the
540 environment. Power generation from oil, gas and coal sources is found to benefit the environment, as
541 the findings show a negative impact on environmental degradation in E7 economies. Finally, the study
542 also incorporated some regulatory measures in order to gain more insight to the effect of some energy
543 policies in CO₂ emissions in E7 countries. As such, the estimated results indicate that regulation of
544 coal consumption through rent in addition to the cost of carbon damage will increase CO₂ emissions
545 in E7 countries. The implication of this is that putting stringent regulations on coal consumption at
546 par with rising cost of carbon damage will not be of help to environmental sustainability.

547 Additionally, commanding adherence to environmental policy could be a good way to reduce
548 CO₂ emissions in E7 countries. However, it could be more effective in circumventing the
549 environmental degradation produced from the generation of power supply from oil, coal and gas
550 sources. This implies that putting regulations on coal consumption at par with oil, coal and gas
551 consumption will be a vital means to promote environmental quality and sustainable development in
552 E7 economies. In addition, strict adoption of nuclear energy sources as well as more cost of carbon
553 damage will reduce CO₂ emissions in E7 countries significantly. This is pointing towards the resistant
554 of nuclear energy sources to produce air pollutants while operating unlike the fossil fuel energy
555 sources. Lastly, power generation from nuclear sources as well as increasing cost of carbon damage is
556 found to give a mixed result as it is found that lesser environmental degradation is attached to lesser
557 regulatory measure.

558 Based on the results obtained from this study, this study recommends several policies to reduce the
559 CO₂ emissions embattling the environmental sustainability of E7 economics. It is evident from the

560 study that adoption of renewable energy can be an effective way to enhance green growth and
561 sustainable development. The policy implication is that renewable energy makes use of clean
562 technologies that can offset the emissions set out by non-renewable energy consumption. Thus, E7
563 economies should put more effort on more consumption of renewable energy and less of the
564 traditional non-renewable energy in order to reduce the level CO₂ emissions experienced in the region.
565 Meanwhile, the reduction of the consumption of the carbon emitting non-renewable energy does not
566 have significant effect on the economies (Dogan & Seker, 2016). To achieve this feat at a low
567 transaction cost, research and development should become sector of interest to policymakers in a way
568 to make the energy resources produced from renewable energy sources cheaper.

569 Furthermore, policies should be focused on aggravating the cost of production for coal
570 exploitation vis-a-vis introduction of coal rents. The study found that charging lower rent on coal
571 consumption might put the carbon emitting firms to overlook the impact of their activities on the
572 environment, as their revenue seems to be affected when lower rent is charged. Therefore, the findings
573 from this study have shown that the introduction of more stringent environmental regulations and
574 policies that will enforce the transition of industries from carbon emitting energy sources to cleaner
575 energy sources that improve the environmental quality and encourage sustainable development.

576 Lastly, the study shows that research and developmental efforts of the governments to
577 improve the climate condition may not be enough to curb environmental degradation in the region.
578 The study recommends that governments and policy makers should look towards the direction
579 infrastructural developments by increasing the yearly capital expenditure. Theoretically, more capital
580 expenditure attracts more investment, thus, this policy will make a turnaround as more FDI will flow
581 into the countries and importance of the FDI is found in the need to adopt clean technologies that
582 will save the masses from the menace of CO₂ emissions. This strengthens the bloc of the
583 environmental quality and sustainable development

584

585

586

587

588

589

590 **Reference**

591 Adedoyin, F. F., & Zakari, A. (2020). Energy consumption, economic expansion, and CO2 emission
592 in the UK: The role of economic policy uncertainty. *Science of the Total Environment*, 140014.
593 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.scitotenv.2020.140014>

594 Adedoyin, F. F., Alola, A. A., & Bekun, F. V. (2020). An assessment of environmental sustainability
595 corridor: The role of economic expansion and research and development in EU countries.
596 *Science of the Total Environment*, 713, 136726.
597 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.scitotenv.2020.136726>

598 Adedoyin, F. F., Bekun, F. V., & Alola, A. A. (2020). Growth impact of transition from non-renewable
599 to renewable energy in the EU: The role of research and development expenditure. *Renewable*
600 *Energy*. <https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1016/j.renene.2020.06.015>

