RESEARCH ARTICLE



Pathways to securing environmentally sustainable economic growth through efficient use of energy: a bootstrapped ARDL analysis

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Abstract

Oman has traditionally relied upon natural gas and oil for meeting its domestic energy demand. As a result, despite growing economically, the level of carbon dioxide emissions in Oman has persistently surged; consequently, the nation has failed to ensure environmentally sustainable economic growth. Against this background, this current study aims to explore the impacts of energy consumption, energy efficiency, and financial development on Oman's prospects of attaining environmentally sustainable growth over the 1972–2019 period. The estimation strategy is designed to take into account the structural break issues in the data. Using the carbon productivity level as an indicator of environmentally sustainable economic growth, we find long-run associations amid the study variables. Besides, higher energy consumption and greater financial development are found to impede carbon productivity while improving energy efficiency is observed to boost carbon productivity in Oman. Therefore, it is pertinent for Oman to consume low-carbon and energy-efficient fossil fuels, improve energy efficiency levels, and green its financial sector to achieve environmentally sustainable growth.

Keywords Energy consumption \cdot Energy efficiency \cdot Financial development \cdot Environmentally sustainable growth \cdot Carbon productivity

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Introduction

Greater globalization has led to a surge in economic activities whereby the level of energy consumption has grown manifolds. As a result, energy has played a critically important role in driving the growth of global economies. Although achieving economic growth is the core objective of all nations, it has strings attached to it in the form of environmental degradation. Hence, the world economies must emphasize on achieving growth in an environmentally sustainable way (Murshed 2020, 2021; Li et al. 2021). Although in the past, the complementarity between economic growth and environmental pollution was not opposed, the ratification of the Paris Agreement has necessitated the adoption and implementation of decoupling strategies worldwide (Wang and Zhang 2020; Wang et al. 2022). However, the decoupling task is relatively more cumbersome across nations that are predominantly fossil fuel-dependent and have limited scopes of undergoing renewable energy transition. In such circumstances, considering the limitations, it is important for these countries to come up with other relevant and interim solutions that can enable them to achieve environmentally sustainable growth.

Fig. 1 Fossil fuel dependency in Oman. Notes: The figures are average shares (within the corresponding period) of natural gas and oil in the total electricity output of Oman. Source: World Development Indicators (World Bank 2022)

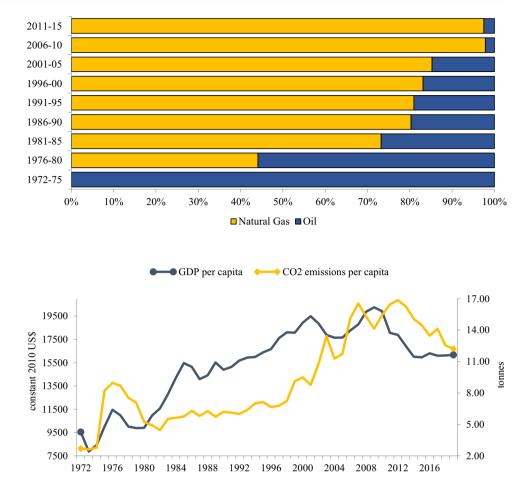
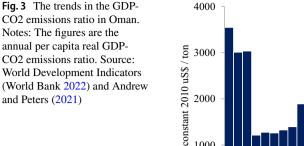


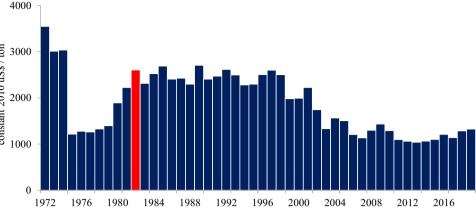
Fig. 2 The per capita GDP and CO2 emission trends in Oman. Notes: The annual per capita GDP figures are shown along the primary axis (i.e., left axis) while the per capita CO2 emission figures are shown along the secondary axis (i.e., right axis). Source: World Development Indicators (World Bank 2022) and Andrew and Peters (2021)

Similar issues are faced by the Gulf Co-operation Council (GCC) member nations that are fossil fuel-dependent to a large extent. These countries account for around one-third and one-fifth of the global crude oil and gas reserves, respectively (British Petroleum 2022). Among the GCC nation, Oman is believed to be the most climate change-vulnerable one courtesy of its insufficient water resources; whereby climate change-induced droughts are likely to jeopardize the entire economy (World Health Organization 2015; Charabi et al. 2020; Hamid et al. 2021). On the other hand, Oman meets its entire energy demand using fossil fuels. As depicted in Fig. 1, it can be observed that although initially being totally dependent on oil, the oil dependency within the Omani electricity sector has drastically declined over time while the reliance on natural gas has steadily surged. Figure 1 also illustrates the chronic fossil fuel dependency of the nation that can be held responsible for the economic growth-environmental pollution trade-offs in Oman.

Figure 2 presents a picture of this scenario. It can be seen that the annual per capita levels of Oman's real Gross Domestic Product (GDP) and carbon dioxide (CO2) emissions have projected identical trends. Thus, it can be assumed that Oman's economic growth strategies have conventionally impeded the nation's potential of safeguarding environmental welfare in Oman. Hence, from the perspective of achieving environmentally sustainable growth, it is important to increase the output level per unit of CO2 emitted. However, if we look into the trends in the annual level of Oman's output per unit of CO2-emitted figures over the 1972–2019 period (as shown in Fig. 3), we can observe that from 1982 onwards, this ratio has gradually declined which further certifies that the economic activities in Oman have traditionally been environmentally-unfriendly.

Among the relevant factors, achieving environmentally sustainable economic growth is said to be conditional on energy use (Zaman and Kalirajan 2019). This is because combusting energy resources simultaneously drives economic growth (Bhattacharya et al. 2016; Ozcan and Ozturk 2019) and influences the environmental quality as well (Bilgili et al. 2016a, b; Salahuddin et al. 2018). For instance, fossil fuel consumptionled economic growth is likely to result in high emissions of CO2 (Kanat et al. 2022) while achieving economic growth by employing renewable energy can be assumed to curb these emissions (Murshed et al. 2021a; Fell et al. 2022). Consequently, diversifying the energy mix by reducing and increasing non-renewable and renewable energy shares, respectively,





can be hypothesized to facilitate environmentally sustainable growth (Shakib et al. 2022; Mahmood et al. 2022). However, this cannot be a universal and immediate solution, especially across countries with limited or no scope for undergoing a renewable energy transition.¹ Therefore, for these particular nations, environmentally sustainable economic growth can either be achieved by using relatively less unclean fossil fuels (Murshed et al. 2021b; Rej et al. 2021) or by improving the efficiency of energy use (Alsaedi et al. 2022; Hassan et al. 2022).

