



Dynamic Connectedness between Renewable and Nonrenewable Energy Consumptions, Economic Growth and Carbon Dioxide Emissions in Vietnam: Extension of the TVP-VAR Joint Connected Approach

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ABSTRACT

We employ a time-varying parameter vector autoregression (TVP-VAR) combined with an extended joint connectedness approach to study interlinkages between renewable and nonrenewable energy consumption, economic growth, and CO₂ emission by characterizing connectedness of four markets starting from 1985 to 2019. Our results demonstrate that the financial crisis appears to have influences on the system-wide dynamic connectedness, which reaches a peak during 1989. The total directional connectedness suggests that nonrenewable and renewable sources of energy consumption tend to be net recipients of spillover shocks. Throughout the studied period, growth in the economy and CO₂ emissions seem to be influential net shock transmitters. Pairwise connectedness reveals that nonrenewable consumption primarily receives spillover effects of economic and environmental shocks. Since the crisis, CO₂ emission has been a net receiver of shocks from other variables.

Keywords: Nonrenewable and Renewable Energy Consumption, GDP, CO₂ Emission, Dynamic Connectedness, Joint Connectedness

JEL Classifications: C32, G12, Q43

1. INTRODUCTION

It has been argued with strongly backed up evidence that the environment is facing great harm due to the excessive and increasing amount of carbon dioxide (CO₂) emission in the atmosphere (Bölük and Mert, 2014; Shayanmehr et al., 2020a). With the growing amount of CO₂ in the atmosphere, the underlying reason for such phenomenon is reported and believed to be fossil fuel consumption as 90% of current CO₂ can be accounted for by such engagement and usage of such kind of energy (Shayanmehr et al., 2020b) according to the Joint Research Center of the European Commission (JRC). When consuming energy, greenhouse gasses such as CO₂ and SO₂ can cause severe damage to the environment (Murshed, 2020); therefore, the

practice of using fossil energy can be reported to have a great responsibility to the deterioration of the environment. If strict energy consumption regulations are not imposed, the world may face catastrophic environmental disasters (Apergis et al., 2010). However, it is widely understood that energy has always been a crucial component in most businesses' manufacturing processes, making any reduction in its usage impractical. In light of this energy dependency, a conundrum has arisen due to the scarcity of resources, in particular fossil fuels (such as coal, oil, and natural gas). Energy demand increases rapidly, while supply is limited, posing the risk of resource depletion. This conflict creates problems for policymakers who incorrectly adjust energy supply and demand, especially when there are new energy sources, which is a grave issue for nations that rely on imported energy. The 1970s

energy crisis and contemporary uprisings in Saudi Arabia serve as cautionary tales and possible dangers for a government unduly reliant on imported energy.

Renewable energy (e.g., solar, wind, hydroelectricity, biomass, biofuels, geothermal energy) and other types of renewable energy (e.g., tidal energy and wave energy) are gradually substituting fossil energy sources to address this issue since they reduce CO₂ emissions (Murshed et al., 2021). Renewable energy is regarded as a realistic solution for achieving a green economy while still ensuring long-term growth. Renewable and nuclear energy has long been recognized as non-carbon energy sources that can help battle climate change (Elliott, 2007). Furthermore, in both the production and consumption processes, substituting renewable energy sources for nonrenewable energy helps to increase energy security.

Economic expansion, environmental degradation, and energy usage are all intertwined, posing a constant and significant threat. Climate change and energy security have always been served as fascinating topics regarding energy consumption. Previous publications discussed the link between economic growth and a rise in energy consumption as well pollution emissions, and gave empirical evidence. However, practical knowledge on the interrelationships between these elements is still scarce. This shortage is more severe in developing countries due to a lack of relevant data. In this location, there has not been much study on renewable energy. To bridge the gap in the literature regarding nonrenewable energy, renewable energy consumption, environmental pollution, and economic growth, this study will examine their interconnectedness in the case of a country with a serious lack of data source.

