# REVISITING THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN ELECTRICITY CONSUMPTION, CAPITAL AND ECONOMIC GROWTH: COINTEGRATION AND CAUSALITY ANALYSIS IN ROMANIA

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#### **A**bstract

The paper empirically analyzes, in Romania's case, the cointegration and causality between electricity consumption, capital and economic growth. The data set covers the period 1980-2011. The results show the existence of bidirectional causality between electricity consumption and economic growth and between economic growth and capital use. At the same time, a unidirectional causal relation is also found from capital use to electricity consumption.

The main finding suggests that electricity conservation policies may hinder economic growth by reduction in electricity consumption. Moreover, in the opposite direction, from economic growth to electricity consumption, the fluctuations in economic growth may reduce demand for electricity.

**Keywords:** electricity consumption, growth, cointegration

JEL Classification: F15, B28, O16

#### . Introduction

After 50 years of centralized communist status, in 1989 the Romanian economy began to cross a very tumultuous period of transition to a capitalist competition system. In the first years of transition, the main economic aspects referred to inflation,

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unemployment, adjustment of large industrial basis and disequilibrium between demand and supply on the real market. The difficult period, 1990-1992, was followed by four years of economic growth, in which the unemployment decreased from 10.9% in 1994 to 6.6% in 1996. A new economic recession period characterized the next three years. Since 2000, a strong economic revival began, which was the best economic period in the whole Romanian history. The unemployment rate decreased from 11.8% in 1998 to 4% in 2007 and the GDP growth rate reached 9% in 2008. In the same period, the inflation rate registered 4.84% in 2008, from 154.8% in 1997.

Romania's integration into the European Union (EU) on January 1st, 2007, illustrated another important impulse for the country's economy. The main determinants of growth were the strong demand in the EU export markets, high levels of domestic consumption and investments (FDI augmented from 1,946 billion euro in 1997 to 9,496 billion euro in 2008). Based on these incentive directions, Romania's macroeconomic gains have stimulated the creation of a middle social class and addressed Romania's widespread poverty. Unfortunately, this excellent business environment performance was attenuated by the large current account imbalance, the corruption phenomena and the excessive red tape. The strong consumer demand and high wage growth from 2008 raised the energy costs and affected food prices (inflation increase at 8.2% in 2010) with several implications on the fiscal discipline. Since the last quarter of 2008, the world recession determined a severe GDP contraction (at least 7% annual decrease in 2010), unemployment (7.7% estimated rate in 2010) and damage of financial markets and trade, forcing the Romanian government to enact harsh austerity measures and borrow heavily from the IMF (external debt at approx. 70% of GDP in 2009).

Positioned in the Central-Eastern Europe, Romania is an upper-middle income EU member economy, with a dynamic economic development. Regarding the total nominal GDP, Romania has the 11<sup>th</sup> largest economy in the European Union and the 8<sup>th</sup> largest based on purchasing power parity. With its emerging economy, Romania becomes the world's 49th largest economy. Romania hopes to adhere to Schengen Agreement Treaty by 2012 and to adopt the euro by 2014. The Romanian electricity industry has a long tradition, becoming a large and high-growth sector of the economy. Since the last decade, the electricity consumption has followed the growing trend of the economic and social development. The competition is weak on the electricity market, especially in the sector of energy generation. Unfortunately, the competition in the supply and trading of electricity still has strong problems (some scandals accompanied the liberalization process). In such situation, an investigation of the nature of the relationship between electricity consumption and economic growth in Romania may be of interest to both policy makers and practitioners.

The direction of causality between electricity consumption and economic growth has four computable hypotheses. The first hypothesis reveals the importance of electricity consumption for economic growth directly or indirectly through use of capital and labor in the economic activity, where labor and capital are considered as complements if an increase in economic growth is linked with an increase in electricity consumption or causal relation is running from electricity consumption to economic growth. In such an environment, energy (electricity) conservation policies may be harmful for economic growth. On contrary, if there is unidirectional causality from economic growth to

electricity consumption, then conservation hypothesis postulates that electricity consumption is determined by economic growth. In such a case, electricity conservation policies do not have adverse effect on economic growth. Thirdly, the interdependent relationship between electricity consumption and economic growth is considered as feedback hypothesis, which can be highlighted by the existence of bidirectional causal relations between electricity consumption and economic growth. This hypothesis concludes that electricity conservation policies may hinder economic growth by reduction in electricity consumption in an economy and fluctuations in economic growth furthermore reduce demand for electricity due to feedback effect from economic growth to electricity consumption. Finally, neutrality hypothesis suggests that there is minor role of electricity consumption in economic growth, which is validated when there is no causality between both the variables. This implies that reduction in electricity use through electricity (energy) conservation policy will have no adverse effect on economic growth. The study of the relationship between electricity consumption and economic growth is an old field of investigation. Because this issue plays an important role, especially after the two major global energy crises, it has been a topic widely investigated since the late 1970s. Nevertheless, the causality direction between electricity consumption and economic growth is not very clear. If some authors (e.g., Ghosh, 2002; Jumbe, 2004; Mozumder and Marathe, 2007) empirically argue that the economic growth Granger-causes electricity consumption, other researchers sustain the contrary, because electricity is an essential factor of production (e.g., Stern, 1993; Yuan et al., 2007; Tang, 2008; 2009; Acaravci, 2010). Jumbe (2004) and Squalli (2007) illustrate that these acquisitions have important policy implications. In the case of the uni-directional causality that is running from economic growth to the electricity consumption or in the neutral causality, the environmental policies for electricity conservation would not negatively affect the economic growth. In the opposite causality, from electricity consumption to economic growth, environmental policies initiatives to conserve electricity consumption may have the capacity to affect adversely the economic growth and development. These two directions have generated a debatable issue in the economics of energy and a new area for the empirical re-investigation of the relationship between electricity consumption and economic growth. The literature in the field is very arid concerning the analysis of the relationship between the electricity consumption and the economic growth in Romania's case.