Furthermore, concerning the switch from traditionally utilized unclean fossil fuel sources to relatively less unclean alternatives, financial development is said to play a crucial role in driving this energy transition. For instance, a developed financial sector can be expected to enhance credit access to the private sector whereby it can be assumed to make the relatively clean and expensive energy sources affordable. On the other hand, it can also stimulate investment in research and development for technological advancement regarding the production of modern cleaner fossil fuels at cheaper rates. Under such circumstances, financial development can be associated with environmentally-friendly growth. However, on the flip side, financial development can also inhibit low-carbon economic growth attainment. This is because, with greater access to private sector credit, the demand for energy may go up whereby higher energy consumption can be anticipated to surge higher emissions of CO2 (Abbasi et al. 2022). Accordingly, financial development has been recognized in past studies to inflict equivocal environmental consequences (Khan and Ozturk 2021; Shahbaz et al. 2013; Farhani and Ozturk 2015).

Against this background, this study assesses the effects of energy use, energy efficiency, and financial development on environmentally sustainable economic growth in Oman over the 1972-2019 period. This study is important from the perspective that Oman has finite possibilities of undergoing renewable energy transition whereby the nation has to make changes in its patterns of energy consumption to achieve higher economic growth in exchange for lower CO2 emissions. Besides, this study is also important from the perspective that Oman and the other GCC nations are currently working to collaborate for energy efficiency improvement and conservation. In this regard, Oman had initiated a Master Plan for Energy Efficiency and Conservation (EE&C) in collaboration with Japan International Cooperation Agency (JICA) in the year 2013. Presently, Oman is making the Energy Master Plan 2040 intending to meet around 30% of its demand for electricity from renewable energy resources by 2030. Besides, for energy conservation, Oman's Supreme Council for Planning has established a board in 2016 to develop an inclusive green design code to cater to the needs of the planned unified GCC Building Code. It was permitted by the Council of Financial Affairs and Energy Resources in September 2017. However, unless the nation is infrastructurally sound in facilitating renewable energy transition, energy efficiency improvement can be expected to be effective in curbing CO2 emissions generated from the production processes. As a result, assessing the impacts of energy efficiency gains on environmentally sustainable economic growth is of paramount importance from Oman's point of view.

This current study differs from the preceding ones in the following manner. First, the macroeconomic determinants of economic growth in Oman have received limited mentions in the literature. On top of that, none of the previous studies has emphasized the relevance of unearthing factors that can enable Oman to achieve environmentally sustainable (lowcarbon) economic growth. Therefore, this study models the effects of energy use, energy efficiency, and financial development on environmentally sustainable economic growth in

¹ Renewable energy transition emphasizes on the simultaneous decline in non-renewable energy use and increases in renewable energy use. For a more in-depth understanding of this process, see Murshed (2022), Fraser et al. (2022), and Murshed et al. (2022).

Oman. This study considers the nation's carbon productivity level, which shows the amount of national output generated per unit of CO2 emitted, as a proxy for green growth. It is assumed that higher (lower) carbon productivity indicates low-carbon (high-carbon) economic growth. Second, this is the seminal study that not only evaluates the impacts of energy use on Oman's prospects of achieving low-carbon growth but also assesses the corresponding impacts associated with energy efficiency improvement. It is extremely relevant and important to probe into the energy efficiencyeconomic growth nexus in the context of Oman because the nation has always been totally dependent on non-renewable energy and is yet to utilize renewable energy to meet its energy requirement (World Bank 2022). Therefore, unless the nation is sufficiently empowered to undergo the renewable energy transition, it can be hypothesized that by utilizing less energy to produce its national output Oman can manage to curb its energy-use-related emissions.

Literature review

Initially, the theoretical framework of the study is briefly analyzed followed by the summary of empirical literature that has shed light on the issues related to the objectives of this current study.

Theoretical underpinnings

The nexus between energy consumption and economic growth can be understood from four perspectives. Firstly, the growth hypothesis classifies economic growth as a function of energy consumption (Magazzino 2017). As per this notion, economies follow energy use-led growth strategies whereby energy resources are combusted to produce the national output. Secondly, the conservative hypothesis emphasizes that economic growth influences energy consumption levels and therefore advocates in favor of conserving energy resources for future use (Murshed and Alam 2021). This hypothesis tends to glorify the importance of energy efficiency improvement to save energy for future consumption. Thirdly, the feedback hypothesis states that economic growth and energy consumption are interdependent whereby reverse causation between these variables can be evidenced (Menegaki 2011). Lastly, the neutrality hypothesis nullifies any sort of relationship between energy consumption and economic growth (Antonakakis et al. 2017).

Although these four hypotheses explain the relationships between economic growth and energy use, they do not comment on the influence of energy on the quality of growth. Therefore, it is necessary to isolate the effects of different energy resources on the degree of environmental damage caused during the utilization of the energy resources in the production processes. Since fossil fuels are composed of hydrocarbons, combusting these for output generation purposes is likely to stimulate higher CO2 emissions and result in environmental quality-inhibiting growth (Ibrahiem and Hanafy 2020). On the contrary, since renewable energy resources are hydrocarbon-free, employing these can be assumed to impede CO2 emissions to facilitate environmental quality-improving growth (Sinha et al. 2019). Hence, considering these contrasting impacts, it can be hypothesized that since Oman is entirely dependent on natural gas and oil, energy consumption is likely to reduce the nation's carbon productivity level.

Even though higher consumption of unclean energy is unfavorable for attaining low-carbon growth, the adverse impacts can possibly be reduced by enhancing the rate of efficiency at which energy is utilized (Wang and Wang 2020a). Following an improvement in the energy efficiency level, it can be assumed that the quantity of unclean energy utilized to produce a certain amount of output would go down; consequently, the associated CO2 emissions can be assumed to decline as well. As a result, energy efficiency improvement can contribute to improving the carbon productivity level and enable Oman to attain environmentally sustainable economic growth. However, improving energy efficiency can also induce an energy rebound syndrome whereby instead of declining, the energy consumption level and the associated CO2 emissions can go up. Under such a circumstance, energy efficiency improvement may not guarantee the achievement of environmentally sustainable growth.

