

# Energy Consumption-Economic Growth nexus in Sub-Saharan Countries: what can we learn from a meta-analysis? (1996-2016)

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#### ▶ To cite this version:

Alexis Vessat. Energy Consumption-Economic Growth nexus in Sub-Saharan Countries: what can we learn from a meta-analysis? (1996-2016). The 9th Winter Student Workshop of the French Association of Energy Economist (FAEE), Nov 2016, Paris, France. hal-01944514

### HAL Id: hal-01944514 https://hal.umontpellier.fr/hal-01944514

Submitted on 14 Dec 2018

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# Alexis Vessat

# Energy Consumption-Economic Growth nexus in Sub-Saharan

Countries: what can we learn from a

meta-analysis? (1996-2016)

#### **Abstract**

The relationship between energy consumption and economic growth remains one of the most debated topics in the economics literature. Studies in this field have been carried out in developed countries since the end of the 70s, but they not have led to consensus about the relationship other than finding four causality directions: unidirectional in two directions, bidirectional, or neutral. This lack of consensus remains one of the most relevant findings on energy issues. During the 2010s, the scope of the studies on this relationship broadened since, for example, energy demand in Sub-Saharan Africa has outpaced that in the North and the IEA has forecasted the greatest increase in energy consumption to come from this area. The relationship between energy consumption and economic growth began to be studied in Sub-Saharan Africa in the late 90s, using the same method as for developed countries and with the same lack of consensus on the direction of causality. This paper attempts to clarify this situation through a meta-analysis of fifty articles published since 1996 to 2016. This meta-analysis involves five analytical categories: type of publication, geographical area studied, econometrics method used, energy consumption indicators, and control variables. Each of these dimensions includes many disaggregated variables. Logistic regressions are run on the variables presented above for each of the four causality hypotheses. In research that studies single countries, the likelihood of finding for a given causality

hypothesis is very sensitive to the econometric method implemented. Findings on a panel of countries are then presented; their methods assert the neutrality hypothesis.

**JEL Q40, Q49. Keywords:** Energy Economics, Economic Growth and Development, Energy Consumption.

#### I. Introduction

Energy has emerged as one of the key "drivers" of economic development (Sebri, 2015). In the industrialized countries, the magnitude of energy's influence on economic growth remains a controversial issue (Kraft & Kraft, 1978; Payne, 2010). Nevertheless, macroeconomists agree on the predominant role energy plays. Energy serves not only to improve the productivity of the main factors

of production such as capital and labor (technical progress), but also allows a given country to assess whether its own level of development can be considered advanced (Jumbe, 2004). The 2004 International Energy Agency report sheds light on the contribution of energy consumption to economic growth (IEA, 2004). As an explanatory variable, energy consumption is positively related to the level of output in both developed and developing countries (IEA, 2004).

Academics and professional circles have assumed energy to have a predominant role in economic growth (Kraft & Kraft, 1978). However, this relationship has been controversial since the beginning (Akarca & Long, 1979). Interest in this relationship could be understood as a result of the oil supply shocks of 1973 and 1979, raising concerns about the increase in real energy prices or the scarcity of natural resources. However, the most important finding, repeated through a large number of studies, is the lack of consensus on the direction of causality between energy consumption and economic growth. In studies of the causality between energy consumption and economic growth in developing countries, the findings are also conflicted, as the empirical findings on the direction are largely inconclusive.

The economic and energy contexts that serve as a framework for investigating the nexus for the Sub-Saharan countries are very singular. Since the early 2000s, the pace of economic growth in Sub-Saharan countries has been higher than that of the world economy, although this trend is not uniform across countries. Already in 1980-2010, the pace of economic growth in Sub-Saharan countries exceeded that of developed countries, with the exception of the last few years. Since the 1990s, the Sub-Saharan countries have embarked on the structural adjustment plans/policies jointly promoted by both the World Bank and the International Monetary Fund. Major international organizations highlight that before these changes, there had been a dramatic slowdown in real incomes, economic growth, investment, and savings in Sub-Saharan countries, often associated with the rapid increase of public debt. Although heterogeneous, this phase of growth follows a very difficult economic context: the World Bank's 1989 report focused on the weakness of economic growth in Sub-Saharan countries, where the annual economic growth rate fell from 7% between 1965-1970 to 2.2% during the period 1980-1987. The impact of this economic slowdown created major concerns for oil-exporting countries.

In terms of energy, despite a large endowment of natural energy resources, Sub-Saharan countries remain characterized by poor energy supply and small quantities delivered (Wolde-Rufael, 2005 & 2006). Investments in electricity production capacities are insufficient. For instance, between 1973 and 1998, electricity generation in Sub-Saharan Africa grew at a rate of 5.1%, while it grew at a rate of 6% in Latin America, and 7.8% in Asia (8 % in China) (Turkson & Wohlgemuth, 2001). In Sub-Saharan Africa, energy market supply only covers a small part of the needs of the population, even excluding non-market demand, and the gap between electricity demand and supply is continuing to increase. From 2000 to 2012, electricity demand rose by 45%, whereas electricity supply increased by 19% (World Energy Outlook, 2014). At the same time, demand for electricity in Sub-Saharan Africa is extremely fragmented, coming from a limited group of countries, and an even more limited number of people connected to the centralized "on-grid" network. In Africa, the main centers of electricity demand are South Africa and Nigeria, which account for almost 40% of total electricity consumption in the region (World Energy Outlook, 2014).

In this general context, a vast body of published scientific papers on the nexus has accumulated no consensual results and thus cannot inform energy policies although each hypothesis on the direction of causality provides clear policy direction.