The year 2010 was very prolific in this way. Acaravci and Ozturk (2010a), using the Pedroni panel cointegration method from 1990 to 2006 analyzed the long-run relationship and causality issues between electricity consumption and economic growth in 15 transition European countries (Albania, Belarus, Bulgaria, the Czech Republic, Estonia, Latvia, Lithuania, Macedonia, Moldova, Poland, Romania, Russian Federation, Serbia, Slovak Republic and Ukraine). The Pedroni panel cointegration tests do not confirm a long-term equilibrium between electricity consumption per capita and real GDP per capita and, by consequence, no cointegration was found. Moreover, these results cannot be run to investigate the causality between electricity consumption and economic growth. Ozturk and Acaravci (2010), in another paper, studied the causal relationship between energy consumption and economic growth in the case of Albania, Bulgaria, Hungary and Romania, for the 1980-2006 period. To

perform this analysis, they used the two-step procedure from the Engle and Granger model - an autoregressive distributed lag (ARDL) - and a dynamic vector error correction (VEC). The authors found a bi-directional causality in Hungary and a neutral one for Albania, Bulgaria, and Romania. Finally, Kayhan *et al.* (2010) focused on the dynamic causal relationship between electricity consumption and economic growth in the Romanian economy for the period of 2001-2010. The results were obtained on the basis of the Dolado - Lütkepohl, Tado - Yamamoto and traditional Granger causality tests. In the Romanian economy, the main findings reveal that the causality runs from electricity consumption to economic growth.

On the other hand, some authors try to find any evidence between electricity and economic growth. For example, Apergis and Payne (2010) performed a study between nuclear energy consumption and economic growth for 16 countries within a multivariate panel framework over the period 1980–2005. Generally, the results confirm the existence of the long-run equilibrium relationship between real GDP and nuclear energy consumption. Unfortunately, they excluded Romania from the panel, in order to obtain a balanced panel with availability and consistency in the data. Menegaki (2010) connected the economic growth and renewable energy for 27 European countries in a multivariate panel framework over the period 1997-2007, using a random effect model. The tests stress evidence of the neutrality hypothesis regarding the relationship between economic growth and renewable energy consumption in Europe and, by consequence, in Romania.

The main problem with studies by Acaravci and Ozturk (2010a), Ozturk and Acaravci (2010) and Kayhan et al. (2010) is that they did not pay attention to other potential variables, such as capital, to investigate the causality between electricity consumption and economic growth. It may be noted that electricity consumption may not be a single factor to stimulate economic growth. Other variables such as labor, capital, cost of electricity, employment, have potential to explain relationship between electricity consumption and economic growth. Similarly, Lütkepohl (1982) argued that omissions of important variables provide biased and inappropriate results of relationship between electricity consumption and economic growth. No causal relation is found in bivariate system due to neglected variables which affect electricity consumption and economic growth relation. In the same way, Bartleet and Rukmani (2010) also criticized on energy-growth association and recommended to incorporate other pertinent variables such as labor and capital that also play an important role elucidate electricity consumption-economic growth relation. Moreover, Karanfil (2009) has also suggested the same in exploring the causal links between energy consumption and economic growth by including other relevant variables rather than bivariate case. After knowing the importance of neglected variables in electricity consumption and economic growth nexus, we use capital use per capita as an exogenous variable in neoclassical production function to reinvestigate the direction of causality between electricity consumption and economic growth using time series data over the period of 1980-2011 in the case of Romania.

Further, previous studies in the case of Romania have not considered the issue of structural breaks in unit root and cointegration process. Presence of these breaks can lead us to misleading findings and conclusions and, therefore, the policy implications would not be reliable. For example, for the Indian context Tiwari (2011a) tested for

cointegration in presence and absence of structural breaks and found conflicting results in both approaches. While testing for cointegration in the absence of structural breaks he found the presence of cointegration, in presence of structural breaks he found absence of cointegration. And as the rule says if cointegration exists further analysis must be based on VECM framework, whereas in the absence of it should be based on VAR. Therefore, there is every possibility that results obtained from both approaches will be different. Hence, in this study we focused on structural breaks in unit root and cointegration. Since, in this study ARDL approach is used to test for cointegration, even if this approach works well when order of integration of variables are not the same, the order of integration (robustness tested through unit root test that incorporate structural breaks) may affect the results, conclusions and, thus, the policy implications. There is another motivation for our study: a set of studies, focused on the Romanian case, put in evidence the presence of structural breaks for some macroeconomic variables, such as the budget deficit (Cuestas and Staehr, 2011), the consumption-income ratio (Baykara and Telatar, 2012), the current account (Dumitriu and Stefanescu, 2009), the exchange rate (Kočenda, 2005), the exports and imports (Stefanescu et al., 2010), the interest rate (Koukouritakis and Michelis, 2009), the PPP (Acaravci and Ozturk, 2010b; Ghiba and Sadoveanu, 2012) or the unemployment rate (León-Ledesma and McAdam, 2003).

The rest of the paper is organized as follows: Section 2 contains the literature review. Section 3 presents the modeling, methodology and data. Section 4 shows empirical results, while Section 5 concludes.

### II. Literature Review

In a review of energy literature, the relationship between electricity consumption and economic growth has been examined extensively since the work of Kraft and Kraft (1978). However, the direction of causality between electricity consumption and economic growth remained controversial. Generally, empirical studies on the relationship between electricity consumption and economic growth may be divided into two major groups. The first group was focused on the country-specific studies, while another group was focused on multi-country studies. Table 1 shows a summary of the selected empirical studies on electricity consumption-growth nexus.

We begin our discussion with the findings of country-specific studies on the literature of electricity consumption-growth nexus. A general conclusion that we can be drawn from Panel I of Table 1 is that the causal relationship between electricity consumption and economic growth has been mixed and remain ambiguous. For example, Yang (2000), Jumbe (2004), Zachariadis and Pashouortidou (2007), Tang (2008, 2009), Odhiambo (2009a), Lean and Smyth (2010) and Ouedraogo (2010) found that electricity consumption and economic growth Granger-caused each other in Korea, Malawi, Cyprus, Malaysia, South African and Burkina Faso, respectively. On the contrary, Aqeel and Butt (2001), Altinay and Karagol (2005), Lee and Chang (2005), Shiu and Lam (2005), Yoo (2005), Narayan and Singh (2007), Yuan et al. (2007), and Odhiambo (2009b) reported uni-directional causality from electricity consumption to economic growth in Pakistan, Turkey, Taiwan, China, Korea, Fiji Islands, Malaysia, and Tanzania, respectively. Moreover, other studies, such as Ghosh (2002), Narayan

and Smyth (2005), Yoo and Kim (2006), Ho and Siu (2007), Mozumder and Marathe (2007), Jamil and Ahmad (2010) showed that economic growth Granger-caused electricity consumption in India, Australia, Indonesia, Hong Kong, Bangladesh and Pakistan, respectively.