601 Adedoyin, F. F., Gumede, I. M., Bekun, V. F., Etokakpan, U. M., & Balsalobre-lorente, D. (2020).
602 Modelling coal rent, economic growth and CO2 emissions: Does regulatory quality matter in
603 BRICS economies? *Science of the Total Environment*, 710, 136284.
604 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.scitotenv.2019.136284>

605 Adedoyin, F., Abubakar, I., Victor, F., & Asumadu, S. (2020). Generation of energy and
606 environmental-economic growth consequences: Is there any difference across transition
607 economies? *Energy Reports*, 6, 1418–1427. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.egy.2020.05.026>

608 Adedoyin, F., Ozturk, I., Abubakar, I., Kumeka, T., & Folarin, O. (2020). Structural breaks in CO 2
609 emissions: Are they caused by climate change protests or other factors? *Journal of*
610 *Environmental Management*, 266(December 2019), 110628.
611 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jenvman.2020.110628>

612 Akinlo E., A., (2008). Energy consumption and economic growth: evidence from 11 sub-Sahara
613 African countries. *Energy Econ.* 30, 2391–2400

614 Apergis N, Payne JE. (2010). Energy consumption and economic growth: evidence from a panel of
615 OECD countries. *Energy Policy*; 38:1353–9.

616 Anser MK (2019) Impact of energy consumption and human activities on carbon emissions in
617 Pakistan: application of STIRPAT model. *Environ Sci Pollut Res* 26(13):13453–13463

618 Arnason, R., (2008). Natural Resource Rents: Theoretical Clarification. Institute of Economic Studies,
619 *Working Paper Series, W08:07*.

620 Bekun, F. V., Alola, A. A., & Sarkodie, S. A. (2019a). Toward a sustainable environment: Nexus
621 between CO₂ emissions, resource rent, renewable and nonrenewable energy in 16-EU
622 countries. *Science of The Total Environment*, 657, 1023–1029.
623 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.scitotenv.2018.12.104>

624 Bekun, F.V., Emir, F., Sarkodie, S.A., (2019b). Another look at the relationship between energy
625 consumption, CO₂ dioxide emissions, and economic growth in South Africa. *Sci. Total*
626 *Environ.* 655, 759–765

627 Bello MO, Solarin SA, Yen YY (2018). The impact of electricity consumption on CO₂ emission,
628 carbon footprint, water footprint and ecological footprint: the role of hydropower in an
629 emerging economy. *J Environ Manag* 219:218–230

630 Ben Amar, M., (2013). Economic growth: the case of African countries. *The Journal of Energy and*
631 *Development* 38, 65–78

632 Bera AK, Galvao AF, Montes-Rojas GV, Park SY (2016) Asymmetric laplace regression: maximum
633 likelihood, maximum entropy and quantile regression. *Journal of Econometric Methods*
634 5(1):79–101

635 Bhattacharya M, Rafiq S, Bhattacharya S. (2015). The role of technology on the dynamics of coal
636 consumption–economic growth: new evidence from China. *Appl Energy*; 154:686–95.

637 Bloch, H., Rafiq, S., Salim, R., (2012). Coal consumption, CO₂ emission and economic growth in
638 China: empirical evidence and policy responses. *Energy Econ.* 34, 518–528.

639 BP Statistical Review of World Energy (June 2017)

640 Cowan, W.N., Chang, T., Inglesi-Lotz, R., Gupta, R., (2014). The nexus of electricity consumption,
641 economic growth and CO₂ emissions in the BRICS countries. *Energy Policy* 66, 359–368

642 Danish, Baloch, M. A., Mahmood, N., & Zhang, J. W. (2019). Effect of natural resources, renewable
643 energy and economic development on CO₂ emissions in BRICS countries. *Science of the Total*
644 *Environment*, 678, 632–638. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.scitotenv.2019.05.028>

645 De Freitas, C., Kaneko, S., (2011). Decomposition of CO₂ emissions change from energy
646 consumption in Brazil: challenges and policy implications. *Energy Policy* 39, 1495–1504

647 De Silva PNK, Simons SJR, Stevens P (2016) Economic impact analysis of natural gas development
648 and the policy implications. *Energy Policy* 88:639–651