Now turning to the financial development-clean economic growth nexus, it is believed that financial development imposes dual environmental impacts whereby its effect on environmentally sustainable growth can display ambiguity. The level of financial development is commonly proxied by the share of private sector credit in the national valueadded (Ozturk and Acaravci 2013; Al-Mulali et al. 2015). The higher (lower) the share the more developed (underdeveloped) the financial sector (Salahuddin et al. 2015; Shahbaz et al. 2020). Hence, as the financial sector develops, it can increase private sector investments whereby the energy demand can go up; consequently, CO2 emissions can go up to eventually reduce carbon productivity. In contrast, if private sector borrowing is assumed to be invested in energy improvement technology development projects, then financial sector development can be anticipated to facilitate environmentally sustainable economic growth by improving the carbon productivity level.

Empirical evidence

The majority of the preceding studies have examined the effects of energy use on both economic growth (Ozturk et al. 2010; Bhattacharya et al. 2016; Wang and Wang 2020b) and CO2 emissions (Ahmed et al. 2020a, b). However,

these studies have overlooked the impacts of energy use on environmentally sustainable economic growth. Similarly, focusing on the separate effects of financial development on economic growth (Ibrahim and Alagidede 2018) and CO2 emissions (Kihombo et al. 2021; Chishti et al. 2021), an additional literature gap can be identified whereby the impacts of financial development on environmentally sustainable economic growth has largely been ignored. Therefore, this section summarizes the previous studies that have shed insights on the economic and environmental impacts associated with energy use and financial development. Hence, linking the findings documented in these studies would provide an understanding of whether energy use and the development of the financial sector can contribute to higher environmentally sustainable economic growth in Oman.

The literature on the nexus between energy use and economic growth

Though the study by Kraft and Kraft (1978) is believed to be the seminal contribution to the energy use-economic growth narrative, Al-Iriani (2006) conducted and published the first study that checked the association between consumption of energy and growth of the economy in the context of the GCC countries. A total of six GCC states were analyzed using a data set spanning from 1971 to 2002. The results supported the conservative hypothesis since the causality analysis unearthed a one-way causal association running from economic growth towards consumption of energy. In another study on the GCC countries between 1975 and 2012, Osman et al. (2016) found evidence of the feedback causal association between electricity consumption and economic growth; thus, the feedback hypothesis was verified in this study. Besides, using time series analysis, Mezghani and Haddad (2017) opined that electricity consumption shocks and volatility affects economic growth in Saudi Arabia. On the other hand, economic growth volatility was also evidenced to increase the energy consumption level. Hamdi et al. (2014), using the Cobb–Douglas production function, found that electricity consumption is a key contributor to economic growth in Bahrain.

Similarly, Wasti and Zaidi (2020) also found energy consumption to be effective in positively influencing the growth of the economy of Kuwait. In another relevant study on oilexporting nations including Kuwait, Saudi Arabia, and Iran, Mehrara (2007) claimed that the conservative hypothesis was valid for Iran and Kuwait while for Saudi Arabia, the growth hypothesis was validated. A plethora of other existing studies has also shed light on the energy consumptioneconomic growth nexus for the GCC nations (AlKhars et al. 2020). Therefore, it is evident that the energy use-economic growth nexus in the context of Oman has not attracted much attention in the literature. Other than the GCC countries, Usman et al. (2021) remarked that higher energy consumption is associated with higher economic growth in Bangladesh, India, and Pakistan in the short run and for India and Pakistan in the long run. Ha and Ngoc (2021) validated the feedback hypothesis concerning the petroleum consumptioneconomic growth relationship in the context of Vietnam. Likewise, the importance of energy consumption in securing higher economic growth in Pakistan was affirmed by Yasmeen et al. (2021). In contrast, using data from emerging countries across Asia, Sharma et al. (2021) reported that energy consumption eventually dampens economic growth in the long run.

Apart from energy consumption, a few studies have explored the effects of energy efficiency on economic growth. Using data from 5 African countries, Adom et al. (2021) opined that improving the level of energy use efficiency, under the seventh Sustainable Development Goal, is pertinent in boosting economic growth across Africa. Akram et al. (2021) found that energy efficiency improvement is a crucial factor for stimulating economic growth in the BRICS² nations. Besides, the authors also found evidence of bidirectional causal relationships between energy efficiency and economic growth. Similarly, Bataille and Melton (2017) conducted a computational general equilibrium analysis and found evidence of energy efficiency gains resulting in higher economic growth in Canada between the 2002-2012 period. On the other hand, Rajbhandari and Zhang (2018) remarked that lowering energy intensity levels (similar to improvement in energy efficiency) was evidenced to generate economic growth-enhancing impacts across selected high- and middleincome countries. Although empirical studies related to the energy efficiency-economic growth nexus have not been conducted for the GCC countries, Krarti et al. (2019), in recognition of the importance of energy efficiency improvement within buildings, stated that installation of retrofits in existing buildings can enhance energy use efficiency which, in turn, can be expected to contribute to the development of the economic sectors in the associated countries.

The literature on the nexus between energy use and CO2 emissions

Abdul-Wahab et al. (2015) pointed out that energy consumption, especially natural gas, is the leading cause of CO2 and other greenhouse gas emissions. However, empirical evaluation of the energy consumption-CO2 emission nexus has not attracted attention among researchers. However, several studies have assessed the impacts of energy use on CO2

² BRICS abbreviates for Brazil, Russia, India, China, and South Africa.

emissions in the context of the panel of GCC nations. Baydoun and Aga (2021), controlling for cross-sectional dependency and slope heterogeneity, concluded that higher energy consumption results in greater emissions of CO2 both in the short and long run. Besides, evidence of one-way causality running from energy use to CO2 emissions was also highlighted in the study. Similarly, the positive correlation between energy consumption and CO2 emissions for the GCC countries was portrayed in the study by Salahuddin and Gow (2014). However, the authors also found evidence of bidirectional causal associations between these variables. In another study on Qatar, Salahuddin and Gow (2019) showed that marginal positive shocks to the energy use level boost CO2 emissions in the short run but not in the long run. In the context of Saudi Arabia, Mahmood et al. (2019) stated that a rise in the per capita level of energy consumption is responsible for higher CO2 emissions both in the short and long run. Regarding the electricity use-CO2 emissions nexus, Charfeddine and Khediri (2016) found that electricity consumption results in higher CO2 emissions in the short and long run in the United Arab Emirates.