- The "growth" hypothesis (H1) sees unidirectional causality running from energy consumption to economic growth. This hypothesis states that energy consumption is a prerequisite for economic growth. In this context, energy consumption is a direct input for achieving economic development and an indirect one that complements the main factors of production (Ebohon, 1996; Templet, 1999; Toman & Jemelkova, 2003). In this scenario, the country's economy is energy dependent (Ebohon, 1996; Templet, 1999; Toman & Jemelkova, 2003; Ozturk & al, 2010). Thus policies favoring energy consumption are likely to accelerate economic growth.
- The "conservation" hypothesis (H2) suggests unidirectional causality running from economic growth to energy consumption: Any increase in wealth necessarily leads to an increase in energy consumption. If this hypothesis holds, policymakers could make

significant steps to foster energy efficiency improvement, such as reduction in greenhouse emissions and demand management policies (Payne, 2010), without hampering economic growth. The economy in this scenario is less energy dependent.

- The "feedback" hypothesis (H3) indicates a bidirectional causal relationship between energy consumption and economic growth. If the two variables influence each other, any energy policies introducing limits on energy consumption will negatively impact the increase of country's wealth, and any increase in economic growth will lead to an increase in energy demand (Sebri, 2015).
- The "neutrality" hypothesis (H4): sees an absence of any causal relationship between energy consumption and economic growth (Ozturk, 2010). In this scenario, energy policies can be implemented without any effects on economic growth.

Published outcomes on the relationships between economic growth and energy consumption in the Sub-Saharan countries can be categorized into two types:

The first group includes studies based on individual countries using time-series analysis (Table 1). These studies use the cointegration test (Engle & Granger, 1987) as well as a maximum likelihood test based on a system-based reduced rank regression model (Johansen, 1988, 1991, 1995; Johansen & Juselius, 1990).

Table 1. Summary of the nexus in individual countries in SSA

Author(s)	Countries	Reviews	Methodology	Findings
				Tanzania:
	Tanzania			
1. Ebohon	(1960-1981),	Energy Policy	Sims and	Н3
(1996)	Nigeria		Engle-Granger	
	(1960-1984)		causality tests	Nigeria:
				Н3

2.Jumbe	Malawi	Energy	Sims and	Malawi:
(2004)	(1970-1999)	Economics	Engle-Granger	
			causality tests	Н3

			Sims and	<b>Ivory Coast:</b>
			Engle-Granger	
3.Kouakou	Ivory Coast	Energy Policy	causality tests	Н3
(2011)	(1971-2008)		within an	Short-run:
			ECM	
				H1
				Vs Long-run:
				H2

		International	ADF test,	Ghana:
4.Kwakwa	Ghana	Journal of	Johansen test,	
(2012)	(1971-2007)	Energy	Sims and	H2
		Economics	Engle-Granger	
		and Policy	causality tests	

A second group of studies uses panel estimation techniques or panel datasets that have been employed to capture country-specific effects (Table 2). We emphasize that Arima (1994) identifies this classification for all developing countries. The panel research takes a different approach, moving from a global to a country-by-country comparison and thus providing more data points compared to a single time series. Panel estimation techniques increase the degrees of freedom and reduce the likelihood of collinearity among regressors (Apergis & Payne, 2009; Levin & al, 2002). Thus, panel estimation techniques overcome the problem of collinearity and endogeneity of explanatory variables. However, the panel research smooths out the differences in structures between countries.

Table 2. Summary of the nexus for a panel of countries in SSA

Author(s)	Countries	Reviews	Methodology	Findings
				Н1

				Cameroon
				Н2
	Algeria, Benin,			Algeria, DRC,
	Cameroon, RDC,		ARDL &	Egypt, Ghana,
	Congo, Egypt,		T 1 0	Ivory Coast
1. Wolde-	Gabon, Ghana,	Energy	Toda &	
Rufael	Ivory Coast,	Economics	Yamamoto	Н3
Kuiaei	Kenya, Morocco,	1 amamoto	Gabon,	
(2005)	Nigeria, Senegal,		causality test	Zambia
(=000)	South Africa,			
	Sudan, Togo,			H4
	Tunisia, Zambia,			Benin, Congo,
	Zimbabwe			Kenya, Senegal,
	(1971-2001)			South
				Africa, Sudan,
				Togo, Tunisia,
				Zimbabwe

				Н2
				Cameroon,
	Algeria, Benin,			Ghana, Nigeria,
	Cameroon, RDC,			Senegal, Zambia,
	Congo, Egypt,			Zimbabwe
				H1
2. Wolde-	Gabon, Ghana,	Energy Policy	ARDL &	Benin, DRC
20 // 01020	Kenya, Morocco,			
Rufael	Nigeria,		Toda &	Н2
	Senegal, South			Cameroon,
(2006)	Africa, Sudan,		Yamamoto	Ghana, Nigeria,
	Tunisia, Zambia,			Senegal, Zambia,
	Zimbabwe		causality test	Zimbabwe
	(1971-2001)			
				НЗ
				Egypt, Gabon,
				Morocco
				H4
				Algeria, Congo,
				Kenya, South
				•
				Africa, Sudan

**H1** Algeria, Benin, South Africa

	Algeria, Benin, Cameroon,		Pesaran &	
	Ivory Coast, Egypt, Gabon,			H2
3.Wolde-	Ghana, Kenya, Morocco,	Energy	Shin variance	Ivory Coast, Egypt, Ghana,
	Nigeria, Senegal, South			Morocco, Nigeria, Senegal,
Rufael	Africa, Sudan, Togo,	Economics	decomposition	Sudan, Tunisia, Zambia
(2000)	Tunisia, Zambia,		0. T. 1. 0	
(2009)	Zimbabwe		& Toda &	Н3
	(1971-2004)		Yamamoto	Gabon, Togo, Zimbabwe
			1 amamoto	
			causality test	Н4
				Cameroon, Kenya

