

Structural Breaks, Urbanization and CO₂ Emissions: Evidence from Turkey

Murat Cetin
Namık Kemal University, Turkey

Eyyup Ecevit
Erciyes University, Turkey

Ali Gokhan Yucel¹
Erciyes University, Turkey

Abstract

The aim of this study is to examine the relationship between urbanization and CO₂ emissions in the case of Turkey by adding economic growth and energy consumption to the CO₂ emissions specification. The study covers annual time series data over the period of 1960-2014. The autoregressive distributed lag bounds testing approach to cointegration was utilized to investigate the long-run relationship among under structural breaks. The causal relationship among the variables was explored through Toda-Yamamoto test. The empirical findings reveal that i) each variable (except for energy consumption) is integrated at I(1) under structural breaks, ii) the variables are cointegrated in the presence of structural break, iii) the validity of environmental Kuznets curve was confirmed both in the short-run and long-run, iv) CO₂ emissions are primarily affected by economic growth, energy consumption and urbanization in the long run and v) urbanization causes CO₂ emissions. The study provides important policy implications for Turkish economy.

Keywords: Urbanization, CO₂ emissions, Cointegration, Causality, Turkey

JEL Codes: C32; O47; Q43

Copyright © 2018 JAEBR

1. Introduction

The climate change continues to be one of the most important problems in the world due to its impact on global warming, desertification and sea levels (Burck et al., 2017; Martinez-Zarzoso and Maruotti, 2011). According to the OECD report (2015), the number of premature deaths resulting from high local pollution levels is expected to rise from current levels of nearly 1.5 million to 3.5 million by 2050. Changes in the composition of plants and animals, alterations in the availability of fresh water and increases in the level of water and air pollution lead authorities to take measures to lessen the greenhouse gases (GHGs) emissions in developing countries.

The primary determinants of climate change and environmental pollution are carbon dioxide (CO₂), methane, and nitrous oxide currently accounting for 98% of the GHGs (OECD Environmental Outlook, 2011). It is expected that the global energy-related CO₂ emissions will

¹ Correspondence to Ali Gokhan Yucel, Email: agyucel@erciyes.edu.tr

rise from 32.3 billion metric tons in 2012 to 35.6 billion metric tons in 2020 (International Energy Outlook, 2016). The area of global energy consumption has shifted towards expeditiously urbanising, industrialising and growing India and China, as well as some of Latin American and African countries (World Energy Outlook, 2016). Today, almost half of the world's population reside in urban areas (3.5 billion urbans of the world's 7.1 billion people); by 2030 approximately 60% of total population of developing countries is estimated to live in urban cities (4.9 billion of the world's projected 8.3 billion) (Bekhet and Othman, 2017).

2. Literature Review

Urbanization, a long run continuing process, arises due to migration from rural to urban spaces, industrialization and economic development (Davis, 1965). According to Zi et al. (2016) and Behera and Dash (2017), urbanization is related to energy consumption and environmental pollution. They indicate that urban spaces account for approximately 75% of energy consumption and 60% of CO₂ emissions in the world. In addition, Sharma (2011), Farhani and Ozturk (2015) and Ali et al. (2016) argue that urbanization is a significant determinant of CO₂ emissions.

The existing literature indicates the presence of three theories which investigate the link between urbanization and natural environment. These are ecological modernization (Mol and Spaargaren, 2000), urban environmental transition (McGranahan et al., 2001) and compact city theories (Burton, 2000). According to these theories, the impact of urbanization on environment can be positive or negative depending on the net effect. It is suggested that economic activities intensify on urban and industrial spaces; therefore, urbanization can affect CO₂ emissions (Dodman, 2009; Glaeser and Kahn, 2010; Grimm et al., 2008; Martinez-Zarzoso and Maruotti, 2011), energy consumption (Dahl and Erdogan, 1994; Jones, 1991; Lenzen et al., 2006), and economic growth (Henderson, 2003; Quigley, 1998). The time series studies of Shahbaz et al. (2014a), Solarin and Lean (2016) and recent panel data studies of Saidi and Mbarek (2017), Xu and Lin (2016), Xu and Zhang (2016) and Wang et al. (2017) provide empirical evidences supporting that urbanization is linked with CO₂ emissions.

The present study investigates the link between urbanization and CO₂ emissions in Turkey by using economic growth and energy consumption as control variables parallel with the existing literature. Our study focuses on Turkish economy for several reasons. Firstly, Turkey is one of the fastest growing economies among developing countries because of successfully applied structural reforms and macroeconomic policies. Turkey was the 17th biggest economy in the world with a national income of around 863 billion dollars in 2016. Between 2005-2010, the average growth rate of Turkish economy reached 4.2% and between 2011-2016 it was 6.5% (Economic Outlook of Turkey, 2017). Secondly, Turkey is an energy-dependent country owing to its growing energy demand. It is estimated that Turkey's primary energy consumption will increase from 120 million tons in 2012 to 218 million tons in 2023 (World Energy Council, 2016). Thirdly, it is expected that Turkey's total population will rise from 79.8 million in 2016 to 84 million in 2023. Rapid population growth has led to rapid urbanization in Turkey. Urban population rate grew from 25% in 1950 to 75% in 2015 (World Bank, 2017). Turkey's rapid urbanization has changed demographic and economic structure.

Finally, in line with the increasing population, urbanization, economic growth and energy demand, Turkey's CO₂ emissions increased by 57% between 2000-2014. There exist 20 countries which are responsible for nearly 78% of global energy-related CO₂ emissions in the world. The top three CO₂ emitters -China, the United States and India, contribute more than half of total global emissions, while Turkey ranks 18th with a share of one percent (International Energy Agency, 2017). In terms of climate change performance index, Turkey is rated very low with a ranking of 47 out of 60 countries owing to its poor climate protection performance and

its emissions have been growing at a very fast pace (Burck et al., 2017). However, according to the Paris pledge, Turkey is expected to decrease its 2020 emission level from 1.185 million tons to 940 million tons (World Energy Council, 2016).

Table 1 summarizes selected time series studies investigating the relationship between urbanization and CO₂ emissions. The literature review shows that: (i) Zi et al. (2016) for China, Ozturk and Al-Mulali (2015) for Cambodia did not investigate the presence of cointegration between the variables; (ii) Bekhet and Othman (2017) for Malaysia and Ouyang and Lin (2017) for China and Japan did not deal with the long run impact of urbanization on CO₂ emissions; (iii) the causal relationship between urbanization and CO₂ emissions were not examined by Ali et al. (2016) for Nigeria, Asumadu-Sarkodie and Owusu (2017) for Senegal, Azam and Khan (2016) for SAARC countries, Saboori et al. (2016) for Malaysia, Zi et al. (2016) for China, Ozturk and Al-Mulali (2015) for Cambodia, and Shahbaz et al. (2013) for South Africa; (iv) the positive link between urbanization and CO₂ emissions was found by Azam and Khan (2016) for Sri Lanka, Dogan and Turkekul (2016) for USA, Farhani and Ozturk (2015) for Tunisia, Ozturk and Al-Mulali (2015) for Cambodia, Saboori et al. (2016) for Malaysia, Shahbaz et al. (2014b) for United Arab Emirates (UAE) and Shahbaz et al. (2013) for South Africa, Solarin and Lean (2016) for China and India, Zi et al. (2016) for China; (v) the negative relationship between urbanization and CO₂ emissions was determined by Asumadu-Sarkodie and Owusu (2017) for Senegal, Azam and Khan (2016) for India and Bangladesh; (vi) the bidirectional causality between urbanization and CO₂ emissions was confirmed by Bekhet and Othman (2017) for Malaysia, Dogan and Turkekul (2016) for USA, Solarin and Lean (2016) for China and India; (vii) the unidirectional causality running from CO₂ emissions to urbanization was verified by Farhani and Ozturk (2015) for Tunisia, Ouyang and Lin (2017) for China and Japan, Shahbaz et al. (2016) for Malaysia and Shahbaz et al. (2014b) for UAE.