649 Dinda, S., (2009). Climate change and human insecurity. *International Journal of Global Environment*
650 9, 103–109

651 Dong K, Sun R, Li H, Liao H (2018) Does natural gas consumption mitigate CO₂ emissions: testing
652 the environmental Kuznets curve hypothesis for 14 Asia-Pacific countries. *Renew Sust Energ*
653 *Rev* 94: 419–429

654 Driscoll JC, Kraay AC (1998) Consistent covariance matrix estimation with spatially dependent panel
655 data. *Rev Econ Stat* 80(4):549–560

656 Dumitrescu, E. I., & Hurlin, C. (2012). Testing for Granger non-causality in heterogeneous panels.
657 *Economic Modelling*, 29(4), 1450–1460. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.econmod.2012.02.014>

658 Esso, L.J., Keho, Y., 2016. Energy consumption, economic growth and CO₂ emissions:
659 co-integration and causality evidence from selected African countries. *Energy* 114, 492–497.

660 Etokakpan, M. U., Adedoyin, F. F., Vedat, Y., & Bekun, F. V. (2020). Does globalization in Turkey
661 induce increased energy consumption: insights into its environmental pros and cons.
662 *Environmental Science and Pollution Research*.

663 Farhani, S., Shahbaz, M., Ozturk, I., 2014. Coal Consumption, Industrial Production and CO₂
664 Emissions in China and India. *Working Paper. IPAG Business School*, pp. 2014–2225

665 Gyamfi BA, Bein AM, & Bekun V F. (2020a). Investigating the nexus between hydroelectricity
666 energy, renewable energy, non-renewable energy consumption on output: evidence from
667 E7 countries. *Environmental Science and Pollution Research*
668 <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11356-020-08909-8>

669 Gyamfi, B. A., Bein, M. A., Ozturk, I., & Bekun, F. V. (2020b). The Moderating Role of
670 Employment in an Environmental Kuznets Curve Framework Revisited in G7
671 Countries. *Indonesian Journal of Sustainability Accounting and Management*, 4(2).

672 Govindaraju, C.V.G.R., Tang, C.F., (2013). The dynamic links between CO2 emissions, economic
673 growth and coal consumption in China and India. *Appl. Energy* 104, 310–318

674 Hanif, I., Aziz, B., & Chaudhry, I. S. (2019). Carbon emissions across the spectrum of renewable and
675 nonrenewable energy use in developing economies of Asia. *Renewable Energy*, 143, 586–595.
676 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.renene.2019.05.032>

677 Hanif, I., Aziz, B., & Chaudhry, I. S. (2019). Carbon emissions across the spectrum of renewable and
678 nonrenewable energy use in developing economies of Asia. *Renewable Energy*, 143, 586–
679 595. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.renene.2019.05.032>

680 Hübler M (2017). The inequality-emissions nexus in the context of trade and development: a quantile
681 regression approach. *Ecol Econ* 134: 174–185

682 Im KS, Pesaran MH, Shin Y (2003) Testing for unit roots in heterogeneous panels. *J Econ* 115(1):53–
683 74

684 Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC), (2013). Fifth Assessment Report (AR5).
685 Retrieved from. <https://www.ipcc.ch/report/ar5/>.

686 Jinke L, Hualing S, Dianming G. (2008). Causality relationship between coal consumption and GDP:
687 difference of major OECD and non-OECD countries. *Appl Energy*; 85:421–9.

688 Kirikkaleli, D., Adedoyin, F. F., & Bekun, F. V. (2020). Nuclear energy consumption and economic
689 growth in the UK: Evidence from wavelet coherence approach. *Journal of Public Affairs*,
690 (February), 1–11. <https://doi.org/10.1002/pa.2130>

691 Li, J., Li, Z., (2011). Causality analysis of coal consumption and economic growth for China and India.
692 *Natural Resources* 2, 54–60

693 Lin, B., Wesseh Jr, P.K., (2014). Energy consumption and economic growth in South Africa
694 reexamined: A nonparametric testing approach. *Renew. Sust. Energy. Rev.* 40 (C), 840–850
695 Elsevier

