

Consumption-Base Carbon Emission And Foreign Direct Investment In Oil Production Sub-Sahara African Countries: The Role of Natural Resources and Urbanization

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1 **Consumption-base carbon emission and foreign direct investment in oil production Sub-**
2 **Sahara African Countries: the role of natural resources and urbanization.**

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13
14 **Abstract.**

15 The intensification of international trade movements and economic interconnectivity has far-reaching
16 ramifications for many macroeconomic indicators, not to mention ecological consequences. To this
17 end, this analysis examine the dynamic interaction between foreign direct investment (FDI), natural
18 resources, economic advancement and urbanization on consumption-based carbon emission which is
19 adjusted for global trade for oil production Sub-Saharan Africa countries. The time frame for this
20 analysis is from 1990 to 2018. To examine the nature of relationship between the outlined variables,
21 we rely on a balanced panel econometrics analysis alongside Augmented Mean Group (AMG),
22 Common Correlated Effect Mean Group (CCEMG) and the Driscoll–Kraay (DK) OLS techniques.
23 The analysis presented a uniform outcomes from all the estimators showing a positive association
24 among all the variables (natural resource, FDI, income and urbanization) and consumption-based
25 carbon pollution. This therefor affirms the pollutant haven hypothesis for the countries under
26 consideration. This suggests that foreign direct investment inflow has a detrimental influence on the
27 host country alongside natural resource. Finally, these outcomes suggest the need to pursue low-
28 carbon strategies for a cleaner and friendly environment

29 **Keywords:** Consumption-based carbon emission, Environmental impact; low-carbon reduction;
30 Environmental sustainability; Pollution Haven hypothesis and Oil production Sub-Saharan Africa
31 countries

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34 **1. Introduction.**

35 Humankind faces major new challenges due to the increasing environmental emissions of greenhouse
36 gases. It is obvious that over the last decade, humanity's lifestyle has contributed significantly to the rise
37 in the amount of heat-trapping pollutants to the levels not observed in the last 800,000 years (Nunez,
38 2019). Since the late 1800s, atmospheric sea level has risen by 178 millimeters while carbon pollution
39 in the atmosphere have increased to levels that have never been seen before in 650,000 years, the
40 Iceberg has melted away by a total of 1.9 F because of the increasing emission (NASA, 2020).
41 However, even if carbon dioxide pollution are to be reduced, upcoming generation will be harmed by
42 the same amount as existing ones. This is why actions such as the Paris Agreement in 2016, especially
43 as carbon reduction steps are now in the process which are mandatory rather than a discretionary
44 (Shen et al. 2021). Base on this assumption, elements of heat-trapping gases, particularly CO₂ pollution
45 have gain much interest while there is an indication that, energy usage (Zhang and Cheng, 2009),
46 population (Begum et al., 2015), urbanization (Wang et al., 2016), human capital (Bano et al., 2018),
47 financial development (Gu et al., 2020), research & development (Pablo-Romero and Sánchez-Braza,
48 2015), natural resources (Umar et al., 2020) as well as trade liberalization (Hakimi and Hamdi, 2016)
49 are among the specific causes of CO₂ pollution and others.

50 This is reinforced by a conviction that offshore investment is beneficial to the global economy on the
51 whole, but critics of international investment regard it as a tool for the wealthiest countries to minimize
52 their environmental impact. A drop in the total pollution is to be (at least) compensated by an increase
53 in the pollution in areas where products and resources are produced – recognized as Carbon-
54 Leakage (Liddle, 2018). According to the “Pollution Heaven Hypothesis, (PHH)” investors imposes
55 massive global-scale polluters on impoverished nations where environmental regulations are
56 permissive (Cole, 2004). Additional, the major trigger of ecological degradation is natural resource
57 exploitation as a result of massive economic growth (Sarkodie 2018). The exploitation of natural
58 resources has nearly doubled in the last century with the volume of gas, coal, and oil tripling, for
59 example increasing from 6 to 15 billion tons (Aziz et al 2020). The mass of the biomass increased
60 from 9 to 24 billion, as well as new capital doubled in volume (Global IRP 2019). This claim has
61 been supported by Giljum et al. (2009), who found that the amount of natural resources seized by
62 humans is equivalent to half of what was formerly taken over 30 year (for reference, it was around 60
63 billion tons). Furthermore, this overuse of resources will surpass the world's regenerative capacity

64 (Global Footprint Network 2017). It is therefore crucial to address issues about natural resources and
65 international investment in the development process.

66 Nonetheless, priority is still directed to pollutions generated inside a country's territorial boundaries,
67 i.e., production-based pollution. While other consumption-based carbon pollution which are balanced
68 towards foreign direct investment and trade, attract comparatively little consideration (Spaiser et al.,
69 2019). Nonetheless, others argue that previous steps are insufficient to accurately estimate carbon
70 pollution. For example, it ignores the fact that developed countries are specialized in utilities as well
71 as knowledge-based industries, which emit less carbon dioxide than industries or agriculture-based
72 countries (Baker, 2018). Additionally, products bought by rich countries are manufactured in emerging
73 countries, therefore, carbon pollution associated with their manufacture are linked to these emerging
74 countries (Scott and Barrett, 2015).