The literature review reveals that a handful studies investigated the causal linkage between urbanization and CO₂ emissions. The literature review also reveals that these studies are not related to Turkish economy. Besides, there exists limited empirical evidence for cointegration analysis with structural breaks. For these reasons, the aim of our study is to investigate the long-run and causal relationships between urbanization and CO₂ emissions by using a single framework for Turkey under structural breaks. Following the studies of Azam and Khan (2016), Bekhet and Othman (2017), Ouyang and Lin (2017) and Shahbaz et al. (2016), economic growth and energy consumption are incorporated into the CO₂ emissions specification. In addition, the series used in the study tend to move in the same direction over the period of 1960-2014 (Fig. 1). The empirical findings reveal that urbanization has a positive and statistically significant effect on CO₂ emissions in the long run. It is concluded that there is a unidirectional causation running from urbanization to CO₂ emissions. The novel empirical results not only expand the literature but also allow policy makers to derive some implications for Turkish economy.

Empirically, we apply Ng-Perron unit root test of Ng and Perron (2001) and Lee-Strazicich unit root test with two structural breaks of Lee and Strazicich (2003) to investigate the stationarity properties of the series. The autoregressive distributed lag (ARDL) bounds testing approach of Pesaran et al. (2001) is used to examine the existence of cointegration between the variables in the presence of structural break. Additionally, we use the Toda-Yamamoto causality approach of Toda and Yamamoto (1995) to examine the causality between the variables.

Table 1: Selected time series studies on the relationship between urbanization and CO₂ emissions

<i>Author</i>	<i>Period/Country</i>	<i>Variables</i>	<i>Methodology</i>	<i>Cointegration</i>	<i>Long-run impact</i>	<i>Long-run causality</i>
Bekhet and Othman (2017)	1971-2015 Malaysia	CO ₂ , GDP, URB, EN, FD, INV	ARDL, VECM Granger causality	Yes	Not examined	URB↔CO ₂
Ouyang and Lin (2017)	1989-2011 China and Japan	CO ₂ , GDP, GDP ² , URB, EN	Johansen cointegration, VECM Granger causality	Yes	Not examined	URB → CO ₂
Asumadu-Sarkodie and Owusu (2017)	1980-2011 Senegal	CO ₂ , GDP, URB, FD, IND	Nonlinear iterative partial OLS	Yes	Negative	Not investigated
Saboori et al. (2016)	1980-2008 Malaysia	CO ₂ , GDP, GDP ² , URB, EN, TR	ARDL	Yes	Positive	Not investigated
Solarin and Lean (2016)	1965-2013 China and India	CO ₂ , GDP, GDP ² , URB, EN	Hatemi-J cointegration, Toda-Yamamoto causality	Yes	Positive	URB↔ CO ₂
Ali et al. (2016)	1971-2011 Nigeria	CO ₂ , GDP, URB, TR, EN	ARDL	Yes	Insignificant	Not investigated
Azam and Khan (2016)	1982-2013 SAARC countries	CO ₂ , GDP, URB, EN, TP	Johansen cointegration, OLS	Yes	Negative for India and Bangladesh Positive for Sri Lanka	Not investigated
Shahbaz et al. (2016)	1970Q1-2011Q4 Malaysia	CO ₂ , GDP, URB, TR	Bayer-Hanck cointegration, ARDL, VECM Granger causality	Yes	Negative	URB → CO ₂
Zi et al. (2016)	1979-2013 China	CO ₂ , GDP, URB	Threshold regression	Not examined	Positive	Not investigated
Dogan and Turkekul (2016)	1960-2010 USA	CO ₂ , GDP, GDP ² , URB, EN, TR, FD	ARDL, VECM Granger causality	Yes	Positive	URB↔ CO ₂
Farhani and Ozturk (2015)	1971-2012 Tunisia	CO ₂ , GDP, URB, EN, TR	ARDL, VECM Granger causality	Yes	Positive	URB → CO ₂
Ozturk and Al-Mulali (2015)	1996-2012 Cambodia	CO ₂ , GDP, GDP ² , URB, EN, GOV	Two-stage OLS, GMM	Not investigated	Positive	Not investigated
Shahbaz et al. (2014b)	1975-2011 UAE	CO ₂ , GDP, GDP ² , URB, EN, TR	Zivot-Andrews unit root, ARDL, VECM Granger causality	Yes	Positive	URB → CO ₂
Shahbaz et al. (2013)	1965-2008 South Africa	CO ₂ , GDP, GDP ² , URB, FD, TR	Saikkonen-Lütkepohl unit root, ARDL, Granger causality	Yes	Positive	Not investigated

Notes: URB, GDP, GDP², CO₂, EN, TR, FD, GOV, TP, INV and IND denote urbanization, per capita real GDP, the square of per capita real GDP, carbon emissions, energy consumption, trade openness, financial development, government effectiveness, total population, domestic investments, and industrialization, respectively. → and ↔ indicate unidirectional causality and bidirectional causality, respectively.

The study is constructed as follows. Section 2 presents the model and data. Section 3 deals with the econometric strategy. Section 4 describes the empirical results. Section 5 concludes the study and offers some policy implications.

3. Model and Data

Following Ali et al. (2016) for Nigeria, Farhani and Ozturk (2015) for Tunisia, Solarin and Lean (2016) for China and India, we examine the relation between urbanization, economic growth, energy consumption and CO₂ emissions in Turkish economy for the period 1960-2014. The long-run relationship is investigated using the log-linear model as follows:

$$\ln CO_{2t} = \delta_0 + \delta_1 \ln GDP_t + \delta_2 \ln GDP_t^2 + \delta_3 \ln URB_t + \delta_4 \ln EN_t + \mu_t \quad (1)$$

where CO_{2t} is per capita CO₂ emissions (metric tons); GDP_t is per capita real GDP (constant prices in 2010 US\$); GDP_t² is the square of per capita real GDP; URB_t is the urbanization rate (share of total population) and EN_t is per capita energy consumption (kt of oil equivalent). δ_0 , t , μ denote the constant, the time index and the white noise error term, respectively. The annual data from 1960 to 2014 were compiled from World Bank's World Development Indicators database (WDI, 2017). Variables are used in natural logarithms.

δ_1 , δ_2 , δ_3 and δ_4 are estimated parameters and represent the long-run elasticity estimates of per capita CO₂ emissions with respect to per capita real GDP, the square of per capita real GDP, urbanization rate and per capita energy consumption, respectively. According to the environmental Kuznets curve (EKC) hypothesis, income level is linked with CO₂ emissions. There exists an inverted-U shaped relationship between income level and CO₂ emissions. Therefore, the signs of δ_1 and δ_2 are expected to be positive and negative, respectively (Behera and Dash, 2017; Omri, 2013). Based on the theories of compact city, the ecological modernization and the urban environmental transition, there exists a positive or negative link between urbanization and environmental pollution (Poumanyong and Kaneko, 2010). Hence, the sign of δ_3 can be either positive or negative. Since energy is an important production factor, a rise in energy consumption will result in a rise in economic growth and carbon emissions (Ang, 2007; Ozturk and Acaravci, 2013). For this reason, we expect that the sign of δ_4 to be positive.