- 696 Mehrara, M., Baghbanpour, J., (2015). Analysis of the relationship between Total natural resources
697 rent and economic growth: the case of Iran and MENA countries. *International Journal of Applied*
698 *Economic Studies* 3 (5), 1–7
- 699 Menyah, A.K., Wolde-Rufael, Y., (2010). Energy consumption, pollutant emissions and economic
700 growth in South Africa. *Energy Econ.* 32, 1374–1382.
- 701 Nathaniel, S., Aguegboh, E., Iheonu, C., Sharma, G., & Shah, M. (2020). Energy consumption, FDI,
702 and urbanization linkage in coastal Mediterranean countries: re-assessing the pollution haven
703 hypothesis. *Environmental Science and Pollution Research*, 1-14.
- 704 Ocal O, Ozturk I, Aslan A. (2013). Coal consumption and economic growth in Turkey. *Int J Energy*
705 *Econ Policy*; 3(2):193–8.
- 706 Odhiambo, N.M., (2010). Energy consumption, prices and economic growth in three sub-Sahara
707 Africa countries: a comparative study. *Energy Policy* 38, 2463–2469.
- 708 Odhiambo, N.M., (2012). Economic growth and CO2 emissions in South Africa: an empirical
709 investigation. *The Journal of Applied Business Research* 28 (1).
- 710 Odhiambo, N.M., (2016). Coal consumption and economic growth in South Africa. *Energy &*
711 *Environment* 27, 215–226.
- 712 Ozcan, B., Tzeremes, P. G., & Tzeremes, N. G. (2019). Energy consumption, economic growth and
713 environmental degradation in OECD countries. *Economic Modelling*.
714 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.econmod.2019.04.010>
- 715 Ozturk, I. (2010). A literature survey on energy–growth nexus. *Energy policy*, 38(1), 340-349.
- 716 Ozturk I, & Acaravci A. (2009a). On the causality between tourism growth and economic growth:
717 Empirical evidence from Turkey. *Transylvanian Review of Administrative Sciences*, 5(25), 73-81.
- 718 Ozturk I, Acaravci. (2013b). The long-run and causal analysis of energy, growth,
719 openness and financial development on CO2 emissions in Turkey. *Energy Econ*; 36:262–7.
- 720 Pao, H., Tsai, C., (2010). CO2 emissions, energy consumption and economic growth in BRIC
721 countries. *Energy Policy* 38, 7850–7860.

- 722 Pao, H., Yu, H., Yang, Y., (2011). Modelling the CO₂ emissions, energy use, and economic
723 growth in Russia. *Energy* 36, 5094–5100
- 724 Park, J., Hoon, T., (2013). Analysis of South Korea's economic growth, CO₂ dioxide emission, and
725 energy consumption using the Markov switching model. *Renew. Sust. Energy. Rev.* 18, 543–
726 551.
- 727 Pata, U. K. (2018). The influence of coal and non-carbohydrate energy consumption on CO₂
728 emissions: Revisiting the environmental Kuznets curve hypothesis for Turkey. *Energy*, 160,
729 1115–1123. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.energy.2018.07.095>
- 730 Pesaran MH (2007). A simple panel unit root test in the presence of cross-section dependence. *J*
731 *Appl Econ* 22(2):265–312
- 732 Pesaran, M.H., (2015). Testing weak cross-sectional dependence in large panels. *Econom.*
733 *Rev.* 34 (6–10), 1089–1117.
- 734 Richmond, A.K., Kaufmann, R.K., (2006). Is there a turning point in the relationship between
735 income and energy use and/or CO₂ emissions? *Ecol. Econ.* 56, 176–189
- 736 Rodionova, I.A., Chernyaev, M.V., Korenevskaya, A.V., (2017). Energy safety and innovative
737 development of the BRICS states. *Int. J. Energy Econ. Policy* 7 (3), 216–224.
- 738 Salman M, Long X, Dauda L, Mensah CN, Muhammad S (2019) Different impacts of export and
739 import on carbon emissions across 7 ASEAN countries: a panel quantile regression approach.
740 *Sci Total Environ* 686:1019–1029
- 741 Sarkodie, S. A., & Adams, S. (2018). Renewable energy, nuclear energy, and environmental pollution:
742 Accounting for political institutional quality in South Africa. *Science of the Total Environment*,
743 643, 1590–1601. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.scitotenv.2018.06.320>
- 744 Shahbaz M Sahbi, Farhani S, Ozturk I. (2015). Do coal consumption and industrial development
745 increase environmental degradation in China and India? *Environ Sci Pollut Res*, 22(5):3895–
746 907
- 747 Sharif, A., Raza, S. A., Ozturk, I., & Afshan, S. (2019). The dynamic relationship of renewable and
748 nonrenewable energy consumption with carbon emission: A global study with the application