75 As a result, developed countries appear to be decreasing their carbon pollution, as suggested by the
76 extremely dubious Inverted-U shaped environmental Kuznets curve (Stern et al., 1996). They do,
77 nevertheless, fulfill this increasing demand from emerging economies (Davis and Caldeira, 2010).
78 Thus, the pollution contained in consumption call into question the credibility of the findings that the
79 amount of pollution declines from a specific income level; since such pollution (consumption-based
80 pollution) cannot be divorced from the increasing income level, that facilitates investment intensity
81 and scale of pollution globally (Steinberger et al., 2013). Consequently, a consumption-based strategy
82 is potentially more suitable for encompassing the overall pollution chain ensuring accountability for
83 carbon stocks, or assessing the efficacy of world efforts to mitigate increasing pollution (Fernández-
84 Amador et al., 2017). Additionally, empirical research indicates that FDI has a considerable influence
85 on consumption-based pollution but has no influence on territory-based pollution (Knight and Schor,
86 2014; Liddle, 2018a; Hasanov et al., 2018).

87 Regrettably, prior research on FDI and carbon pollution has focused primarily on production-based
88 pollution, whereas overlooking consumption-based pollution (Liddle, 2018). Subsequently, prior
89 research investigated the causal relation in consolidated trade environments, omitting the
90 differentiated impact of FDI, i.e., whether FDI inflows and outflows influence the rate of carbon
91 pollution independently (Hasanov et al., 2018). Additionally, recent research on FDI and carbon
92 pollution takes into account a variety of countries, including the OECD (Cole, 2004), the European
93 Union (De Almeida Vale et al., 2016), and a mix of advanced and emerging economies (Spaiser et al.,
94 2019; Jiborn et al., 2018). Moreover, exclusively disregard the impact of foreign direct investment on

95 carbon pollution in oil-importing economies. To our understanding, only Hasanov et al. (2018) and
96 Khan et al. (2020) have investigated this aspect. Regarding this void, the primary purpose of this
97 analysis is to investigate how foreign direct investment (FDI) and natural resources influence the level
98 of carbon emissions (consumption-based) in oil countries of the Sub-Sahara African countries.

99 African nations, such as Angola and Nigeria, are the main oil-producing economies with a daily
100 production of 1.7 million and 1.5 million barrels from 2016 and continue to rise monthly. Thus,
101 Nigeria produces 300 oil spills annually to damage the climate (U.S. Energy Information
102 Administration 2013). The African continent alone has deaths over 770,000 annually due to air
103 pollution including Carbon pollutions and this also has a detrimental impact on people's health.
104 Pollutions of biomass gasification greenhouse gases, food yield lefts, land gas, litter, and alcoholic fuels
105 result in more than 40,000 deaths (Bauer et al. 2019). Amegah and Agyei-Mensah (2017) stated that,
106 airborne pollution has triggered some degree of disability and decrease in overall years to more than
107 600,000 citizens in the sub-Saharan region. Industrial economies are in danger of generating more
108 carbon dioxide, since figures show that industrial practices contribute more than 30 percent to global
109 use of energy and generate 20 percent of global carbon Dioxide emissions that affect human health
110 (Acar and Tekce 2014; Sarpong and Bein, 2020, Sarpong et al. 2020). The African continent is also at
111 risk of poor ecosystem quality as it continues to industrialize its economies.

112 As stated early, the main purposes of this analysis is to examine the impact of FDI and natural
113 resources on carbon pollution (consumption-based) in case of Sub-Sahara African countries. This
114 analysis however contribute to the existing studies in different forms: (i) The target of this review is
115 to plug the gap of insufficient information on the PHH for Sub-Saharan Africa (SSA) and to
116 contribute to the existing study by not focusing exclusively on Sub-Saharan African nations as a unit
117 and, instead, separating SSA into oil-producing and non-oil-producing nations in order to gain a better
118 understanding of the pollution haven hypothesis (PHH) from the oil-producing nations. Thus, this
119 present study differs from prior ones such as (Keho, 2015; Acheampong et al., 2019) in that they
120 examined the complexities of FDI's impact on Carbon emission in the area's oil-producing countries
121 and provided policymakers with a range of recommendations based on the findings. (ii) Unlike other
122 studies that used the CO₂ emission as a whole (Gyamfi et al. 2020a, b, Sarpong et al. 2020, Ampoma
123 et al. 2021, Adedoyin et al 2021), this study utilized the consumption-based carbon pollution which to
124 our best of knowledge has not be used for the sub-Sahara African context. (iii) The effect of natural
125 resources on the consumption-based carbon pollution is also analysis in this study. (iv) Lastly, Our

126 study employs a novel econometrics techniques in the framework of cross-sectional dependency test
127 to identify either to go for the first generation or second-generation estimation approach which allow
128 our study to utilize a more robust technique for this investigation. We utilize the Pesaran (2015) LM
129 test, Pesaran (2007) CD and Breusch-Pagan (1980) LM test to evaluate for cross-sectional dependence
130 as well as Pesaran (2007) panel root unit test to examine the integration features of variables.
131 Subsequently, we utilize Westerlund (2007) test to analyze the long-run equilibrium relationship
132 among highlighted variables. To evaluate the long-run coefficients of the variables, the ordinal least
133 square (OLS), **Augmented Mean Group (AMG)** and Common Correlated Effect Mean Group
134 (CCEMG). More attention was placed on the results from the **Augmented Mean Group (AMG)** and
135 Common Correlated Effect Mean Group (CCEMG) estimation techniques for checking the long-
136 term relationship between FDI, economic growth, natural resources fossil fuel and consumption-
137 based carbon pollution (CCO₂) for the period of 1990 to 2018.