Descriptive statistics and pair-wise correlations between the series are presented in Table 2. The Jarque-Bera test results indicate that per capita real GDP, the square of per capita real GDP, per capita energy consumption, urbanization rate and per capita CO₂ emissions are normally distributed at 5% significance level. Correlation analysis reveals that per capita real GDP, the square of per capita real GDP, per capita energy consumption and urbanization rate are positively linked with per capita CO₂ emissions. The correlation analysis also reveals that urbanization rate and per capita energy consumption are positively correlated with per capita real GDP and the square of per capita real GDP. The positive correlation also exists between urbanization rate and per capita energy consumption. Fig. 1 shows that per capita CO₂ emissions have moved in the same direction as per capita real GDP, urbanization rate and per capita energy use in Turkey between 1960-2014.

Table 2: Descriptive statistics and correlation matrix

Statistics/Variables	$\ln CO_2$	$\ln GDP$	$\ln GDP^2$	$\ln URB$	$\ln EN$
Mean	0.754	8.736	76.470	3.935	6.733
Median	0.886	8.749	76.556	4.012	6.811
Std. dev.	0.548	0.388	6.812	0.270	0.411
Min.	-0.490	8.050	64.807	3.450	5.954
Max.	1.502	9.496	90.182	4.288	7.368
Skewness	-0.620	0.091	0.164	-0.325	-0.275
Kurtosis	2.433	2.116	2.136	1.643	2.019
Jarque-Bera	4.267(0.118)	1.865(0.393)	1.958(0.375)	5.191(0.074)	2.896 (0.234)
Observations	55	55		55	55
$\ln CO_2$	1.000				
$\ln GDP$	0.970	1.000			
$\ln GDP^2$	0.965	0.999	1.000		
$\ln URB$	0.978	0.965	0.961	1.000	
$\ln EN$	0.991	0.989	0.986	0.982	1.000

Note: The values in parentheses denote the probabilities

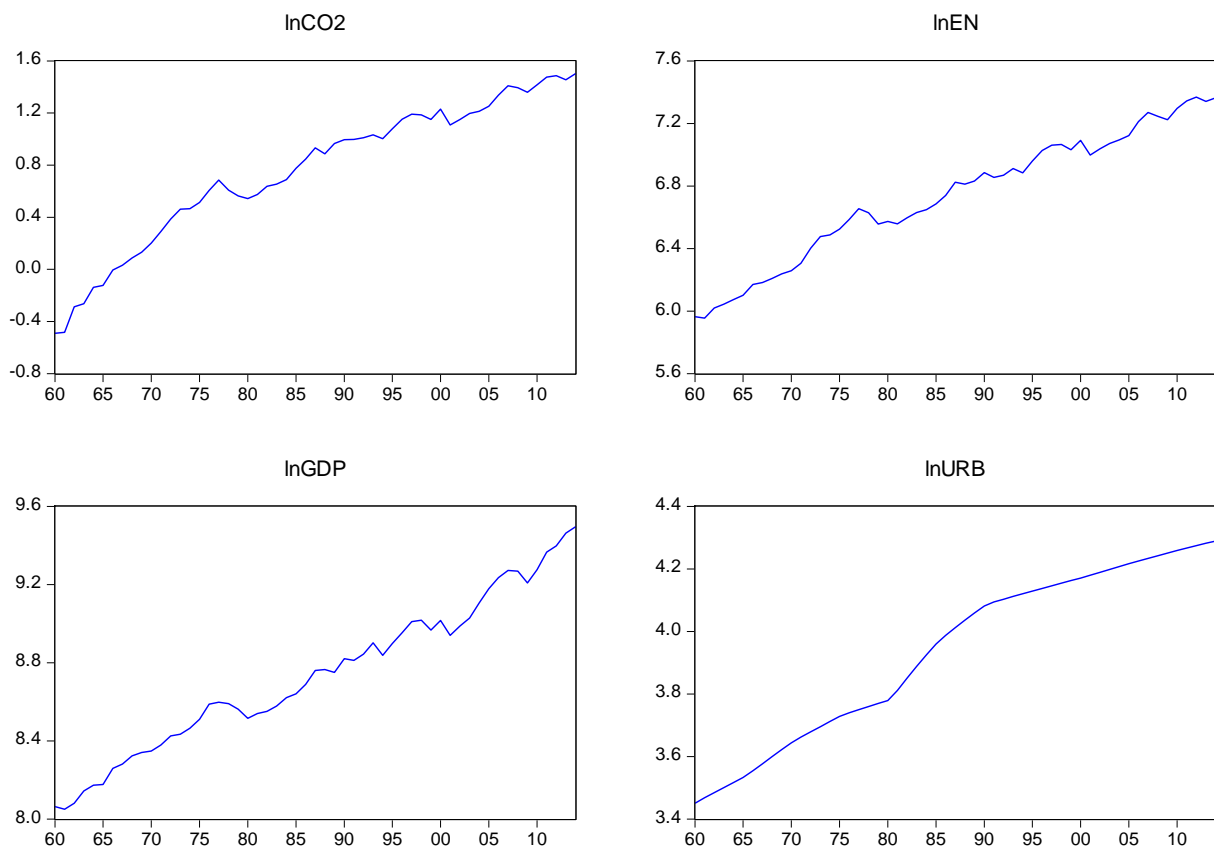


Figure 1: Trends in per capita CO₂ emissions, per capita real GDP, urbanization rate and per capita energy consumption for the case of Turkey, 1960-2014.

4. Econometric Strategy

The econometric strategy applied in the study consists of four steps. In the first step, the unit root properties of the series are investigated by the Ng-Perron and Lee-Strazicich unit root tests. In the second step, the presence of the long run relationship between the variables is examined by the ARDL bounds testing approaches to cointegration. In the third step, long-run and short-run elasticities of the variables are tested. Finally, the Toda-Yamamoto causality method is used to investigate the causal linkages between the variables.

4.1. Unit root analysis

We employ Ng and Perron unit root test to explore the stationarity properties of the variables. According to DeJong et al. (1992), Ng-Perron test provides more reliable and consistent results compared to other conventional unit root tests in addition to being more powerful for small sample sizes. Yet, the results of these tests might be inefficient and biased since they ignore possible structural breaks in the series (Perron, 1989). Therefore, we also employ the Lee-Strazicich unit root test with two structural breaks. This test, also known as two-break minimum LM unit root approach, has several advantages. Firstly, it endogenously determines the break points. Secondly, it does not suffer from the spurious rejection of the null hypothesis when there exists a unit root with breaks. Thirdly, when the alternative hypothesis is valid, the LM test is more power than the Lumsdaine-Papell test (Lee and Strazicich, 2003).

