

A step Towards Environmental Mitigation In South Africa: Does Trade Liberalisation Really Matter? Fresh Evidence From A Novel Dynamic ARDL Simulations Approach

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1 **A step towards environmental mitigation in South**
2 **Africa: Does trade liberalisation really matter? Fresh**
3 **evidence from a novel dynamic ARDL simulations**
4 **approach**

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Abstract

30
31 This study revisits the trade-CO₂ emissions nexus for South Africa over the period 1960-2016. Our
32 strategy is distinctively different from previous works in the following dimensions: we employ the
33 recently developed novel dynamic autoregressive distributed lag (ARDL) simulations framework to
34 examine the negative and positive changes in trade openness, technological innovation, industrial
35 growth, energy consumption, foreign direct investment, technique effect, and scale effect on CO₂
36 emissions. Second, we use an innovative measure of trade openness developed by Squalli and Wilson
37 (2011) to capture trade share in GDP as well as size of trade relative to world trade for South Africa.
38 Third, we use the frequency domain causality (FDC) approach, the robust testing strategy suggested
39 by Breitung & Candelon (2006) which enables us to explore permanent causality for medium, short
40 and long-term relationships among variables under review. Fourth, we employ the second-generation
41 econometric procedures accounting robustly the multiple structural breaks which have been
42 considerably ignored in earlier studies. For South Africa, we find that: (i) higher trade openness is
43 strikingly injurious to the environment in the long run, although it is environmentally friendly in the
44 short run; (ii) the scale effect increases CO₂ emissions whereas the technique effect improves it,
45 validating the presence of an environmental Kuznets curve (EKC) hypothesis; (iii) energy
46 consumption, foreign direct investment and industrial value-added deteriorate environmental quality;
47 (iv) technological innovation contributes to lower CO₂ emissions; (v) the pollution haven hypothesis
48 (PHH) exists; (vi) InSE, InTE, InOPEN, InEC, InFDI, InTECH and InIGDP Granger-cause InCO₂
49 in the medium, long and short run suggesting that these variables are important to influence CO₂
50 emissions. In light of our empirical evidence, this paper suggests that the international teamwork to
51 lessen carbon emissions is immensely critical to solve the growing trans-boundary environmental
52 decay and other associated spillover consequences.

53 **JEL Classifications: F18, F13, Q56; O13; F1; F41**

54 **Keywords:** Trade openness; CO₂ emissions; Dynamic ARDL simulations; Energy consumption;
55 EKC; Cointegration; Economic growth; Industrial value-added; South Africa

56 1. Introduction

57 Greenhouse gases (GHGs) emissions like carbon dioxide (CO₂) are seen as the driving factor for
58 climate change, which happens due to internal changes within the climate system, or in the interaction
59 between its components, or due to changes in external forces brought about by either human activities
60 or natural factors (Udeagha & Ngepah, 2019). The notion that environmental degradation poses a
61 threat to only the industrialised countries and not the less developed countries is no longer valid today

62 at least in terms of consequences (Shahbaz, Tiwari & Nasir, 2013c). The accumulation of GHGs
63 emissions in the surface of the earth is significantly affecting every nation across the world, both
64 industrialised and less developed, notwithstanding the country who is responsible for such emissions.
65 The tsunami in Japan, the earthquake in Haiti, the outburst of flood in Australia and Pakistan and the
66 burn out of fire in Russia are just few major disasters witnessed in the recent past that could be
67 attributed to the repercussions of environmental degradation (Zerbo, 2017). Such events brought
68 about destructions to infrastructure, natural resources like agricultural land and produce, wildlife,
69 forests, and most importantly to precious human lives.

70 Environmental degradation is now a global issue since every nation is exposed to such threats. The
71 responsibility to save the world from such threats is largely dependent on nations like China, India,
72 Russia, Brazil, OECD group and USA and who are considered the key GHGs emitters (Shahbaz,
73 Tiwari & Nasir, 2013c). More importantly, the successful international efforts to minimise the global
74 CO₂ emissions is substantially dependent on the commitment of these key emitters. However,
75 problems begin for countries because CO₂ emissions are connected to energy production and energy
76 is crucial for economic growth. In this situation, reducing CO₂ emissions would certainly reduce
77 production, which in turn retards economic growth, thereby making these countries very reluctant to
78 either comply or commit to programmes to minimise these emissions. Therefore, this calls for finding
79 better approaches in which sustainable economic growth along with improved environmental quality
80 could be attained. Therefore, trade liberalisation is among strategies which a country could be
81 deployed to realise these.

82 Trade liberalisation is seen as a crucial tool that brings about economic growth in both developing
83 and developed economies. As clearly illustrated by Udeagha & Ngepah (2020a, b), Udeagha &
84 Ngepah (2019), Ngepah & Udeagha (2019), Ngepah & Udeagha (2018), Ngepah (2014) and Berg &
85 Krueger (2003), it permits a full exploitation of a country's comparative advantage resulting in high
86 returns to capital in unskilled labour-abundance countries; enables the importation of investment and
87 intermediate goods needed to boost domestic production in developing countries and leads to
88 openness to innovations and ideas. It brings about improved innovation resulting in greater
89 entrepreneurship via improved market access and higher competition. Also, openness to international
90 goods markets is a vehicle that brings about new investment, enhancing productivity and stimulating
91 employment and real wages (Berg & Krueger (2003). The consensus reached by most studies is that
92 the internationally active (more open) economies develop faster; consequently, they tend to be more
93 productive than their counterparts, which simply concentrate on the production to satisfy their
94 domestic markets. Furthermore, trade liberalisation stimulates efficiency in resource allocation

95 leading to improved economic growth. This ultimately could lead to transformation into larger factor
96 accumulation, knowledge spillovers and technology diffusion (Udeagha & Ngepah, 2020a, b; Das &
97 Paul, 2011; Zahonogo, 2017). While considering the gains of trade liberalisation, its environmental
98 impact has received a less attention.

99 Over the years, the environmental effect of trade liberalisation has attracted much attention, thereby
100 generating more heat than light. Theoretical works have successfully revealed the numerous channels
101 in which trade liberalisation influences a country's environment, empirical studies have however
102 generated mixed findings. Antweiler et al. (2001), while drawing from Grossman and Krueger (1991;
103 1995)'s important works, theoretically divide the impact of trade liberalisation on the environment
104 into composition, technique and scale effects.

105 Concerning the empirical works on the trade-CO₂ emissions nexus, the reported findings are mostly
106 contradictory and largely diverse (Harbaugh et al., 2002; Rahman et al., 2017; Cherniwchan, 2017).
107 Previous studies, which examined the impact of trade liberalisation on environmental quality were
108 criticised with the way it defined and measured trade openness. These studies used the ratio of trade
109 (sum of imports and exports) to GDP to measure trade openness, which orthodoxly referred to as
110 "trade intensity (TI)". This proxy was criticised because it only focuses on the comparative position
111 of trade performance of a country in relation to its domestic economy. In this way, it overlooks
112 openness of a country to global trade, thus failing to precisely reflect the true effect of trade openness
113 on the environmental quality. The use TI-based proxy penalises bigger economies like Germany, the
114 US, France, China, Japan, South Africa and many others because they are being classified as closed
115 economies due to their larger GDPs, whereas the poor countries such as Zimbabwe, Zambia,
116 Venezuela, Uganda, Ghana, Nigeria, Togo and many others are grouped as open economies due to
117 their small GDPs (Squalli and Wilson, 2011). The diverse findings and lack of empirical agreement
118 about the trade-environment nexus are also attributed to the differences in methodological approaches
119 and problems associated with model misspecifications.

120 Against this background, this paper contributes to the empirical literature on the trade-environment
121 link in four ways: (i) It adopts an innovative measure of trade openness proposed by Squalli and
122 Wilson (2011) capturing trade share in GDP as well as size of trade relative to the global trade.
123 Therefore, employing the Squalli and Wilson proxy of trade openness in this study remarkably
124 differentiates our paper from others, which predominantly used TI-based measure of trade openness.
125 (ii) Previous studies, which examined the trade-environment nexus have widely used the simple
126 ARDL approach proposed by Pesaran et al. (2001) and other cointegration frameworks that can only

127 estimate and explore the long- and short-run relationships between the variables. However, this study
128 uses the novel dynamic ARDL simulations model proposed by Jordan and Philips (2018), which
129 overcomes the limitations of the simple ARDL approach. The novel dynamic ARDL simulations
130 model can effectively and efficiently resolve the prevailing difficulties and result interpretations
131 associated with the simple ARDL approach. This newly developed framework is capable of
132 stimulating and plotting to predict graphs of (positive and negative) changes in the variables
133 automatically and also estimate their relationships for long run and short run. (iii) It uses the
134 frequency domain causality (FDC) approach, the robust testing strategy suggested by Breitung &
135 Candelon (2006) which permits us to capture permanent causality for medium term, short term and
136 long term among the variables under review. This test is also used for robustness check in this study.
137 To the best of our knowledge, previous studies have not used this test in the trade-environment nexus
138 especially in the context of South Africa. (iv) Lastly, it employs the second-generation econometric
139 procedures accounting robustly for the multiple structural breaks which have been considerably
140 ignored in earlier studies. In light of this, the paper uses the Narayan and Popp's structural break unit
141 root test since empirical evidence shows that structural breaks are very persistent in empirical
142 literature and many macroeconomic variables like CO₂ emissions and trade openness are affected by
143 structural breaks.

144 The remainder of the paper is organised as follows. Section 2 reviews the relevant literature on trade-
145 environment nexus. Section 3 outlines the material and methods, while section 4 discusses the results.
146 Section 5 concludes with policy implications.