138 This study is structured as follows. The first section is the introduction. The second section is the
139 literature review. The third section is the methodology and model design. The fourth section includes
140 results and analysis while the final section concludes the study with policy directives.

141 **2. Literature Review**

142 This study explores how consumption-based Carbon pollution affect the climate. The information in
143 this portion on consumption-based carbon emissions, foreign direct investment, natural resources,
144 economic advancement and fossil fuels includes recent publications by Liddle (2018b); Dong et al.
145 (2016); Mensah et al. (2018) and Shahbaz et al. (2018).

146 From the year 1990 to 2013, Liddle (2018b) evaluated the influence of international investment, energy
147 costs, industrial value added, and fossil fuel use in 102 nation's territory- and use-based carbon
148 pollution. The outcome indicated that GDP reduces emissions, but imports raise territory pollution.
149 As imports and GDP rise, so does consumption-based carbon pollution. Usage and industrial share
150 of fossil fuels grow, whereas energy costs decrease consumption and territory-based carbon pollution.

151 Hasanov et al. (2018) analyzed oil-exporting nations' consumption-based pollution and international
152 investment from 1995 to 2013. The outcomes shown that GDP and imports have a positive impact
153 on consumption-based carbon pollution, whereas exports have adverse influence on consumption-
154 based carbon pollution. Imports as well as exports also contribute to a decrease in territory-based
155 carbon pollution, while GDP contributes to a rise in it.

156 Dong et al. (2016) investigated the international panel's environmental Kuznets curve (EKC) utilizing
157 both consumption- and production-based carbon pollution. The authors noted that for consumption-
158 based carbon pollution, the environmental Kuznets curve (EKC) assumption does not
159 hold. Additionally, EKC for consumption-based carbon pollution is considered stable and rising.

160 Using selected 18 Latin American countries, Blanco et al. (2013) examined FDI-CO₂ connection
161 between 1980 and 2007. To establish the research objectives, the investigators used panel Granger
162 causality test and the outcomes disclose one-way causality running from FDI to CO₂ pollutions in the
163 selected countries. Omiri et al. (2014) explored the dynamics between FDI and CO₂ pollutions in 54
164 nations over the duration of 1990–2011 utilizing panel techniques and established feedback causal
165 linkage between CO₂ emissions and FDI. Using data stretching from 1974–2010, Gökmenoğlu &
166 Taspınar, (2016) evaluate the effect of FDI on ecological dilapidation in Turkey. The authors used
167 ARDL and Toda–Yamamoto causality tests to ascertain this connection and the findings disclose that
168 FDI inflows exert a positive effect on CO₂ pollution which illustrates that a rise in FDI harm the
169 sustainability of the environment. Furthermore, there is proof of two-way causality among FDI and
170 CO₂ emissions. Moreover, He et al. (2020) observed the FDI-CO₂ interconnection using the bootstrap
171 ARDL test in BRICS nations and the outcomes disclose that FDI and CO₂ pollution are connected
172 positively implying that FDI harm the sustainability of the environment in the BRICS nations. From
173 a different point of view, the investigation of Ahmad et al. (2021) on the FDI-CO₂ association in
174 OECD economies from the period 1990 to 2014 disclosed that FDI-CO₂ association is negative and
175 statistically significant which gives room for the support of the Pollution Halo Hypothesis in the
176 OECD nation. Adeel-Farooq et al. (2021) in their study on the interconnection regarding FDI inflows
177 and pollutions, uncovered that FDI inflows exert a significant and detrimental impact on the
178 sustainability of the environment in developing countries while FDI inflows improve the sustainability
179 of the environment in advanced economies. Essandoh et al. (2020) assessed the association between
180 CO₂ and FDI in 52 developed and developing countries from the period 1991–2014. The investigators'
181 utilized PMG-ARDL test and the findings uncovered that FDI inflows increase environmental
182 degradation in emerging nations while FDI inflows decrease ecological degradation in advanced
183 economies. Furthermore, the study of Haug & Ucal (2019) using nonlinear techniques assesses the
184 linkage between FDI and CO₂ emissions in Turkey between 1975 and 2014. The investigators found
185 an insignificant connection between FDI and CO₂ emissions.

186 Badeeb et al. (2020) examined the impact of natural resources on ecological sustainability within the
187 EKC system using ARDL as well as structural break co-integration. Their analytical results suggest
188 that natural resource dependency is consistent with the relationship regarding economic advancement
189 and ecological sustainability. Balsalobre-Lorente et al. (2018) examined the impacts of natural
190 resources to Carbon pollution in five EU nations and found that natural resources enhanced ecological
191 sustainability from 1985 to 2016. Cheng et al. (2020) discovered that China's green sustainable
192 prosperity is plagued by natural resource scarcity. Danish et al. (2020) demonstrated that natural
193 resource rent leads to the degradation of the atmosphere in BRICS nations. Danish et al. (2019)
194 identified that natural resource availability decreases Carbon pollution in Russia but deteriorates
195 ecological efficiency in South Africa by analyzing the role of natural resources and energy use on CO₂
196 pollution in the BRICS countries. Additionally, their analytical review discovered that natural resources
197 in BRICS countries could aid in the formation of the EKC concept