According to Lee and Strazicich (2003), the LM unit root test statistic can be estimated from the following specification:

$$\Delta x_t = \gamma' \Delta Z_t + \phi \tilde{S}_{t-1} + \mu_t \quad (2)$$

where $\tilde{S}_{t-1} = x_t - \tilde{\psi}_x - Z_t \tilde{\gamma}$, $t = 2, \dots, T$. $\tilde{\gamma}$ are the coefficients in the regression Δx_t on ΔZ_t and $\tilde{\psi}_x = x_1 - Z_1 \tilde{\gamma}$, where x_1 and Z_1 are the first observations of x_t and Z_t . $\Delta \tilde{S}_{t-j}$, $j = 1, \dots, k$, terms are included to correct for serial correlation. The LM test statistic $\bar{\tau} = t$ is employed to test the null hypothesis $\phi = 0$. The present study uses Model A which allows two changes in level. This model is described by $Z_t = [1, t, D_{1t}, D_{2t}]'$, where $D_{jt} = 1$ for $t \geq T_{Bj} + 1$, $j=1,2$, and zero otherwise. Here D_{jt} and T_{Bj} denote a dummy indicator variable and the break date, respectively. Here, the null hypothesis $H_0: x_t = \mu_0 + d_1 B_{1t} + d_2 B_{2t} + x_{t-1} + v_{1t}$ of a unit root is set against the alternative hypothesis $H_A: x_t = \mu_1 + \sigma_t + d_1 D_{1t} + d_2 D_{2t} + v_{2t}$ of trend stationarity. In order to endogenously determine the relative break points (i.e., $\lambda_1 = TB_1/T, \lambda_2 = TB_2/T$), the minimum LM unit root test uses a grid search as follows:

$$LM_\rho = \text{Inf}_\lambda \tilde{\rho}(\lambda); LM_\tau = \text{Inf}_\lambda \tilde{\tau}(\lambda) \quad (3)$$

Lee and Strazicich (2003) tabulated critical values for two-break case.

4.2. Cointegration analysis

The study applies auto regressive distributed lags approach to determine the presence of cointegration amongst the variables under structural breaks. The ARDL bounds test is a more suitable method than the standard cointegration approaches since it can be applied irrespective of whether the explanatory variables are $I(0)$, $I(1)$ or mutually cointegrated. In addition, ARDL approach is more efficient in small sample sizes (Pesaran and Shin, 1999). The short and long run parameters are simultaneously investigated by an unrestricted error correction model (UECM) obtained from the ARDL model. The UECM can be specified as below:

$$\begin{aligned} \Delta \ln CO_{2t} = & \theta_0 + \sum_{i=1}^m \theta_{1i} \Delta \ln CO_{2t-i} + \\ & \sum_{i=0}^m \theta_{2i} \Delta \ln GDP_{t-i} + \sum_{i=0}^m \theta_{3i} \Delta \ln GDP_{t-i}^2 + \\ & \sum_{i=0}^m \theta_{4i} \Delta \ln URB_{t-i} + \sum_{i=0}^m \theta_{5i} \Delta \ln EN_{t-i} + \delta_0 DUM_{1971} + \delta_1 DUM_{1993} + \\ & \delta_2 \ln CO_{2t-1} + \delta_3 \ln GDP_{t-1} + \delta_4 \ln GDP_{t-1}^2 + \delta_5 \ln URB_{t-1} + \delta_6 \ln EN_{t-1} + \varepsilon_t \quad (4) \end{aligned}$$

where, θ_0 , Δ and ε_t denote the constant parameter, difference operator and the error term, respectively. DUM denotes dummy variable for structural break point. In line with Shahbaz et al. (2014), we use dummy variable which considers the structural break stemming in the data.

In the ARDL bounds testing approach, the calculated F-statistic is compared with the critical bounds computed by Pesaran et al. (2001) or Narayan (2005). The null hypothesis of bounds F test is $H_0: \delta_2 = \delta_3 = \delta_4 = \delta_5 = \delta_6 = 0$ against the alternative hypothesis of $H_A: \delta_2 \neq \delta_3 \neq \delta_4 \neq \delta_5 \neq \delta_6 \neq 0$. If the calculated F-statistic is greater than the upper critical bound (UCB), the null hypothesis is rejected indicating that there exists a long run relationship among the variables. If the computed F-statistic is less than the lower critical bound (LCB), the null hypothesis cannot be rejected, meaning that there is not an existence of a long run relationship among the variables. The inference would be inconclusive if the calculated F-statistic falls between the UCB and LCB.

The robustness of the ARDL model was assessed using functional form, autocorrelation, normality of error term and heteroskedasticity tests. Also, the cumulative sum of recursive residuals (CUSUM) and the cumulative sum of squares of recursive residuals (CUSUMsq) tests presented by Brown et al. (1975) can be used to examine the stability of the parameters of ARDL model.

The ordinary least square (OLS) method was employed to estimate the long run parameters in the ARDL bounds testing approach to cointegration. In the ARDL process, the short run dynamics are examined applying error correction model (ECM) based on ARDL model. The specification of ECM is expressed as follows:

$$\begin{aligned} \Delta \ln CO_{2t} = & \beta_0 + \sum_{i=1}^m \beta_{1i} \Delta \ln CO_{2t-i} + \sum_{i=0}^n \beta_{2i} \Delta \ln GDP_{t-i} + \sum_{i=0}^p \beta_{3i} \Delta \ln GDP_{t-i}^2 \\ & + \sum_{i=0}^r \beta_{4i} \ln URB_{t-i} + \sum_{i=0}^s \beta_{5i} \Delta \ln EN_{t-i} + \gamma ECT_{t-1} + \mu_t \quad (5) \end{aligned}$$

In the ECM approach, the error correction term (ECT_{t-1}) shows how quickly the model returns to the long-run equilibrium at any disturbance or shock. Negative and statistically significant error correction term indicates the presence of a long run relationship between the variables.

4.3. Causality analysis

We apply the Toda-Yamamoto causality method known as the Granger non-causality test to investigate the causality among the variables. Toda and Yamamoto (1995) indicate that this test is applicable whether the VAR's are stationary, integrated of an arbitrary order, cointegrated of an arbitrary order. This method offers an augmented VAR ($k+d_{\max}$) model where k and $k+d_{\max}$ indicate the optimal lag length in the original VAR system and the maximal order of integration of the variables in the VAR system, respectively. In this procedure, a modified Wald (MWald) test is used for restrictions on the parameters of a VAR (k). The MWald statistic has an asymptotic chi-squared distribution. The causal linkages between the variables can be examined by the following VAR ($k+d_{\max}$) model:

$$\begin{aligned}
\ln CO_{2t} = & \alpha_0 + \sum_{i=1}^k \alpha_{1i} \ln CO_{2t-i} \\
& + \sum_{j=k+1}^{d_{max}} \alpha_{2j} \ln CO_{2t-j} + \sum_{i=1}^k \alpha_{3i} \ln GDP_{t-i} + \sum_{j=k+1}^{d_{max}} \alpha_{4j} \ln GDP_{t-j} \\
& + \sum_{i=1}^k \alpha_{5i} \ln GDP_{t-i}^2 + \sum_{j=k+1}^{d_{max}} \alpha_{6i} \ln GDP_{t-j}^2 + \sum_{i=1}^k \alpha_{7i} \ln URB_{t-i} + \sum_{j=k+1}^{d_{max}} \alpha_{8i} \ln URB_{t-j} \\
& + \sum_{i=1}^k \alpha_{9i} \ln EN_{t-i} + \sum_{j=k+1}^{d_{max}} \alpha_{10i} \ln EN_{t-j} + \varepsilon_t \quad (6)
\end{aligned}$$

5. Empirical Results

Table 3 indicates the findings of Ng-Perron unit root test. The constant model results imply that all the variables are non-stationary at their levels. The results also imply that all the variables are stationary at their first differences. So, they are $I(1)$ variables. However, Ng-Perron test does not incorporate structural breaks. In order to further investigate the stationary properties of the variables, we also employed the Lee-Strazicich unit root test with two structural breaks. The results given in Table 4 show that all variables are integrated at order one. The unit root findings validate the use of ARDL bounds testing approach to investigate the existence of long-run relationship among per capita CO₂ emissions, per capita real GDP, the square of per capita real GDP, urbanization rate and per capita energy consumption.