147 **2. Literature review**

148 The theoretical underpinning on the environmental effect of trade openness was earlier developed by
149 Copeland & Taylor (1994) and Grossman & Krueger (1993, 1995). Antweiler et al. (2001) later
150 amplified that. Grether & De Melo (2003) contend that international trade indirectly brings about
151 environmental decay because it boosts economic growth and directly causes environmental
152 degradation in less developed countries since it facilitates the inflow of trade activities from
153 industrialised nations. Given this, Dinda (2006) highlights that the pollution-intensive industries in
154 developed countries facing higher environmental standards have continuously migrated to
155 developing countries. This migration consequently has resulted to increasing the pollution levels;
156 thereby making less developed countries dirtier. This suggests that trade openness leads to worsening
157 environmental quality. This notion is referred to as pollution haven hypothesis (PHH) and has been
158 extensively investigated by previous studies

159 Theoretical study by Antweiler et al. (2001) is instrumental for highlighting the various factors
160 influencing carbon emissions and channels through which trade openness can affect the environment.
161 The study thus divides the environmental impacts into composition, technique and scale effects. The
162 structural composition of a country's industrial production determines the level of environmental
163 degradation. Composition effect therefore reflects the environmental effect of this structural
164 composition. A country with more carbon-intensive production structure will always generate more
165 environmental pollution compared to its counterpart whose production structure is less carbon-
166 intensive. So, the nature of a country's industrial composition and structural arrangement determine
167 the level of that country's environmental quality. Regarding the scale effect, this is an effect on
168 emissions brought about by a rise in income. As income increases, it deteriorates environmental
169 quality because of intensive production. The technique effect, on the other side, arises due to the
170 enforcement of environmental laws, which force private sector to comply with the adoption of
171 greener, cleaner and updated production processes improving environmental quality. The technique
172 effect results in a better environmental quality because of people's predisposition for a clean
173 environment as well as the enforcement of more stringent environmental standards as income
174 increases (Kebede, 2017). In summary, Antweiler et al. (2001) stress that the overall composition
175 effect will be determined by the magnitude of a country's openness to international trade, the resource
176 abundance, comparative advantage and the enforcement of environmental standards. Developed
177 countries with high environmental standards usually produce less carbon-intensive goods; however,
178 their less developed counterparts with feeble and compromised environmental laws always specialise
179 in production of more pollution-intensive products.

180 Turning to empirical literature, a good number of works have investigated the relationship between
181 trade and the environmental quality. However, the findings of these studies are mostly contradictory
182 and unsettled across various methodological frameworks and countries scrutinised. While some
183 works concluded that trade openness brings about improvement in environmental quality through
184 various channels (Aichele & Felbermayr, 2013; Zerbo, 2015; Kwakwa, Alhassan & Adu, 2018; Li,
185 Xu & Yuan, 2015; Shahbaz, Tiwari & Nasir, 2013c; Wan, Nakada & Takarada, 2018; Dogan and
186 Seker, 2016; Ling, Ahmed, Muhamad & Shahbaz, 2015; Hasson & Masih, 2017; Jabeen, 2015;
187 Cherniwchan, 2017; Dogan and Turkekul, 2016; Destek, Balli & Manga, 2016; Zerbo, 2017; Roy,
188 2017), a few studies contended that trade openness results in worsening environmental condition
189 (Twerefou, Appiah-Konadu & Anaman, 2015; Jamel & Maktouf, 2017; Raza & Shah, 2018; Le,
190 Chang & Park, 2016; Balin, Akan & Altayligil, 2017; Lin, 2017; Solarin, Al-Mulali, Musah, &
191 Ozturk, 2017; Shahbaz, Nasreen, Ahmed & Hammoudeh, 2017; Fernández-Amador, Francois,

192 Oberdabernig & Tomberger, 2017; Kebede, 2017). On the contrary, another group of works found
193 robust evidence that trade openness has no impact on the environment (Gale and Mendez, 1998; Oh
194 and Bhuyan, 2018).

195 Empirical study by Kwakwa et al. (2018) examines the trade-environmental quality nexus in Ghana
196 adopting the STIRPAT methodology. Authors found that higher trade openness contributes to
197 improve Ghana's environment. Employing a two-country trade model, Wan et al. (2018)'s results
198 show that trade openness, when supported by an environmental regulation, leads to lower CO₂
199 emissions. Looking at the case of North American Free Trade Agreement (NAFTA), Cherniwchan
200 (2017) uses two major indicators of environmental quality to explore the environmental effect of
201 NAFTA. The author shows that trade openness significantly reduces these indicators at the affected
202 firm levels. Likewise, Roy (2017) argues that intra-industry trade as well as the overall trade intensity
203 are beneficial to the environment, although intra-industry trade appears to have more beneficial
204 effect. Zerbo (2017) likewise draws a similar conclusion in the case of 14 African nations that trade
205 openness contributes immensely to boost economic growth and improves environmental condition.
206 The author further argues that international trade enables the Sub-Saharan African countries to
207 mitigate any form of environmental decay through the import of greener technologies. Also, trade
208 incentive policy could be vigorously pursued to ensure that openness continues to improve the
209 environmental quality.

210 In addition, for Central and Eastern European Countries (CEECs) study, Destek et al. (2016)'s
211 findings show that a higher trade openness contributes to lower CO₂ emissions and openness is
212 environmentally friendly for CEECs under review. Similarly, Dogan and Turkekul (2016), while
213 confirming the presence of EKC hypothesis for the US, find that increased trade openness reduces
214 environmental pollution. Dogan & Seker (2016) explore the various factors that influence CO₂
215 emissions and in particular the effect of trade openness and find that trade openness and renewable
216 energy contribute to mitigate environmental decay.

217 In contrast, the empirical study by Raza and Shah (2018) reveals that trade openness worsens the
218 environmental condition in Pakistan. Equally, Solarin et al. (2017) find that openness to international
219 goods market has a damaging effect and contributes greatly to worsen Ghana's environmental
220 condition. The authors, while reiterating that institutional quality contributes to improve Ghana's
221 environment, confirmed the presence of PHH in Ghana. Also, the study by Balin et al. (2017),
222 employing the ARDL approach over the period 1974-2013 for Turkey, reveals that higher trade
223 openness causes rising environmental collapse. This evidence is further supported by the study of

224 Kebede (2017), which provides similar evidence using Ethiopian dataset over the period 1970-2014.
225 Furthermore, Jamel & Maktouf (2017) augment the framework suggested by Kebede (2017) to
226 examine the environmental effect of trade openness and their findings illustrate that trade openness
227 is harmful to the environment of European countries under review. Using three indicators of
228 environmental quality (i.e. Aerosol concentration, NO₂ and SO₂), Lin (2017) contends that trade
229 openness significantly contributes to increase these measures. The author's empirical findings further
230 reveal that these measures provide stable evidence showing that international trade is detrimental to
231 Chinese environmental quality. Shahbaz et al. (2017) show that trade openness leads to
232 environmental dilapidation of the low-income, middle-income and high-income groups. This is
233 further supported by the work of Le et al. (2016) that higher trade openness increases environmental
234 decay in middle- and low- income categories, whereas it has a moderate effect on high-income
235 category.

236 For South Africa's case, empirical evidence is also conflicting and largely mixed (Udeagha &
237 Ngepah, 2019; Menyah & Wolde-Rufael, 2010; Kohler, 2013; Shahbaz, Tiwari & Nasir, 2013c;
238 Zerbo, 2015; Zerbo, 2017; Khobai & Le Roux, 2017; Hasson & Masih, 2017; Mapapu and Phiri,
239 2018; Inglesi-Lotz, 2018). The recent study by Udeagha & Ngepah (2019) reveals that, in the long
240 run, openness to international goods markets contributes to deteriorate the environment of South
241 Africa, although there is strong evidence that trade openness can contribute to improve the country's
242 environment in the short run. The authors' findings further reveal evidence of strong asymmetric
243 behaviour between trade openness and CO₂ emissions. Similarly, Khobai and Le Roux (2017) find
244 that trade openness hinders South Africa's environmental condition. On the other hand, Hasson &
245 Masih (2017)'s findings show that international trade, through technological innovation promoting
246 expenditures on energy research and development, lessens the overall pollutions associated with CO₂
247 emissions in South Africa. Zerbo (2017, 2015) draws similar conclusion arguing that South Africa's
248 environment is supported by trade openness. Likewise, Shahbaz et al. (2013c) maintain that trade
249 openness and financial development are both found to enhance South Africa's environmental quality,
250 whereas increases in energy consumption and economic growth substantially contribute to worsen
251 South Africa's environmental condition. Also, Kohler (2013) utilises South African trade and energy
252 data to show that higher trade openness supports South Africa's environment. In contrast, empirical
253 evidence by Mapapu & Phiri (2018) and Inglesi-Lotz (2018) shows that openness has no effect on
254 South Africa's environmental quality.

255 Earlier works such as those mentioned above, which investigated the relationship between trade
256 openness and CO₂ emissions, have one thing in common. They all proxy trade openness by utilising

257 trade intensity (TI) and applying a simple ARDL methodology. The TI-based proxy, normally
258 described as the ratio of trade (sum of exports and imports) to GDP, only captures the trade of a
259 country in relation to its share of income (GDP), although it is not contrived.¹ While it is intuitively
260 sensible, the proxy does not help to resolve the ambiguity on how trade is measured and defined. Its
261 main shortcoming is that it reflects only one dimension focusing on the comparative position of trade
262 performance of a country linked to its domestic economy. In other words, this proxy only focuses on
263 the question of how enormous the income contribution of a country in international trade is.
264 Consequently, it woefully fails to address another crucial dimension of trade openness that is how
265 important the explicit level of trade of a country to global trade is. This suggests that the proxy is
266 unable to truly reflect the correct idea of trade openness and accurately capture the precise
267 environmental impact of trade. Also, the use of the proxy penalises bigger economies like Germany,
268 the US, France, China, Japan and so many others because they are being classified as closed
269 economies due to their larger GDPs, whereas the poor countries such as Zimbabwe, Zambia,
270 Venezuela, Uganda, Ghana, Nigeria, Togo and many others are grouped as open economies due to
271 their small GDPs (Squalli and Wilson, 2011). Given this, the proxy fails to reflect credibly the exact
272 idea of trade openness because it does not capture the advantages a country enjoys while engaging
273 enormously in global trade (Squalli and Wilson, 2011). In addition, the diverse findings and
274 conflicting evidence on the trade-CO₂ emissions relationship are blamed on different methodologies
275 and misspecification problems.

276 Against this background, this paper contributes to the empirical literature on the trade-environment
277 link in three ways: (i) It employs an innovative measure of trade openness proposed by Squalli and
278 Wilson (2011) capturing trade share in GDP as well as the size of trade relative to the global trade
279 for South Africa. Therefore, employing the Squalli and Wilson proxy of trade openness in this study
280 remarkably differentiates our paper from the previous studies, which predominantly used TI-based
281 measure of trade openness. (ii) Previous studies, which examined the trade-environment nexus have
282 widely used the simple ARDL approach proposed by Pesaran et al. (2001) and other cointegration
283 frameworks that can only estimate and explore the long- and short-run relationships between the
284 variables. However, this study uses the novel dynamic ARDL simulations model proposed by Jordan
285 and Philips (2018), which overcomes the limitations of the simple ARDL approach. The novel
286 dynamic ARDL simulations model can effectively and efficiently resolve the prevailing difficulties

¹ This proxy is in sharp contradiction with other measures of trade openness, which have been used by earlier works such as the arbitrary binary (1,0) measure suggested by Sachs and Warner (1995).