198 After reviewing the above-mentioned studies, we can identify a number of shortcomings in existing
199 literature. First, existing literature have focused on CO₂ emissions directly generated through the use
200 of fossil fuels in domestic production, neglecting the growing environmental impact of FDI-induced
201 consumption patterns in the sub-Sahara Africa economies. Second, existing studies have provided
202 limited policy considerations on possible synergies among FDI, natural resources and fossil fuel
203 Therefore, in order to solve the above research deficiencies, the innovations of this paper include the
204 use of disaggregated carbon emissions data, which accounts for the differential effects of consumption
205 patterns in Sub-Sahara Africa economies, and the extension of empirical modelling framework to
206 account for the synergies between FDI, natural resources and fossil fuel targets.

207 **3. Data and Methodology**

208 **3.1 Data**

209 This study utilized yearly data series over the period 1990 – 2018. Data on consumption-based carbon
210 emissions are from the Global Carbon Budget (Friedlingstein, et al., 2019). Consumption-based
211 method adds emissions embodied in imports and subtracts emissions embodied in exports
212 (consumption-based emissions = production-based emission + emissions in imports – emissions in
213 exports) (see Peters et al., 2012). However, while empirical analysis focuses on consumption based
214 CO₂ pollution as a major measure of ecological dilapidation, variable such as natural resources FDI,
215 economic growth, and urban population are used as regressors and are obtained from the WDI, (2020)
216 for the oil production Sub-Sahara African countries. The full description of the variables in the

217 modelled relationship in equation 1 is provided with their corresponding measurements and sources
 218 in Table 1. Given the strong appealing arguments in contemporary studies with respect to the crucial
 219 roles of natural resource rent and FDI in ecological degradation (Sinha & Sengupta, 2019; Khan et al.
 220 2021; Guan et al. 2020), this study accounts for the roles of these variables while exploring the impacts
 221 of fossil fuel and urbanization on the environmental quality of the oil production Sub-Sahara African
 222 economies.

223 **Table 1.** Description of variables

VARIABLES	MEASUREMENT	SOURCES	SYMBOLS
Consumption-Based CO ₂ Emissions	Metric tons per capita	Friedlingstein, et al., 2019	CCO ₂
GDP per Capita	In constant 2010 USD	WDI (2020)	Y
Urbanization	Urban population (% of total population)	WDI (2020)	UP
Natural resources	Total natural resource rent (% of GDP)	WDI (2020)	NRR
Foreign Direct Investment	% of real GDP	WDI (2020)	FDI

Sources: author's compilation, 2020. Note Global Carbon Budget (Friedlingstein, et al., 2019) is available at <https://doi.org/10.5194/essd-11-1783-2019>; WDI available at <https://databank.worldbank.org/source/world-development-indicators#advancedDownloadOptions>; Data on FF are from two sources; 1990-2015 from WDI, World Bank while estimates for 2016 and 2018 are from the SDG Indicators Global Database, United Nations available online at: <https://unstats.un.org/sdgs/indicators/database/>

LIST OF COUNTRIES: Algeria, Angola, Cameroon, Chad, Congo, Rep., Cote d'Ivoire, Egypt, Gabon, Libya, Morocco, Nigeria, Sudan and Tunisia

224

225 3.2 MODEL

226 The STIRPAT framework is the basis of this study. The STIRPAT assumption states that the damage
 227 of the environment is both economic and societal.

$$228 I_t = \varphi_0 P_t^{\varphi_1} A_t^{\varphi_2} T_t^{\varphi_3} \mu_t \quad (1)$$

229 From Eq. 1, I is an indicator of environmental degradation, P, A, and T denotes inhabitants, wealth,
 230 as well as innovation correspondingly. $\varphi_1 - \varphi_3$ as well as μ are the variables assessors and the error
 231 term correspondingly. T may be separated founded on the drive of the analysis (Bello et al. 2018;
 232 Nathaniel et al. 2020). In consistence to the various studies of Solarin and Al-Mulali studies (2018)

233 and Nathaniel et al. (2020), I, in this analysis is identified as consumption-based CO₂ emission as
 234 already mentioned. From another point of view, P as well as A are represented by economic growth
 235 and FDI correspondingly. This study then utilized urbanization (UP), natural resources rent (NRR),
 236 as well as foreign direct investment (FDI), as a proxy T. The drawn-out is presented as:

$$237 \quad I_t = \vartheta_0 Y_t^{\xi_1} NRR_t^{\xi_2} FDI_t^{\xi_3} UP_t^{\xi_4} \mu_t \quad (2)$$

238 By converting the logarithm of each of the variables, the method is advance expressed as, expect FDI
 239 which was left in its normal form;

$$240 \quad LnI_{it} = \alpha_0 + \alpha_1 LnY_{it} + \alpha_2 LnNRR_{it} + \alpha_3 FDI_{it} + \alpha_4 LnUP_{it} + \varepsilon_{it} \quad (3)$$