749 of heterogeneous panel estimations. *Renewable Energy*, 133, 685–691.
750 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.renene.2018.10.052>

751 Sharif, A., Raza, S. A., Ozturk, I., & Afshan, S. (2019). The dynamic relationship of renewable and
752 nonrenewable energy consumption with carbon emission: A global study with the
753 application of heterogeneous panel estimations. *Renewable Energy*, 133, 685–691.
754 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.renene.2018.10.052>

755 Sharma, S.S., (2011). Determinants of CO2 dioxide emissions: empirical evidence from 69 countries.
756 *Appl. Energy* 88, 376–382

757 Solarin SA, Al-Mulali U (2018) Influence of foreign direct investment on indicators of
758 environmental degradation. *Environ Sci Pollut Res* 25(25):24845–24859

759 Solarin, S.A., Shahbaz, M., (2013). Trivariate causality between economic growth, urbanization and
760 electricity consumption in Angola: Cointegration and causality analysis. *Energy Policy* 60, 876–
761 884.

762 Solarin, S.A., Shahbaz, M., (2015). Natural gas consumption and economic growth: the role of
763 foreign direct investment, capital formation and trade openness in Malaysia. *Renew. Sust.*
764 *Energy. Rev.* 42, 835–845

765 Soytas U, Sari R. (2006). Energy consumption and income in G7 countries. *J Policy Model*; 28:739–50.

766 Udi, J., Bekun, F. V., & Adedoyin, F. F. (2020). Modeling the nexus between coal consumption, FDI
767 inflow and economic expansion: does industrialization matter in South Africa? *Environmental*
768 *Science and Pollution Research*. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11356-020-07691-x>

769 Wang, S.S., Zhou, D.Q., Zhou, P., Wang, Q.W., (2011). CO2 emissions, energy consumption
770 and economic growth in China: a panel data analysis. *Energy Policy* 39, 4870–4875

771 Wassung, N., (2010). Thesis on Water Scarcity and Electricity Generation in South Africa

772 Westerlund J (2007) Testing for error correction in panel data. *Oxf Bull Econ Stat* 69(6):709–748

773 Wolde-Rufael Y. (2004). Disaggregated industrial energy consumption and GDP: the case of
774 Shanghai 1952–1999. *Energy Econ*; 26:69–75.

775 Wolde-Rufael Y. (2010). Coal consumption and economic growth revisited. *Appl Energy* 2010;
776 87:160–7.

777 World Bank (2020). World Bank. World Dev. Indic. <https://doi.org/> (<http://databank.worldbank.org/data/reports.aspx?Source=World%20Development%20Indicators#>).

778

779 Xu B, Lin B (2018). Investigating the differences in CO2 emissions in the transport sector across
780 Chinese provinces: evidence from a quantile regression model. *J Clean Prod* 175:109–122

781 Yang H-Y. (2000). A note on the causal relationship between energy and GDP in
782 Taiwan. *Energy Econ*; 22:309–17.

783 Yildirim E, Aslan A Ilhan, Ozturk I. (2012). Coal consumption and industrial production nexus in
784 USA: cointegration with two unknown structural breaks and causality approaches. *Renew Sustain*
785 *Energy Rev*; 16(8):6123–7.

786 Yoo, S.H., (2006a). The causal relationship between electricity consumption and economic growth in
787 the ASEAN countries. *Energy Policy* 34, 3573–3582.

788 Yoo, S.H., (2006b). Causal relationship between coal consumption and economic growth in
789 Korea. *Appl. Energy* 83, 1181–1189.