Table 3: Ng-Perron unit root test results

<i>Regressor</i>	<i>MZ_a</i>	<i>MZ_t</i>	<i>MSB</i>	<i>MPT</i>
lnCO ₂	1.264	2.008	1.588	174.334
lnGDP	2.321	3.236***	1.393	164.050
lnGDP ²	2.453	3.348***	1.364	160.962
lnURB	-1.372	-0.581	0.423	12.286
lnEN	1.533	2.312	1.507	166.126
ΔlnCO ₂	-26.405***	-3.627***	0.137***	1.780***
ΔlnGDP	-25.554***	-	0.139***	0.998***
ΔlnGDP ²	-25.633***	-	0.139***	1.001***
ΔlnURB	-11.675**	-2.366**	0.202**	2.292**
ΔlnEN	-25.738***	-3.584***	0.139***	0.962***

Notes: The optimal lag length is selected using SBC. *** and ** denote significance at 1% and 5% levels, respectively.

The first structural break stems in the series of per capita CO₂ emissions, per capita real GDP, the square of per capita real GDP, urbanization rate and per capita energy consumption in 1971, 1979, 1979, 1992 and 1987, respectively. The second structural break stems in the series of per capita CO₂ emissions, per capita real GDP, the square of per capita real GDP, urbanization rate and per capita energy consumption in 1993, 2009, 2009, 1994 and 2000,

respectively. It should be noted that all these years correspond to various economic crises and instabilities in Turkish economy.

We use the bounds F-test for cointegration to examine the long-run relationship among the variables. The results shown in Table 5 reveal that the computed F statistic is larger than UCB at 1 percent level of significance. This finding implies that per capita CO₂ emissions, per capita real GDP, the square of per capita real GDP, urbanization rate and per capita energy consumption are cointegrated. This also implies the presence of a long-run relationship among the variables when structural changes are accommodated. This finding is in line with Solarin and Lean (2016) for China and India. The diagnostic tests reported in the lower part of Table 5 reveal that the ARDL model passes all the relevant tests. This indicates that error terms are normally distributed, homoscedastic and not serially correlated. In addition, the model's functional form is well specified.

Table 4: Lee-Strazicich LM test results

<i>Panel A: Level</i>	<i>lnCO₂</i>	<i>lnGDP</i>	<i>lnGDP²</i>	<i>lnURB</i>	<i>lnEN</i>
Test statistics	-1.591	-2.888	-2.891	-3.204	-3.850**
Lag	0	0	0	1	5
TB1	1971	1979	1979	1992	1987
TB2	1993	2009	2009	1994	2000
<i>Panel B: First difference</i>	<i>dlnCO₂</i>	<i>dlnGDP</i>	<i>dlnGDP²</i>	<i>dlnURB</i>	<i>dlnEN</i>
Test statistics	-7.010***	-7.404***	-7.952***	-3.743*	-
Lag	0	0	0	3	-
TB1	1973	1976	1978	1986	-
TB2	1989	1998	1997	1990	-

Notes: TB1 and TB2 indicate the break dates. Critical values at 1, 5 and 10% levels for Model A are -4.545, -3.842 and -3.504, respectively (Lee and Strazicich, 2003). ***, ** and * denote significance at 1%, 5% and 10% levels, respectively

After determining the presence of long run relationship between the variables, the impact of per capita real GDP, the square of per capita real GDP, urbanization rate and per capita energy consumption on per capita CO₂ emissions are analyzed. The long-run results are presented in Table 6. The findings indicate that urbanization rate has a positive and statistically significant impact on per capita CO₂ emissions at 1 percent level of significance. This implies that 1 percent increase in urbanization rate raises per capita CO₂ emissions by 0.35 per cent. This empirical finding is consistent with Azam and Khan (2016) for Sri Lanka, Bekhet and Othman (2017) for Malaysia, Dogan and Turkecul (2016) for USA, Farhani and Ozturk (2015) for Tunisia, Liddle (2014) for OECD countries, Saboori et al. (2016) for Malaysia, Solarin and Lean (2016) for China and Japan, Ozturk and Al-Mulali (2015) for Cambodia, Shahbaz et al. (2014b) for UAE, and Shahbaz et al. (2013) for South Africa. However, this empirical result is not consistent with Ali et al. (2016) for Nigeria, Asumadu-Sarkodie and Owusu (2017) for Nigeria and Shahbaz et al. (2016) for Malaysia.

Table 5: Bounds F-test results

<i>Bounds F-test</i>	<i>F(lnCO₂/lnGDP, lnGDP², lnURB, lnEN)</i>	
Structural breaks	1971, 1993	Calculated F-statistics
ARDL model	[2,1,0,0,2]	10.012***
<i>Pesaran et al. (2001) critical value bounds of the F-statistic: Unrestricted intercept and no trend</i>		
<i>Significance level</i>	<i>Lower bounds, I(0)</i>	<i>Upper bounds, I(1)</i>
1%	3.74	5.06
5%	2.86	4.01
10%	2.45	3.52
<i>Narayan (2005) critical value bounds of the F-statistic: Unrestricted intercept and no trend (T = 55)</i>		
<i>Significance level</i>	<i>Lower bounds, I(0)</i>	<i>Upper bounds, I(1)</i>
1%	4.24	5.72
5%	3.06	4.33
10%	2.57	3.71
<i>Diagnostic tests</i>		
<i>R</i> ²	0.928	
Adjusted- <i>R</i> ²	0.897	
<i>F</i> -statistic	29.316***	
Breusch-Godfrey LM test	0.014 (0.906)	
ARCH LM test	0.152 (0.698)	
J-B normality test	1.753 (0.416)	
Ramsey RESET test	0.215 (0.645)	

Notes: The optimal lag length is selected using SBC. The values in parentheses denote the probabilities. *** denotes significance at 1% level.

The long run estimates also indicate that the effect of per capita real GDP and the square of per capita real GDP on per capita CO₂ emissions are positive and negative as expected. This demonstrates the presence of EKC hypothesis in Turkish economy. This result is consistent with Ertugrul et al. (2016), Saboori et al. (2016), Seker et al. (2015), Shahbaz et al. (2013), Shahbaz et al. (2014b) and Asumadu-Sarkodie and Owusu (2017). However, this result is not proved by Dogan and Turkekul (2016), Farhani and Ozturk (2015), Solarin and Lean (2016), Ozturk and Al-Mulali (2015).