To better understand the effects of nonrenewable energy and renewable energy consumption on the growth of economy and CO₂ emissions, this article examines Vietnam's environmental concerns from 1990 to 2019. Our choice is founded on scientific rigor. For starters, environmental degradation has become a severe problem (Ha et al., 2021). In order to achieve its goal of being a modern industrialized country with a high middle income by 2035, Vietnam, as a fast-emerging Southeast Asian economy, must choose between economic development and environmental protection. Recognizing the perils of seeking economic growth through policies, economists and politicians in Vietnam focus on environmental and energy issues. With the steady fall in the role of fossil fuels and the gradual increase in the percentage of renewable energy sources in the energy structure, our empirical study is expected to give novel solutions to the post-COVID-19 economy. Second, there is a scarcity of relevant data in Vietnam, which makes it difficult for academics to investigate these interconnections.

In this paper, we collect the yearly data of nonrenewable energy consumption, renewable energy consumption, CO₂ emission, and GDP per capita in Vietnam from 1985 to 2019. Our concentration is on interlinkages between economic growth, energy consumption, and pollution emission. Our study reveals critical findings by using the proposed application of a time-varying parameter vector

autoregression (TVP-VAR) in combination with an extended joint connectedness approach. There is a shift in the role of each issue within our designed system over time. The total directional connectedness suggests that nonrenewable and renewable sources of energy consumption tend to be net recipients of spillover shocks. Throughout the studied period, growth in the economy and CO₂ emissions seem to be influential net shock transmitters. Pairwise connectedness reveals that nonrenewable consumption primarily receives spillover effects from all other markets. In contrast, renewable energy consumption and economic growth could be either a net transmitter or a net receiver. Since the crisis, CO₂ emission has been a net receiver of shocks from other variables.

The rest of the paper is organized as follows: In Section 2, related studies are discussed. Data sources, variable estimates, and methods are discussed in Section 3. Finally, in Section 4, the findings and policy implications are presented.

2. THE LITERATURE REVIEW

Until recently, the literature has examined the interrelationships between development, pollution, and the use of renewable and nonrenewable energy from three different angles. The first viewpoint looks into the relationship between economic growth and greenhouse gas emissions. The key hypothesis used to study this link is the Environmental Kuznets Curve (EKC). Lindmark (2002) discovered empirical evidence of EKC in Sweden during the 1870–1997 period, Acaravci and Ozturk (2010) in Denmark and Italy from 1960 to 2005, and Can and Gozgor (2017) in France during the 1964–2014 period. On the other hand, Mazur et al. (2015) asserted that the EKC theory had been disproven throughout the European Union. As a result, in order to address the situation in Vietnam – a developing country and a neglected part of the world when the issue of climate and energy is raised due to the aforementioned lack of data – the paper examines the relationship between the two mentioned aspects to address the situation in Vietnam.

The association between renewable energy consumptions and income growth is examined in the second point of view. In the short run, 20 OECD nations and 18 Latin American countries showed a bidirectional correlation between economic performance and renewable energy (Apergis et al., 2010), while renewable energy is reported to be a significant driver of GDP growth when data from 28 EU nations was investigated (Soava et al., 2018). Similar discoveries were discovered in Germany by Rafindadi and Ozturk (2017). Only one-way causation between GDP and renewable energy was explored by Cho et al. (2015) in 31 OECD countries. The results of these studies are inconsistent with little concern for a particular region of the world, with economic circumstances varying from Latin America to the European Union. On the other hand, the constancy with which some form of reciprocal or one-way interaction can be observed across works of the literature suggests that the pattern will most likely replicate itself in future contexts. As a result, this paper aims to investigate the link between renewable energy and Vietnamese income.

The last viewpoint elucidates the interconnectedness among income, carbon emissions, and renewable energy. According

to Adewuyi and Awodumi (2017) and Lee (2013), the two-way interaction among dimensions is a significant source of concern. Menegaki (2011), on the other hand, employed a random-effects model for countries in the European region to validate a short run rather than long run two-way relationship between production and carbon emissions, as well as renewable energy and carbon emissions. Dong et al. (2018) looked at this link in 128 countries divided into six categories. In Europe and Eurasia, economic development and carbon emissions were bidirectional causal relationships, and renewable energy and CO₂ emissions were unidirectional causal relationships. Furthermore, Dong et al. (2020) demonstrated that these three factors had a two-way causal link. The conclusions are still set in the context of developed nations, leaving a void for emerging markets, despite the supporting data demonstrating the correlations between several factors of income-carbon emissions renewable energy.