Table1
Summary of Literature on Relationship between Electricity Consumption and Economic Growth

Authors	Countries	Time Period	Methodo- logy	Variables	Cointe- gration	Findings
	ı			intry Studies		l.
Yang (2000)	Taiwan	1954- 1997	GC	Real GDP, Electricity Consumption	No	$EC \leftrightarrow Y$
Aqeel and Butt (2001)	Pakistan	1955- 1996		Real GDP, Electricity Consumption	No	$EC \rightarrow Y$
Ghosh (2002)		1950- 1997	JML, GC	Electricity Supply, Employment, Real GDP	Yes	ES ← Y
Jumbe (2004)		1970- 1999	GC,	Real GDP, Electricity Consumption	Yes	EC ← Y
Shiu and Lam (2005)		1971- 2000		Real GDP, Electricity Consumption	Yes	$EC \rightarrow Y$
Lee and Chang (2005)	Taiwan	1954- 2003		Real GDP per Capita, Electricity Consumption per Capita	Yes	$EC \rightarrow Y$
Narayan and Smyth (2005)	Australia	1999	ARDL, VECM	Real GDP per Capita, Electricity Consumption per Capita, Employment	Yes	EC ← Y
Yoo (2005)	Korea	1970- 2002	JML, VECM	Real GDP, Electricity Consumption	Yes	$EC \rightarrow Y$
Yoo and Kim (2006)	Indonesia	1971- 2002	JML, Hsiao	Real GDP, Electricity Supply	No	ES ← Y
Ho and Siu (2007)	Hong Kong	1966- 2002	·	Real GDP, Electricity Consumption	Yes	$EC \rightarrow Y$
Altinay and Karagol (2005)	Turkey	1950- 2005	GCDL	Real GDP, Electricity Consumption	N.A	$EC \rightarrow Y$
Yaun et al. (2007)	China	1978- 2004	,	Real GDP, Electricity Consumption	Yes	$EC \rightarrow Y$
Mozumder and Marathe (2007)	Bangla- desh	1971- 1999	,	Real GDP per Capita, Electricity Consumption per Capita	Yes	EC ← Y
Narayan and Singh (2007)	Fiji Islands	1971- 2002	ARDL, VECM	Real GDP, Electricity Consumption, Labor	Yes	$EC \rightarrow Y$
Zachariadis and Pashourtidou (2007)	Cyprus	1960- 2004	VARGFEVD	Real Income per Capita, Electricity Consumption, prices, weather	Yes	EC ↔ Y
Tang (2008)	Malaysia	1972- 2003	ARDL, TYDL	Gross National Product, Electricity Consumption	No	$EC \leftrightarrow Y$

Authors	Countries	Time Period	Methodo- logy	Variables	Cointe- gration	Findings
Aktas and Yilmaz (2008)	Turkey	1970- 2004	JML, VECM	Gross National Product, Electricity Consumption	No	$EC \leftrightarrow Y$
Odhiambo (2009a)	South Africa	1971- 2006	JML, VECM	Real GDP per Capita, Electricity Consumption per Capita, Employment	Yes	EC ↔ Y
Odhiambo (2009b)	Tanzania	1971- 2006	ARDL, VECM	Real GDP per Capita, Electricity Consumption per Capita	Yes	$EC \rightarrow Y$
Gupta and Sahu (2009)	India	1960- 2006	GC	Real GDP, Electricity Consumption	N.A	$EC \rightarrow Y$
Lean and Smyth (2010)	Malaysia	1971- 2006	TYDL	Real GDP, Electricity Consumption, Exports, Capita, Labor	Yes	$EC \leftrightarrow Y$
Ciarreta and Zarraga (2010)	Spain	1971- 2005	TYDL	Real GDP, Electricity Consumption	N.A	EC ← Y
Lorde et al. (2010)	Barbados	1960- 2004	JML, VECM	Real GDP, Electricity Consumption, Capital, Labor, Technology	Yes	$EC \leftrightarrow Y$
Acaravci (2010)	Turkey	1968- 2005	JML, VECM	Real GDP, Electricity Consumption	Existed	$EC \rightarrow Y$
Chandran et al. (2010)	Malaysia	1971- 2003	ARDL, VECM	Electricity consumption, Real GDP, Prices	Yes	$EC \rightarrow Y$
Jamil and Ahmad (2010)	Pakistan	1960- 2008		Industrial Production, Electricity Consumption, Electricity Prices	Yes	EC ← Y
Ouédraogo (2010)	Burkina Faso	1968- 2003	ARDL, VECM	Real GDP, Electricity Consumption, Capital Formation	Yes	$EC \leftrightarrow Y$
Shahbaz et al. (2011)	Portugal	1971- 2009	ARDL, VECM	Real GDP, Electricity Consumption, Employment	Yes	$EC \leftrightarrow Y$
Tiwari (2011a)	India	1970- 2009	JML, TYMWT	Primary Energy Consumption, GDP per Capita, CO2 Emissions	No	EC ← Y
Tiwari (2011b)	India	1970- 2005	JML, VECM	CO2 Emissions, Energy Consumption, Economic growth, Capital, Population	Yes	Y ← EC
Shahbaz and Feridun (2012)	Pakistan	1971- 2008	ARDL, VECM	Real GDP per Capita, Electricity Consumption Per Capita	Yes	EC ← Y
Shahbaz and Lean (2012)	Pakistan	1972- 2009	ARDL, VECM	Real GDP per Capita, Electricity Consumption Per Capita, Capital Use per Capita, Labor per Capita	Yes	EC ↔ Y
Tiwari (2012)	India	1970- 2005	JML, VECM	CO2 Emissions, Energy Consumption, Economic growth	Yes	EC ↔ Y