241 Where Y, NRR, FDI, and UB denote economic growth, natural resources, foreign direct investment,
 242 and urbanization. I, from a different point denote the ecological element utilized in this studies, thus,
 243 consumption-based CO₂ pollution. To examine the effect of Y, NRR, FDI, and UP on I the authors
 244 formulated Eqs. (4) which is shown as;

$$245 \quad LnCCO2_{it} = \alpha_0 + \alpha_1 LnY_{it} + \alpha_2 LnNRR_{it} + \alpha_3 FDI + \alpha_4 LnUP_{it} + \varepsilon_{it} \quad (4)$$

246 While the residual factors uphold their unique explanation, CCO₂ denote consumption-based CO₂
 247 emission.

248 **3.3. Cross-sectional Dependency Technique and Panel Unit root Analysis**

249 Firstly, as a major step into choices of methodological framework for the current study vis-à-vis the
 250 possibility of interdependence among the oil production economies in the Sub-Sahara Africa
 251 continent, we have ensured that a cross-sectional dependency (CD) test was conducted. Contemporary
 252 studies have vastly enunciated the significance of such action as an important step towards ensuring
 253 not just the right model selection but to also ensure the robustness of estimated coefficients for a
 254 panel study where analysis is done on observations that are drawn from samples that are bound to be
 255 cross-sectionally dependent (Shahbaz et al. 2018; Shahbaz et al. 2019; Wang et al. 2020; Gyamfi et al.
 256 2021; Shen et al. 2021). To this end, we adopted Pesaran (2007) CD test, the Pesaran (2015) and the
 257 Breusch-Pagan (1980) LM test for the cross-sectional dependency test. The conducted CD test
 258 provided evidence of cross-sectional dependence in the panel analysis and this primarily implies that
 259 conducting a direct unit-root test using the first-generation techniques without factoring in the
 260 possibility of cross-sectional dependence would have resulted into an exercise in futility (Im et al.,

261 2003). Consequently, we applied the second generation IPS (CIPS) unit root test of Pesaran (2007)
 262 following the model in equation 5.

$$263 \quad \Delta Y_{it} = \Delta \varphi_{it} + \beta_i X_{it-1} + \rho_i T + \sum_{j=1}^n \theta_{ij} \Delta X_{i,t-j} + \varepsilon_{it} \quad (5)$$

264 In equation 5, X_{it} stands for the understudied variables while φ_{it} and T are the intercept and time
 265 span respectively. Δ and ε_{it} are difference operator and model error term accordingly. In addition to
 266 the CIPS results, the panel IPS results was reported to double check the results from the CIPS
 267 concerning the stationarity nature of the variables.

268 3.4 Panel Cointegration Analysis

269 To bypass the pitfalls in using first generation cointegration approaches in testing for cointegration in
 270 presence of cross-sectional dependence, we have adopted the Westerlund (2007) technique to examine
 271 long-run relationship among the variables. The application of the approach for cointegration checks
 272 follows the steps follows the error adjustment process in equation 3.

$$273 \quad \Delta Y_{it} = \delta_i d_t + \phi_i Y_{it-1} + \lambda_i X_{it-1} + \sum_{j=1}^{pi} \phi_{ij} \Delta Y_{i,t-j} + \sum_{j=0}^{pi} \gamma_{ij} \Delta X_{i,t-j} + \varepsilon_{it} \quad (6)$$

274 In equation 6, $\delta_i = (\delta_{i1}, \delta_{i2})'$, $d_t = (1, t)'$, and ϕ present a vector for the parameters, the deterministic
 275 terms, and the error adjustment term respectively. Identifying the long-run relationship is simply based
 276 on the produced group mean statistics and the panel's statistics following the least square estimation
 277 of the ϕ_i parameter in equation 6. To identify cointegration existence, Westerlund (2007) approach
 278 produces four major statistics based on the least square estimation and corresponding significance of
 279 the adjustment term ε_{it} of the ECM model in Eq. 6 and these statistics can be categorized under two
 280 major subdivisions namely the group statistics and the panel statistics. The group mean statistics $G\tau$
 281 and $G\alpha$ follows the derivations from the expressions in Eq. 3 and Eq.4;

$$282 \quad G\tau = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N \frac{\hat{\alpha}_i}{SE(\hat{\alpha}_i)} \quad (7)$$

283
$$G\alpha = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N \frac{T^{\wedge} \alpha i}{\wedge \alpha i(1)} \quad (8)$$

284 Where, $\wedge \alpha i$ is denoted by $SE(\wedge \alpha i)$ as the standard error. The semiparametric kernel technique of
 285 $\alpha i(1)$ is $\wedge \alpha i(1)$.

286
$$P\tau = \frac{\wedge \alpha i}{SE(\alpha i)} \quad (9)$$

287
$$P\alpha = T\alpha^{\wedge} \quad (10)$$

288 The two remaining panel mean techniques shown that the entire panel is co-integrated is presented in
 289 Eq. 9 and Eq. 10, where variables remained as earlier defined. The application of this test has been
 290 substantially reported in the literature as they are designed to accommodate cross-sectional
 291 dependency in a panel study (Le and Ozturk, 2020; Alola et al., 2019; Nathaniel et al., 2020).