Table 1 presents significant studies from three different perspectives. To investigate these inter-linkages between carbon emissions, energy consumption, and economic growth from these perspectives, popular methods such as Granger causality, vector autoregressive (VAR), error-correction model (ECM) causality, autoregressive distributed lag (ARDL), dynamic panel model, or spatial analysis were used, including Dong and Liang (2014), Kang et al. (2016), and Zheng et al. (2014), as shown in Table 1. In contrast, the study by Kang et al. (2016) used spatial panel data as a tool for examining the Environmental Kuznets Curves (EKC) theory in China. The study by Zheng et al. (2014) used a spatial panel data model to examine the geographic distribution of carbon intensity in China. A method of econometric estimation was used by Maddison (2006) to determine whether EKC exists for European countries. Overall, our literature review finds that no empirical study utilizing multivariate wavelet analysis to examine the inter-relationships between three fundamental problems in rising nations has been published (MWA). As a result, this work is the first to use the MWA to examine the relationship between economic development, carbon emissions, and renewable energy in the emerging economy.

3. DATABASE AND METHODOLOGY

3.1. Database

This paper uses the yearly data of nonrenewable energy consumption (NEC), renewable energy consumption (REC), CO₂ emission (CO₂), and GDP per capita (GDP). While GDP is sourced from the World Bank database, we collect NEC, REC, and CO₂ data from the Our World in Data database. The study concentrates on the period starting from 1985 to 2019. We calculate their growth rate and use them in the empirical analysis. We investigate the trend of these variables in the next section. Figure 1 demonstrates a pattern of these series.

As displayed in Table 2, the return of all studied markets is positive on average. In addition, renewable energy consumption has a more considerable variance than nonrenewable energy consumption, and therefore demand for renewable energy fluctuates the most during the selected sample. Notably, this paper finds that all series' distribution is highly leptokurtic. In other words, as compared

to a normal distribution, the distribution of these variables has a shape with fatter tails, suggesting they do not follow a normal distribution as contended by Jarque and Bera (1980). Based on the ERS unit root test of Elliott et al. (1996), 1% significance level, these variables are statistically stationary. Lastly, the weighted portmanteau test of Fisher and Gallagher (2012) demonstrates an autocorrelation between their growth and squared percentage growth, thus we have strong evidence to utilize a TVP-VAR approach with a time-varying variance-covariance structure to estimate interlinkages of these variables. The main goal of this study is to investigate changes in the interlinkages of the series in the time from 1985 to 2019. Table 1 presents the statistics of these series.

3.2. Empirical Methodology

The most popular econometric technique used to examine interlinkage is one originally proposed by Diebold and Yilmaz (2012). The scholars employ this methodology to monitor contagions in a predetermined network to resolve the adverse effects of a specific economic shock. One limitation of the original approach relies on a rolling-window size chosen arbitrarily of time-variant interlinkage. Hence, several suggestions have been proposed to address this issue, such as using mean squared prediction error to determine the optimal window size (Antonakakis et al., 2020); or using the joint spillover index (Lastrapes and Wiesen, 2021). In this paper, we follow Balcilar et al. (2021) to employ a time-varying parameter vector autoregression (TVP-VAR) in combination with an extended joint connectedness approach to study interlinkages between four variables, namely nonrenewable energy consumption (NEC), renewable energy consumption (REC), CO₂ emission (CO₂), and GDP per capita (GDP).

First, the TVP-VAR connectedness approach in combination with the original technique of Diebold and Yilmaz (2012) is outlined in this section. In this article, we estimate a TVP-VAR model that has a lag length of order one, using the Bayesian information criterion (BIC):

$$y_t = M_t y_{t-1} + \epsilon_t \epsilon_t \sim N(0, \Sigma_t) \quad (1)$$

$$vec(M_t) = vec(M_{t-1}) + u_t u_t \sim N(0, R_t) \quad (2)$$

where y_t, y_{t-1} and ϵ_t are $Z \times 1$ dimensional vector and M_t and Σ_t are $Z \times Z$ dimensional matrices. $vec(M_t)$ and u_t are $Z^2 \times 1$ dimensional vectors whereas R_t is a $Z^2 \times Z^2$ multiple-dimensional matrix. According to this model, all parameters (M_t) as well as the relationship between successive series may fluctuate over time. A further assumption is that the variance-covariance matrices (Σ_t and R_t) also vary over time. A number of previous studies have revealed that the variances and covariances of financial markets are changing with time, resulting in varying market and investment risk over time.