	Benin, Botswana,			
	Burkina			
	Faso, Burundi,			
	Cameroon, Cape-			
	Verde, Central	Energy	Sims and	Н3
	African Republic,	6,		
4. Kahsai &	Chad, Comoros,	Economics	Engle-Granger	
	Congo, Ivory			Benin, Botswana,
al (2012)	Coast, Ethiopia,		causality tests	Burkina
	Gabon,			Faso, Burundi,
				Cameroon, Cape-
	Gambia, Ghana,			Verde, Central
	Guinea, Guinea-			African Republic,
	Bissau, Kenya,			Chad, Comoros,
	Lesotho, Madagascar,			Congo, Ivory
	Malawi,			Coast, Ethiopia,
	Mali, Mauritania,			Gabon,
	Mauritius,			Gambia, Ghana,
	Mozambique,			Guinea, Guinea-
	Niger, Nigeria,			Bissau, Kenya,
	Rwanda, Sao			Lesotho, Madagascar,
	Tomé and Principe,			Malawi,
	Senegal,			Mali, Mauritania,
	Seychelles, Sierra			Mauritius,
	Leone, South			Mozambique,
	Africa, Sudan,			Niger, Nigeria,
	Swaziland, Tanzania,			Rwanda, Sao
	Togo,			Tomé and Principe,
	Uganda, Zambia,			Senegal,
	Zimbabwe			Seychelles, Sierra
	(1980-2007)			Leone, South
				Africa, Sudan,
				Swaziland, Tanzania,
				Togo,
				Uganda, Zambia,
				Zimbabwe

Other authors have added four significant improvements to the preliminary classification between single-country and panel datasets. These include [1] using a divergent time horizon taking into account the shocks occurring in an economy, [2] employing alternative indicators (using an aggregated energy consumption indicator or a disaggregated one like electricity, gas, coal, or biomass consumption), and [3] specifying the model through various econometric methodologies, with reliance on bivariate analysis (Payne, 2010). Previous studies have adopted bivariate models, in which aggregate energy consumption was considered as the whole input (Wolde-Rufael, 2009). [4] Since the pioneering research of Lutkepohl (1982), however, bivariate models have become outdated due to potential bias of omitted variable. Some authors have thus introduced a multivariate framework, including the main factors of production (labor and capital) (Wolde-Rufael, 2009).

The study of the energy consumption-economic growth nexus and its gradual evolution coincided markedly with improvements in econometrics techniques and tools (Karanfil, 2009). Hamilton's studies point out that the explosion of research on the energy consumption-economic growth nexus over the past decades can be explained by the application of time-series econometrics to empirical macroeconomic studies (Hamilton, 1984). Karanfil (2009) shows some surprise at the massive use of various econometric techniques in the fields of energy economics and environmental economics. These studies first investigate the properties of time series by testing the presence of unit roots to determine the non-stationary nature and testing the first differences of the variables (Dickey & Fuller, 1981; Philipps & Perron, 1988). These econometrics techniques thus capture the dynamics of the energy consumption-economic growth nexus. Two major econometric advances in time-series econometrics have emerged in the form of cointegration and causality tests. Studies employ cointegration by estimating an error correction model to capture the long-run common stochastic trend among the variables (Payne, 2010).

Due to major advances in econometrics methods, the Engle-Granger cointegration procedure has been improved to infer the causal relationship between energy consumption and economic growth. The main reasons are low power and size properties of small samples (Harris & Sollis, 2003; Payne, 2010). Approaches based on Pesaran's Autoregressive Distributed Lag bounds test and model (ARDL) have overcome the hypothesis of the existence of a unit root or cointegration among the variables (Akinlo, 2008). Studies that employ the ARDL bounds test and model overcome the endogeneity bias estimation of some regressors (Odhiambo, 2009). The Toda & Yamamoto causality test advocates the first differences hypothesis by using Wald statistics, which corresponds to the use of the chi-square test statistic. The Wolde-Rufael panel research, using the ARDL bounds test and the Toda & Yamamoto causality test, found there is a causal relationship between per capita electricity consumption and GDP in 17 countries over the period 1971-2001 (Wolde-Rufael, 2006). To complete the panel research study (Wolde-Rufael, 2006), Wolde-Rufael (2009) investigates the nexus for seventeen Sub-Saharan countries over the period 1971-2004 by using the Toda & Yamamoto causality test and the Pesaran & Shin variance decomposition to evaluate the impact factor of energy consumption variation on economic growth in a multivariate framework.

The purpose of this study is to quantitatively synthesize the empirical literature on the energy consumption-economic growth nexus for Sub-Saharan countries using a meta-analysis method. A meta-analysis is a set of statistical methods applied to a collection of previous research studies related to a given topic (Stanley, 2001). In the literature, meta-analysis is also called "quantitative research synthesis" (Hunter & Schmidt), meaning "an analysis of the analyses" (Glass, 1976; Borenstein & al, 2009). One of the main goals of meta-analysis is often to estimate the combined effects of the set of studies. The more specific information a study contains, the more it represents an important part of the information captured in a meta-analysis (Glass, 1976; Borenstein & al, 2009). The main advantages of a meta-analysis on the topic: [1] It goes beyond the limit of classical surveys or narrative reviews (Payne, 2010) which identify no relation between variables; [2] it provides an analysis of the links between variables; [3] it allows for selection of variables to understand the factors that have contributed most to the different outcomes obtained in existing studies.

The present meta-analysis in the energy consumption-economic growth literature, is based on 50 studies published between 1996 and 2016 about countries in Sub-Saharan Africa. As far as we know, and before the introduction of meta-analysis, the pioneer study to examine the nexus for Sub-Saharan countries was Ebohon (1996). In addition, a meta-multinomial regression is employed to estimate the effects of the potential sources of variation on the different outcomes of existing studies in regard to the relationship between energy consumption and economic growth.

To select the studies for our meta-regression analysis, we primarily used the following keywords: energy consumption AND economic growth, electricity consumption AND economic growth, meta-analysis between energy consumption and economic growth. We found these studies in several bibliographic databases of working papers and journal articles such as **Sciencedirect**, **Taylor & Francis**, **RePEc & IDEAS**. We then applied inclusion and exclusion criteria to these publications: those focusing on Sub-Saharan countries and including simulations of electricity, oil, coal, gas, and biofuel consumption.