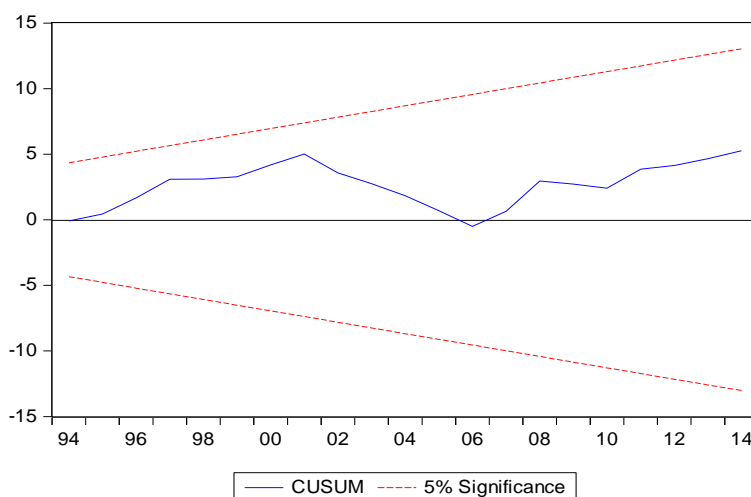
The impact of per capita energy consumption on per capita CO₂ emissions was found to be positive and statistically significant at 1 percent level of significance. This implies that 1 percent raise in per capita energy consumption increases per capita CO₂ emissions by 0.42 per cent. This finding is consistent with by Ali et al. (2016) for Nigeria, Asumadu-Sarkodie and Owusu (2017) for Nigeria, Dogan and Turkekul (2016) for USA, Farhani and Ozturk (2015) for Tunisia, Solarin and Lean (2016) for China and Japan, Shahbaz et al. (2016) for Malaysia, Saboori et al. (2016) for Malaysia, Ozturk and Al-Mulali (2015) for Cambodia, and Shahbaz et al. (2013) for South Africa. However, this result is inconsistent with Shahbaz et al. (2014b) for UAE.

The diagnostic tests summarised in the latter part of Table 6 reveal that the underlying model passes all the tests successfully. The error terms are normally distributed. The problems of heteroscedasticity and serial correlation do not exist. In addition, graphical representations of cumulative sum and cumulative sum of squares are plotted in Figure 2 and 3. The results show that both test statistics stay within critical bounds at 5% significance level and therefore confirm the ARDL parameters are stable.

Table 6: Long-run results

<i>Dependent variable: lnCO₂</i>		
<i>Regressor</i>	<i>Coefficient</i>	<i>t-statistic</i>
Constant	-34.173	-6.977***
lnGDP	6.365	5.610***
lnGDP ²	-0.326	-5.406***
lnURB	0.356	3.610***
lnEN	0.423	2.993***
Diagnostic test statistics		
<i>R</i> ²	0.999	
Adjusted- <i>R</i> ²	0.998	
<i>F</i> -statistic	4322.948***	
Breusch-Godfrey LM test	0.027 (0.868)	
ARCH LM test	0.502 (0.481)	
J-B normality test	1.084 (0.581)	
Ramsey RESET test	1.756 (0.192)	

Notes: The optimal lag length is selected using SBC. The values in parentheses indicate the probabilities. *** denotes significance at 1% level.

**Figure 2: Plot of cumulative sum of recursive residuals.**

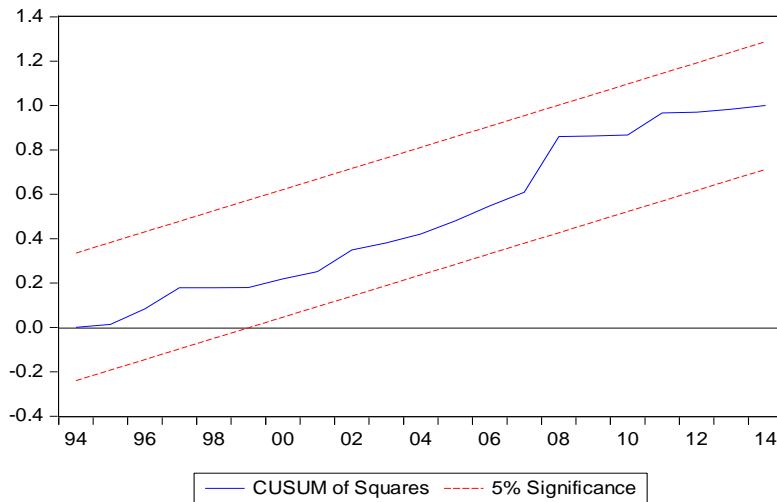


Figure 3: Plot of cumulative sum of squares of recursive residuals.

The short run results are displayed in Table 7. The empirical findings are consistent with the long-run results except for urbanization rate. The results confirm that the EKC hypothesis is valid for Turkey. This result is in accordance with Shahbaz et al. (2014b) and Tiwari et al. (2013). This finding is not in accordance with Dogan and Turkekul (2016) and Farhani and Ozturk (2015). The results also reveal that per capita energy consumption positively affects per capita CO₂ emissions. This finding is proved by Ali et al. (2016), Dogan and Turkekul (2016) and Shahbaz et al. (2016). The result with urbanization rate is consistent with Ali et al. (2016), Shahbaz et al. (2014b), Shahbaz et al. (2016), Shahbaz and Lean (2012). This finding is not consistent with Dogan and Turkekul (2016) and Farhani and Ozturk (2015).

The coefficient of ECT_{t-1} is found to be statistically significant with a negative sign indicating the existence of long run relationship between per capita real GDP, the square of per capita real GDP, urbanization rate, per capita energy consumption and per capita CO₂ emissions. This also indicates that deviation of per capita CO₂ emissions from short-run to long-run is corrected by 69.10 percent each year.

Finally, the results of Toda-Yamamoto test are given in Table 8. The causality results show that the null hypothesis of non-causality running from urbanization rate to per capita CO₂ emissions is rejected at 10 percent level of significance. This proves that there exists causality running from urbanization rate to per capita CO₂ emissions. This result is in line with Farhani and Ozturk (2015) for Tunisia, Ouyang and Lin (2017) for China and Japan, Shahbaz et al. (2016) for Malaysia, and Shahbaz et al. (2014b) for UAE. The causality results also show that there exists causality running from per capita energy consumption to urbanization rate. This implies that energy consumption causes urbanization over the period. This finding is confirmed by Farhani and Ozturk (2015) for Tunisia. However, this finding is not confirmed by Bekhet and Othman (2017) for Malaysia, Ghosh and Kanjilal (2014) for India, Hossain (2011) for NIC, Shahbaz et al. (2016) for Malaysia and Siddique et al. (2016) for South Asia.

Table 7: Short run results

<i>Dependent variable: $\Delta \ln CO_2$</i>		
<i>Regressor</i>	<i>Coefficient</i>	<i>t-statistic</i>
Constant	-0.001	-0.321
$\Delta \ln GDP$	4.059	2.991***
$\ln GDP^2$	-0.223	-2.953***
$\Delta \ln URB$	0.366	1.337
$\Delta \ln EN$	1.015	12.715***
ECT(-1)	-0.691	-9.689***
<i>Diagnostic test statistics</i>		
R^2	0.931	
Adjusted- R^2	0.917	
F-statistic	65.044***	
RSS	0.010	
SE of regression	0.015	

Notes: The optimal lag length is selected using SBC. The values in parentheses indicate the probabilities. *** denotes significance at 1% level.