Among the related studies on non-GCC nations, Dong et al. (2017) concluded that natural gas and renewable energy consumption help to curb CO2 emissions in the BRICS nations. On the other hand, Wang et al. (2016) asserted that energy consumption causally influences CO2 emissions in China. In another study on 17 OECD nations, Bilgili et al. (2016a, b) found evidence of renewable energy being favorable for the environment since higher renewable energy consumption was evidenced to curb CO2 emissions. Using data from India, China, Indonesia, and Brazil, Alam et al. (2016) documented evidence of higher energy consumption boosting CO2 emissions both in the short and long run. Besides, the results revealed that compared with India, China, and Indonesia, the CO2 emission-stimulation impact associated with energy consumption is relatively higher in Brazil. Shao et al. (2021) recently opined that renewable energy and green technological innovation help to curb the CO2 emission figure of the Next Eleven countries.

Regarding the impacts of energy efficiency on CO2 emissions, the GCC countries have remained overlooked in the empirical literature. However, considering the case of Qatar, it has been estimated that improving the rate of energy efficiency in buildings can save more than 4700 GWh of electricity and more than 2 million tons of CO2 in the next 10 years (Kamal et al. 2019). For the non-GCC nations, Lin and Xu (2018) used provincial data of 30 Chinese provinces and found evidence of energy efficiency gains inhibit agriculture sector-based CO2 emissions. In a recent study on 25 European nations, Neagu (2019) found that higher energy intensity level (synonymous with lower energy efficiency) accounts for higher CO2 emissions in 14 of these countries while only in the case of Greece higher energy intensity was found to curb CO2 emissions. Danish et al. (2020) also found that higher energy intensity stimulates higher CO2 emissions in the United States of America.

The literature on the nexus between financial development, economic growth, and CO2 emissions

Financial development is more often than not considered as a driver of economic growth whereby a wide pool of the existing studies has explored the nexus between these macroeconomic variables. However, no significant contribution can be found in this regard for the cases of the GCC nations. Among the studies featuring economies that are not members of the GCC, Ibrahim and Alagidede (2018) stated that financial development supports the economic growth of the Sub-Saharan African nations provided the private sector credits are not invested in risky projects. On the other hand, Asteriou and Spanos (2019) asserted that developing the financial sector complements the economic growth policies in Europe provided there is no economic crisis; however, in the presence of economic crisis, financial development was found to dampen economic growth. Although most studies have supported the view of financial development being associated with higher economic growth, Cheng et al. (2021) used data from 72 global countries and found financial development to inflict economic growth-inhibiting effects.

On the other hand, regarding the financial development-CO2 emissions nexus concerning the GCC countries, Gazdar et al. (2019) found that financial development not only boosts CO2 emissions but also reinforces the adverse environmental impacts associated with the growth of the GCC nations. In another study featuring Oman, Saudi Arabia, Qatar, and Bahrain, Bekhet et al. (2017) also showed that developing the financial sector accompanies the risk of surging the CO2 emission levels of these GCC countries. Similarly, for selected East and South Asian countries, Batool et al. (2022) concluded that financial development degrades environmental quality by surging the CO2 emissions figures in the long run but not in the short run. Considering data of 18 African nations, Mesagan and Olunkwa (2022) also explored the relationship between financial development and CO2 emissions. The results confirmed that the development of the financial sector boosts CO2 emissions in the short run but abates emissions in the long run.

Research design

Model and data

Using the theoretical underpinnings discussed in the previous section, we model carbon productivity (proxy for environmentally sustainable growth) as a linear function of

| Table 1 Descriptive statistics and data sources | Descriptive stat | lnCP | lnEC | lnEE | FD |
|---|------------------------------|------------------|-------------------|------------------|-------------------|
| | Min | 6.947 | 4.718 | 0.913 | 4.704 |
| | Max | 8.174 | 8.820 | 4.444 | 76.494 |
| | Mean | 7.489 | 7.667 | 1.943 | 32.078 |
| | St. dev | 0.361 | 1.097 | 0.882 | 18.014 |
| | Skewness | -0.027 | - 1.085 | 1.014 | 0.997 |
| | Kurtosis | 1.514 | 2.158 | 2.603 | 2.515 |
| | Jarque–Bera (probability) | 2.620 (0.300) | 3.150 (0.211) | 4.140 (0.120) | 2.145 (0.390) |
| | Data source | Authors' own | World Bank (2022) | Authors' own | World Bank (2022) |

energy consumption and financial development. This underlying model can be expressed as:

Model1 :
$$\ln CP_t = \varphi_0 + \varphi_1 \ln EC_t + \varphi_2 FD_t + \omega_t$$
 (1)

where t refers to the period, φ_0 is the intercept parameter, φ_1 and φ_2 are the elasticity parameters, and ω_1 is the error-term. The dependent variable lnCP refers to the natural logarithm of the annual carbon productivity level which is measured as the ratio between national output and CO2 emissions (measured in terms of constant 2015 US\$ per ton of CO2). This variable can be considered as an indicator of the quality of economic growth in relation to its corresponding effect on the environment. A rise in the carbon productivity level implies a rise in the value of output generated per unit of CO2 emitted; consequently, higher carbon productivity is synonymous with the attainment of environmentally sustainable growth.

Among the independent variables, lnEC stands for the natural logarithm of the annual per capita energy consumption level (measured in terms of kilograms of oil equivalent). Since Oman is dependent on natural gas and oil, it can be assumed that a positive shock to the per capita energy consumption level would facilitate economic growth but also release high volumes of CO2 into the atmosphere; as a result, higher energy consumption is likely to lower the level of carbon productivity in Oman. Under such circumstances, the sign of φ_1 can be expected to be negative. The variable FD abbreviates for financial development which is proxied using the share of private sector credit in the total value added (measured in terms of percentage of GDP). Since Oman is fossil fuel-dependent, it can be assumed that borrowed funds are utilized from consumption and production processes whereby the energy demand would go up; consequently, the economic output and energy-related CO2 emissions would simultaneously go up. As a result, the carbon productivity level can be anticipated to decline whereby the sign of φ_2 is likely to be negative.