Since the energy consumption – economic growth nexus represents a vigorous field of research, numerous meta-analyses of this scope have recently been published (Sebri, 2015; Kalimeris & al 2014; Chen & al, 2012). This paper is meant to provide the first such contribution on Sub-Saharan African countries.

This paper is organized as follows. After introducing the study, **Section 2** provides the detailed methodology adopted in the work. **Section 3** describes the models. **Section 4** presents the empirical results.

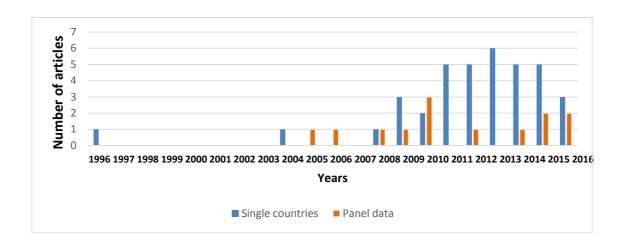
#### II. Methodology

#### 2.1. Data

#### **Publication characteristics**

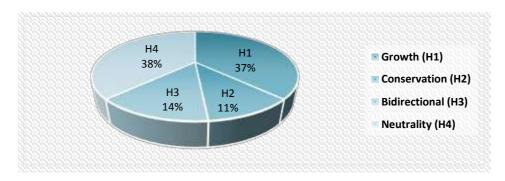
As shown in Figure 1, since the pioneer work of Ebohon (1996), a large body of economic literature has been published on the energy consumption-economic growth nexus in Sub-Saharan countries and has dramatically increased over time. However, the second study of the topic did not appear until 2004. The main reasons explaining the gap are the appearance of the new econometrics techniques later applied, and the availability of data used for Sub-Saharan countries. We identify 50 papers, including thirteen articles using econometric panel data analyses and thirty-seven using single-country time series.

Figure 1. Number of papers published on the nexus for Sub-Saharan countries



Nevertheless, as shown in Figure 2, there is substantial heterogeneity among the results obtained by studies on the energy consumption-economic growth nexus for Sub-Saharan countries. As for developed countries, there is no consensus regarding the direction of causality for Sub-Saharan countries. But, the distribution of the lack of consensus among the studies appears more different than the other past studies on the field (Payne, 2010, p. 34-35).

Figure 2. Heterogeneity of results on the energy consumption-economic growth nexus



The studies use different sets of variables in order to explain energy consumption-economic growth nexus. The studies are classified into analytical categories of moderators, using binary variables (1 if the modality is true, 0 otherwise). These definitions, as well as descriptive statistics for all the variables included in our meta-analysis, are presented in **Table 3**.

Table 3. List of variables

I. The characteristics of the study  Publication year yp Year of publication  The classification of the journals is based on the French Centre National  Journal Classification rcnrs =1 if published article, de la Recherche  =0 if working paper Scientifique (CNRS) report evaluation realized in 2015. All the articles published are ranked  Panel or time-series pa =1 if panel data study, studies =0 if time-series study  Time span ts =0 if time span < 30 years, =1 if time span > 30 years, =2 if time span > 30 years.	Variable	Code	Description	Summary details
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=1 if time span =30 years, =2 if time span > 30 years.			0.15.1	
=2 if time span > 30 years.	Time span	ts		
II. Country specifications			=2 if time span > 30 years.	
II. Country specifications				
II. Country specifications				
	II. Country specifications			
Angola AA	Angola	AA		

Benin	BN		
Botswana	ВА		
Burkina Faso	BF		
Burundi	ВІ		
Cameroon	CN		
Cape Verde	CV		
Congo	со		
Central African	CE		
Republic		=1 if a country is	46 Sub-Saharan countries
Chad	Т	represented,	are referenced
Comoros	CS	=0 otherwise	
Democratic			
Republic of the	RDC		
Congo			
Ivory Coast	CI		
Djibouti	DJ		
Eritrea	EYE		
Ethiopia	EE		
Gabon	GN		
Gambia	GE		
Ghana	GA		
Guinea	GEE		
Guinea-Bissau	GB		
Kenya	KA		
Lesotho	LO		
Liberia	LA		
Madagascar	MR		
Malawi	MI		
Mali	MII		
Mauritania	ME		
Mauritius	MS		

Mozambique	MZE	
Namibia	NE	
Niger	NR	
Nigeria	NA	
Rwanda	RA	
Sao Tomé &	STP	
Principe		
Senegal	SL	
Seychelles	SS	
Sierra Leone	SLE	
South Africa	SA	
Sudan	SN	
Swaziland	SD	
Tanzania	TA	
Togo	то	
Uganda	UA	
Zambia	ZA	
Zimbabwe	ZEE	

#### III. Econometric methodologies

#### III.1. Unit root tests<sup>1</sup>

Augmented Dickey-Fuller	ADF	=1 if ADF is applied,	First generation
(1979)		=0 otherwise	

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> A unit root is defined as a stochastic trend in a time series (also called a "random walk with drift"). If a time series contains a unit root, it means that the systematic pattern is unpredictable. Unit root tests are implemented to test the stationarity in a time series. The hypothesis is: "if a shift in time doesn't cause a change in the shape of the distribution".

The first generation tests have several limitations: [1] low power in small sample sizes; [2] unable to distinguish nonstationary series from stationary series; and are replaced by the second generation tests.

Philips-Peron (1987,	PP	=1 if PP is applied,	First generation
1988)		=0 otherwise	
·			
Zivot-Andrews (1992)	ZA	=1 if ZA is applied,	First generation
		=0 otherwise	
<b>Levin, Lin, &amp; Chu</b> (1992)	LLC	=1 if LLC is applied,	Second generation
Leviii, Liii, & Ciiu (1992)	LLC		Second generation
		= 0 otherwise	
Im, Pesaran, & Shin	IPS	=1 if IPS is applied,	
(1997)		=0 otherwise	Second generation
(1557)			·
<b>Maddala &amp; Wu</b> (1999)	MW	=1 if MW is applied,	
		=0 otherwise	Second generation
<b>Hadri</b> (2000)	Н	=1 if H is applied,	Second generation
		=0 otherwise	
III.2. Cointegration tests <sup>2</sup>			
Johansen & Juselius	IJ	=1 if JJ is applied,	First generation
(1990)		=0 otherwise	

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> The cointegration tests were introduced by Granger (1981). "An important property of I(1) variables is that a linear combination of these two variables that is I(0) may exist. If this is the case, these variables are said to be cointegrated".