292 3.5 Long-run Panel Coefficient Estimation Techniques

293 This study adopted the Augmented Mean Group (AMG) estimator of Eberhardt and Bond (2009)
 294 and Eberhardt and Teal (2010)), and the advanced Common Correlated Effect Mean Group
 295 (CCEMG) panel estimator of Kapetanios et al. (2011) as initially developed by Pesaran (2006) for the
 296 long-run panel estimations. In addition, while we focus on the AMG and the CCEMG estimates due
 297 to its statistical strengths that has triggered the rise in its application in contemporary studies
 298 (Nathaniel et al. 2021; Wang et al. 2020), were utilized in the study following the expression in Eq. 11
 299 and Eq. 12 respectively:

300

301
$$\Delta Y_{it} = \alpha_i + \beta_i \Delta X_{it} + \sum_{t=1}^T \pi_t D_t + \varphi_i UCF_t + \mu_{it} \quad (11)$$

302
$$Y_{it} = \alpha_i + \beta_i X_{it} + \gamma_i Y^*_{it} + \delta_i X^*_{it} + \theta_i UCF_t + \mu_{it} \quad (12)$$

303 From the CCEMG expression in Eq. 12, the Y^* and X^* represent the mean values of the variables Y_{it}
 304 and X_{it} alongside the unobserved common effects while D is a time variant dummy variable in the Eq.
 305 7. The OLS estimation of the differenced Eq. 11 is utilized to generate the AMG estimator as given in
 306 Eq. 13 where φ_i denotes the estimated slope parameters of the X_{it} variable in Eq. 11.

$$307 \quad \text{AMG} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N \varphi_i \quad (13)$$

308 We also reported the linear regression estimates with Driscoll–Kraay (DK) standard errors while
 309 conducting a robustness checks for multicollinearity through the variance inflation factor (VIF) as
 310 reported in Table 9 in the Appendix. A combination of these approaches has been noted to be very
 311 efficient in producing robust estimates especially when cross-sectional dependence issues have to be
 312 accommodated in a panel analysis (Zhang and Lin, 2012; Le and Ozturk, 2020).

313 4. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

314 4.1. Preliminary Tests Results

315 The author present summary statistics and correlation matrix of the variables in table 2. It can be
 316 observed that, income has the highest mean of 3601.158 million dollars per year, minimum of 462.254
 317 million dollars per year and a maximum of 20532.95 million dollars per year whiles, consumption-
 318 based CO_2 pollution has the lowest mean of 1.950 metric tons per year, minimum of 0.008 metric
 319 tons per year and maximum of 11.203 11.203 metric tons per year. From the correlation, there is a
 320 positive substantial connection among all the factors expect urban population which although have
 321 positive relationship but not significant.

322 **TABLE 2. Summary Statistics and Correction analysis**

	CCO₂	Y	NRR	FDI	UP
Mean	1.950	3601.158	45.815	5.914	50.450
Median	0.726	2254.510	32.096	2.049	64.726
Maximum	11.203	20532.95	99.977	161.823	98.303
Minimum	0.008	462.254	0.110	1.703	0.0589
Std. Dev.	2.550	3780.933	35.918	14.784	34.381
Skewness	1.902	2.045	0.419	5.749	-0.337
Kurtosis	5.749	6.908	1.591	45.497	1.410
Jarque-Bera	371.907a	540.136a	45.338a	32708.21a	50.294a

Probability	(0.000)	(0.000)	(0.000)	(0.000)	(0.000)
Observations	405	405	405	405	405
LnCCO₂	1				
lnY	0.892a	1			
lnNRR	0.478a	0.245a	1		
FDI	0.097b	0.128a	-0.152a	1	
lnUP	0.010	-0.251a	0.611a	-0.296a	1

Note a=0.01, b=0.05 and c=0.01

323

324 **Table 3. Cross-sectional dependency (CD) estimation outcome**

Model	Pesaran (2007) CD Test	Pesaran (2015) LM Test	Breusch and Pagan (1980) LM Test
lnCCO₂= f(lnY, lnNRR, FDI, lnUP)	2.700a	-1.684a	1545.62a
p-value	(0.006)	(0.002)	(0.000)

325 Note a=0.01, b=0.05 and c=0.01

326 A look at the results in Table 3 shows that the conducted CD test provided evidence of cross-sectional
327 dependence in the panel analysis since there is sufficient proof to reject the null hypothesis that
328 support an independent cross-section for the variables in the panel study. Hence, the second
329 generation CIPS unit root test of Pesaran (2007) was reported for the variables in the study in Table
330 4 before providing a panel cointegration report as shown in Table 5. The unit root results with regards
331 to CIPS in Table 4 affirms that the factors are stationary at first difference expect FDI and
332 urbanization which is has stationarity at level.