Since Oman is yet to utilize renewable energy to meet its energy demand, it can be assumed that the nation should focus on reducing its energy consumption level in order to abate the associated emissions. However, reducing energy use is not rational since it dampens the economic output level. Therefore, enhancing the energy efficiency level could be a more rational option whereby neither the economic output level has to be reduced nor the higher CO2 emission problems have to be accepted. Hence, we replace energy consumption in Model 1 with the energy efficiency level which can be shown as:

Model2 : $lnCP_t = \varphi_0 + \varphi_3 lnEE_t + \varphi_2 FD_t + \omega_t$ (2)

where the variable lnEE stands for the natural logarithm of the energy efficiency level which is given by the ratio of the value of national output that is generated per unit of energy consumed (measured in terms of constant 2015 US\$ per kilogram of oil equivalent). For a given output level, a rise in the energy efficiency level would implicate lower use of energy and therefore the carbon productivity level can be assumed to go up. As a result, the sign of φ_3 is likely to be positive.

Annual data spanning from 1972 to 2019³ is utilized in this study. Table 1 reports the descriptive statistics and the data sources of the variables. The platykurtic property of all variables is ensured from the kurtosis values of the respective variable. We also observe parity in terms of the

| Correlation | lnCP | lnEC | lnEE | FD |
|-------------|--------|--------|--------|-------|
| lnCP | 1.000 | | | |
| lnEC | -0.514 | 1.000 | | |
| lnEE | 0.556 | -0.999 | 1.000 | |
| FD | -0.566 | 0.357 | -0.656 | 1.000 |

³ The missing data points are filled using the linear interpolation technique.

Table 3 Variance inflation factor analysis outcomes

| Model | Variable | VIF | Mean VIF | 1/VIF |
|-------|----------|------|----------|-------|
| 1 | lnEC | 2.34 | 2.45 | 0.427 |
| 1 | FD | 2.56 | | 0.391 |
| 2 | lnEE | 2.47 | 2.49 | 0.405 |
| 2 | FD | 2.50 | | 0.400 |

A mean VIF score of less than 5 indicates no multicollinearity concerning the respective model

Table 4Results from ZA (Zivotand Andrews 2002) unit rootanalysis

The outcomes show that the variables lnCP, lnEC, and lnEE are stationary at the first difference since the predicted t statistics are statistically significant at the 1% level of significance. However, the variable FD is found to be stationary at the level which is affirmed by the statistical significance of the predicted test statistic at the 5% level of significance. Therefore, the findings unearth a mixed order of integration among the variables. Once the unit root properties have been identified, we proceed to the cointegration analysis.

Considering the structural break concerns, the Gregory-

| Variable | Trend | Intercept | Both | Variable | Trend | Intercept | Both | Decision |
|----------|------------------|-------------------------------|-------------------------------|----------|---------------------------------|-------------------------------|-------------------------------|----------|
| lnCP | -4.471 (1980) | - 3.868 (1980) | - 3.878 (1980) | ΔlnCP | -7.060 ^a (1983) | -7.930^{a} (1983) | -8.533^{a} (1983) | I(1) |
| lnEC | -3.827 (1990) | -3.531 (1991) | -3.492 (1990) | ΔlnEC | - 8.798 ^a (1981) | -9.051 ^a (1982) | -9.010 ^a (1979) | I(1) |
| lnEE | 3.967 (1990) | - 3.579 (1990) | -4.530 (1989) | ΔlnEE | -9.0.594 ^a (1981) | -9.340 ^a (1981) | -9.958 ^a (1981) | I(1) |
| FD | -3.341 (2012) | -4.693 ^b (2011) | -4.970 ^b (2011) | ΔFD | -5.741 ^a (2009) | -5.684 ^a (2009) | -6.014 ^a (2009) | I(0) |

The *t* statistics are reported; the locations of the structural breaks are presented within the parentheses; the optimal lag selection method is Akaike Information Criterion (AIC); Δ denotes first difference; I(0) and I(1) refer to stationarity at the level and first difference, respectively; a and b refer to statistical significance at 1% and 5% level, respectively

skewness of the variables; lnCP and lnEC are negatively skewed while lnEE and FD are positively skewed. Moreover, the statistical insignificance of the Jarque–Bera statistics affirms the normality of the distributions of the respective variable. Besides, the correlations amid the variables are presented in Table 2. Furthermore, for checking possible multicollinearity issues, the variance inflation factor (VIF) analysis is conducted. The VIF outcomes, as shown in Table 3, confirm that there is no multicollinearity problem in both models since the individual VIF values are below 5 while the mean VIF value is below 10.

Econometric methods

One of the major data concerns in the time-series analysis is the problem of a structural break in the data. This is because if structural breaks are not controlled for within the analysis, then the outcomes generated are likely to be biased (Khan et al. 2022). Therefore, we employ econometric techniques which are efficient in identifying and handling structural break issues. Firstly, the Zivot-Andrews (ZA) unit root analysis with a structural break (Zivot and Andrews 2002) is employed. This technique identifies the location of a structural break for each series by predicting a t statistic under the null hypothesis of non-stationarity. This technique allows the structural break to be in the intercept, trend, or both. The results from the ZA test are presented in Table 4.