The first generation tests have several limitations: [1] asymptotic properties and sensitive to specification errors in limited samples [2] it cannot identify the cointegrating vectors where there are multiple cointegrating relations [3] cannot be applied when one cointegrating vector of different orders exists; and are replaced by the second generation tests.

Gregory & Hansen (1996)	GH	=1 if GH is applied,	First generation
		=0 otherwise	
Autoregressive	ARDL	=1 if ARDL is applied,	Second generation
Distribution Lag (2001)		=0 otherwise	
Distribution Lag (2001)		2 2 3 1 1 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2	
Enders & Siklos (2001)	EZ	=1 if EZ is applied,	
Eliders & Sikios (2001)	LZ	-1 II LZ 13 applied,	
		=0 otherwise	
III.3. Causality tests <sup>3</sup>			
Granger causality (1969)	GR	=1 if GR is applied,	First generation
Granger causanty (1909)	GIN		That generation
		= 0 otherwise	
Toda and Yamamoto	GRY	=1 if GRY is applied,	Second generation
roda ana ramamoto	OIVI		Second generation
(1995)		= 0 otherwise	
3.4. Other econometric tec	hniques		
Bootstrap (1979)	BS	=1 if BS is applied,	A large number of samples
<b>DUUISII ap</b> (1979)	DS		
		= 0 otherwise	is simulated and provides
			bootstrap test statistics as
			well as bootstire
			well as bootstrap

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> The causality tests were introduced by Granger (1981). [1] The detects the structural changes in a variable that has a considerable impact on another variable. [2] Two natures of causality are distinguished: long and short-run (a specific test is required to test the joint significance of the lagged explanatory variables by using an F-statistics or Wald test [3] causality test are often associated with the use of an error correction model (VCEM).

The first generation tests have several limitations: [1] It requires pre-testing cointegration before causality [2] it cannot be applied in the case of multivariate causality (impossible to identify the explanatory variable causing the causality through the error correction model; and are replaced by the second generation tests.

confidence intervals. The	hus,
researchers compare	the
current test statistics	to
empirical distribution o	f the
bootstrap. The use of	of
bootstrap econometr	ric
method is often associa	ated
in finite samples wit	h
Monte-Carlo simulation	ons
(Dwass, 1957). In son	ne
cases, under the nu	II
hypothesis the bootst	rap
statistics follow the sa	me
distribution as the act	ual
test statistic under the	null
hypothesis.	

Monte-Carlo Simulations	MC	=1 if MC are applied,	Study the small-sample
(1957)		= 0 otherwise	properties of competing
			estimators for a given
			estimating problem.
			Provide "a thorough
			understanding of the
			repeated sample and
			sampling distribution
			concepts, which are crucial

			to an understanding of
			econometrics".
			Modelling the data
			generation process and try
			to estimate the parameters
			of the model and statistical
			properties of estimators
Hodrick-Prescott (1997)	HP	=1 if HP filter is applied,	Apply to remove trend
		=0 otherwise	movements and capture
			structural breaks

<b>Vector Error Correction</b>			Avoid pretesting procedure
<b>Model</b> (1987)	VCEM	=1 if an VCEM is applied,	of the time series whether
		= 0 otherwise	the variables are I(0) or I(1),
			Detect several cointegrating
			relationships (variables are
			considered as endogenous)
			Allow test procedure on the
			long-run

Generalized Moments		
<b>Method</b> (1998)	GMM	=1 if a GMM is applied,

Apply in the context of
semiparametric models,
where maximum likelihood
is not available

Pooled Mean Group	PMG	=1 if a PMG is applied,	Apply to capture the
		=0 otherwise	dynamics on the sample by
			allowing different lagged
			levels for the two variables
			tested (energy consumption
			and economic growth in our
			model). By using
			instrumental variables, this
			econometric technique
			deals with the endogeneity
			of regressors. This method
			detects partial correlation
			between the explanatory
			variable and the error and
			solves the omitted dynamics
			in statistic panel data
			models

Demand Model	MAED	=1 if a MAED	Specific Model developed by
		is applied,	the International Energy
		=0 otherwise	Agency

#### IV. Energy consumption measurement indicators

Aggregated energy	CET	=1 if CET is used,	
consumption		=0 otherwise	
Diesel	CD	=1 if CD is used,	
Diesei	CD		
		=0 otherwise	
Oil	СР	=1 if CP is used,	
		=0 otherwise	
Gas	CG	=1 if CG is used,	
		=0 otherwise	
Cool	66	1 if CC in	
Coal	CC	=1 if CC is used,	
		=0 otherwise	
Electricity	CE	=1 if CE is used,	Depends on countries
		=0 otherwise	natural dotation
Kerosene	CK	=1 if CK is used,	
		=0 otherwise	
Biofuels	СВ	=1 if CB is used,	
2.0.4013	55	=0 otherwise	
		-0 Other Wise	

Energy efficiency	UE	=1 if UE is used,	
		=0 otherwise	
V. Control variables			
Inflation rate	TI	=1 if TI is used,	
		=0 otherwise	
Unemployment rate	TE	=1 if TE is used,	
		=0 otherwise	
Capital formation	FBCF	=1 if FBCF is used,	
Capital formation	FBCF		
		=0 otherwise	
Urbanization rate	FT	=1 if FT is used,	
		=0 otherwise	
Oil prices	PP	=1 if PP are used,	Bivariate / Multivariate
		=0 otherwise	
Level of CO2 emissions	ECO2	=1 if ECO2 is used,	
ECVELOT COS CITISSIONS	1002		
		=0 otherwise	
Population rate	Р	=1 if P is used,	
		=0 otherwise	
Financial development	DP	=1 if DP is used,	

		=0 otherwise
Governmental	DG	=1 if DG are used,
expenditures		=0 otherwise

## 2.2. Descriptive statistics (Table 3.)

The results are grouped by hypothesis supported.