790 Zakarya, G.Y., Mostefa, B., Abbes, S.M., Seghir, G.M., (2015). Factors affecting CO2 emissions
791 in the BRICS countries: a panel data analysis. *Procedia Economics and Finance* 26, 114–125.

792 Zhu H, Duan L, Guo Y, Yu K (2016a) The effects of FDI, economic growth and energy consumption
793 on carbon emissions in ASEAN-5: evidence from panel quantile regression. *Econ Model*
794 58:237–248

795 Zhu H, Guo Y, You W, Xu Y (2016b). The heterogeneity dependence between crude oil price
796 changes and industry stock market returns in China: evidence from a quantile regression
797 approach. *Energy Econ* 55:30–4.

798

799 **Appendix**

800 Table A.1. Description of variables

Variables	Abbreviation	Definition	Data Source
-----------	--------------	------------	-------------

CO₂ emissions (metric tons per capita)	CO ₂	Carbon dioxide emissions are those stemming from the burning of fossil fuels and the manufacture of cement. They include carbon dioxide produced during consumption of solid, liquid, and gas fuels and gas flaring.	WDI
Renewable energy consumption (% of total final energy consumption)	REC	Renewable energy consumption is the share of renewable energy in total final energy consumption.	WDI
Power from nuclear sources (% of total)	NPG	Sources of electricity refer to the inputs used to generate electricity. Nuclear power refers to electricity produced by nuclear power plants.	IEA Statistics
Economic Growth	GDP	GDP per capita (constant 2010 US\$)	WDI
Coal rents (% of GDP)	CR	Coal rents are the difference between the value of both hard and soft coal production at world prices and their total costs of production.	WDI
carbon dioxide damage (% of GNI)	CD	Cost of damage due to carbon dioxide emissions from fossil fuel use and the manufacture of cement, estimated to be US\$30 per ton of CO ₂ (the unit damage in 2014 US dollars for CO ₂ emitted in 2015) times the number of tons of CO ₂ emitted.	WDI
Power from oil, gas and coal sources (% of total)	OGC	Sources of electricity refer to the inputs used to generate electricity. Oil refers to crude oil and petroleum products. Gas refers to natural gas but excludes natural gas liquids. Coal refers to all coal and brown coal, both primary (including hard coal and lignite-brown coal) and derived fuels (including patent fuel, coke oven coke, gas coke, coke oven gas, and blast furnace gas). Peat is also included in this category.	IEA Statistics

801 Source: author's compilation

802

803 **Table A.2: VIF Estimations**

Variables	VIF	1/VIF
LnGDP	7.20	0.108662
LnREC	6.81	0.113549
LnCD	5.62	0.177864
LnCR	2.75	0.364046
LnOGC	2.58	0.388111
LnNPG	2.28	0.438534

Mean VIF	4.54
-----------------	------

804

DECLARATION OF INTEREST

Acknowledgement

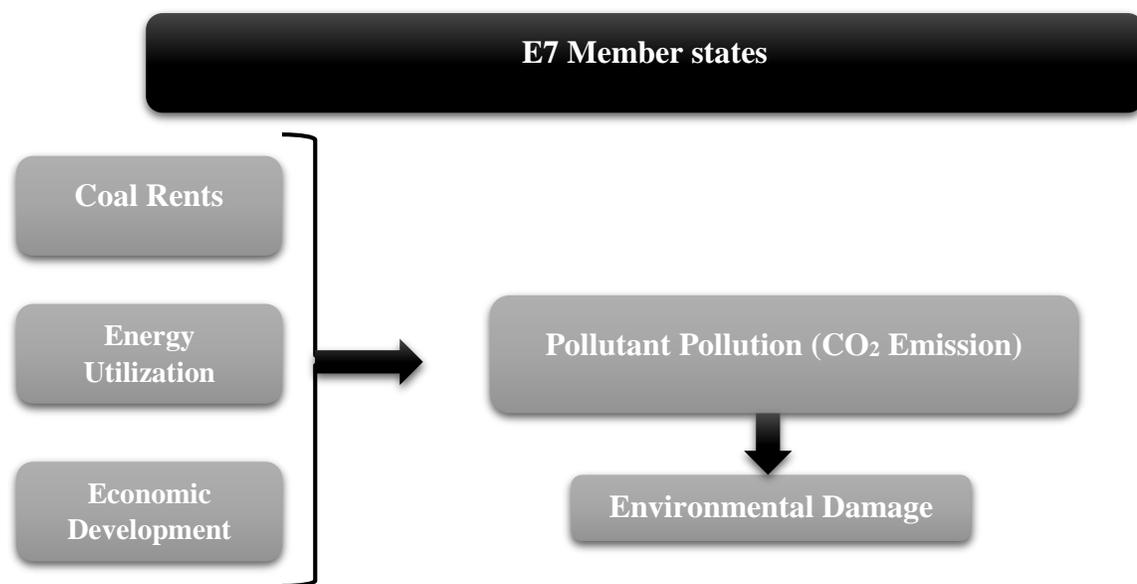
Author gratitude is extended to the prospective editor(s) and reviewers that will/have spared time to guide toward a successful publication.