 Table 5
 Results from GH (Gregory and Hansen 1996) cointegration analysis

| Model | Test statistic | Value | Break date |
|--------------------------------------|----------------|--------------|------------|
| Model 1 { $\ln CP = f(\ln EC, FD)$ } | ADF | -10.20^{a} | 1983 |
| | Zt | -9.51^{a} | 1980 |
| | Z _a | -87.29^{a} | 1980 |
| Model 2 { $lnCP = f(lnEE, FD)$ } | ADF | -10.20^{a} | 1983 |
| | Z_{t} | -9.51^{a} | 1980 |
| | Z _a | -87.29^{a} | 1980 |

The test statistics are predicted considering breaks in the regime and trend; The optimal lag selection method is AIC; a refers to statistical significance at 1% level; The critical values at 1% level for the ADF, Zt, and Za statistics are -5.80, -5.80,and -64.77, respectively

Hansen (GH) cointegration analysis (Gregory and Hansen 1996) is conducted. This method predicts three test statistics (ADF, Zt, and Za) or each model considering the null hypothesis of non-cointegration among the variables. The results from the GH cointegration analysis, as presented in Table 5, confirm cointegration among the variables of concern for both models. The statistical significance of the predicted test statistics, at the 1% level of significance, affirms this claim. In light of these findings, we can claim that there are long-run relationships between carbon productivity, energy consumption, energy efficiency, and financial development levels in Oman. Besides, the locations of structural break dates are also identified. Corresponding to the ADF test statistic, the structural break for Models 1 and 2 is estimated at the year 1983. Hence, we control for this structural break issue by including structural break year dummies for the year 1983 within the empirical models. The unit root and cointegration analyses are followed by the regression analysis.

We employ the recently developed Bootstrapped Autoregressive Distributed Lag (BARDL) model approach for cointegration and regression. This method was developed by McNown et al. (2018) to account for the limitations of the conventional Autoregressive Distributed Lag (ARDL) technique of Pesaran et al. (2001). The BARDL method is a bootstrapped version of the ARDL method. In the bounds test for cointegration under the traditional ARDL approach, a F statistic and a t statistic are predicted to test cointegration among the variables (Pesaran et al. 2001). The F statistic is predicted from an Error-Correction Model (ECM) using lagged levels of both dependent and independent variables while the *t* statistic is estimated from an ECM using lagged level of the dependent variable. In addition, the BARDL approach introduces an additional F statistic (abbreviated as F independent) which is derived from an ECM using lagged levels of the independent variables. All these three test statistics are predicted under the null hypothesis of non-cointegration. Hence, there is evidence of cointegration among the variables if the predicted values of all three test statistics (under the BARDL method) are larger than the bootstrapped critical values.

In the next step, the short- and long-run elasticity estimates are predicted which would give an indication of the marginal impacts of positive shocks to the independent variables (energy consumption, energy efficiency, and financial development) on the dependent variable (carbon productivity). In relation to our first model (i.e., Model 1), the ECM for the BARDL analysis can be represented as follows:

$$lnCP_{t} = \delta_{0} + \sum_{f=1}^{M} \alpha_{1f} \Delta lnCP_{t-i} + \sum_{f=1}^{N} \alpha_{2f} \Delta lnEC_{t-i} + \sum_{f=1}^{O} \alpha_{3f} \Delta FD_{t-i} + \sum_{f=1}^{P} \alpha_{4f} \Delta DBY_{t-i} + \beta_{1}lnCP_{t-1} + \beta_{2}lnEC_{t-1} + \beta_{3}FD_{t-1} + \beta_{4}DBY_{t-1} + \varepsilon_{t}$$
(3)

where M, N, O, and P are the optimal lags for the respective variable; these optimal lags can differ and are derived using the AIC. Δ symbolizes the difference operator. The variable DBY is the structural break year dummy variable that is predicted from the ADF test statistic under the GH cointegration test. From Eq. (3), the short-run model can be extracted as follows:

Table 6 Results from the BARDL cointegration analysis

| Model | Test statistic | Value | Bootstrapped critical va | | cal values |
|---------|----------------|-------------------|--------------------------|-------|------------|
| | | | 1% | 5% | 10% |
| Model 1 | F statistic | 3.95 ^b | 4.20 | 3.10 | 2.60 |
| | t dependent | -3.20^{a} | -3.15 | -2.50 | -2.13 |
| | F independent | 5.35 ^a | 4.90 | 3.50 | 3.00 |
| Model 2 | F statistic | 5.12 ^a | 5.10 | 3.25 | 2.60 |
| | t dependent | -3.45^{a} | -3.38 | -2.40 | -2.20 |
| | F independent | 6.12 ^a | 5.67 | 3.70 | 2.95 |

The test statistics are predicted using 10,000 bootstrapped replications; optimal lag selection is based on AIC; a and b denote statistical significance at 1% and 5% significance level, respectively

$$lnCP_{i} = \delta_{0} + \sum_{f=1}^{M} \alpha_{1f} \Delta lnCP_{i-i} + \sum_{f=1}^{N} \alpha_{2f} \Delta lnEC_{i-i} + \sum_{f=1}^{O} \alpha_{3f} \Delta FD_{i-i} + \sum_{f=1}^{P} \alpha_{4f} \Delta DBY_{i-i} + \alpha_{5}ECT_{i-1} + \theta_{i}$$
(4)

where ECT refers to the one-period lagged error-correction term which shows the speed of convergence from disequilibrium to equilibrium. From Eq. (3), the long-run model can be extracted as:

$$\ln CP_{t} = \delta_{0} + \beta_{1} \ln CP_{t-1} + \beta_{2} \ln EC_{t-1} + \beta_{3} FD_{t-1} + \beta_{4} DBY_{t-1} + \rho_{t}$$
(5)

For robustness check of the estimates, we also utilize the Dynamic Ordinary Least Squares (DOLS) and Fully Modified Ordinary Least Squares (FMOLS) regression techniques, proposed by Phillips and Hansen (1990) and Stock and Watson (1993), respectively, to estimate the empirical models.

Results and discussion

This section reports and discusses the findings from the BARDL analysis. Firstly, the BARDL cointegration outcomes are reported inTable 6.⁴ Since all three test statistics (*F* statistic, *t* dependent statistic, and *F* independent statistic) are found to be statistically significant, at the 1% and 5% significance levels, we can claim that there is cointegration among the variables in both models. Hence, the BARDL cointegration test results provide support to the findings from the GH cointegration analysis presented in Table 5.

Table 7 reports the elasticity outcomes derived from the BARDL analysis for both the short and long run. In the context of Model 1, it can be observed that higher consumption

⁴ In both models 1 and 2, we have included the structural break year dummy variable for the year 1983 as identified from the BH cointegration analysis.