Subsequently, the TVP-VMA model is written as follows:

$$y_t = \sum_{h=0}^{\infty} N_{h,t} \epsilon_{t-h} \quad \text{where } N_0 = I_Z \text{ and } \epsilon_t \text{ denotes a symmetric white noise shocks that } Z \times Z \text{ time-varying covariance matrix } E(\epsilon_t \epsilon_t') = \Sigma_t \text{ varies with time. Therefore, the L-step forecast error is as follows:}$$

Table 1: Summary of previous studies

| Paper | Period | Variables | Sample | Methodology | Main Conclusion |
|--|---------------|--|---|--|---|
| The relationship between economic growth and CO ₂ emissions | | | | | |
| Pao and Tsai (2010) | 1971–2005 | GDP, CO ₂ , EC | BRIC countries | Tests of VECM Granger causality tests and panel cointegration | CO ₂ ≥GDP |
| Cai et al. (2018) | 1965–2015 | CO ₂ , GDP, CE | G7 | Tests of Granger causality and ARDL bounds | GDP×CO ₂ |
| Mensah et al. (2019) | 1990–2015 | CO ₂ , GDP, GFCF, LF, NREC, OIL | Africa countries | Test of panel cointegration and ARDL by PMG | CO ₂ ≥GDP |
| Omri et al. (2015) | 1990–2011 | GDP, CO ₂ , FDI, UR, GFCF, TO, ER | Global panel of 54 countries | Dynamic simultaneous-equation panel data | CO ₂ ≥GDP |
| Salahuddin and Gow (2014) | 1980–2012 | GDP, CO ₂ , EC | Members of the Gulf Cooperation Council | Tests of Pedroni panel cointegration, Granger causality, and PMG-ARDL | GDP×CO ₂ |
| Fodha and Zaghoud (2010) | 1961–2004 | GDP, CO ₂ , SO ₂ | Time series data for Tunisia | Tests of Johansen cointegration, ECM causality | GDP≥CO ₂ (SHT and LT) |
| Jaunky (2011) | 1980–2005 | CO ₂ , GDP | 36 countries with high incomes | Tests of VECM Granger causality and panel cointegration | GDP≥CO ₂ (SHT and LT) |
| Al-Mulali and Che Sab (2012) | 1980–2008 | GDP, CO ₂ , EC, FD | 19 studied countries | Tests of panel Granger causality, Pedroni cointegration | CO ₂ ≥GDP (SHT and LT) |
| Azam (2016) | 1990–2011 | GDP, CO ₂ , HC, GS, FDI, EC | 11 Asian countries | Panel model | CO ₂ ≥GDP |
| Ahmed et al. (2017) | 1971–2013 | GDP, EC, P, TO CO ₂ | Five South Asian countries | Tests of panel cointegration tests and FMOLS | GDP≥CO ₂ (LT) |
| Kais and Sami (2016) | 1990–2012 | GDP, CO ₂ , EC | Panel-country data | Panel model | GDP≥CO ₂ |
| Kang et al. (2016) | 1997–2012 | CO ₂ , GDP, GDP2, GDP3, TO, UR, EC, P | China | Spatial panel approach | GDP≥CO ₂ |
| Sarkodie and Strezov (2018) | 1974–2013 | GDP, GDP2, NREC, REC, CO ₂ , ENEI, ENEE | Australia | FMOLS, DOLS, CCR | GDP≥CO ₂ |
| The relationship between renewable energy and economic growth | | | | | |
| Kahia et al. (2017) | 1980–2012 | GDP, NREC, REC, LF, GFCF | 11 MENA Net Oil Importing Countries | Tests of Panel Granger causality | GDP↔REC (SHT) |
| Apergis and Payne (2010) | 1985–2005 | GFCF, REC, GDP, LF | OECD countries | Tests of FMOLS, panel cointegration, and Granger causality | GDP↔REC (SHT and LT) |
| Apergis and Payne (2011) | 1990–2007 | GDP, NREC, REC, LF, GFCF | Emerging countries | Panel error correction, and FMOLS | GDP≥REC (SHT) |
| Apergis and Payne (2012) | 1990–2007 | NREC, REC, LF, GFCF, GDP | Panel country data | Panel error correction, and FMOLS | GDP↔REC (SHT and LT) |
| Al-Mulali et al. (2014) | 1980–2010 | GDP, REC, NREC, LF, TO, GFCF | 18 Latin American countries | VECM, Granger causality test, and DOLS | REC↔GDP (SHT and LT) |
| Bhattacharya et al. (2016) | 1991–2012 | NREC, REC, LF, GFCF, GDP | 38 countries | DOLS, FMOLS | 57% of our selected countries REC≥GDP (LT) REC↔GDP (LT) |
| Shahbaz et al. (2015) | 1972Q1–2011Q4 | GDP, REC, GFCF, LF | Pakistan | ARDL bounds test, Johansen cointegration, and VECM Granger causality test | REC≥GDP (LT) |
| Dogan (2015) | 1990–2012 | GDP, REC, NREC, LF, GFCF | Turkey | ARDL bounds test, Johansen panel cointegration, and Gregory-Hansen cointegration tests | REC≥GDP (LT) |