287 and result interpretations associated with the simple ARDL approach. This newly developed
288 framework is capable of stimulating and plotting to predict graphs of (positive and negative) changes
289 in the variables automatically and estimate their relationships for long run and short run. (iii) It uses
290 the frequency domain causality (FDC) approach, the robust testing strategy suggested by Breitung &
291 Candelon (2006) which permits us to capture the permanent causality for medium term, short term
292 and long term among the variables under review. This test is also used for robustness check in this
293 study. To the best of our knowledge, previous studies have not used this test in the trade-environment
294 nexus especially in the context of South Africa. (iv) Lastly, it employs the second-generation
295 econometric procedures accounting robustly for the multiple structural breaks which have been
296 considerably ignored in earlier studies. In light of this, the paper uses the Narayan and Popp's
297 structural break unit root test since empirical evidence shows that structural breaks are very persistent
298 in empirical literature and many macroeconomic variables like CO₂ emissions and trade openness are
299 affected by structural breaks.

300 **3. Material and methods**

301 This work revisits the trade-CO₂ emissions relationship for South Africa over the period 1960-2016
302 by using the novel dynamic ARDL simulations model capable of stimulating and plotting to predict
303 graphs of (positive and negative) changes in the variables automatically and estimate their
304 relationships for the long run and short run. The paper uses the second-generation econometric
305 procedures, which take into consideration the multiple structural breaks that have been largely
306 ignored by the previous studies. As a first step, before implementing the novel dynamic ARDL
307 simulations model, it is important to conduct a stationarity test on the variables to ascertain their order
308 of integration. In light of this, we employ four traditional unit root tests such as Dickey-Fuller GLS
309 (DF-GLS), Phillips-Perron (PP), Augmented Dickey-Fuller (ADF) and Kwiatkowski-Phillips-
310 Schmidt-Shin (KPSS) unit root tests to confirm the asymptotic behaviour and order of integration of
311 all variables under review. This process helps to resolve the issues of spurious regressions. In the
312 second step, the Narayan and Popp's structural break unit root test is used since empirical evidence
313 has shown that structural breaks are very persistent in empirical literature and many macroeconomic
314 variables like CO₂ emissions and trade openness are likely to be affected. In the third step, the
315 estimation of long- and short-run coefficients is done by using the novel dynamic ARDL simulations
316 model. The frequency domain causality (FDC) approach, the robust testing strategy suggested by
317 Breitung & Candelon (2006) is further used to capture permanent causality for medium term, short
318 term and long term among variables under review. This test is also used for robustness check in this
319 study.

3.1 Functional form

This work follows the robust empirical approach widely used in earlier studies by adopting the usual EKC hypothesis framework to revisit the trade-CO₂ emissions nexus for South Africa. The EKC hypothesis contends that economic growth contributes immensely to deteriorate the environmental quality because during the earlier societal developmental stage, more attention was paid to achieving higher income than realising minimum environmental decay. Consequently, higher economic growth, which inevitably contributed to worsen the environmental condition was pursued vigorously at the expense of lower carbon emissions.

This reason thus intuitively explains the rationale behind the positive relationship between the scale effect (proxy for economic growth) and the environmental quality. As the society progressed, especially during the advanced industrial stage, people became more environmentally conscious, and governments introduced environmental laws aimed at improving environmental quality. Thus, during this stage of development, people's predisposition for a clean environment as well as the enforcement of more stringent environmental standards resulted in better environmental condition as income increased. This reason therefore intuitively explains the rationale behind the negative relationship between the technique effect (square of economic growth) and the environmental quality. In its standard form, following Udeagha & Breitenbach (2021), Udeagha & Ngepah (2019), Cole and Elliott (2003) and Ling et al. (2015), the standard EKC hypothesis is thus presented as follows:

$$CO_2 = F(SE, TE) \quad (1)$$

where CO₂ represents CO₂ emissions per capita (in metric tons), an environmental quality measure; SE denotes scale effect, a proxy for economic growth; and TE represents technique effect, which captures the square of economic growth. When Equation (1) is log-linearized, the following is thus obtained:

$$\ln CO_{2t} = \alpha + \varphi \ln SE_t + \beta \ln TE_t + \varepsilon_t \quad (2)$$

Scale effect (economic growth) deteriorates environmental quality as income increases; however, technique effect improves environmental quality due to the enforcement of environmental laws and people's predisposition for a clean environment (Cole & Elliott, 2003; Ling et al., 2015). Given this background, for EKC hypothesis to be present, the theoretical expectations require that: $\varphi > 0$ and $\beta < 0$. Following literature, as control variables in the trade-CO₂ emissions equation, we use foreign direct investment, energy consumption, technological innovation and industrial value-added. Accounting for these variables as well as trade openness, Equation (2) is thus augmented as follows:

351 $\ln CO_{2t} = \alpha + \varphi \ln SE_t + \beta \ln TE_t + \rho \ln OPEN_t + \pi \ln EC_t + \delta \ln FDI_t + \tau \ln TECH_t + \omega \ln IGDP_t + U_t$ (3)

352 where $\ln OPEN_t$ represents trade openness; $\ln EC_t$ denotes energy consumption; $\ln FDI_t$ captures
 353 foreign direct investment; $\ln TECH_t$ is technological innovation and $\ln IGDP_t$ denotes industrial
 354 value-added. All variables are in natural log. $\varphi, \beta, \rho, \pi, \delta, \tau$ and ω are the estimable coefficients
 355 capturing different elasticities whereas U_t captures the stochastic error term with standard properties.

356 **3.2 Measuring trade openness**

357 Following Squalli and Wilson (2011), this work uses the composite trade intensity (CTI) as a measure
 358 of trade openness to robustly account for trade share in GDP and size of trade relative to global trade.
 359 Using this way to measure trade openness enables us to effectively address the shortcomings of
 360 conventional trade intensity (TI) widely used in earlier studies. More importantly, the novel CTI
 361 contains more crucial information pertaining to a country's trade contribution share in terms of global
 362 economy, which intuitively captures TI adjusted by the share of level of trade in relation to global
 363 trade. The novelty of CTI in this work is that it mirrors trade outcome reality because it contains two
 364 dimensions of a country's ties with the rest of the world. The CTI is presented thus as follows:

365
$$CTI = \frac{(X + M)_i}{\frac{1}{n} \sum_{j=1}^n (X + M)_j} \frac{(X + M)_i}{GDP_i}$$
 (4)

366 where: i reflects South Africa; j captures her trading partners. In Equation (4), the first portion
 367 represents global trade share, whereas the second segment denotes trade share of South Africa.

368 **3.3 Variables and data sources**

369 This paper uses yearly times series data covering the period 1960-2016. CO₂ emissions, as the proxy
 370 for environmental quality is the dependent variable. Economic growth proxied by scale effect and the
 371 square of economic growth capturing the technique effect are used to validate the presence of EKC
 372 hypothesis. Trade openness is proxied by a composite trade intensity calculated as above. The other
 373 variables controlled for, following literature, are as follows: energy consumption (EC), foreign direct
 374 investment (FDI), technological innovation (TECH) and industrial value-added to GDP (IGDP).
 375 Table 1 therefore summarises the variable definition and data sources.

376 ***[Insert Table 1 here]***

377

378

3.4 Narayan and Popp's structural break unit root test

As a first step, before implementing the novel dynamic ARDL simulations model, it is important to conduct a stationarity test on the variables under review to ascertain their order of integration. Thus, this work employs Dickey-Fuller GLS (DF-GLS), Phillips-Perron (PP), Augmented Dickey-Fuller (ADF) and Kwiatkowski-Phillips-Schmidt-Shin (KPSS) unit root tests to confirm the asymptotic behaviour and order of integration of all variables under review. This process helps to resolve the issues of spurious regressions. In the second step, the Narayan and Popp's structural break unit root test is used since empirical evidence shows that structural breaks are very persistent in empirical literature and many macroeconomic variables like CO₂ emissions and trade openness are likely to be affected.

3.5 ARDL bounds testing approach

This paper employs the bounds test to examine the nexus among the variables under review for long run. The ARDL bounds testing approach, following Pesaran et al. (2001), is presented as follows:

$$\begin{aligned} \Delta \ln CO_{2t} = & \gamma_0 + \sum_{i=1}^n \gamma_{1i} \Delta \ln CO_{2t-i} + \sum_{i=0}^n \gamma_{2i} \Delta \ln SE_{t-i} + \sum_{i=0}^n \gamma_{3i} \Delta \ln TE_{t-i} + \\ & \sum_{i=0}^n \gamma_{4i} \Delta \ln OPEN_{t-i} + \sum_{i=0}^n \gamma_{5i} \Delta \ln EC_{t-i} + \sum_{i=0}^n \gamma_{6i} \Delta \ln FDI_{t-i} + \sum_{i=0}^n \gamma_{7i} \Delta \ln TECH_{t-i} + \\ & \sum_{i=0}^n \gamma_{8i} \Delta \ln IGDP_{t-i} + \theta_1 \ln CO_{2t-i} + \theta_2 \ln SE_{t-i} + \theta_3 \ln TE_{t-i} + \theta_4 \ln OPEN_{t-i} + \theta_5 \ln EC_{t-i} + \\ & \theta_6 \ln FDI_{t-i} + \theta_7 \ln TECH_{t-i} + \theta_8 \ln IGDP_{t-i} + \varepsilon_t \end{aligned} \quad (5)$$

where Δ represents the first difference, $\ln CO_2$, $\ln SE$, $\ln TE$, $\ln OPEN$, $\ln EC$, $\ln FDI$, $\ln TECH$ and $\ln IGDP$ respectively. Meanwhile, $t-i$ denotes the optimal lags selected by Schwarz's Bayesian Information Criterion (SBIC), γ and θ are the estimated coefficients for short run and long run, respectively. The ARDL model for the long- and short-run will be approximated if variables are cointegrated. The null hypothesis, which tests for long-run relationship is as follows: ($H_0: \theta_1 = \theta_2 = \theta_3 = \theta_4 = \theta_5 = \theta_6 = \theta_7 = \theta_8 = 0$) against the alternative hypothesis ($H_1: \theta_1 \neq \theta_2 \neq \theta_3 \neq \theta_4 \neq \theta_5 \neq \theta_6 \neq \theta_7 \neq \theta_8 \neq 0$).