**Table 4. Descriptive statistics** 

Type and	Code	H1	H2	Н3	H4	Mean	Std.dev
nature of							
variable							
Number of							
articles							
(Numeric)	-	6	27	27	15	-	-
Data circs	PA=1	0	1	1	1	0.32	0.47
(Dichotomic)	TS=0						
Time span	<30 years=0					0.24	0.43
(Categorial)	=30 years=1	2	0&1	1	1&2	0.52	0.50

	>30 years=2					0.24	0.43
Econometrics	=1 GR	1	0	1	0	0.78	0.42
methods	=0 NO GR						
(Dichotomic)							
	=1 GRY	0	1	0	1	0.10	0.40
	=0 GRNOY						
	=1 GRVCEM	0	0	1	0	0.38	0.49
	=0GRNOVCEM						
To.	_1 CET	1	1	0	1	0.42	0.50
Energy	=1 CET	1	1	0	1	0.42	0.50
consumption indicators	=0 NOCET						
(Dichotomic)	=1 CE	1	0	0	0	0.52	0.50
(Dichotoline)	=0 NOCE	1	Ü	Ü	V	0.52	0.50
	011002						
	=1 CP	0	1	1	1	0.12	0.33
	=0 NOCP						
	=1 CD	0	0	0	0	0.02	0.14
	=0 NOCD						
	=1 CG	0	1	0	0	0.06	0.24
	=0 NOCG						

Models =1 Multivariate 1 0 0 1 0.18 0.39

(Dichotomic) =0 Bivariate

- [1] The **Growth hypothesis-based** (H1) studies supporting unidirectional causality from energy consumption to economic growth are long-run time-series analyses that use the Granger causality test without an error correction model. Their models are based on univariate indicators as single aggregated energy consumption indicators or more specific indicators like electricity consumption by including control variables like inflation rate or CO2 emissions. This type of study is not representative in our sample because it concerns only six countries.
- [2] The Conservation hypothesis-based (H2) studies validating unidirectional causality running from economic growth to energy consumption are medium-run panel data analyses that apply the Toda and Yamamoto causality procedure without error correction models. They use aggregated energy consumption or specified indicators (diesel consumption, gas consumption, coal consumption, or energy efficiency) and include control variables as proxies in a univariate framework. This type of study is representative in our sample because it concerns 27 countries. "The Conservation hypothesis" will be take as reference category for the multinomial logit model.
- [3] The **Feedback hypothesis-based** (H3) studies that support bidirectional causality are both short-run and medium-run time-series analyses. These studies use Toda and Yamamoto causality procedure without error correction model. Aggregated energy consumption is excluded, and a multivariate framework is employed as specific indicators are used (oil consumption, coal consumption, and electricity consumption) without control variables. This type of study is representative in our sample because it concerns 27 countries
- [4] The **Neutrality hypothesis-based (H4)** studies supporting the absence of causality are panel data analyses that use a bivariate model and specify energy consumption indicators in a multivariate

framework (such as oil or gas consumption). This type of study is not representative in our sample because it only concerns 15 countries

For modeling the contribution of variables, two approaches are investigated: the first one, based on a Logit regression on each causality options, aims to identify what are the influent variables to each independent hypothesis. The second one, based on a Multinomial Logit Model, aims to establish a relation between hypothesis and identify the most explicative variables.

#### 3.1. Logit on causality options with independent hypothesis

Implementing a qualitative econometric regression or using a binary variable is a major problem in econometrics (Cameron and Trivedi, 2010). Given a dependent variable coded Y, an appropriate choice of econometric model is necessary. If Y is a continuous variable, then it is appropriate for time-series or econometric panel data analyses to use the ordinary least squares with a best linear unbiased estimator (BLUE) that respects the Gauss-Markov assumptions (the model is well specified:  $E(\varepsilon) = 0$ ; the errors are homoscedastic so the variance is constant equal to  $VAR(\varepsilon) = \sigma^2$ ; the error terms are uncorrelated each other  $cov(\varepsilon t; \varepsilon t') = 0$ ; and the errors are linearly independent of the exogenous variables with cov  $(\varepsilon;X) = 0$ ). On the other hand, what if the dependent variable is a discrete random or unobserved variable? Three types of discrete random variables are identified in the econometric literature: the binary discrete random variable, ordered or unordered multiple discrete random variables, and accounting models. Our dependent variables fall under four hypotheses: H1, unidirectional causality running from energy consumption to economic growth, H2, unidirectional causality from economic growth to energy consumption, H3, bidirectional causality, and H4 neutrality. For each testable hypothesis, we can build econometric models; the final decision is linked to a sample of factors. We respect the general framework of probability models with Prob (event j occurs) = Prob (Y = j) = F [parameters] as Y takes the value 0 with p probability and 1 with 1-p probability. The logit and probit models correspond to different regression models for p. The choice of adopting a logit or probit model is determined by the error charts (Chart 4) for each hypothesis (h1, h2, h3, h4), the minimization of the log-likelihood of each model, and the minimization of the Akaike information with AIC=-2LnL + 2k and the Schwartz criteria

as SC=-2LnL + KLnN. All this indicates that the null hypothesis of accepting the normal law is rejected. We use a logit model for each type of option. Those logit models are controlled by a contingency table in order to compare the observations and the predicted values to determine the concurring cases in the logit models.

#### 3.2. Multinomial logit model (H2 is the reference category)

Multinomial logit model is implemented in order to establishing a relation between hypothesis and identifying the most explicative variables. This model is applied in response to the no significant results obtained for the logit models.