			Multi-Cou	ntry Studies	
Authors	Countries	Time Period	Methodolog y	Variables	Findings
Yoo (2006)	ASEAN	1971- 2002	JML, GC Hsiao	Real GDP per Capita, Electricity Consumption per Capita	EC ← Y (Indonesia, Thailand)
					EC ↔ Y (Singapore, Malaysia)
Chen et al. (2007)	10 Asian	1971- 2001	JML, GC (Yoo, 2005)		EC ↔ Y (China, India, Malaysia, Philippines, Singapore, Taiwan, Thailand
	Hong Kong				EC ← Y (Hong Kong, Korea)
	Indonesia				$EC \rightarrow Y$
Squalli (2007)	11 OPEC	1980- 2003	ARDL, TYMWT	Real GDP per Capita, Electricity Consumption per Capita	EC → Y (Indonesia, Nigeria, UAE, Venezuela)
					EC ← Y (Algeria, Iraq, Kuwait, Libya)
					EC ↔ Y (Iran, Qatar, KSA)
Narayan and Prasad (2008)	30 OECD	1960- 2002	TYBSA	Real GDP, Electricity Consumption	EC → Y (Australia, Czech Rep, Italy, Portugal, Slovak Rep,)
					EC ← Y (Finland, Hungry, Netherlands)
					$EC \leftrightarrow Y (UK)$
Yoo and Kwak (2010)	Argentina	1975- 2006	JML, VECM	Real GDP per Capita, Electricity Consumption per Capita	EC → Y (Argentina, Brazil, Chile, Columbia, Ecuador)
					EC ↔ Y (Venezuela)

Notes: Y and EC represent economic growth and electricity consumption. The uni-directional causality from economic growth to electricity consumption (electricity supply) is indicated by Y  $\rightarrow$  EC (ES), from electricity consumption to economic growth by EC  $\rightarrow$  Y, bi-directional causality between electricity consumption and economic growth by EC  $\leftrightarrow$  Y and no causal relation between both variables by EC  $\leftrightarrow$  Y . NA represents not applied. In methodology column EG, GC, VARGFEVD, JML, VECM, ARDL, PC, TYMWT and TYBSA means respectively Engle and Granger, Granger causality, Vector Autoregression Generalized Forecast Error Variance Decomposition, Johansen's Maximum Likelihood, Vector Error Correction Method, Autoregressive Distributed Lag Model to Cointegration, Panel Cointegration, Toda and Yamamoto (1995) M-Wald causality test and Toda and Yamamoto Bootstrapping causality analysis etc.

Panel II of Table 1 shows that the direction of causality between electricity consumption and economic growth is not very clear in the situation of multi-country studies. In this regard, Wolde-Rufael (2006) investigated the content of relationship between electricity consumption and economic growth, focusing on the case of 17 African economies, over the period of 1971-2001. If the causality exists for 12

countries, the results illustrate a neutral causality for the rest of 5 countries. A unidirectional causality running from electricity consumption to economic growth is identified in the case of some countries, such as: Benin, the Democratic Republic of Congo, and Tunisia. On the contrary, in the case of Cameroon, Ghana, Nigeria, Senegal, and Zimbabwe the results stress a uni-directional causality running from economic growth to electricity consumption. At the same time, a bi-directional causal link between electricity consumption and economic growth has been identified in the case of Egypt, Gabon, and Morocco. Any causal relationship between both variables there not exists for the case of Algeria, Congo Republic, Kenya, South Africa, and Sudan

Yoo (2006) studied the causal relationship between electricity consumption and economic growth for four ASEAN countries namely, Indonesia, Malaysia, Singapore, and Thailand. The author found that the Granger causality tests are varying among the considered sample. In the case of Malaysia and Singapore, the tests allow the presence of a bi-directional causality between electricity consumption and economic growth. On the other hand, the results for Indonesia and Thailand imply the existence of a uni-directional causality running from economic growth to electricity consumption. Chen et al. (2007) assessed the relationship between electricity consumption and economic growth for a sample which includes 10 Asian economies over the 1971-2001 period. For 5 countries, the tests reveal the evidence of causality and no causality for China, Indonesia, Korea, Taiwan, and Thailand. The uni-directional causality running from electricity consumption to economic growth is present in the case of Hong Kong, while the authors found a strong uni-directional causality running from economic growth to electricity consumption for India, Malaysia, the Philippines, and Singapore.

Squalli (2007) analyzed, for some OPEC members (Algeria, Indonesia, Iran, Iraq, Kuwait, Libya, Nigeria, Qatar, Saudi Arabia, UAE, and Venezuela), over the period of 1980 to 2003, the causal link between electricity consumption and economic growth. The results for Algeria, Iraq, Kuwait, and Libya show the existence of uni-directional causality running from economic growth to electricity consumption. At the same time, the author found that economic growth Granger-causes electricity consumption in Indonesia, Nigeria, UAE and Venezuela. Moreover, in the case of Iran, Qatar, and Saudi Arabia, the empirical tests confirm the presence of the bi-directional causality. Using the Toda and Yamamoto (1995) version of Granger causality test, Narayan and Prasad (2008) studied the connection between electricity consumption and economic growth for 30 OECD countries. The main findings reveal the evidence of neutral causality for 19 of the selected OECD countries, while the causality is obvious only in 11 out of 30 selected OECD countries. The uni-directional causality running from economic growth to electricity consumption is functional in the case of Finland, Hungary, and Netherlands. On the contrary, the uni-directional causality running from electricity consumption to economic growth exist for other countries, such as Australia, the Czech Republic, Italy, Slovak Republic, and Portugal. For Iceland, Korea, and the United Kingdom there is a bi-directional connection.

In the case of seven South American countries, for the period of 1975 to 2006, the relationship between electricity consumption and economic growth was examined by Yoo and Kwak (2010). For testing the direction of causality between electricity

consumption and economic growth, the authors used the Hsiao' (1981) version of Granger causality test. The authors show the evidence of uni-directional causality running from electricity consumption to economic growth for Argentina, Brazil, Chile, Columbia, and Ecuador. Moreover, the results confirm the bi-directional causality and neutral causality in the case of Venezuela and Peru, respectively.