Rejection or acceptance of null hypothesis depends on the value of the calculated F-statistic. If the value of calculated F-statistic is greater than the upper bound, we reject the null hypothesis and conclude that the variables are having a long-run relationship or there is evidence of cointegration. However, cointegration does not exist if the value of calculated F-statistic is less than the lower bound. In addition, if the value of the calculated F-statistic lies between lower and upper bounds, the

411 bounds test becomes inconclusive. If the variables are having a long-run relationship, then the long-
 412 run ARDL model to be estimated is as follows:

$$\begin{aligned}
 413 \quad \Delta \ln CO_{2t} = & \beta_0 + \sum_{i=1}^q \omega_1 \ln CO_{2t-i} + \sum_{i=1}^q \omega_2 \ln SE_{t-i} + \sum_{i=1}^q \omega_3 \ln TE_{t-1} + \sum_{i=1}^q \omega_4 \ln OPEN_{t-i} \\
 414 & + \sum_{i=1}^q \omega_5 \ln EC_{t-1} + \sum_{i=1}^q \omega_6 \ln FDI_{t-1} + \sum_{i=1}^q \omega_7 \ln TECH_{t-1} + \sum_{i=1}^q \omega_8 \ln TECH_{t-1} \\
 415 & + \varepsilon_t \tag{6}
 \end{aligned}$$

416 ω denotes the long-run variance of variables in Equation (6). In choosing the correct lags, the paper
 417 uses the SBIC. For short-run ARDL model, the error correction model used is as follows:

$$\begin{aligned}
 419 \quad \Delta \ln CO_{2t} = & \beta_0 + \sum_{i=1}^q \pi_1 \Delta \ln CO_{2t-i} + \sum_{i=1}^q \pi_2 \Delta \ln SE_{t-i} + \sum_{i=1}^q \pi_3 \Delta \ln TE_{t-1} + \sum_{i=1}^q \pi_4 \Delta \ln OPEN_{t-i} \\
 420 & + \sum_{i=1}^q \pi_5 \Delta \ln EC_{t-1} + \sum_{i=1}^q \pi_6 \Delta \ln FDI_{t-1} + \sum_{i=1}^q \pi_7 \Delta \ln TECH_{t-1} + \sum_{i=1}^q \pi_8 \Delta \ln TECH_{t-1} \\
 421 & + ECT_{t-i} + \varepsilon_t \tag{7}
 \end{aligned}$$

422 In Equation (7), π reflects the short-run variability of the variables, whereas ECT denotes the error
 423 correction term that captures the adjustment speed of disequilibrium. The estimated coefficient for
 424 ECT ranges from -1 to 0. This work further uses the diagnostic tests for model stability. The Breusch
 425 Godfrey LM test is used to check for serial corrections; the Breusch-Pagan-Godfrey test and the
 426 ARCH test are both employed to test for heteroscedasticity; the Ramsey RESET test is used to ensure
 427 that the model is correctly specified, and the Jarque-Bera Test is used to test whether the estimated
 428 residuals are normally distributed. To check for structural stability, this paper employs the cumulative
 429 sum of recursive residuals (CUSUM) and cumulative sum of squares of recursive residuals
 430 (CUSUMSQ).

431

432 **3.6 Dynamic autoregressive distributed lag simulations**

433 Previous studies, which investigated the trade-CO₂ emissions nexus have widely used the simple
 434 ARDL approach proposed by Pesaran et al. (2001) and other cointegration frameworks that can only
 435 estimate and explore the short- and long-run relationships between the variables. To address the
 436 shortcomings which characterise the simple ARDL model, Jordan and Philips (2018) recently
 437 developed a novel dynamic ARDL simulations model that can effectively and efficiently resolve the
 438 prevailing difficulties and result interpretations associated with the simple ARDL approach. This
 439 newly developed framework is capable of stimulating and plotting to predict graphs of (positive and

440 negative) changes in the variables automatically and estimate the relationships for short run and long
 441 run. The major advantage of this framework is that it can predict, stimulate and immediately plot
 442 probabilistic change forecasts on the dependent variable in one explanatory variable while holding
 443 other regressors constant. In this study, based on the multivariate normal distribution for the
 444 parameter vector, the dynamic ARDL error correction algorithm uses 1000 simulations. We employ
 445 the graphs to examine the actual change of an explanatory variable as well as its influence on the
 446 dependent variable. The novel dynamic ARDL simulations model is presented as follows:

$$\begin{aligned}
 447 \quad \Delta \ln CO_{2t} = & \alpha_0 + v_0 \ln CO_{2t-1} + \varphi_1 \Delta SE_t + \rho_1 SE_{t-1} + \varphi_2 \Delta TE_t + \rho_2 TE_{t-1} + \varphi_3 \Delta OPEN_t + \\
 448 \quad & \rho_3 OPEN_{t-1} + \varphi_4 \Delta EC_t + \rho_4 EC_{t-1} + \varphi_5 \Delta FDI_t + \rho_5 FDI_{t-1} + \varphi_6 \Delta TECH_t + \rho_6 TECH_{t-1} + \\
 449 \quad & \varphi_7 \Delta IGDP_t + \rho_7 IGDP_{t-1} + \varepsilon_t \tag{8}
 \end{aligned}$$

450 **3.7 Frequency domain causality test**

451 Lastly, this paper uses the frequency domain causality (FDC) approach, the robust testing strategy
 452 suggested by Breitung & Candelon (2006) to explore the causal relationships among the variables
 453 under scrutiny. Unlike the traditional Granger causality approach where it is extremely impossible to
 454 predict the response variable at a particular time frequency, FDC enables that and further permits to
 455 capture permanent causality for medium term, short term and long term among the variables under
 456 examination. This test is also used for robustness check in this study.

457 **4. Empirical results and their discussion**

458 **4.1 Summary statistics**

459 The summary statistics of the variables used in this work are analysed and scrutinized before
 460 discussing the results. Table 2 reports the overview of statistics showing that the CO₂ emissions
 461 average value is 0.264. The technique effect (TE), the square of GDP per capita has the average mean
 462 of 60.316 greater than other variables. This is followed by foreign direct investment (FDI) which has
 463 13.203. In addition to characterising the summary statistics, Table 2 uses kurtosis to represent the
 464 peak while the Jarque–Bera test statistics is used to check for normality of our data series. The table
 465 shows that the scale effect, trade openness, energy consumption, foreign direct investment, industrial
 466 value-added and technological innovation show a positive trend, while technique effect has a negative
 467 trend. The variance in technique effect (TE) is the highest of all the variables showing the high level
 468 of volatility in this variable. The variance in CO₂ emissions is less relative to technique effect showing
 469 that CO₂ emissions are far more stable. Also, the variations in trade openness (OPEN), scale effect

470 (SE) and technological innovation (TECH) are quite greater. In addition, the Jarque-Bera statistics
471 shows that our data series are normally distributed.

472 ***[Insert Table 2 here]***

473

474 **4.2 Order of integration of the respective variables**

475 Table 3 reports the results of DF-GLS, PP, ADF and KPSS showing that after first differencing all
476 variables which are non-stationary in level become stationary at $I(1)$. This implies that all the series
477 under review are either $I(1)$ or $I(0)$ and none is $I(2)$. The traditional unit root tests reported above do
478 not account for structural breaks. Therefore, this work implements a testing strategy which is able to
479 account for two structural breaks in the variables. The paper hence uses the Narayan and Popp's unit
480 root test with two structural breaks and the results are also reported in the right-hand panel of Table
481 3. The empirical evidence shows that the null hypothesis of unit root cannot be rejected.
482 Consequently, all data series are integrated of order one and prospective application for the dynamic
483 ARDL bounds testing approach.

484 ***[Insert Table 3 here]***

485 **4.3 Lag length selection results**

486 Table 4 reports the findings of different test criteria for lags selection. The use of HQ, AIC and SIC
487 is documented in empirical literature as the most popular for selecting appropriate lags. In this study,
488 SIC is used for lag selection. Based on this tool, lag one is suitable for our model. This is because the
489 lowest value is obtained at lag one when SIC is used unlike others.

490 ***[Insert Table 4 here]***

491

492 **4.4 Cointegration test results**

493 Table 5 displays the results of the cointegration test utilizing the surface-response regression
494 suggested by Kripfganz & Schneider (2018). Since the F- and t-statistics are greater than the upper
495 bound critical values at various significance levels, we reject the null hypothesis. Thus, our empirical
496 evidence suggests that cointegration exists among the variables under consideration.

497 ***[Insert Table 5 here]***

498 **4.5 Diagnostic statistics tests**

499 To ensure that our chosen model is reliable and consistent, the study therefore uses different
500 diagnostic statistics tests and their empirical results are reported in Table 6. The empirical results
501 suggest that the used model is well fitted having passed all the diagnostic tests. The model does not
502 suffer from the problems of serial correlation and autocorrelation as confirmed by the Breusch
503 Godfrey LM test. The Ramsey RESET test is used and evidence shows that the model does not suffer
504 from misspecification. The Breusch-Pagan-Godfrey test and ARCH test are both employed to test if
505 there is evidence of heteroscedasticity in the model. The empirical findings suggest that
506 heteroscedasticity is moderate and not a problem. Finally, the Jarque-Bera test result shows that the
507 model's residuals are normally distributed.

508 *[Insert Table 6 here]*

509 **4.6 Dynamic ARDL simulations model results**

510 The dynamic ARDL simulations model results are reported in Table 7. Our findings show that the
511 scale effect (InSE) and technique effect (InTE) positively and negatively affect CO₂ emissions,
512 respectively. The scale effect representing economic growth deteriorates environmental quality,
513 whereas the technique effect has a mitigating effect on the environment. The empirical evidence
514 therefore suggests that the EKC hypothesis holds in the case of South Africa. This empirical finding
515 is supported by Lau et al. (2014); Shahbaz et al.(2012b); Saboori et al.(2012);Nasir & Rehman
516 (2011); Shahbaz et al. (2015); Sadat and Alom (2016); Ling et al. (2015); Copeland and Taylor
517 (1994); Fodha and Zaghoud (2010); Jayanthakumaran et al. (2012) and Shahbaz et al. (2013c).