Table 8: Toda-Yamamoto causality analysis

<i>Dependent variable</i>	<i>Independent variable (χ^2)</i>				
	$\ln CO_2$	$\ln GDP$	$\ln GDP^2$	$\ln URB$	$\ln EN$
$\ln CO_2$	-	0.004	0.003	2.863*	0.191
$\ln GDP$	0.283	-	1.079	0.158	0.014
$\ln GDP^2$	0.229	1.090	-	0.166	0.018
$\ln URB$	0.614	0.896	0.772	-	2.800*
$\ln EN$	0.667	0.014	0.014	0.278	-

Notes: The optimal lag length is selected using SBC. * denotes significance at 10% level.

6. Conclusion

As an upper middle-income country, Turkey has been one of the rapidly growing countries in the world since the 2000s. Turkey has witnessed a rapid economic and structural change, high-speed industrialization and urbanization process, and substantial increase in energy use. These developments have caused a steady increase in the level of CO₂ emissions, especially in urban spaces. This study investigates the cointegration and causal relationships among economic growth, urbanization, energy consumption and CO₂ emissions in Turkey over the period of 1960-2014. We use the Ng-Perron and Lee-Strazicich unit root tests to examine the stationarity properties of the variables. We also use the ARDL bounds testing approach with structural break to investigate the presence of cointegration between the variables. Finally, causality amongst the variables are tested by the Toda-Yamamoto causality analysis.

The ARDL bounds testing approach reveals that per capita CO₂ emissions, per capita real GDP, the square of per capita real GDP, urbanization rate and per capita energy consumption

are cointegrated in the presence of structural breaks. The empirical results reveal that there exists an inverted-U shaped relationship between per capita real GDP and per capita CO₂ emissions validating the presence of EKC hypothesis in both the short run and the long run. The empirical results also reveal that per capita energy consumption and urbanization rate are positively linked with per capita CO₂ emissions in the long run. The Toda-Yamamoto causality analysis shows that there exists unidirectional causality running from urbanization rate to per capita CO₂ emissions. This implies that urbanization rate causes per capita CO₂ emissions over the period.

Based on this study's findings, the government should pay more attention to energy and urbanization policies in order to reduce CO₂ emissions and overcome environmental pollution problem. In this respect, the policy makers should intensify on the several energy policies which will increase energy efficiency/diversity and support the utilization of cleaner and renewable energy sources such as solar, hydropower, geothermal sources and biofuels. It is a fact that rapid urbanization affects energy use and environmental pollution in developing countries. Moreover, the empirical results reveal that urbanization rate is a crucial factor in increasing Turkey's CO₂ emissions. Therefore, urbanization process and related environmental consequences should be integrated into the main energy policies. The energy use should be differentiated between urban and rural areas. Turkish government should pay special attention to effective urban planning. For this purpose, the speed of urbanization and rural-to-urban migration should be controlled. Finally, Turkish government should facilitate the import of cleaner technologies and financial sector should effectively support environmentally-sensitive production, technology and investments to decrease CO₂ emissions.

The present study does not provide comparative findings since it includes a single-country time series analysis. Therefore, future research could be conducted by using time series data for several developing countries. Besides, future studies may incorporate several control variables such as financial development, trade openness and population into the CO₂ emissions specification in order to derive comprehensive policy implications from their empirical findings.

References

- Ali H.S., Law S.H., Zannah T.I. 2016. Dynamic impact of urbanization, economic growth, energy consumption and trade openness on CO₂ emissions in Nigeria. *Environmental Science and Pollution Research*, 23:12, 12435-12443.
- Ang J.B. 2007. CO₂ emissions, energy consumption, and output in France. *Energy Policy*, 35:10, 4772-4778.
- Asumadu-Sarkodie S., Owusu P.A. 2017. A multivariate analysis of carbon dioxide emissions, electricity consumption, economic growth, financial development, industrialization and urbanization in Senegal. *Energy Sources, Part B: Economics, Planning, and Policy*, 12:1, 77-84.
- Azam M., Khan A.O. 2016. Urbanization and environmental degradation: Evidence from four SAARC countries: Bangladesh, India, Pakistan, and Sri Lanka. *Environmental Progress and Sustainable Energy*, 35:3, 823-832.
- Behera S.R., Dash D.P. 2017. The effect of urbanization, energy consumption, and foreign direct investment on the carbon dioxide emissions in the SSEA (South and Southeast Asian) region. *Renewable and Sustainable Energy Reviews*, 70, 96-106.
- Bekhet H.A., Othman N. S. 2017. Impact of urbanization growth on Malaysia CO₂ emissions: Evidence from the dynamic relationship. *Journal of Cleaner Production*, 154, 374-388.

- Brown R.L., Durbin J., Evans J. M. 1975. Techniques for testing the constancy of regression relations over time. *Journal of the Royal Statistical Society, Series B*, 37:2, 149-192.
- Burck J., Marten F., Bals C., Höhne N. 2017. Climate change performance index Results-2018.
- Burton E. 2000. The compact city: just or just compact? A preliminary analysis. *Urban Studies*, 37:11, 1969-2001.
- Dahl C., Erdogan M. 1994. Oil demand in the developing world: Lessons from the 1980s applied to the 1990s. *Energy*, 15, 69-78.
- Davis K. 1965. The urbanization of the human population. *Scientific American*, 213:3, 3-16.
- DeJong D.N., Nankervis J.C., Savin N.E., Whiteman C.H. 1992. Integration versus trend stationarity in time series. *Econometrica*, 60:2, 423-433.
- Dodman D. 2009. Blaming cities for climate change? An analysis of urban greenhouse gas emissions inventories. *Environment and Urbanization*, 21:1, 185-201.
- Dogan E. and Turkekul B. 2016. CO2 emissions, real output, energy consumption, trade, urbanization and financial development: Testing the EKC hypothesis for the USA. *Environmental Science and Pollution Research*, 23, 1203-1213.
- Economic Outlook of Turkey 2017. Republic of Turkey ministry of foreign affairs. Accessed at: <http://www.mfa.gov.tr/prospects-and-recent-developments-in-the-turkish-economy.en.mfa>.
- Ertugrul H.M., Cetin M., Seker F. and Dogan E. 2016. The impact of trade openness on global carbon dioxide emissions: Evidence from the top ten emitters among developing countries. *Ecological Indicators*, 67, 543-555.
- Farhani S., Ozturk I. 2015. Causal relationship between CO2 emissions, real GDP, energy consumption, financial development, trade openness and urbanization in Tunisia. *Environmental Science and Pollution Research*, 22, 15663-15676.
- Ghosh S., Kanjilal K. 2014. Long-term equilibrium relationship between urbanization, energy consumption and economic activity: Empirical evidence from India. *Energy*, 66, 324-331.
- Glaeser E.L., Kahn M.E. 2010. The greenness of cities: Carbon dioxide emissions and urban development. *Journal of Urban Economics*, 67(3), 404-418.
- Grimm N.B., Faeth S.H., Golubiewski N.E., Redman C.L., Wu J., Bai X., Briggs J.M. 2008. Global change and the ecology of cities. *Science*, 319:5864, 756-760.
- Henderson J.V. 2003. The urbanization process and economic growth: The so-what question. *Journal of Economic Growth*, 8(1), 47-71.
- Hossain M.S. 2011. Panel estimation for CO2 emissions, energy consumption, economic growth, trade openness and urbanization of newly industrialized countries. *Energy Policy*, 39, 6991-6999.
- International Energy Outlook 2016. U.S. energy information administration office of energy analysis. U.S. Department of Energy, Washington.
- Jones D.W. 1991. How urbanization affects energy use in developing countries. *Energy Policy*, 19, 621-630.
- Lee J. and Strazicich M. 2003. Minimum lagrange multiplier unit root test with two structural breaks. *The Review of Economics and Statistics*, 85, 1082-1089.
- Lenzen M., Wier M., Cohen C., Hayami H., Pachauri S., Schaeffer R.A. 2006. Comparative multivariate analysis of household energy requirements in Australia, Brazil, Denmark, India and Japan. *Energy*, 31, 181-207.
- Liddle B. 2014. Impact of population, age structure, and urbanization on carbon emissions/energy consumption: Evidence from macro-level, cross-country analyses. *Population and Environment*, 35, 286-304.
- Martínez-Zarzoso I. and Maruotti A. 2011. The impact of urbanization on CO2 emissions: Evidence from developing countries. *Ecological Economics*, 70(7), 1344-1353.