# **Ⅲ**. Modeling, Methodology and Data

We have transformed the series into natural log-form to investigate the impact of electricity consumption and capital per capita use on economic growth. The log-linear specification is superior and provides consistent empirical findings (Shahbaz, 2010). The estimable equation for empirical evidence is being modeled as following:

$$LY = \varphi_C + \varphi_{EC} LEC + \varphi_K LK + \mu_i \tag{1}$$

where: Y is real GDP per capita, EC is for electricity consumption per capita and K denotes per capita capital use and  $\mu$  is residual term assumed to be normally distributed. The ARDL bounds testing approach to cointegration is applied to examine long run association between electricity consumption, capital per capita use and economic growth in the case of Romania using time series data over the period of 1980-2011. The ARDL approach is superior to traditional techniques and is free from the problem of integrating order of the variables. This approach can be applied if variables are integrated at I(1), or I(0) or I(1)/I(0). The equations of unrestricted error correction methods for ARDL bounds approach are being modeled as:

Model-A: Economic growth, electricity consumption and capital

$$\Delta LY = \alpha_0 + \alpha_1 T + \alpha_2 LY_{t-1} + \alpha_3 LEC_{t-1} + \alpha_4 LK_{t-1} + \sum_{i=1}^{p} \alpha_i \Delta LY_{t-i} + \sum_{j=0}^{q} \alpha_j \Delta LEC_{t-j} + \sum_{k=0}^{n} \alpha_k \Delta LK_{t-k} + \mu_1(2)$$

Model-B: Electricity consumption, economic growth and capital

$$\Delta LEC = \beta_{o} + \beta_{1}T + \beta_{2}LEC_{-1} + \beta_{3}LY_{-1} + \beta_{4}LK_{-1} + \sum_{i=1}^{p}\beta_{i}\Delta LEC_{-i} + \sum_{j=0}^{q}\beta_{j}\Delta LY_{-j} + \sum_{k=0}^{n}\beta_{k}\Delta LK_{-k} + \mu_{i}$$
 (3)

Model-C: Capital, economic growth and electricity consumption

$$\Delta LK = \phi_{c} + \phi_{1}T + \phi_{2}LK_{-1} + \phi_{3}LY_{-1} + \phi_{4}LEC_{-1} + \sum_{i=1}^{p} \phi_{i}\Delta LK_{-i} + \sum_{j=0}^{q} \phi_{j}\Delta LY_{-j} + \sum_{k=0}^{n} \phi_{k}\Delta LEC_{-k} + \mu_{i}$$
 (4)

The decision about cointegration depends upon the critical bounds generated by Pesaran *et al.* (2001) to take decision about cointegration among variables. The hypothesis of no cointegration in three models is  $\alpha_2=\alpha_3=\alpha_4=0$ ,  $\beta_2=\beta_3=\beta_4=0$  and  $\phi_2=\phi_3=\phi_4$ . The hypothesis of existence of cointegration is  $\alpha_2\neq\alpha_3\neq\alpha_4\neq0$ ,  $\beta_2\neq\beta_3\neq\beta_4\neq0$  and  $\phi_2\neq\phi_3\neq\phi_4\neq0$ . The null hypothesis of no cointegration will be rejected provided upper critical bound (UCB) is less than computed F-statistics and alternative hypothesis of no cointegration is accepted if lower critical bound (LCB) is more than computed F-statistics. Finally, there will be no decision about cointegration if computed F-statistics is between lower and upper critical bounds.

To investigate the direction of causality between electricity consumption, economic growth and capital use, we use the augmented test of non-causality developed by Toda and Yamamoto (1995) in level vector auto regressions (VARs) irrespective of whether variables are integrated at same order of integration or not. VAR can be estimated without true lag order k but it is applicable with (k+d) lag order, where d indicates the possible order of integration for the variables of interest. The Toda and Yamamoto (1995) causality test is examined by performing hypothesis disregarding the additional lags k+1,...,k+d in vector auto regression (VAR). Furthermore, it has been proved that using standard asymptotic theory, linear and non-linear restrictions can be used for causality tests. The modified version (Seabra and Flach, 2005) of T-Y Granger causality technique has applied to investigate the direction of causality through causality VAR structure as following:

$$LY = \alpha_{\circ} + \sum_{i=1}^{k+d \max} \alpha_{1} LY_{t-1} + \sum_{i=1}^{k+d \max} \alpha_{2} LEC_{t-i} + \sum_{i=1}^{k+d \max} \alpha_{3} LK_{t-i} + \eta_{1}$$
 (5)

$$LEC = \beta_{\circ} + \sum_{i=1}^{k+d \max} \beta_{1} LEC_{t-i} + \sum_{i=1}^{k+d \max} \beta_{2} LY_{t-i} + \sum_{i=1}^{k+d \max} \beta_{3} LK_{t-i} + \eta_{2}$$
 (6)

$$LK = \delta_{\circ} + \sum_{i=1}^{k+d \max} \delta_{1} LK_{t-i} + \sum_{i=1}^{k+d \max} \delta_{2} LY_{t-i} + \sum_{i=1}^{k+d \max} \delta_{3} LEC_{t-i} + \eta_{3}$$
 (7)

where: Y is real GDP per capita, EC is electricity consumption per capita and K denotes per capita capital use, k is the optimal lag order and d is the maximal order of integration of the variables in the concerned system and  $\eta_1$ ,  $\eta_2$  and  $\eta_3$  are assumed white noise error terms. The system shows that each actor (variable) is regressed on each other actor with lag order starting from one towards  $k+d\max$  lags. The CUSUM (Cumulative Sum) and CUSUMSQ (Cumulative Sum of Squares) have been used to investigate stability of estimated ARDL models for cointegration. Actually, existence of cointegration among the variables through ARDL does not signify that the estimated model is stable. Therefore, CUSUM and CUSUMSQ are to be needed to conduct.

This study uses the secondary annual data of real gross domestic per capita (Y), electricity consumption (EC) per capita (in million KWh) and capital per capita (K)<sup>1</sup>. This study covers the sample period of 1980 to 2011. The data on electricity consumption per capita, GDP per capita and real gross fixed capital formation is collected from the World Bank, *World Development Indicators* (WDI-CD-ROM, 2011) database.

# V. Empirical Results

Table 2 shows the descriptive statistics and correlation matrices. The results indicate that all series are normally distributed as confirmed by Jarque-Bera estimates. The

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<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> See Lean and Smyth (2010) for definition of variables for such specification of model.

correlation evidence reveals that positives correlation exists between electricity consumption and economic growth, capital use and economic growth, but correlation between capital use and electricity consumption is negative.

The stationarity properties of the variables, i.e., electricity consumption per capita, real GDP per capita and capital use per capita is examined by applying ADF, PP and DF-GLS and Ng-Perron unit root tests. The ADF, PP and DF-GLS unit root tests have poor stationary properties. These tests seem to accept null hypothesis when it is false and vice versa. For small sample data sets, ADF, PP and DF-GLS are not reliable as in our case. Ng-Perron (2001) unit root test seems to solve these problems and provides better and consistent results to decide about the unit root problem in the time series data.