518 *[Insert Table 7 here]*

519 The estimated coefficient for long run on trade openness (InOPEN) is found to be statistically
520 significant and positive suggesting that an upsurge in trade openness by 1% increases CO₂ emissions
521 by 0.188% ceteris paribus. Our result is supported by Baek et al. (2009), who suggest that trade is
522 injurious and has extensively contributed to worsen the environmental conditions of developing
523 countries. Our empirical evidence suggests that South Africa's environmental quality is not supported
524 by openness to international goods market in the long run. This is unlike the short-run results which
525 show that trade openness can contribute immensely to improve the country's environmental quality.
526 The detrimental effect of openness on the environmental condition of South Africa in the long run
527 undeniably reiterates the concern against trade liberalisation. Meanwhile, the type of products

528 forming the bulk of country's exports is part of the possible reason that could explain why trade
529 openness impedes the environment. For instance, since the country has a comparative advantage in
530 export and production of natural resource-intensive goods such forest products, antimony, tin, copper,
531 manganese minerals, phosphates, vanadium, rare earth elements, natural gas, nickel, iron ore, nickel,
532 coal, Chromium, diamond, platinum and gold, a rise in demand of these products will certainly lead
533 to worsening South Africa's environmental condition. This is because, harvesting them continuously
534 deteriorates the environment. The empirical results are supported by Omri et al. (2014); Feridun et
535 al. (2006); Le et al. (2016); Solarin et al. (2017); Shahbaz et al. (2013a, c, 2014a, b).

536 For energy consumption (InEC), the estimated coefficients for short run and long run are statistically
537 significant and positive suggesting that energy consumption considerably contributes to increase CO₂
538 emissions in South Africa. Energy use is crucial to support production and enhance economic
539 development. Due to its substantial reliance in the country to produce goods, an increase in energy
540 consumption increases CO₂ emissions. Our empirical evidence is supported by Ling et (2015) and
541 Saboori & Sulaiman (2013) who observed similarly using Malaysian data. The short-run estimated
542 coefficient on foreign direct investment (InFDI) is statistically significant and positive. However, the
543 estimated value for long run, although positive, is not significant. Our results therefore suggest that
544 a rise in foreign direct investment leads to worsening environmental decay in South Africa. Abdouli
545 & Hammami (2017) draw a similar conclusion in the case of MENA countries that FDI has
546 contributed enormously to increase CO₂ emissions and there is evidence of pollution haven
547 hypothesis. Likewise, Omri et al. (2014) in the case of 54 countries concluded that the flow of foreign
548 direct investment has exacerbated the level of pollutions in the affected countries.

549 The estimated coefficient on technological innovation is statistically significant and negative in the
550 long run, suggesting that, by supporting efficient energy utilization and creating renewable energy
551 sources at cheaper costs, technological innovation leads to minimum emissions in South Africa. Our
552 finding is supported by previous studies such as Ahmed et al.(2016); Sohag et al.(2015); Yii and
553 Greetha (2017); Chen and Lei (2018). The long-run estimated coefficient on industrial value-added
554 (InIGDP) is found to be positive and statistically significant suggesting that industrial sector growth
555 significantly contributes to deteriorate South Africa's environment in the long run. Our findings are
556 supported by the results of Al Mamun et al. (2014) and Sohag et al. (2017). The error correction term
557 (ECT) captures the speed of adjustment. The estimated coefficient is negative and statistically
558 significant confirming that a steady long-run relationship exists among the variables under review.
559 The ECT estimated value of -0.824 suggests that, in the long run, 82% of disequilibrium is corrected.

560 R-squared value shows that 78% variations in CO₂ emissions are brought about by the explanatory
561 variables used in this work. The estimated *p* value of F-statistics suggests that the model is a good fit

562 While keeping other explanatory variables constant, the dynamic ARDL simulations automatically
563 plot the forecasts of actual regressor change and its impact on the dependent variable. The effect of
564 explanatory variables, that is, scale effect, technique effect, trade openness, energy consumption,
565 foreign direct investment, technological innovation and industrial value-added, on CO₂ emissions is
566 forecasted to increase and decrease by 10% in South Africa.

567 ***[Insert Figure 1 here]***

568 Figure 1 shows the impulse response plot of relationship between scale effect (economic growth) and
569 CO₂ emissions. The plot captures the transition of scale effect and its impact on CO₂ emissions. A
570 10% increase in scale effect denotes a positive effect of economic growth on CO₂ emissions in the
571 short run and long run; however, a 10% decrease in scale effect implies a negative influence of
572 economic growth on CO₂ emissions, but the impact of 10% increase is higher than 10% decrease in
573 scale effect. This implies that an increase in scale effect (economic growth) contributes to deteriorate
574 the environmental quality, whereas a decrease in scale effect improves the environmental condition
575 in both the short run and long run in South Africa.

576 ***[Insert Figure 2 here]***

577 Figure 2 illustrates the impulse response plot of technique effect and CO₂ emissions in South Africa.
578 The technique effect graph demonstrates that a 10% increase is closely associated with a negative
579 influence on CO₂ emissions in the long run and short run. However, a 10% decrease has a positive
580 effect on CO₂ emissions in the long run and short run. This suggests that an increase in technique
581 effect (square of economic growth) improves the environmental quality, but a decrease in technique
582 effect deteriorates the environmental condition in both the short and long run in South Africa.

583 ***[Insert Figure 3 here]***

584 Figure 3 displays the impulse response plot connecting the relationship between trade openness and
585 CO₂ emissions. The plot shows that a 10% increase in trade openness positively influences CO₂
586 emissions in the long, but negatively affects it in the short run. In contrast, a 10% decrease in trade
587 openness has a negative influence on CO₂ emissions in the long, but positive effect in the short run.
588 This suggests that an increase in trade openness improves South Africa's environmental quality in

589 the short run, but deteriorates it in the long run. However, a decrease in trade openness has a beneficial
590 impact on South Africa's environment in the long, but deteriorates it in the short run.

591 ***[Insert Figure 4 here]***

592 Figure 4 shows the impulse response plot of relationship between energy consumption and CO₂
593 emissions. The plot capturing the energy consumption impact on CO₂ emissions shows that a 10%
594 increase in energy consumption has a positive impact on CO₂ emissions in the short run and long run;
595 however, a 10% decrease in energy consumption has a negative influence on CO₂ emissions. This
596 implies that an increase in energy consumption contributes to deteriorate the environmental quality,
597 whereas a decrease in energy consumption improves the environmental condition in both the short
598 run and long run in South Africa.

599 ***[Insert Figure 5 here]***

600 Figure 5 illustrates the impulse response plot of foreign direct investment and CO₂ emissions in South
601 Africa. The foreign direct investment graph demonstrates that a 10% increase in foreign direct
602 investment is closely associated with a positive influence on CO₂ emissions in the long run and short
603 run. However, a 10% decrease has a negative effect on CO₂ emissions in the long run and short run.
604 This suggests that an increase in foreign direct investment deteriorates the environmental quality in
605 both the short and long run in South Africa.

606 ***[Insert Figure 6 here]***

607 In Figure 6, the impulse response plot between technological innovation and CO₂ emissions in South
608 Africa is presented. The graph reveals that a 10% increase in technological innovation has a negative
609 influence on CO₂ emissions in the long run and short run. However, a 10% decrease in technological
610 innovation brings about a positive effect on CO₂ emissions in the long run and short run. This suggests
611 that an increase in technological innovation improves South Africa's environmental quality, whereas
612 a decrease in technological innovation deteriorates the environmental condition in both the short and
613 long run in South Africa.

614 ***[Insert Figure 7 here]***

615 Figure 7 presents the impulse response plot of relationship between industrial value-added and CO₂
616 emissions. The plot shows that a 10% increase in industrial value-added has a positive impact on CO₂
617 emissions in the short run and long run; however, a 10% decrease in industrial value-added has a

618 negative influence on CO₂ emissions. This suggests that an increase in industrial value-added
619 contributes to deteriorate the environmental quality, whereas a decrease in industrial value-added
620 improves the environmental condition in both the short run and long run in South Africa.

621 *[Insert Table 8 here]*

622 This work also uses the frequency domain causality test proposed by Breitung & Candelon (2006) to
623 explore the causality between InSE, InTE, InOPEN, InEC, InFDI, InTECH, InIGDP and InCO₂ in
624 South Africa. Table 8 shows that InSE, InTE, InOPEN, InEC, InFDI, InTECH and InIGDP Granger-
625 cause InCO₂ in the short, medium, and long run for frequencies $\omega_i = 0.05, \omega_i = 1.50, \omega_i = 2.50$.

626 This implies that InSE, InTE, InOPEN, InEC, InFDI, InTECH and InIGDP significantly affect CO₂
627 emissions in short, medium and long term in South Africa. Our empirical evidence is compatible with
628 the findings of Udeagha & Ngepah (2019); Al Mamun et al. (2014) and Sohag et al. (2017).

629 *[Insert Figure 8 here]*

630 *[Insert Figure 9 here]*

631 This study further applies the structural stability evaluation of the model to validate its robustness.
632 To this end, the cumulative sum of recursive residuals (CUSUM), and cumulative sum of squares of
633 recursive residual (CUSUMSQ) proposed by Pesaran and Pesaran (1997) are used. Figures 8 and 9
634 present a visual representation of CUSUM and CUSUMSQ. Conventionally, there is a stability of
635 model parameters over time if plots are within a critical bound level of 5%. Based on the model trend
636 shown in Figures 8 and 9, since CUSUM and CUSUMSQ are within the boundaries at a 5% level,
637 we can conclude that the model parameters are stable over time.