(Contd...)

Table 1: (Continued)

| Paper | Period | Variables | Sample | Methodology | Main Conclusion |
|---|-----------|--|-----------------------------------|---|---|
| Cho et al. (2015) | 1990–2010 | GDP, REC, GFCF, LF | 31 OECD and 49 non-OECD countries | Panel VECM, FMOLS | Developed countries: $GDP \geq REC$ Less-developed countries: $GDP \Leftrightarrow REC$ |
| Relationship between renewable energy and economic growth and CO ₂ emissions | | | | | |
| Charfeddine and Kahia (2019) | 1980–2015 | GDP, CO ₂ , REC, GFCF, LF, FD | 24 countries of MENA | Panel VAR model and Westerlund ECM panel cointegration tests | $REC \geq GDP$ $REC \geq CO_2$ |
| Pata (2018) | 1974–2014 | CO ₂ , GDP, REC, GDP2, FD, UR, HEC, AEC | Turkey | ARDL bounds test, FMOLS, Gregory-Hansen, and Hatemi-J cointegration tests | $GDP \geq CO_2$ (SHT and LT) |
| Adewuyi and Awodumi (2017) | 1980–2010 | C) 2, GDP, REC, HC, FD, UR, TO, PC | West African countries | 3SLS | $REC \Leftrightarrow GDP$ $GDP \Leftrightarrow CO_2$ $REC \Leftrightarrow CO_2$ |
| Shafiei and Salim (2014) | 1980–2011 | CO ₂ , REC, NREC, GDP, P, UR | OECD countries | ECM Causality, Johansen cointegration tests | $REC \geq CO_2$ (LT) |
| Menyah and Wolde-Rufael (2010) | 1960–2007 | CO ₂ , REC, NEC, GDP | USA | Granger causality test (Toda-Yamamoto), VAR model | $CO_2 \geq REC$ (LT) $GDP \Leftrightarrow CO_2$ (LT) $GDP \geq REC$ (LT) |
| Menegaki (2011) | 1997–2007 | CO ₂ , GDP, NREC, EM, REC | 27 European Countries | RE, cointegration, and Granger causality test | $CO_2 \Leftrightarrow REC$ (SHT) $CO_2 \Leftrightarrow GDP$ (SHT) $REC \geq GDP$ (LT) $CO_2 \geq GDP$ (LT) |

CE: Clean energy use, GDP: Gross domestic product, NREC: Nonrenewable energy consumption, REC: Renewable energy consumption, CO₂: CO₂ emissions, HEC: Hydroelectricity consumption, NEC: Nuclear energy consumption, AEC: Alternative energy consumption, GFCF: Capital stock, FD: Financial development, UR: Urbanization, CRW: Combustible renewables and waste generation, OIL: Oil price, SO₂: Sulfur dioxide, ER: Exchange rate, R&D: Research and development expenditure, INV: Real investment, EM: Employment, SREC: Share of renewable energy consumption, CCR: Canonical cointegrating regression, OLS: Ordinary least squares, FMOLS: Fully modified ordinary least squares, DOLS: Dynamic ordinary least squares, RE: Random effects, VAR: Vector autoregressive, FE: Fixed effects, ARDL: The autoregressive distributed lag, VCEM: Vector error correction model, ENEI: Energy imports, ENEE: Energy exports, CCR: Canonical cointegrating regression, S: Material stocks, ST: Crude steel production, CE: Cement production, AM: Ammonia production, PG: Power generation, CAR: Car ownerships, NOx: Nitrogen oxide, SO₂: Sulfur dioxide, SEC: Ratio of value-added, SHT: In the short term, LT: In the long term; Indicate unidirectional relationship, \Leftrightarrow : Indicates bidirectional relationship, \times : Indicates no causal relationship