Table 7 The short- and long-run elasticity estimates from theBARDL analysis

| Dependent variable: lnCP | | | | | | |
|----------------------------|-----------------------------|----------------------------|-----------------------------|----------------------------|--|--|
| | Model 1 | | Model 2 | Model 2 | | |
| Regressors | Short run | Long run | Short run | Long run | | |
| lnEC | -0.259 ^b (0.119) | $-0.888^{a}(0.207)$ | - | - | | |
| lnEE | - | - | 0.151 ^b (0.076) | 0.350 ^b (0.155) | | |
| FD | -0.274 (0.235) | $-0.266^{a}(0.072)$ | -0.230 (0.249) | $-0.340^{a}(0.100)$ | | |
| DBY | $-0.150^{a}(0.032)$ | 0.478 ^b (0.236) | -0.222 ^b (0.110) | 0.513 ^b (0.250) | | |
| Constant | 1.501 ^c (0.784) | - | 1.984 ^a (0.340) | - | | |
| ECT _{t-1} | $-0.204^{b}(0.088)$ | - | $-0.315^{a}(0.101)$ | - | | |
| <i>R</i> ² -adj | 0.785 | - | 0.690 | - | | |
| Diagnostics | Value | Probability | Value | Probability | | |
| Serial correlation | 0.103 | 0.790 | 0.140 | 0.765 | | |
| Functional form | 0.165 | 0.800 | 0.170 | 0.772 | | |
| Normality | 0.075 | 0.994 | 0.105 | 0.650 | | |
| Heteroscedasticity | 0.065 | 0.850 | 0.050 | 0.885 | | |
| CUSUM | Stable | | Stable | | | |
| CUSUMSQ | Stable | | Stable | | | |

The robust standard errors are reported within the parentheses; a, b, and c denote statistical significance at 1%, 5%, and 10% significance levels, respectively

of energy is associated with lower carbon productivity both in the short and long run. These imply that energy consumption is a barrier towards the attainment of environmentally sustainable growth in Oman. Besides, the carbon productivity-inhibiting impacts associated with energy use seem to surge with time since the relative magnitude of the estimated long-run energy use elasticity of carbon productivity is smaller than the corresponding short-run elasticity estimate. A rise in the per capita energy consumption level in Oman is seen to trigger declines in the energy carbon productivity level by 0.25% and 0.89% in the short and long run, respectively. This finding supports the hypothesis that since Oman is highly dependent on natural gas and oil, the energy use-associated CO2 emissions are to expectedly rise as more energy is utilized to generate the national output. Besides, during the period of analysis (1972-2019), the average annual growth rate in per capita CO2 emissions in Oman has been more than five times the corresponding average rate of growth in the per capita GDP level of the nation (World Bank 2022). As a result, the finding of the negative correlation between energy consumption and carbon productivity is justified. Similar to the findings in this study, Wasti and Zaidi (2020) found energy consumption to promote economic growth in Kuwait while Abdul-Wahab et al. (2015) remarked that natural gas consumption triggers higher emissions of CO2 into the atmosphere. Likewise, it can be assumed that energy consumption inflicts similar impacts on the economy and environment of Oman.

On the other hand, the results related to Model 1 also reveal that financial development also exerts carbon productivity-dampening impacts only in the long run. Hence, it can be asserted that financial development does not facilitate environmentally sustainable economic growth in Oman. A 1% rise in the financial development level (i.e., a 1% rise in the share of private sector credit in the GDP) is seen to reduce the carbon productivity level by 0.27% in the long run. This finding indicates that private sector investments, in particular, in Oman have mostly been undertaken within the dirty industries whereby the nation's carbon productivity level is pinned down. Gazdar et al. (2019) also pointed out the CO2 emission-stimulating effects associated with financial development with the GCC countries. Besides, the authors also claimed that financial development reinforces the adverse environmental impacts related to economic growth in the GCC nations. Therefore, it can be said that financial development policies in Oman and other GCC countries have not monitored the mechanism in which the private sector credits are utilized; consequently, the financial development policies were not aligned with the objective of facilitating environmentally sustainable growth in these countries. On the contrary, if this alignment could be ensured, the development of the financial sector can be anticipated to boost carbon productivity and help Oman and the other GCC nations achieve low-carbon growth.

The findings in the context of Model 2 reveal that although higher energy consumption inhibits the carbon productivity level in Oman, improving the efficiency at which energy resources are utilized can effectively enhance the nation's level of carbon productivity. Hence, this finding supports the hypothesis of energy efficiency improvement being necessary for facilitating environmentally sustainable economic growth in Oman. A rise in the

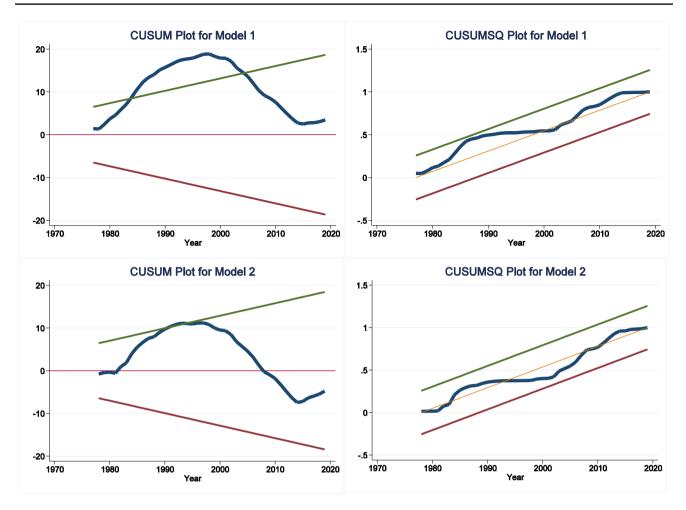


Fig. 4 The CUSUM and CUSUMSQ plots for models 1 and 2

level of energy efficiency by 1% is observed to increase the short-run carbon productivity level by 0.15% and the long-run carbon productivity level by 0.35%. Since using energy more efficiently has the potential of limiting the discharge of energy-related CO2 emissions without compromising the national output level, the finding of the positive correlation between energy efficiency and carbon productivity can be justified. This is an important finding from the perspective of Oman, a country that has never managed to reduce its monotonic dependency on fossil fuels. Besides, since the nation is also yet to undergo a renewable energy transition, enhancing energy efficiency can indirectly curb the fossil fuel dependency of Oman and complement the nation's objective of attaining environmentally sustainable economic growth. The potential role of energy efficiency improvement in curbing CO2 emissions was also highlighted in the study by Kamal et al. (2019) in which the authors asserted that improving energy efficiency in buildings can help Qatar significant volumes of electricity consumption and CO2 emissions.