638 **5. Conclusions and Policy Implications**

639 This study revisited the dynamic relationship between trade and CO₂ emissions in South Africa over
640 the period 1960-2016 by using the recently developed novel dynamic ARDL simulations model
641 proposed by Jordan and Philips (2018) that can estimate, stimulate and plot to predict graphs of
642 (positive and negative) changes in the variables automatically as well as their short-and long-run
643 relationships. Using this approach permits us to identify the positive and negative relationships
644 between InSE, InTE, InOPEN, InEC, InFDI, InTECH, InIGDP and InCO₂ in South Africa, thereby
645 overcoming the limitations of the simple ARDL approach in earlier studies. For robustness check,
646 we used the frequency domain causality (FDC) approach, the robust testing strategy suggested by
647 Breitung & Candelon (2006) which permits us to capture permanent causality for medium term, short

648 term and long term among variables under consideration. This paper further contributed to empirical
649 literature by employing an innovative measure of trade openness proposed by Squalli and Wilson
650 (2011) capturing trade share in GDP and the size of trade relative to the global trade for South Africa.
651 We used the Dickey-Fuller GLS (DF-GLS), Phillips-Perron (PP), Augmented Dickey-Fuller (ADF)
652 and Kwiatkowski-Phillips-Schmidt-Shin (KPSS) unit root tests to confirm the asymptotic behaviour
653 and order of integration of all variables under review. This process helps to resolve the issues of
654 spurious regressions. Further, the Narayan and Popp's structural break unit root test was used since
655 empirical evidence shows that structural breaks are very persistent in empirical literature and many
656 macroeconomic variables like CO₂ emissions and trade openness are likely to be affected.
657 Consequently, empirical evidence from all the tests validated that the data series were integrated into
658 order one, that is, $I(1)$, and there is no evidence of any $I(2)$. SBIC was utilised to identify the optimal
659 lag length. For South Africa, our empirical results revealed that the scale effect contributes to
660 deteriorate the environmental condition, whereas the technique effect is environmentally friendly.
661 This evidence therefore confirms the presence of EKC hypothesis for South Africa. Foreign direct
662 investment, industry value-added and Energy consumption deteriorate environmental quality;
663 however, technological innovation contributes to lower CO₂ emissions in South Africa. The FDC
664 results also revealed that InSE, InTE, InOPEN, InEC, InFDI, InTECH and InIGDP Granger-cause
665 InCO₂ in the medium term, long term and short term suggesting that these variables are important to
666 influence CO₂ emissions in South Africa.

667 In addition, regarding the relationship between trade openness and CO₂ emissions, our empirical
668 results showed that, in the long run, higher trade openness is highly injurious to the environment of
669 South Africa, although it is environmentally friendly in the short run. Our empirical evidence is in
670 line with the findings of Udeagha & Ngepah (2019) that, in the long run, trade openness contributes
671 to deteriorate the country's environmental quality, but beneficial in the short run. These findings were
672 further supported by Tayebi and Younespour (2012) that validated the presence of pollution haven
673 hypothesis in case of many developing countries. The comparative advantage of South Africa in
674 export and production of pollution-intensive products has enabled the migration of industries from
675 developed countries to the country, thereby making the country the "havens" for the highly intensive-
676 pollution industries of the world. Such a migration has considerably led to a shift in the pollution
677 problems of these developed countries to South Africa and this has contributed significantly to
678 worsen the current environmental deterioration. Added to this is the country's inefficient
679 environmental laws and weak institutions due to corruption. Consequently, South Africa becomes
680 dirtier as she continues to specialise in the production of dirty products, which highly contribute to

681 deteriorate her environmental quality. Inevitably, trade openness has enabled to make South Africa
682 to become an extremely polluted factory of the world.

683 In light of our empirical evidence, the following policy considerations are suggested: (i) South
684 Africa's government and policymakers should take prompt initiatives to mandate foreign investors
685 to use cleaner, greener and updated technologies, which can promote efficiency in the production
686 processes and curtail CO₂ emissions in South Africa; (ii) International teamwork to improve
687 environmental quality is immensely critical to solve the growing trans-boundary environmental decay
688 and other associated spillover consequences. In light of this, the government should work together to
689 build robust global teamwork with other countries with the purpose of sharing technology; (iii) The
690 government should integrate all-inclusive environmental chapters into the country's trade agreement
691 policies to enable a transition into low-carbon economy and greener industries, thus encouraging
692 production of cleaner products; (iv) Lastly, trade policy reform could be supported by other
693 developmental policies to ensure long-lasting value for reductions of carbon emissions and
694 continuously enable the development of new technologies that can boost the country's environmental
695 quality and protect the global environment.

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697 **Consent to participate:** Not applicable

698 **Consent for publication:** Not applicable

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Figures

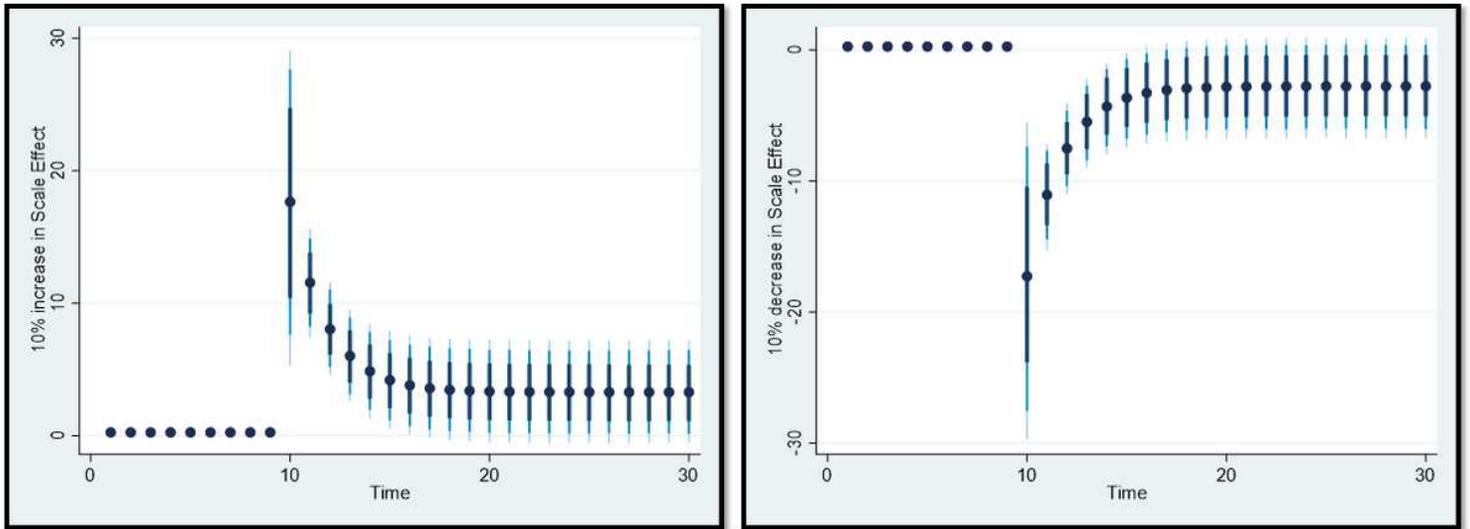


Figure 1

The Impulse Response Plot for Scale Effect (Economic Growth) and CO2 Emissions. Figure shows a 10% increase and a decrease in scale effect and its influence on CO2 emissions where dots specify average prediction value. However, the dark blue to light blue line denotes 75, 90, and 95% confidence interval, respectively.

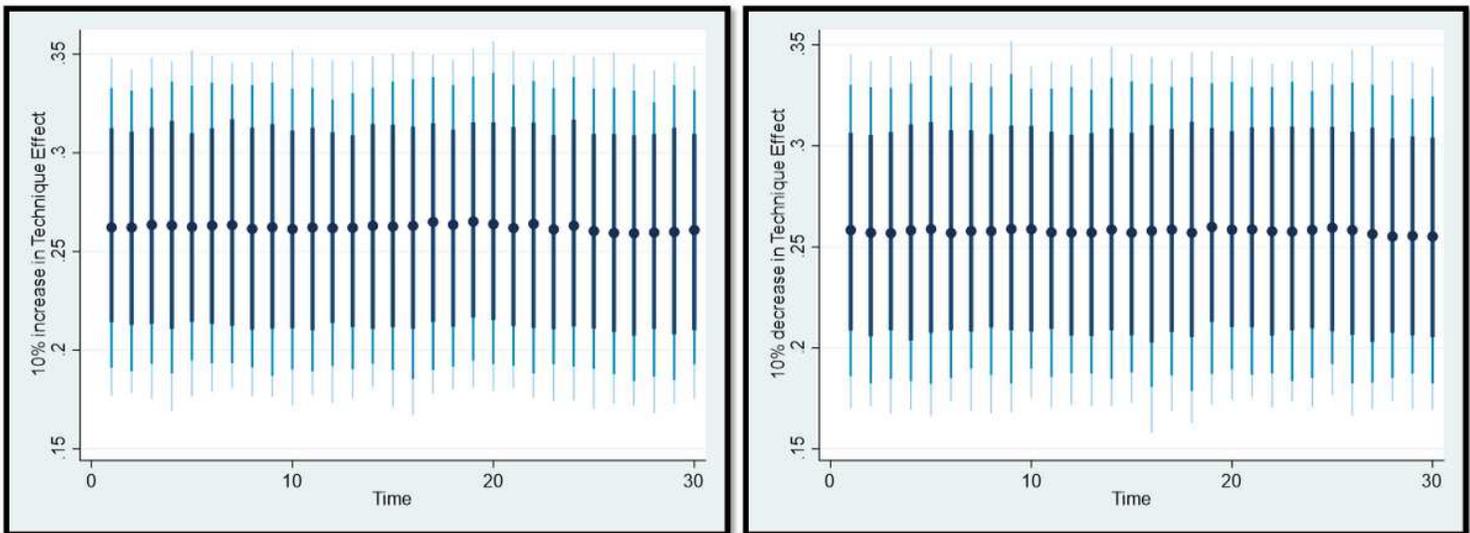


Figure 2

The Impulse Response Plot for Technique Effect and CO2 emissions. Figure shows a 10% increase and a decrease in technique effect and its influence on CO2 emissions where dots specify average prediction value. However, the dark blue to light blue line denotes 75, 90, and 95% confidence interval, respectively.