Table 2
Statistics Descriptive and Pair-Wise Correlation

Variables	$LY_{t}$	$LK_{t}$	$LEC_{t}$
Mean	9.3426	7.5720	7.8394
Median	9.3246	7.5411	7.7765
Maximum	9.7271	8.5671	8.1373
Minimum	9.1086	7.0831	7.5687
Std. Dev.	0.1574	0.3871	0.1782
Skewness	0.5140	0.8876	0.3826
Kurtosis	2.7086	3.1356	1.8253
Jarque-Bera	1.3320	3.6981	2.2931
Probability	0.5137	0.1573	0.3177
$LY_{t}$	1.0000		
$LK_{t}$	0.6203	1.0000	
LEC <sub>t</sub>	0.2582	-0.5408	1.0000

The results ADF, P-P and DF-GLS reported in Table 3 indicate that real GDP per capita, electricity consumption per capita and capital use per capita have unit root at their level form and to be stationary at their 1<sup>st</sup> differenced form. It implies that all series are integrated at I(1).<sup>2</sup> The robustness of unit root results is investigated by applying Ng-Perron unit root test which is superior to traditional unit root tests due to its explanatory power for small sample data sets.

Table 3 Results of ADF, P-P and DF-GLS Unit Root Tests

Variables	ADF	PP	DF-GLS
LEC <sub>t</sub>	-2.917 (0)	-2.729 (3)	-2.664 (0)

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> It is important to note that (as Tiwari, 2010, 2011a,b,c 2012 pointed out) out of four tests of NP (2001) only two tests namely, MZa and MZt are said to be more powerful and that MZa is able to reject the null hypothesis in first difference form; therefore, we made this conclusion.

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$\Delta LEC_t$	-6.532 (1)*	-9.360 (3)*	<b>–</b> 6.556 (1)*
LY <sub>t</sub>	-2.342 (3)	-2.046 (3)	-2.521 (3)
$\Delta LY_t$	-4.476 (3)*	-3.937 (3)**	-4.938 (3)*
$\Delta LY_t$	-2.475 (6)	-1.415 (3)	-2.299 (1)
$\Delta LK_t$	-6.114 (1)*	-3.720 (3)**	-4.432 (1)*

Note: \* and \*\* indicate the significant at 1% and 5% level of significance.

The results in Table 4 show that all series are stationary at I(1). It implies that unit root results are robust. These tests have been applied to ensure that no series is integrated at I(2) or beyond. The main assumption of ARDL bound testing approach is that series should be stationary at I(0) or I(1) or I(0)/I(1). Our empirical exercise confirmed that all series are integrated at I(1). The uniqueness of order of integration tends to apply the ARDL bound testing approach to cointegration to examine long run relationship between real GDP per capita, electricity consumption per capita and capital use per capita in case of Romania over the period of 1980-2011.

Table 4
Results of Ng-Perron Unit Root Tests

Variables	Ng-Perron Test				
	MZa	MZt	MSB	MPT	
LY <sub>t</sub>	-10.0892	-2.0551	0.2037	9.8405	
LK <sub>t</sub>	-5.0931	-1.2083	0.2372	16.2314	
LEC <sub>t</sub>	-9.1281	-2.0396	0.2234	10.3382	
$\Delta L Y_t$	-48.8045*	-4.9271	0.1009	1.9293	
$\Delta LK_t$	-41.7536*	-4.5569	0.1091	2.2451	
$\Delta LEC_t$	-14.6427***	-2.6997	0.1843	6.2577	

Note: \* and \*\*\* indicate the significant at 1% and 10% level of significance.

The findings of ADF, P-P, DF-GLS and Ng-Perron unit root tests become invalided in the presence of structural break in the series. Following this issue, we applied Zivot-Andrews (1992) unit root test allowing for one structural break in the series. The results are reported in Table 5.

Table 5
Zivot-Andrews Structural Break Unit Root Test

Variable	At Lev	/el	At 1 <sup>st</sup> Difference		
variable	T-statistic	Time Break	T-statistic	Time Break	
LY <sub>t</sub>	-4.233 (1)	1997	-5.364 (2)**	1993	
LK <sub>t</sub>	-4.490 (1)	1990	-5.334 (0)*	1990	
LEC <sub>t</sub>	-4.232 (0)	1999	-5.702 (1)*	2007	

Note: \* represents significant at 1% level. Critical T-values are -5.57 and -5.08 at 1% and 5% levels respectively. Lag order is shown in parenthesis.

The results indicate that all the series are nonstationary at level with intercept and trend but found to integrated at I(1). This shows that electricity consumption, economic growth and capital use are stationary at 1<sup>st</sup> difference. The series of economic growth, capital use and electricity consumption showed structural breaks in 1997, 1990 and 1999, respectively. The negative shock in economic growth in 1997 was the result of brutal reforms made by the new government formed after 1996 elections. The acceleration of privatization process and the decline of industrial sector, accompanied by a high level of unemployment were the main determinants of GDP decline. The capital break in 1990 was determined by the change in capital ownership status, as transfer from government to private area after the dramatic 1989 Romanian revolution. Finally, at least two main explanations could be formulated in respect to energy consumption shock in 1999: the elimination of cross-financial aids between households and companies, and the splitting of the main state-owned electricity company in four smaller companies.

The ARDL technique is applied to test for cointegration between electricity consumption, economic growth and capital including dummies for the mentioned structural break points by Zivot-Andrews unit root test in trend. This determines whether a long run relationship exists between the variables. The optimal lag order is selected following the minimum values of both AIC and SBC criterion as shown in Table 6.