333 **Table 4. Unit Root estimation**

Variables	CIPS				
	I(0)		I(1)		Result
	C	C&T	C	C&T	
lnCCO₂	-2.747	-2.870	-5.650a	-5.835a	I(1)
lnY	-2.508	-2.234	-3.591a	-3.886a	I(1)
lnNRR	-1.544	-2.238	-4.309a	-4.655a	I(1)
FDI	-2.824a	-3.320a	-	-	I(0)
lnUP	-2.763b	-2.961b	-	-	I(0)

334
335 Note a=0.01, b=0.05 and c=0.01

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338 **Table 5. Westerlund (2007) Cointegration Test**

Statistics	Value	p-value
Gτ	-2.232c	(0.070)
Gα	-1.629a	(0.000)
Pτ	-9.574a	(0.005)
Pα	-3.073b	(0.046)

339 Note a=0.01, b=0.05 and c=0.01

340 The Westerlund (2007) Cointegration technique outcome in Table 5 establishes a long-run association
341 for the elements in the panel analysis. The conclusion was supported by the evidence for the rejection
342 of the null hypothesis based on the significance of the obtained group statistics and the panel statistics.
343 Thus, the appropriate panel techniques were applied to obtain the long-run cointegrating coefficients

344 **4.2. Panel Estimation Techniques.**

345 From Table 7, the adopted estimators namely the AMG, the CCEMG, and the Driscoll-Kraay
346 approach produced relatively close results on the average, with little difference that are only observed
347 in terms of the magnitudes of estimated coefficients and their corresponding level of statistical
348 significance. From the analysis, economic growth shown a positive significant. This clearly showed
349 the existence of environmental degradation across the oil production Sub-Sahara Africa countries
350 because of economic activities in the countries targeting economic growth. It therefore supports the
351 notion that emerging/developing countries are economically progressing at the expense of their
352 ecological performance. The outcome is in agreement with the outcomes by (Charfeddine, 2017; Omri
353 et al., 2015; Galli, 2015, Gyamfi et al 2021a).

354 Moreover, the outcome obtain from natural resources shows a positive and significant relationship
355 with ecological degradation for consumption-based CO₂ pollution. This affirms that, natural resources
356 encourages pollutions within the oil production Sub-Sahara Africa economics which confirms the
357 analysis of Amed et al. (2020), Hassan et al. (2019) Gyamfi et al (2021b). It can be observed that these
358 nations have an amount of income to be used for export and internal usage. This results, nevertheless,

359 affirms the idea that the extraction of natural resources within those nations has never become
 360 effective. Excess dependency on natural resources leads to the depletion of bio-capacity, given that
 361 resources cannot be regenerated. Also, the use and development of agricultural materials promotes
 362 deforestation which boosts pollutant in view of the strategically important of the oil production Sub-
 363 Sahara Africa economies. In addition, some of nations utilize their natural resources (coal, petroleum
 364 & gas) to satisfy their energy demands. It was suggested that the availability of resources would allow
 365 a nation independent by decreasing imports of energy and relying on internal energy production with
 366 lower pollution (Ahmed et al. 2020).

367 Moreover, there is a positive association regarding foreign direct investment as well as consumption-
 368 based CO₂ emission for the oil production Sub-Sahara Africa countries. This negates the facts that oil
 369 resources could be a deciding factor for the movement of foreign direct investments. Hence, the same
 370 trend is witnessed across the region irrespective of where oil rent is domiciled. Most probably, there
 371 are other factors that sees to the attraction of FDI such as, access to cheap labor, closeness to market
 372 and less rigid policies in curtailing the excesses of the foreign investors. This is a pointer that Sub-
 373 Saharan region of African countries are still progressing in their economic activities and growth with
 374 neglect to the quality of their environment. This justified the view of some advocates against the
 375 positive impact of FDI especially on the sustainability of developing countries. This finding is in
 376 supports of pollution haven hypothesis (PHH) and supports the findings Shahbaz et al. 2015; Solarin
 377 et al. 2017; Gorus and Aslan 2019; Sarkodie and Strezov 2019 Udemba 2020b for India).

378 Nevertheless, the author also found that urbanization aggravates consumption-based CO₂ emission
 379 for the oil production Sub-Sahara Africa countries. This embraces the results for Salahuddin et al.
 380 (2019) and Charfeddine (2017). Urbanization boosts the economy and expands the density of towns
 381 that have minimal resources. However, Urbanization raises desire for transportation, lodging and
 382 household equipment and so on (Lin and Du 2015). Given that the energy used by E7 is largely non-
 383 renewable, pollutant are projected to increase. The rise in urban citizens in E7 could lead to a better
 384 development path, along with energy usage, garbage production and low energy utilization.

385 **Table 7. AMG, CCEMG and Driscoll-Kraay result.**

	lnY	lnNRR	FDI	lnUP	R ²	Wald test	No. group	No. Obs.
AMG	0.668a	0.015b	0.015b	0.159c		28.59c	15	405
P-value	(0.004)	(0.033)	(0.019)	(0.086)		(0.0722)		
CCEMG	0.971a	0.197c	0.008c	0.617b		28.51c	15	405
P-value	(0.007)	(0.051)	(0.092)	(0.048)		(0.0745)		

Driscoll-Kraay	1.133a	0.230a	0.018b	0.023c	0.8674	1099.40a	15	405
P-value	(0.000)	(0.000)	(0.018)	(0.067)		(0.000)		

386 Note: a=0.01, b=0.05 and c=0.01

387 4.3. DH Granger causality evidence

388 The Dumitrescu and Hurlin (2012) Granger causality technique was utilized for the causality analysis
389 for the panel variables. Causality analysis for this study would help in showing the true direction of
390 causation among the understudied variables as seen in the procedures in extant studies (Shahbaz et al.
391 2018; Bekun et al. 2019; Gyamfi et al 2021; Gyamfi et al 2020; Alola et al. 2019).

392 From the analysis it was observed that, there is a feedback causal association among urbanization
393 and consumption-based CO₂ pollution for the oil production Sub-Sahara Africa countries. On the
394 other hand, a one-way causal relationship is observed between consumption-based CO₂ emission
395 and factors such as income, natural resources and foreign direct investment.