Multinomial choice implies a choice that provides the greatest utility among two or more alternatives;  $Z_{ij}$ .  $Z_{ij}$  includes both individual and choice characteristics. If we note  $z_{ij} = [x_{ij}, w_i]$  where  $x_{ij}$  represents the choice characteristics and w the individual characteristics, in the case of a Multinomial Logit Model, the individual characteristics prevail on the choice characteristics (if the reverse is true, the conditional logit model is required). McFadden (1974) bases Multinomial Logit Model on the following test statistic,  $Prob(Yi = j) = p_{ij} = exp(x_iB_j) / \sum_{l=1}^{m} [exp(x_iB_j)]$ , with the hypothesis j = 1 to m and where 0 < pij < 1 et Pml=1 [pij = 1)] (Cameron and Trivedi., 2010), if the J disturbances are independent and identically distributed with Gumbel (type 1 extreme value) distribution as:  $F(\epsilon ij) = exp(-exp(-\epsilon ij))$ .

For the causal relationships between gross domestic product (GDP) and energy consumption (EC), MNL is implemented on four directions of causality in an analysis of the 50 references about the Sub-Saharan countries. Each option chosen by a consumer is relative to the degree of utility it provides.

#### The utility for the four choices:

$$U_{i1} = Pa_{i1}\beta_1 + Yp_{i1}\beta_2 + Ts_{i1}\beta_3 + Gr_{i1}\beta_4 + GrV_{i1}\beta_5 + Vcem_{i1}\beta_6 + \alpha + \gamma I_i + \epsilon_{i1}$$
(1)

$$U_{i2} = Pa_{i2}\beta_1 + Yp_{i2}\beta_2 + Ts_{i2}\beta_3 + Gr_{i2}\beta_4 + Grv_{i2}\beta_5 + Vcem_{i2}\beta_6 + \alpha + \gamma I_i + \epsilon_{i2}$$
(2)

$$U_{i3} = Pa_{i3}\beta_1 + Yp_{i3}\beta_2 + Ts_{i3}\beta_3 + Gr_{i3}\beta_4 + Gry_{i3}\beta_5 + Vcem_{i3}\beta_6 + \alpha + \gamma I_i + \epsilon_{i3} (3)$$

$$U_{i4} = Pa_{i4}\beta_1 + Yp_{i4}\beta_2 + Ts_{i4}\beta_3 + Gr_{i4}\beta_4 + Gry_{i4}\beta_5 + Vcem_{i4}\beta_6 + \alpha + \gamma I_i + \epsilon_{i4}$$
(4)

Corresponding to the following matrix of attributes and characteristics:

$$Zi = \begin{pmatrix} Pai1 & Ypi1 & Tsi1 & Gri1 & Gryi1 & Vcemi1 & 1 & Ii & 0 & 0 \\ Pai2 & Ypi2 & Tsi2 & Gri2 & Gryi2 & Vcemi2 & 0 & 1 & Ii & 0 \\ Pai3 & Ypi3 & Tsi3 & Gri3 & Gryi3 & Vcemi3 & 0 & 0 & 0 & Ii \\ Pai4 & Ypi34 & Tsi4 & Gri4 & Gryi4 & Vcemi4 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

MNL is primarily based on rejecting the hypothesis of **independent irrelevant alternatives (IIA)**. This assumption supports the independence of log-odd ratios  $(P_{ij}/P_{im})$  relative to the remaining probabilities. Log-odd rations are described as the effects of one unit of change in X on the predicted odds ratio with other variables in the model held constant.

We apply MNL in our meta-analysis as follows:

Prob(Yi = j) = exp 
$$(z'ij\theta)/\Sigma_{l=1}^6 \exp(z'ij\theta)$$
 (1)

$$pij = \frac{exp (xi1_{1pa} + xi2_{2yp} + xi3_{3ts} + xi4_{4gr} + xi5_{5gry} + xi6_{6vcem})}{exp \sum_{l=1}^{6} (xi1_{1pa} + xi2_{2yp} + xi3_{3ts} + xi4_{4gr} + xi5_{5gry} + xi6_{6vcem})} (2)$$

where:

- pa: represents econometric panel data analysis;
- yp: Publication year;
- **ts**: Time span;
- **gr**: Granger causality test;
- gry: Granger modified Toda and Yamamoto test;
- **vcem**: Error correction model.

Then, the calculation of marginal effects, based on the value of the parameters (the increase of one unit of a given estimator depends first on the value of other estimators and then on the starting value, meaning a difference between marginal effects and simple coefficients) helps identify the impact of significant variables on the assessment of each hypothesis. Three types of marginal effects are identified: the average marginal effect (AME), the marginal effect at mean (MEM), and the marginal effect at representative value (MER).

#### IV. EMPIRICAL RESULTS

Table 5. Logit on causality options

VARIABLES	H1	Н2	Н3	Н4
Panel Dataset (pa)	0.156	1.294	0.821	2.115
	(1.03)	(0.915)	(1.060)	(0.905) ***

Publication Year (yp)	0.0390	-0.0416	-0.189	-0.0626
	(0.100)	(0.157)	(0.144)	(0.130) **
Time span (ht)	-0.379	0.242	0.332	0.528
	(0.550)	(0.727)	(0.539)	(0.675)
Granger causality (gr)	1.057	0.133	0.0861	-0.809
	(0.977) **	(1.405)	(1.058)	(1.071)
Toda & Yamamoto	0.284	3.459	0.786	1.556
(gry)	(1.108)	(1.411) ***	(1.168)	(1.400)
Error Correction	-1.781	1.409	1.814	-0.0713
Model (vcem)	(0.758) **	(1.025)	(0.739) ***	(0.853)
Constant	-78.68	80.27	378.9	124.4
	(201.8)	(316.2)	(229.3)	(262.2)
Observations	50	50	50	50
Marginal Effects	GR	GRY	VCEM	PA
	(+0.23 %)	(+0.69 %)	(+0.42 %)	(+0.45)
			AP	
	VOEN			
	VCEM		(-0.04 %)	
	(-0.39 %)			