On the other hand, similar to the case of Model 1, the findings from Model 2 once again confirm the negative nexus between financial development and carbon productivity in Oman. Furthermore, the parameter estimates related to the structural break dummy variables are evidenced to be statistically significant; consequently, the decision to control for the structural break issues in the data is justified.

Table 7 also presents the outcomes from several diagnostic tests that are conducted to assess the credibility of the short- and long-run estimates. The results show that there are no serial correlation, model misspecification, non-normality, and heteroscedasticity concerns in both models. Besides, the stability of parameter estimates, for both models, is affirmed from the plots of the cumulative sum of squares (CUSUM) and its squared (CUSUMSQ) shown in Fig. 4.

Table 8 reports the outcomes from the robustness analysis conducted using the FMOSL and DOLS estimators. The result shows that, despite differing in terms of the magnitude, the estimated elasticities using the FMOLS and DOLS techniques are identical to the corresponding
 Table 8
 The robustness analysis outcomes

| Dependent variable: InCP | | | | | | | |
|--------------------------|----------------------------|-----------------------------|----------------------------|-----------------------------|--|--|--|
| Estimator | Model 1 | | Model 2 | | | | |
| | FMOLS | DOLS | FMOLS | DOLS | | | |
| Regressors | | | | | | | |
| lnEC | $-0.650^{a}(0.204)$ | $-0.579^{a}(0.189)$ | - | - | | | |
| lnEE | - | - | $0.290^{a}(0.079)$ | 0.350 ^a (0.130) | | | |
| FD | -0.365 (0.275) | -0.334 ^b (0.169) | -0.219 (0.246) | -0.326 ^b (0.150) | | | |
| DBY | 0.502 ^a (0.183) | 0.719 ^a (0.201) | 0.616 ^a (0.176) | 0.741 ^a (0.202) | | | |
| Constant | 1.958 ^b (0.995) | 1.444 ^b (0.710) | 1.716 ^a (0.450) | 1.675 ^a (0.501) | | | |
| R^2 -adj | 0.646 | 0.466 | 0.421 | 0.525 | | | |

The robust standard errors are reported within the parentheses; a, b, and c denote statistical significance at 1%, 5%, and 10% significance levels, respectively

BARDL long-run outcomes in respect of the predicted signs. Therefore, the long-run regression findings can be considered robust across alternative estimation techniques.

Conclusion and policy suggestions

Achieving environmentally sustainable growth has become a concern for Oman since this nation is yet to reduce its traditional dependence on fossil fuels, especially natural gas and oil. Besides, since this nation has not undergone a renewable energy transition, it is imperative for Oman to look for efficient mechanisms through which the energy resources can be utilized to mitigate CO2 emissions without compromising the growth of the national output. Against this backdrop, this study aimed to evaluate the impacts of energy use, energy efficiency, and financial development on the potential of Oman to achieve environmentally sustainable economic growth. In this regard, this particular study innovatively proxies environmentally sustainable economic growth by Oman's annual carbon productivity level. The period of analysis spanned from 1972 to 2019 and involved the application of econometric methods that are robust to handling structural break issues in the data. The cointegration analysis confirmed long-run associations among the variables of concern. Besides, the regression analysis showed that higher energy consumption and greater financial development impeded environmentally sustainable economic growth by reducing the carbon productivity level in Oman. In contrast, energy efficiency improvement was evidenced to facilitate the environmentally sustainable economic growth objective of the nation by reducing the carbon productivity level in the short and long run.

In light of these findings, we recommend several policies for the government of Oman. Firstly, to address the carbon productivity-inhibiting impacts associated with energy use, it is pertinent for Oman to look for low-carbon fossil fuels as alternatives to the conventionally utilized natural gas and oil. Switching to these low-carbon energy resources can be assumed to limit the level of CO2 emissions without dampening the growth of the Omani economy. Besides, as part of a long-term energy policy reform, it is also important for Oman to gradually develop its renewable energy sector and eventually switch from non-renewables to renewables. In this regard, investment in research and development for improving renewable energy generation technologies is a must for Oman. At the moment, the nation does have a plan of meeting around one-third of the domestic energy demand using renewable energy by 2030. Hence, to achieve this target, it is necessary for Oman to develop its capacity to generate power using renewables; consequently, investments for renewable energy innovation can be assumed to help Oman undergo renewable energy transition and curb its carbon productivity level.

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Secondly, and more importantly, Oman should emphasize on significantly enhancing its energy efficiency level since it is evident that the nation cannot instantly reduce its fossil fuel dependency nor can it undergo renewable energy transition within the next couple of years. Under such circumstances, there is no other alternative for Oman rather than utilizing the existing fossil fuels more efficiently so that less energy is consumed to generate the national output. In this regard, Oman should make use of relatively more energy-efficient fossil fuels so that the carbon-productivityinhibiting impacts associated with energy use can be mitigated. On the other hand, Oman can also consider investing in technological development relevant to improving the level of energy efficiency. Lastly, Oman should also develop its financial sector sustainably so that greater access to credit for investment in environmentally-friendly projects can be ensured. Besides, from the consumption side channel, the financial sector of Oman should incentivize the loan borrowers to spend the funds on the consumption of energy-efficient appliances. As a result, greening the financial sector can be considered effective in reducing carbon productivity-inhibiting impacts of financial development in Oman.

The findings of this study are limited in the sense that it is appropriate for Oman but may not be totally relevant for other GCC and non-GCC countries. Thus, from the point of view of external validity, the findings from this study should be compared with similar studies on other fossil fueldependent countries. As part of the future research direction, this study can also be conducted using alternate indicators of economic growth and using different GCC countries.

Author contribution Md Shabbir Alam conceptualized and wrote the final manuscript. Mohammad Noor Alam analyzed the data and helped in drafting the original manuscript. Muntasir Murshed wrote the original manuscript, assisted in the literature review, methodology, analysis, and discussions. Haider Mahmood helped in discussions and analysis. Risana Alam conducted the analysis and edited the final manuscript.

Data availability The datasets used and/or analyzed during the current study are available from the corresponding author on reasonable request.

Declarations

Ethics approval and consent to participate Not applicable.

Consent for publication Not applicable.

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