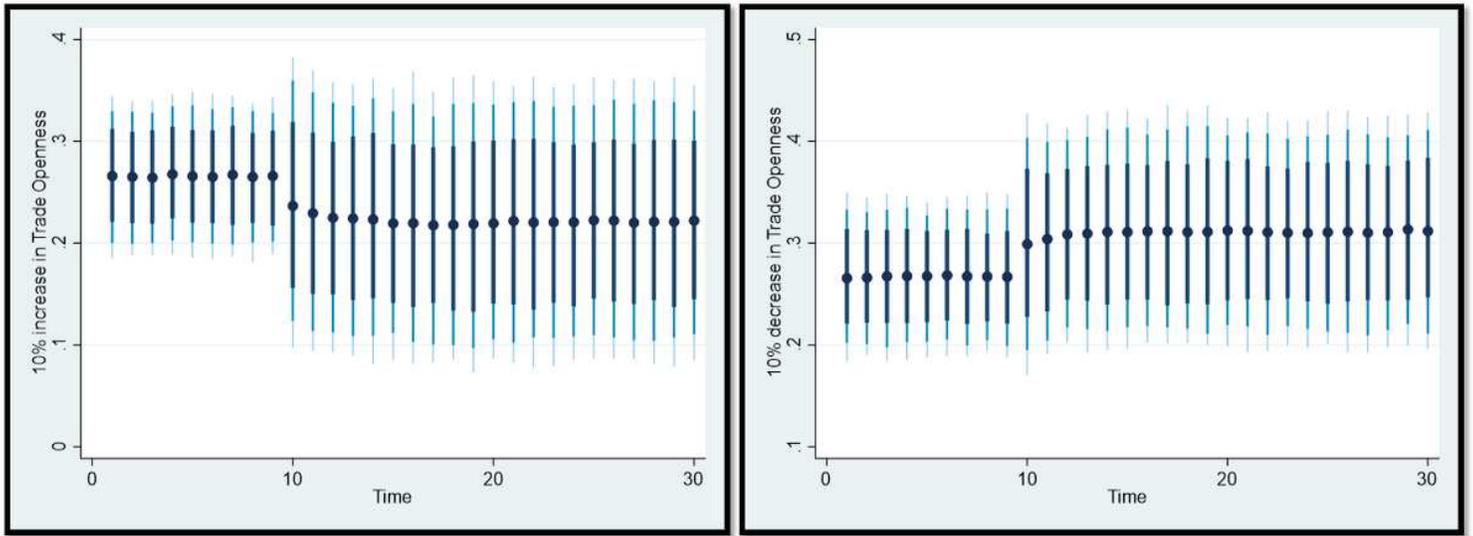


Figure 3

The Impulse Response Plot for Trade Openness and CO2 emissions. Figure shows a 10% increase and a decrease in trade openness and its influence on CO2 emissions where dots specify average prediction value. However, the dark blue to light blue line denotes 75, 90, and 95% confidence interval, respectively.

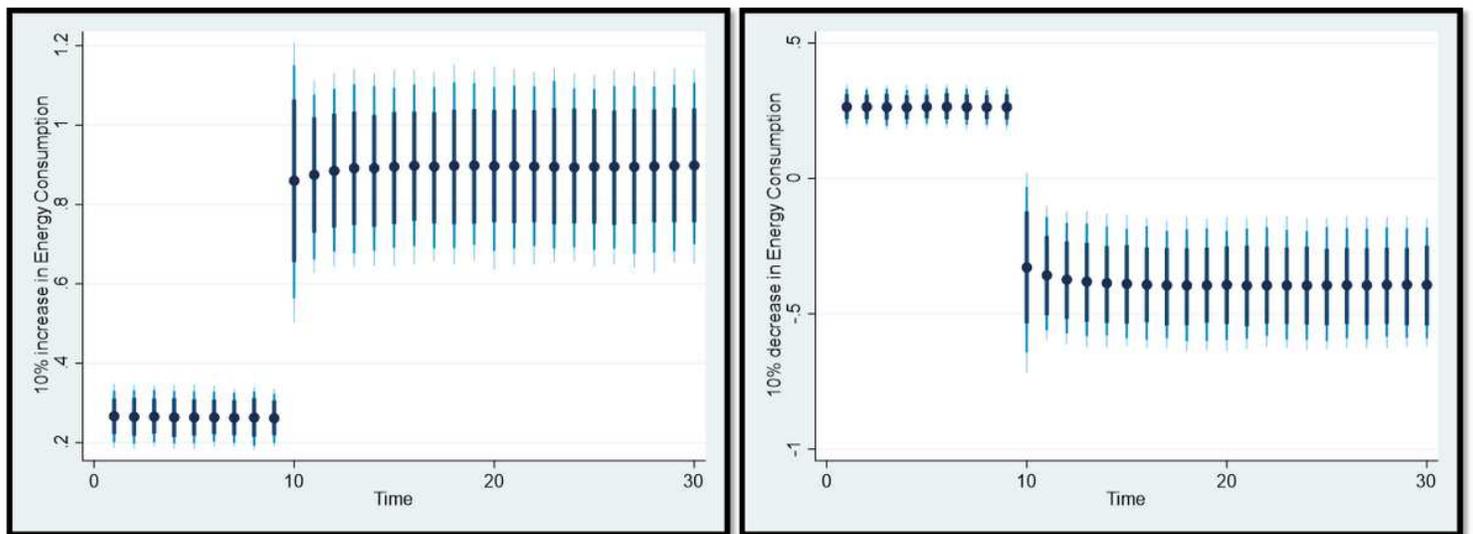


Figure 4

The Impulse Response Plot for Energy Consumption and CO2 emissions. Figure shows a 10% increase and a decrease in energy consumption and its influence on CO2 emissions where dots specify average prediction value. However, the dark blue to light blue line denotes 75, 90, and 95% confidence interval, respectively.

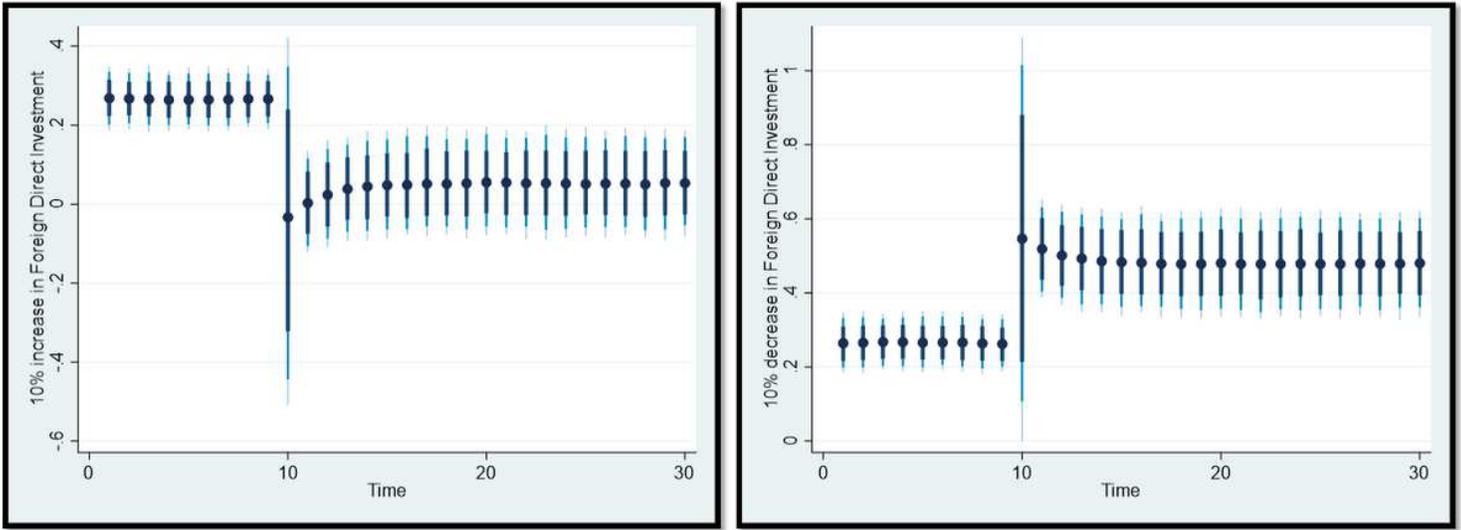


Figure 5

The Impulse Response Plot for Foreign Direct Investment and CO2 emissions. Figure shows a 10% increase and a decrease in foreign direct investment and its influence on CO2 emissions where dots specify average prediction value. However, the dark blue to light blue line denotes 75, 90, and 95% confidence interval, respectively.

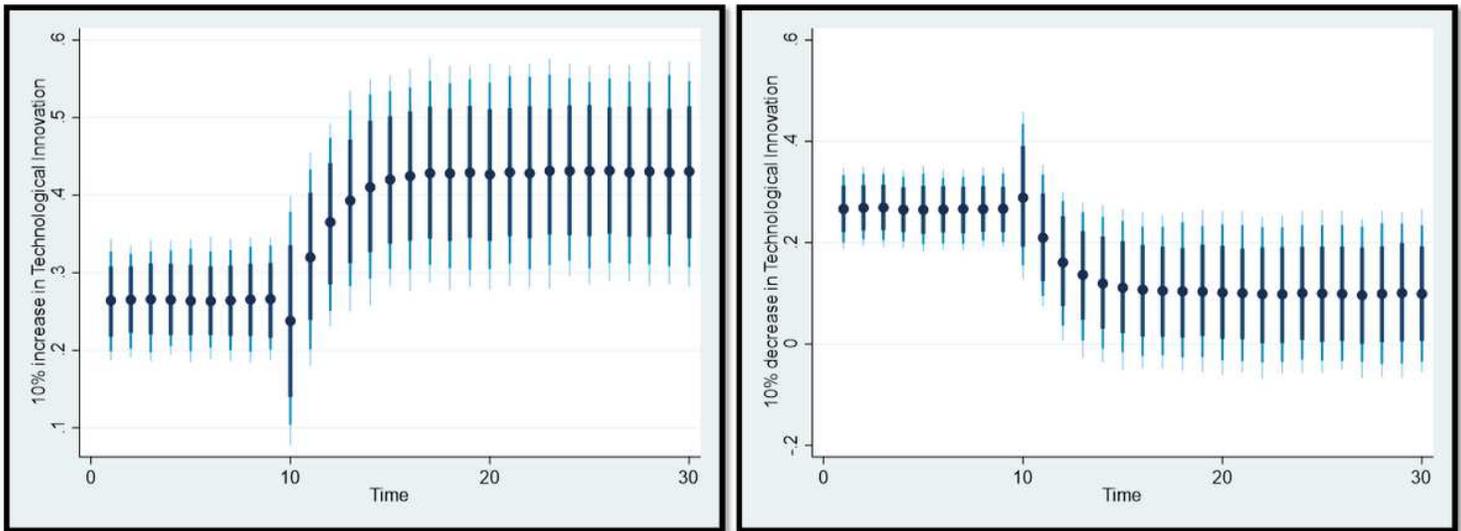


Figure 6

The Impulse Response Plot for Technological Innovation and CO2 emissions. Figure shows a 10% increase and a decrease in technological innovation and its influence on CO2 emissions where dots specify average prediction value. However, the dark blue to light blue line denotes 75, 90, and 95% confidence interval, respectively.