Funding

I hereby declare that there is no form of funding received for this study.

Compliance with Ethical Standards

I wish to disclose here that there are no potential conflicts of interest at any level of this study



COVER LETTER

To

The Editorial Board,

Journal for Cleaner Production,

Subject: Submission of a research article for possible publication in your journal – Regards

Journal title: **Journal for Cleaner Production.**

Article Title: **The Anthropogenic Consequences of Energy consumption in E7 Economies: Juxtaposing roles of Renewable, Nuclear, Oil and Gas Energy: Panel Quantile Evidence.**

Dear Sir,

Herewith we submit our article titled “**The Anthropogenic Consequences of Energy consumption in E7 Economies: Juxtaposing roles of Renewable, Nuclear, Oil and Gas Energy: Panel Quantile Evidence**” for possible publication in your highly esteemed journal.

Authors have carefully gone through the author guidelines and we assure that this article is prepared as per the author guidelines. We also confirm that our article and has not been published or submitted anywhere apart from your journal.

Dear Prof. Please find attached our manuscript for possible publication in your esteem journal. The title of our study is “**The Anthropogenic Consequences of Energy consumption in E7 Economies: Juxtaposing roles of Renewable, Nuclear, Oil and Gas Energy: Panel Quantile Evidence.**” The emerging seven (E7) countries made up of Brazil, India, Indonesia, China, Russia, Mexico and Turkey are not excluded from the Global warming issues which is a major problem for most economics. The region has partaken in the policy to mitigate against global warming in terms of decoupling pollution (CO₂) pollution from economic growth. It is from this motivation that this current study considers the connection regarding economic growth, pollutant emissions, coal rent while accounting for the role of other variables like CO₂ damage and power from oil gas energy. A balance panel annual data from 1990 to 2016 was use for the analysis. This study adopts the use of Panel Ordinary least squares in conjunction with Quantile regression that shows different characterization on tails of the data is used to identify the coal-rent-energy nexus. The result shows that, a positive and significant effect of coal rent on CO₂ emissions. Furthermore, there was a positive

and significant relationship between real GDP and CO₂ emissions. We observe at the 0.95 percentile GDP growth strongly contributes to environmental pollution while at the median tail i.e. 0.5 percentile renewable energy consumption dampens the adverse effect of environmental degradation. Additionally, renewable energy on the other hand was found negative and significant impact on CO₂ emissions in E7 countries. Moreover, the estimated results indicate that regulation of coal consumption through rent in addition to the cost of carbon damage will further increase the CO₂ emissions in E7 countries. The implication of this is that putting stringent regulations on coal consumption as it concerns rising cost of carbon damage will not be of help to environmental sustainability within the E7 economies. The adoption of nuclear energy sources as well as more cost of carbon damage and oil, coal and gas consumption will reduce CO₂ emissions in E7 countries significantly. This is pointing towards the resistant of nuclear energy sources to produce CO₂ while operating unlike the fossil fuel sources.

The choice of the journal is informed by (i) the high repute established by the journal over the years (ii) suitability of our study to the journal scope.

The manuscript has been proofread by a native speaker.

The authors declare no conflict of interest.

The Authors of this article also assures that they follow the publishing procedures and agree to publish it as any form of access article confirming to subscribe access standards and licensing.

Many thanks in advance look forward to your favorable response

Yours truly,

Authors