Table 6
Results of Cointegration Tests

•							
	Panel I: Bounds testing to cointegration						
	$F_{Y}Y(EC,K)$	$F_{EC}EC(Y,K)$	$F_KK(EC,Y)$				
Optimal lag structure	(2, 1, 2)	(2, 2, 2)	(2, 2, 1)				
F-statistics	6.724**	3.341	1.425				
Structural break	1997	1990	1999				
Significant level	Critical values ( $T = 3$	1)#					
	Lower bounds I(0)	Upper bounds I(1)					
1 per cent level	6.183	7.873					
5 per cent level	4.267	5.473					
10 per cent level	3.437	4.470					
Panel II: Diagnostic tests	Statistics	Statistics	Statistics				
R <sup>2</sup>	0.9573	0.8403	0.6680				
Adjusted- R <sup>2</sup>	0.9211	0.6673	0.3834				
F-statistics	26.5014*	4.8580*	2.3475***				
J-B Normality test	0.0114 (0.9942)	0.3693 (0.8313)	0.5950 (0.7426)				
Breusch-Godfrey LM test	1.5222 (0.2608)	0.1554 (0.8580)	1.6710 (0.2289)				
ARCH LM test	1.6250 (0.2169)	1.8004 (0.1927)	0.1809 (0.6743)				
Ramsey RESET	0.8002 (0.3886)	3.6626 (0.2334)	3.1238 (0.1418)				

Note: The asterisks \*, \*\* and \*\*\* is for the significance at 1, 5 and 10 per cent levels, respectively. The optimal lag structure is determined by AIC. The parenthesis [] is the order of diagnostic tests. # Critical values bounds have been used developed by Narayan (2005) following unrestricted intercept and no trend.

The computed F-statistics is used to decide whether cointegration exists or not. It is reported in Table 6 that F-statistics exceeds the upper critical bound at 5% level of significance when electricity consumption and capital use are considered as forcing variables. The ARDL model also passes the diagnostic tests against non-normality, serial correlation, autoregressive conditional heteroscedasticity and misspecification of the model. The lower critical bound is more than calculated F-statistics when electricity consumption and capital use are used as dependent variables. The empirical evidence confirms the cointegration. This implies that electricity consumption, economic growth and capital use are cointegrated for long term in the case of Romania over the period of 1980-2011.

The existence of long run relationship between the variables leads us to examine the marginal affect of electricity consumption and capital on economic growth. The results are reported in Table 7. It is found that electricity consumption has positive effect on economic growth and it is statically significant at one per cent. One percent increase in electricity consumption leads economic growth to rise by 0.79 percent.

# Long Run Results

Table 7

Dependent Variable = $LY_t$					
Variable	Coefficient	T-Statistic	Prob. Value		
Constant	0.1681	0.2709	0.7886		
LEC <sub>t</sub>	0.7942	12.7787	0.0000		
LK <sub>t</sub>	0.3896	13.9449	0.0000		
Diagnostic Tests	•	•			
R-squared		0.9020	0.9020		
Adj-R-squared		0.8945	0.8945		
F-statistic		119.7120 (0.000	119.7120 (0.0000)		
J-B Normality test		1.0351 (0.5959)	1.0351 (0.5959)		
Breusch-Godfrey LM test		1.9187 (0.1271)	1.9187 (0.1271)		
ARCH LM test		2.0550 (0.1189)	2.0550 (0.1189)		
W.Heteroskedasticity Test		1.4619 (0.2447)	1.4619 (0.2447)		
Ramsey RESET	•	2.5140 (0.1254)	2.5140 (0.1254)		

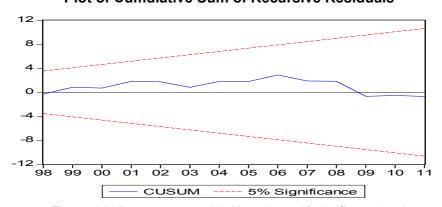
The capital use is positively linked with economic growth and it is statistically significant at one percent level of significance. This implies that capital is also an important driver of economic growth in the case of Romania. The results report that one percent increase in capital use is linked with 0.38 percent boost in economic growth. The results of CUSUM and CUSUMsq are reported in Figures 1 and 2. Both diagrams are lying between critical bounds (red lines). This implies that estimates of the ARDL bounds testing approach to cointegration are stable and efficient.

Toda and Yamamotoo (1995) test was applied with maximum lag order 2 to investigate the direction of causality between electricity consumption per capita, real GDP per capita and capital use per capita. The results reported in Table 8 indicated that bidirectional causality is founds between electricity consumption and economic growth. This empirical evidence provides support to findings of energy literature such

Figure 2

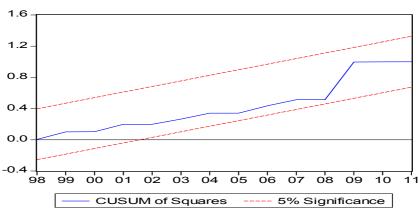
as Yang (2000) for Taiwan, Yoo (2005) for Korea, Zamani (2006) for Iran, Zachariadis and Pashouortidou (2007) for Cyprus, Tang (2008, 2009) and Lean and Smyth (2010) for Malaysia, Hondroyiannis *et al.* (2002) and Tsani (2009) for Greece, Odhiambo (2009a) for South Africa, Ouédraogo (2010) for Burkina Faso and Lorde *et al.* (2010) for Barbados, but in contrast with Kayhan *et al.* (2010) which reported unidirectional running from electricity consumption to economic growth. The findings of Kayhan *et al.*, (2010) may be biased due to ignorance of relevant variable such as capital stock as pointed out by Lütkepohl (1982) that omissions of important variables provide biased and inappropriate results on relationship between electricity consumption and economic growth. No causal relation is found in bivariate systems due to neglected variables which affect electricity consumption and economic growth relation. Our findings are more consistent because we have use trivariate system and covered long data span from 1980-2011, while Kayhan *et al.* (2010) used 2001-2010.

Figure 1
Plot of Cumulative Sum of Recursive Residuals



The straight lines represent critical bounds at 5% significance level.

Plot of Cumulative Sum of Square Recursive Residuals



This finding implies that electricity conservation policies may hinder economic growth by reduction in electricity consumption in an economy and fluctuations in economic growth furthermore reduces demand for electricity due to feedback effect from economic growth to electricity consumption.

Table 8
Toda and Yamamoto Causality Analysis

Direction of Causality						
Dependent	Wald Test Statistics (Prob-values)					
Variable	LY <sub>t</sub>	LY <sub>t</sub> LEC <sub>t</sub> LK <sub>t</sub>				
LY		16.5415(0.0000)	3.6430 (0.0429)			
LEC	27.0361 (0.0000)		6.0850 (0.0078)			
LK	4.2692 (0.0271)	0.8659 (0.4345)				

Moreover, results show that economic growth and capital use Granger-cause each other and findings are in contrast with empirical evidence of Ghali and Al-Mutawa (1999) for G-7 countries, who reported that no causal relation was found between capital use and economic growth. However, De Long and Summers (1991, 1992) and Blomstrom *et al.* (1996) argued that causality between capital and economic growth should be in either direction. Finally, unidirectional causal relation is also found from capital use to electricity consumption. Finally, we have calculated variance decomposition for the test variables and results are reported in Table 9.