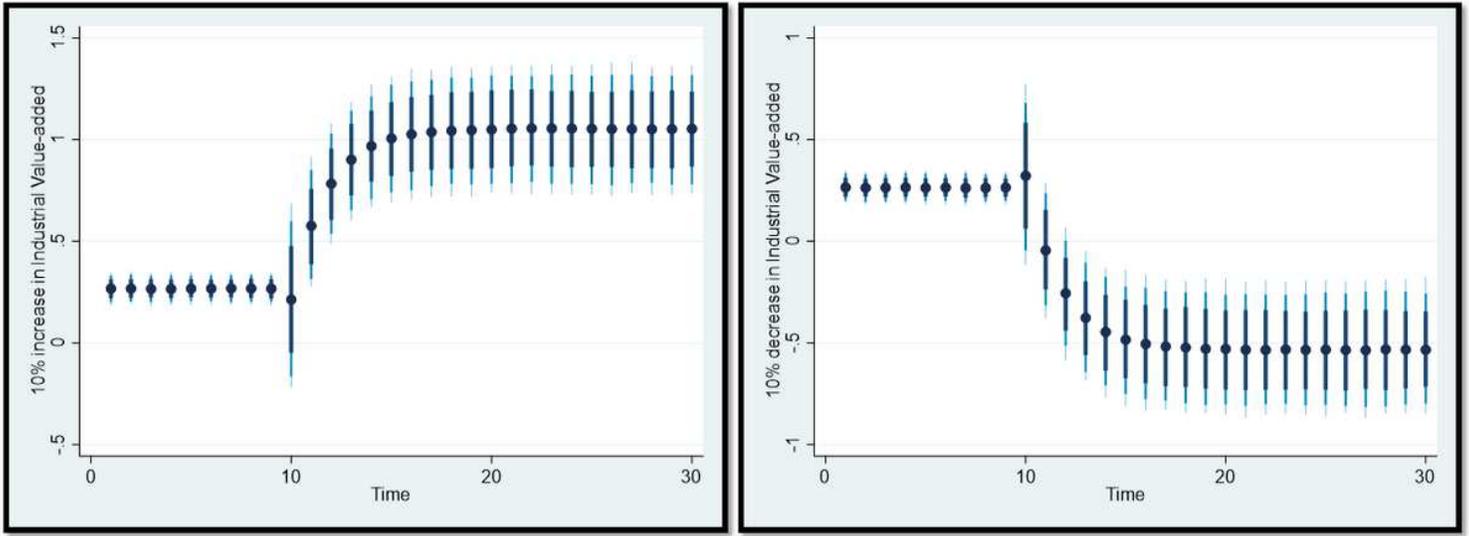


Figure 7

The Impulse Response Plot for Industrial Value-added and CO2 emissions. Figure shows a 10% increase and a decrease in industrial value-added and its influence on CO2 emissions where dots specify average prediction value. However, the dark blue to light blue line denotes 75, 90, and 95% confidence interval, respectively.

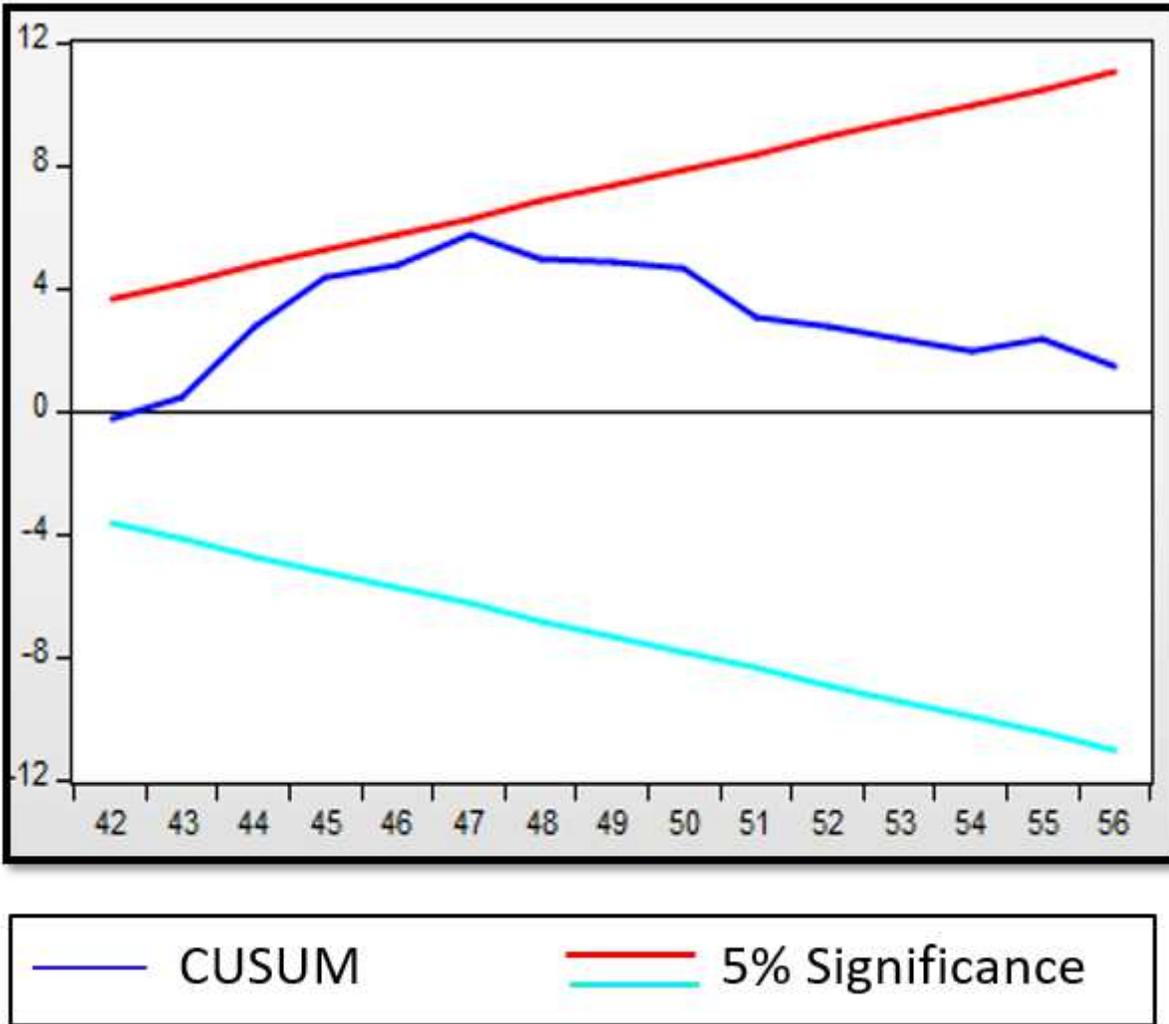


Figure 8

Plot of Cumulative Sum of Recursive Residuals (CUSUM)

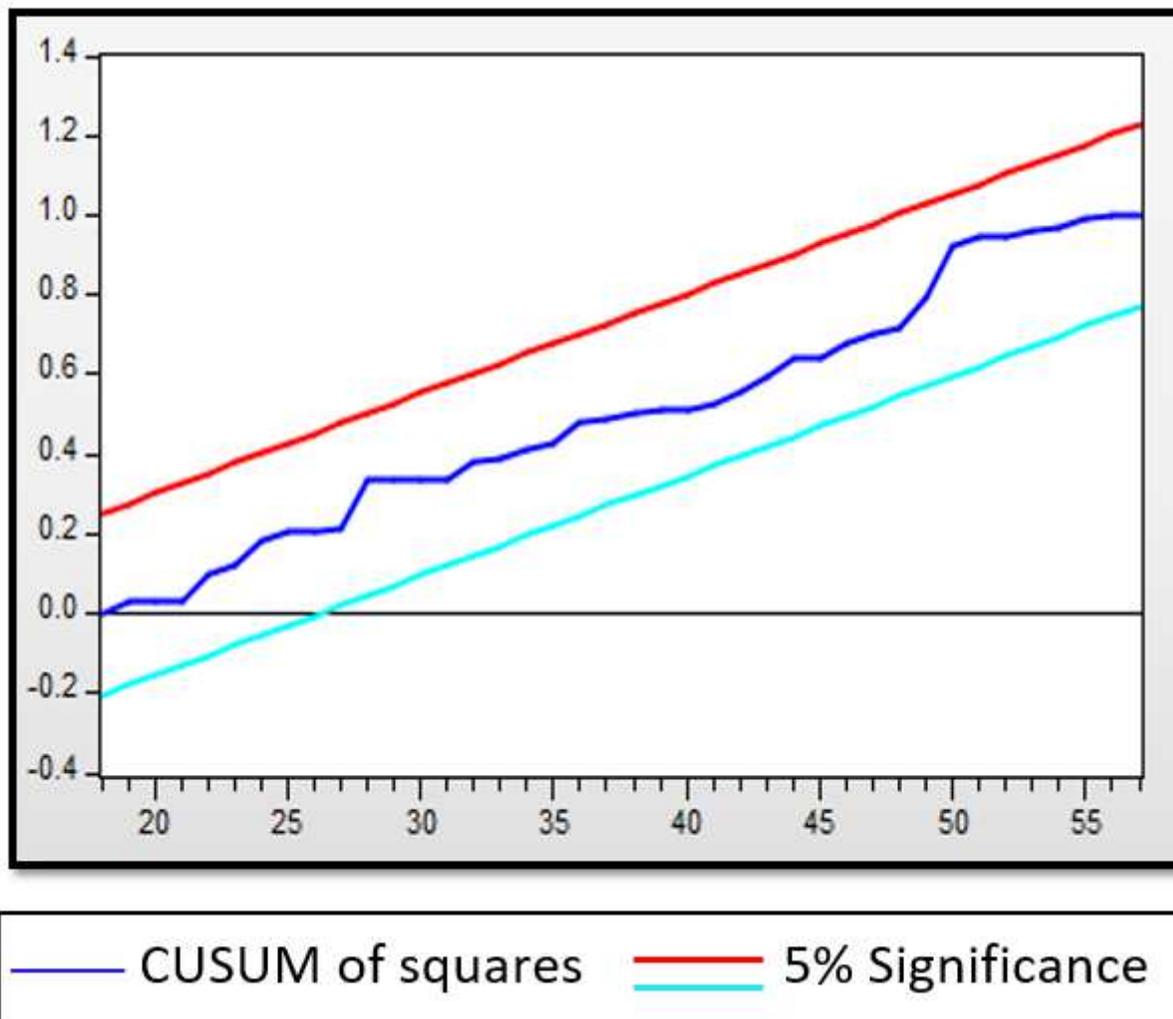


Figure 9

Plot of Cumulative Sum of Squares of Recursive Residuals (CUSUMSQ)

Supplementary Files

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- [Dataset.xlsx](#)