396 **Table 8. Dumitrescu and Hurlin Causality Analysis**

Null Hypothesis:	W-Statistic	p-value	Causal Remarks
$\ln Y \rightarrow \ln \text{CCO}_2$	9.222a	(0.0001)	One-way
$\ln \text{CCO}_2 \rightarrow \ln Y$	0.692	(0.5008)	
$\ln \text{NRR} \rightarrow \ln \text{CCO}_2$	0.157	(0.8542)	One-way
$\ln \text{CCO}_2 \rightarrow \ln \text{NRR}$	2.677c	(0.0701)	
$\text{FDI} \rightarrow \ln \text{CCO}_2$	11.673a	(1.E-05)	One-way
$\ln \text{CCO}_2 \rightarrow \text{FDI}$	0.936	(0.3929)	
$\ln \text{UP} \rightarrow \ln \text{CCO}_2$	2.460c	(0.0868)	Feedback
$\ln \text{CCO}_2 \rightarrow \ln \text{UP}$	4.541b	(0.0113)	

397 Note a=0.01, b=0.05 and c=0.01

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399 5. Conclusion remark and policy suggestion

400 Sub-Saharan African countries are known for rich natural and human resources capable of attracting
401 prospective investors from across the globe. With the current concern over the increasing climate
402 change which are associated with different factors, divided views have emerged with regards to the
403 influence of foreign direct investment and natural resources on climate change through direct impact
404 on environment. Some scholars support positive effect of foreign direct investment and natural
405 resources, while others are averse about the positive impact. These two strong oppositions have paved
406 way for the emergency of two hypothesis supporting negative impact (Pollution haven hypothesis)
407 and positive impact (Pollution halo hypothesis) respectively. Bearing in mind the likelihood of finding

408 negative impact of FDI and natural resources on the ecology of the selected countries, we opined that
409 pollution haven hypothesis is expected to be revealed in the case of the oil production Sub-Sahara
410 Africa countries from 1990 to 2018.

411 Scientific approaches such as Pesaran (2015) LM test, Pesaran (2007) CD and Breusch-Pagan (1980)
412 LM test to evaluate for cross-sectional dependence as well as Pesaran (2007) panel unit root test to
413 evaluate the integration features of variables were utilized. We then utilize Westerlund (2007) test to
414 analyze the long-run equilibrium among variables. To evaluate the long-run coefficients of the
415 variables, the Augmented Mean Group (AMG), the advanced Common Correlated Effect Mean
416 Group (CCEMG) panel estimator and the Driscoll–Kraay (DK) OLS techniques were utilized. There
417 was a uniform outcomes from all the estimators showing, a positive connection among all the variables
418 (natural resource, FDI, income and urbanization) and consumption-based carbon pollution. The
419 outcome confirmed a pollutant haven hypotheses for the oil production Sub-Sahara Africa countries.
420 A robust check was done with granger causality and the findings as mentioned under empirical
421 discussion section give credence to the findings from the techniques used especially with interative
422 variables, hence, both natural resources and FDI Granger causing environment in one way. However,
423 urbanization had feedback causality with consumption-based carbon pollution whiles income had a
424 one-way causality with consumption-based carbon pollution.

425 After establishing the positive effects of FDI, natural resources, economic advancement and
426 urbanization on the ecological quality (consumption-based carbon emissions) of selected oil producing
427 countries in Sub-Saharan Africa, the policy recommendation will be to frame ecological regulation
428 strategies that rein in the abuses of power of foreign investors. Such measures could include the
429 imposition of a carbon tax and a pollution limit, with the possibility of a fine for any firm that violates
430 the ceiling regulation or the imposition of stricter penalties such as compulsory closure or the
431 revocation of the firm's operating license by the authorities. Establishing an ecological enforcement
432 agency with headquarters in each of the nations concerned and tasked with the responsibility of
433 ensuring ecological performance is another sound strategy. The governments of the selected countries
434 must develop a clear long-term plan for achieving the sustainable development target by 2030. This
435 will instill a sense of responsibility in succeeding authorities to maintain a high standard of
436 environmental sustainability.

437 Moreover, Policy makers should pursue ecological legislation and encourage new customer inflows to
438 use sustainable energy as their primary source of energy and to adopt sustainable manufacturing

439 practices to reduce their reliance on depleting products from industrialized economies. Established
440 investors must be encouraged to invest in renewable energy initiatives to strike a balance regarding
441 stable economic advancement and the environment.

442 It can be concluded that the results of this analysis apply to other emerging nations that have similar
443 policy conditions, including those not in the Sub-sub-Saharan Africa but emerging seven (E7), MINT
444 countries, etc.

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729 **Declarations**

730 **Availability of data and materials**

731 The data for this present study are sourced from the World Development Indicators
732 (<https://data.worldbank.org/>). The current data specific data can be made available upon request
733 but all available and downloadable at the earlier mentioned database and weblink

734 **Competing interests**

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

736

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739 **Authors' contributions**

740 The author (Dr. Bright Akwasi Gyamfi) was responsible for the conceptual construction of the
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743 **Ethical Approval:** Authors mentioned in the manuscript have agreed for authorship read and
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755 Authors

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