- McGranahan G., Jacobi P., Songsore J., Surjadi C., Kjellen, M. 2001. *The citizen at risk: From urban sanitation to sustainable cities*. Earthscan, London.
- Mol, A.P.J., Spaargaren, G. 2000. Ecological modernization theory in debate: A review. *Environmental Politics*, 9, 17-49.
- Narayan P.K. 2005. The saving and investment nexus for China: Evidence from cointegration tests. *Applied Economics*, 37, 1979-1990.
- Ng S. and Perron P. 2001. Lag length selection and the construction of unit root tests with good size and power. *Econometrica*, 69(6), 1519-1554.
- OECD Environmental Outlook 2011. OECD environmental outlook to 2050. Climate Change Chapter, OECD Publishing.
- OECD Report 2015. The metropolitan century: Understanding urbanisation and its consequences, OECD Publishing.
- Omri A. 2013. CO₂ emissions, energy consumption and economic growth nexus in MENA countries: Evidence from simultaneous equations models. *Energy Economics*, 40, 657-664.
- Ouyang X. and Lin B. 2017. Carbon dioxide (CO₂) emissions during urbanization: A comparative study between China and Japan. *Journal of Cleaner Production*, 143, 356-368.
- Ozturk I., Acaravci A. 2013. The long-run and causal analysis of energy, growth, openness and financial development on carbon emissions in Turkey. *Energy Economics*, 36, 262-267.
- Ozturk I., Al-Mulali U. 2015. Investigating the validity of the environmental Kuznets curve hypothesis in Cambodia. *Ecological Indicators*, 57, 324-330.
- Perron P. 1989. The great crash, the oil price shock, and the unit root hypothesis. *Econometrica*, 57:6, 1361-1401.
- Pesaran M.H., Shin Y. 1999. *An autoregressive distributed-led modelling approach to cointegration analysis*. In *Econometrics and Economic Theory in the 20th Century. The Ragnar Frisch Centennial Symposium*, ed. Steinar Strom. Cambridge University Press, Cambridge.
- Pesaran M.H., Shin Y., Smith R. 2001. Bounds testing approaches to the analysis of level relationships. *Journal of Applied Econometrics*, 16, 289-326.
- Poumanyong P., Kaneko S. 2010. Does urbanization lead to less energy use and lower CO₂ emissions? A cross-country analysis. *Ecological Economics*, 70:2, 434-444.
- Quigley J.M. 1998. Urban diversity and economic growth. *Journal of Economic Perspectives*, 12:2, 127-138.
- Saboori B., Sulaiman J., Mohd S. 2016. Environmental Kuznets curve and energy consumption in Malaysia: A cointegration approach. *Energy Sources, Part B: Economics, Planning, and Policy*, 11:9, 861-867.
- Saidi K., Mbarek M.B. 2017. The impact of income, trade, urbanization, and financial development on CO₂ emissions in 19 emerging economies. *Environmental Science and Pollution Research*, 24:14, 12748-12757.
- Seker F., Ertugrul H.M., Cetin, M. 2015. The impact of foreign direct investment on environmental quality: A bounds testing and causality analysis for Turkey. *Renewable and Sustainable Energy Reviews*, 52, 347-356.
- Shahbaz M., Tiwari, A.K., Nasir, M. 2013. The effects of financial development, economic growth, coal consumption and trade openness on CO₂ emissions in South Africa. *Energy Policy*, 61, 1452-1459.
- Shahbaz M., Khraief N., Uddin G.S., Ozturk, I. 2014a. Environmental Kuznets curve in an open economy: A bounds testing and causality analysis for Tunisia. *Renewable and Sustainable Energy Reviews*, 34, 325-336.

- Shahbaz M., Sbia R., Hamdi H., Ozturk I. 2014b. Economic growth, electricity consumption, urbanization and environmental degradation relationship in United Arab Emirates. *Ecological Indicators*, 45, 622-631.
- Shahbaz M., Loganathan N., Muzaffar A.T., Ahmed K., Jabran, M.A. 2016. How urbanization affects CO2 emissions in Malaysia? The application of STIRPAT model. *Renewable and Sustainable Energy Reviews*, 57, 83-93.
- Shahbaz M., Lean H.H. 2012. Does financial development increase energy consumption? The role of industrialization and urbanization in Tunisia. *Energy Policy*, 40, 473-479.
- Sharma S.S. 2011. Determinants of carbon dioxide emissions: Empirical evidence from 69 countries. *Applied Energy*, 88:1, 376-382.
- Siddique H.M.A., Majeed M.T., Ahmad H.K. 2016. The impact of urbanization and energy consumption on CO2 emissions in South Asia. *Journal of South Asian Studies*, 31:2, 113-125.
- Solarin S.A., Lean H.H. 2016. Natural gas consumption, income, urbanization, and CO2 emissions in China and India. *Environmental Science and Pollution Research*, 23:18, 18753-18765.
- Tiwari A.K., Shahbaz M., Hye Q.M.A. 2013. The environmental Kuznets curve and the role of coal consumption in India: Cointegration and causality analysis in an open economy. *Renewable and Sustainable Energy Reviews*, 18, 519-527.
- Toda H.Y., Yamamoto T. 1995. Statistical inference in vector autoregressions with possibly integrated processes. *Journal of Econometrics*, 66:1-2, 225-250.
- Wang Y., Kang Y., Wang J., Xu L. 2017. Panel estimation for the impacts of population-related factors on CO2 emissions: A regional analysis in China. *Ecological Indicators*, 78, 322-330.
- World Bank. 2017. World Development Indicators. Accessed at: <http://data.worldbank.org/data-catalog/world-development-indicators>.
- World Energy Outlook. 2016. Executive summary. International Energy Agency and OECD.
- World Energy Council 2016. World Energy Resources. Accessed at: <https://www.worldenergy.org>
- Xu B., Lin B. 2016. Reducing CO2 emissions in China's manufacturing industry: Evidence from nonparametric additive regression models. *Energy*, 101:15, 161-173.
- Xu H., Zhang, W. 2016. The causal relationship between carbon emissions and land urbanization quality: A panel data analysis for Chinese provinces. *Journal of Cleaner Production*, 137, 241-248.
- Zi C., Jieb W., Hong-Bo C. 2016. CO2 emissions and urbanization correlation in China based on threshold analysis. *Ecological Indicators*, 61:2, 193-201.