Standard errors in parentheses

\*\*\* p<0.01, \*\* p<0.05, \* p<0.1

**Table 5** shows the significant variables identified for the logit model, corrected for heteroskedasticity. As indicated by the results of the residual forms of each causality option and the minimization of the Akaike and Schwartz criteria, we draw conclusions only from this model's results. The logit of the first hypothesis (h1 or "Growth hypothesis") of unidirectional causality running from energy consumption to economic growth identifies two significant variables at close to 5 % (Student t-test for the coefficients): <sup>4</sup> the error correction model (VCEM) (P<0.05) and the use of the Granger causality test (gr)(P<0.05). Looking at the marginal effects reveals that the use of the Granger causality test increases the probability of finding unidirectional causality running from energy consumption to economic growth by 0.23. In contrast, the use of an error correction model in the econometric analysis decreases the probability of asserting the "Growth hypothesis" by 0.39. For the "Conservation hypothesis" (h2), the logit model identifies only one significant variable: the use of the Toda and Yamamoto causality test. The use of the Toda and Yamamoto test increases by 0.69 the probability of supporting unidirectional causality running from economic growth to energy consumption. The logit model for "Feedback" (h3) identifies two significant variables: The error correction model (VCEM) (P<0.01) and the publication year (ap) (P<0.05). The use of the error correction model increases the probability of asserting the "Feedback" hypothesis by 0.42. On the other hand, the publication year decreases the probability of asserting the hypothesis by 0.04. The logit model for the "Neutrality" hypothesis (h4) admits only one variable: the use of an econometric panel data analysis, which increases by 0.45 the probability of supporting the "Neutrality hypothesis". The logit model is insufficient to inform on the nexus.

Thus, Multinomial Logit Model is implemented in order to establishing a relation between hypothesis and identifying the most explicative variables. The choose of H2 as the reference category is justified by two arguments: the first one is that the hypothesis is representative of the total sample. The second one is that this hypothesis concentrates more informations about the different level of integration of the non stationary variables.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>4</sup> The Student test tests if a given variable has an influence on the Y dependent variable. The null hypothesis is the H0=bj=0; otherwise the hypothesis is H1 = bj  $\neq$  0. Conserving the estimated coefficient and the standard deviation are necessary to compare the test statistic with t\*. If t (absolute value)  $\geq$  t\*; we reject the null hypothesis of a significant variable.

Table 6. MNL reference categories: H2

	H1	Н3	H4
VARIABLES			
WARLEG			

(pa)	(2.319) ***	(2.490)	(1.055) **
Publication Year (yp)	-0.157	-0.108	-0.0554
			(0.150)
	(0.389)	(0.142)	(0.534)
Time span (ht)	1.783	-0.223	0.534
(iit)	(1.698)	(0.815)	(0.839)
Granger causality (gr)	-18.21	-1.151	0.0289
	(2.732) ***	(2.439)	(1.479)
Toda & Yamamoto (gry)	-2.471	-16.53	-0.959
	(2.954)	(1.378) ***	(1.359)
Error Correction Model (vcem)	4.366	3.144	1.814
(recin)	(3.007)	(1.035) ***	1.206

Observations	50	50	50
Manada I Effert	PA	GRY	PA
Marginal Effects	(-0.53 %)	(+0.21 %)	(+ 0.58 %)
	VCEM		
	(+ 0.16 %)		

Standard errors in parentheses

The empirical results of the multinomial logit model are displayed in **Table 6**. The "Conservation" hypothesis is the reference category as [1] it is representative of the total sample and [2] it contains more information about the different integration levels of the non-stationary variables. For the following regressions, we create a hypo variable that takes the values h1, h2, h3, h4 by taking into account the causality results from our literature review. If the hypo takes the value h1 ("Growth hypothesis"), the use of econometric panel data analysis can be identified as a significant variable. As for the marginal effects, the use of econometric panel data analysis decreases the probability of asserting unidirectional

causality from energy consumption to economic growth by 0.53. If the hypo variable takes the value h3, two significant variables are presented: the error correction model (VCEM) and the use of the Toda and Yamamoto causality test (GRY). The use of the error correction model increases the probability of asserting the "Feedback" hypothesis by 0.16, whereas the use of a Toda and Yamamoto Causality test decreases the probability of asserting the "Feedback" hypothesis by 0.21. If the hypo takes the h4 value, one significant variable is identified: econometric panel data analysis, which increases the probability of asserting the "Neutrality hypothesis" by 0.58.

#### V. CONCLUSION

In order to investigate the controversial issue of the relationship between economic growth and energy consumption for Sub-Saharan Africa, this contribution performs a meta-analysis, using 50 articles for the period 1996-2016, focusing on the main components of the literature studying the nexus. For modeling the contribution of variables, two methods are applied: First, in order to identify what are the influent variables to each independent hypothesis, a Logit regression on each causality options is applied. Second, in order to establish a relation between hypothesis and to identify the most explicative variables, a Multinomial Logit Model is implemented.

The findings are twofold. The first one is that logit model does not provide any useful information on causality options to determine what are the influent variables to each independant hypothesis. Logit regression is not significant to inform on the nexus.

The second one is that Multinomial Logit Model, implemented in order to establish a relation between hypothesis and identifying the most explicative variables, with the Conservation hypothesis as the reference category, shows that the panel variable is the most decisive one as it establishes a relation

between the hypothesis. This result provides interesting insights, for decision-makers and academics, to reinterpret the nexus for further energy policies implemented.

Nevertheless, any statistical inference of the results obtained by the investigation of the energy consumption-economic growth nexus for the Sub-Saharan countries should be interpreted with care. All studies are related to the specific context on Sub-Saharan countries. The economic growth and energy consumption measurement indicators are thus not constructed as well as they could be, and studies undertaken on the nexus suffer from potential estimation bias. Examples of mismeasurement include the proportion of the informal sector in economic activities in Africa, which is still substantial and thus difficult to capture in a single economic growth indicator. Similarly, when the electricity consumption indicator is employed, only a small part (reliant on traditional biomass) is captured in mainly grid-supplied demand.

### **APPENDICES**

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