Table 9

Variance Decomposition Approach

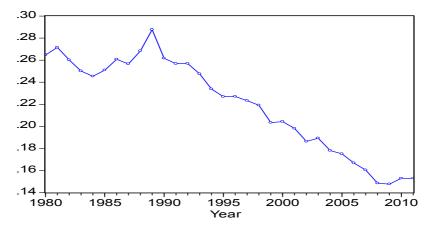
	Variance Decomposition of LY <sub>t</sub> :					
Period	S.E.	$LY_t$	LEC <sub>t</sub>	LK <sub>t</sub>		
1	0.0425	100.0000	0.0000	0.0000		
2	0.0655	88.9007	3.7776	7.3215		
3	0.0865	78.6960	8.6872	12.6167		
4	0.1057	71.9055	13.553	14.5413		
5	0.1221	67.4904	18.2724	14.2371		
6	0.1371	64.3880	22.8485	12.7634		
7	0.1508	61.8686	27.2280	10.9032		
8	0.1640	59.4719	31.3034	9.2246		
9	0.1771	56.9358	34.9467	8.1174		
10	0.1907	54.1484	38.0455	7.8059		
	Vari	ance Decompositio	n of <i>LEC<sub>t</sub></i> :			
Period	S.E.	LY <sub>t</sub>	LEC <sub>t</sub>	LK <sub>t</sub>		
1	0.0400	40.1467	59.8532	0.0000		
2	0.0591	41.5697	35.6787	22.751		
3	0.0796	37.1434	20.5013	42.355		
4	0.0990	33.5215	13.2632	53.2152		
5	0.1159	31.3363	9.8855	58.7781		

Figure 3

Variance Decomposition of LY <sub>t</sub> :				
Period	S.E.	LY <sub>t</sub>	LEC <sub>t</sub>	LK <sub>t</sub>
6	0.1300	30.2045	8.3717	61.4237
7	0.1415	29.7763	7.8530	62.3706
8	0.1507	29.8155	7.9358	62.2486
9	0.1581	30.1626	8.4295	61.4077
10	0.1641	30.7023	9.2347	60.0629
Variance Decomposition of $LK_t$ :				
Period	S.E.	LY <sub>t</sub>	LEC <sub>t</sub>	LK <sub>t</sub>
1	0.1064	19.8952	5.6165	74.4882
2	0.1415	24.4401	11.6604	63.8995
3	0.1690	27.2151	18.0320	54.7527
4	0.1947	28.4945	23.8034	47.7020
5	0.2201	28.7060	28.6123	42.6815
6	0.2459	28.2051	32.4051	39.3896
7	0.2724	27.2477	35.2588	37.4934
8	0.2999	26.0141	37.2987	36.6871
9	0.3285	24.6327	38.6627	36.7044
10	0.3584	23.1942	39.4851	37.3205

It is evident from Table 9 that in the 10<sup>th</sup> year one SD shock/innovation in per capital capital explains 7.80 percents and electricity consumption explains 38.04 percents of the forecast error variance of the output. On the other side, one SD shock/innovation in GDP and capital explains in the 10<sup>th</sup> year 30.70 percents and 60.06 percents of the forecast error variance in electricity consumption. And one SD shock/innovation in GDP and electricity consumption explains 23.48 percents and 37.32 percents of forecast error variance in per capita capital, respectively.

Trends in Energy Intensity in Romania



This shows that electricity consumption has relatively high positive impact on the GDP and GDP also has greater positive (though not relatively higher in comparison to per capita capital) impact on electricity consumption, i.e., an evidence of bidirectional causality relationship holds. We note that, as Figure 3 shows, in Romania the trend in energy intensity was going down over time during our study period.

# V. Conclusions and Policy Implications

This study is intends to investigate the impact of electricity consumption and capital per capita use on economic growth. For the analysis we use log-linear specification as it is superior and provides consistent empirical findings (Shahbaz, 2010). We applied the ARDL bounds testing approach to cointegration to examine long run association between electricity consumption, capital per capita use and economic growth using time series data over the period of 1980-2011. Further, to investigate the direction of causality between electricity consumption, economic growth and capita use, the augmented test of non- causality developed by Toda and Yamamoto (1995) was used.

We find that real GDP per capita, electricity consumption per capita and capital use per capita have unit root at their level form and to be stationary at their first differenced form and we confirmed the robustness of unit root results by applying Ng-Perron unit root test. The ARDL technique test for cointegration shows that electricity consumption, economic growth and capital are cointegrated for long run in Romania over the period of 1980-2011. Further, when we examined the marginal effect of electricity consumption and capital on economic growth we find that electricity consumption has positive effect on economic growth and it is statically significant at one per cent, i.e., one percent increase in electricity consumption leads economic growth to rise by 0.79 percents. We also found that capital use is positively associated with economic growth and it is statistically significant at one per cent level of significance i.e., capital is also an important driver of economic growth in Romania.

Further, causality analysis indicates that there is bidirectional causality between electricity consumption and economic growth and between economic growth and capital use. And evidence of unidirectional causal relation is also found from capital use to electricity consumption. These findings are confirmed through variance decomposition analysis also. The decline in the energy intensity, as Figure 3 reveals, indicates the adoption of energy efficient technology, while generating electricity from various sources of energy in Romania due to shift of economic activity. This means that adoption of technology has played important role in lowering energy intensity.

This implies that electricity conservation policies may hinder economic growth by reduction in electricity consumption in an economy and fluctuations in economic growth furthermore reduces demand for electricity due to feedback effect from economic growth to electricity consumption.

In the context of policy implications, in order to sustain the economic growth, at least two policy coordinates could be indentified: one centered on capital use, and one, focused on electricity consumption.

Tax facilities offered to capital owners and/or low interest rates are good incentives for new investments, in quantitative terms, which stimulate the electricity consumption

(even if these investments have high energy efficiency), and economic growth. Regarding the electric consumption, to promote economic growth, the policy should be focused on price level of the electric energy or, directly, on its demand side. In this case, low price level or high demand can promote economic growth.

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