Figure 1: Consumption of nonrenewable and renewable energy, GDP and CO₂ emission returns

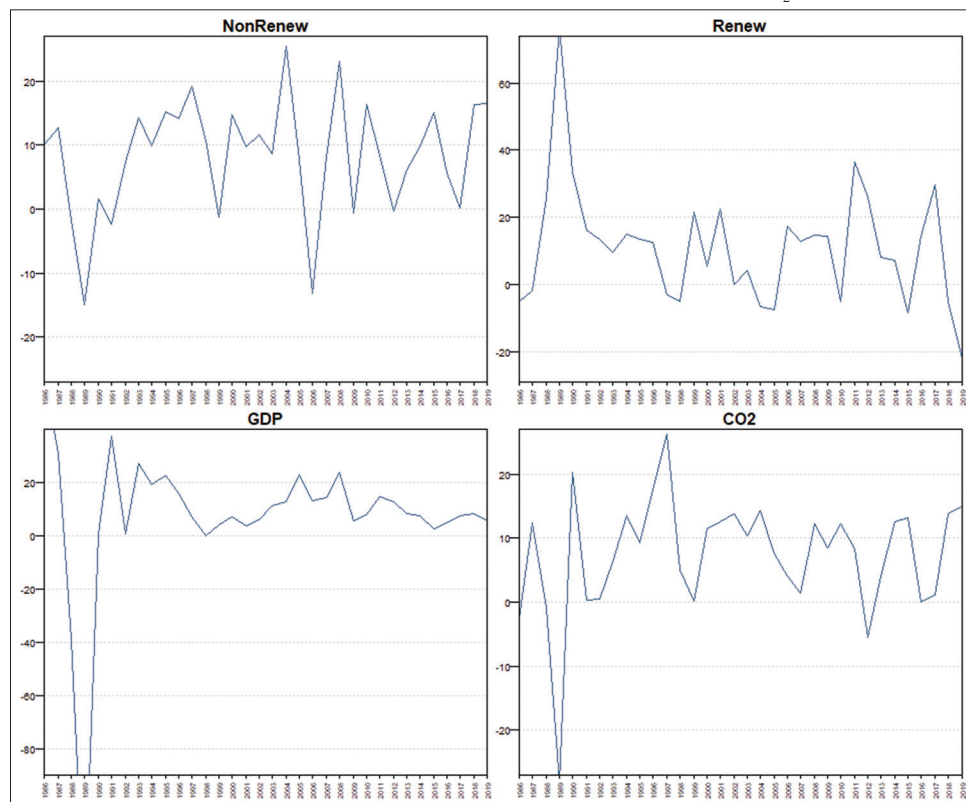


Table 2: Summary statistics

| | Whole sample | | | |
|---------------------|-------------------|-------------------|-------------------|-------------------|
| | NEC | REC | GDP | CO2 |
| Mean | 8.368 | 11.251 | 7.242 | 7.386 |
| Variance | 80.957 | 311.814 | 920.749 | 89.545 |
| Skewness | -0.668* (0.000) | 1.319*** (0.002) | -3.518*** (0.000) | -1.394*** (0.001) |
| Kurtosis | 0.501* | 3.638*** | 15.680*** | 4.189*** |
| JB | 2.884*** | 28.604*** | 418.475*** | 35.868*** |
| ERS | -3.217*** (0.004) | -2.239*** (0.035) | -1.098*** (0.028) | -1.380*** (0.018) |
| Q (20) | 21.719* (0.035) | 14.555* (0.080) | 10.751* (0.095) | 12.369** (0.090) |
| Q ² (20) | 17.752*** (0.044) | 3.450*** (0.009) | 2.895*** (0.000) | 13.417** (0.026) |

$$\varphi_t(L) = y_{t+L} - E(y_{t+L} | y_t, y_{t-1}, \dots) \quad (3)$$

$$= \sum_{l=0}^{L-1} N_{l,t} \epsilon_{t+L-l} \quad (4)$$

A matrix of forecast error covariance can be written as follows:

$$E((\varphi_t(L) \varphi_t'(L))) = N_{l,t} \sum_{l} N_{l,t}' \quad (5)$$

The proposed framework relies on Pesaran and Shin (1998)'s L-step ahead generalized forecast error variance decomposition (GFEVD). The GFEVD, $gST_{ij,t}$ represents an impact of a shock stemming from variable j on variable i and can be written as follows:

$$\varphi_{ij,t}^{gen}(L) = \frac{E(\varphi_{i,t}^2(L)) - E[\varphi_{i,t}(L) - E(\varphi_{i,t}(L)) | \epsilon_{j,t+1}, \dots, \epsilon_{j,t+L}]^2}{E(\varphi_{i,t}^2(L))} \quad (6)$$

$$= \frac{\sum_{l=0}^{L-1} (e_i' N_{l,t} e_j)^2}{(e_i' e_j)' \sum_{l=0}^{L-1} (e_i' N_{l,t} N_{l,t}' e_i)} \quad (7)$$

$$gST_{ij,t} = \frac{\varphi_{ij,t}^{gen}(L)}{\sum_{j=1}^Z \varphi_{ij,t}^{gen}(L)} \quad (8)$$

where e_i denotes a $Z \times 1$ zero selection vector that have a unity on its i th position and $\varphi_{ij,t}^{gen}(L)$, (L), which represents a proportional reduction in the variance of the prediction error of variable i as a result of conditioning on the future shocks of variable j .

The $\sum_{j=1}^Z \varphi_{ij,t}^{gen}(L) \neq 1$ is normalized to unity, leading to the value of $gST_{ij,t}$. We write this metrics as follows:

$$X_{i \leftarrow \bullet, t}^{gen, from} = \sum_{j=1, j \neq i}^Z gST_{ij,t} \quad (9)$$

$$X_{i \rightarrow \bullet, t}^{gen, to} = \sum_{j=1, j \neq i}^Z gST_{ji,t} \quad (10)$$

The net total directional connectedness is presented as: $X_{i,t}^{gen, net} = X_{i \rightarrow \bullet, t}^{gen, to} - X_{i \leftarrow \bullet, t}^{gen, from}$. If $X_{i,t}^{gen, net} < 0$ ($X_{i,t}^{gen, net} > 0$), variable i implies a net receiver (transmitter) of shocks. In other words, variable i is driven by (is driving) other variables in the network.

The total connectedness index (TCI) demonstrates the interconnectedness within the network. We define the TCI as:

$$gST_t = \frac{1}{Z} \sum_{i=1}^Z X_{i \leftarrow \bullet, t}^{gen, from} = \frac{1}{Z} \sum_{i=1}^Z X_{i \rightarrow \bullet, t}^{gen, to} \quad (11)$$

where network spillovers with a higher degree have a greater value.

Lastly, the net pairwise directional spillovers can be represented as: $X_{i,t}^{gen, net} = gST_{ij,t}^{gen, to} - gST_{ij,t}^{gen, from}$. If $X_{ij,t}^{gen, net} > 0$, suggesting that series i has a more considerable influence on series j .

3.2.1. Technique with an extended joint connectedness

The $gST_{ij,t}$ and $jST_{ij,t}$ are assumed:

$$X_{i \leftarrow \bullet, t}^{jnt, from} = \sum_{j=1, j \neq i}^Z jST_{ij,t} \quad (12)$$

$$X_{\bullet \leftarrow i, t}^{jnt, to} = \sum_{j=1, j \neq i}^Z jST_{ji,t} \quad (13)$$

$$jSI_i = \frac{1}{Z} \sum_{i=1}^Z X_{i \leftarrow \bullet, t}^{jnt, from} = \frac{1}{Z} \sum_{i=1}^Z X_{i \rightarrow \bullet, t}^{jnt, to}$$

We follow (Lastrapes and Wiesen, 2021) to generalize the scaling approach, which the scaling factor η has differ by each row as follows:

$$\eta_i = \frac{X_{i \leftarrow \bullet, t}^{jnt, from}}{X_{i \leftarrow \bullet, t}^{gen, from}} \quad (14)$$

$$\eta = \frac{1}{Z} \sum_{i=1}^Z \eta_i \quad (15)$$

Lastly, we can obtain:

- $jST_{ij,t} = \eta_i gST_{ij,t}$
- $jST_{ii,t} = 1 - X_{i \leftarrow \bullet, t}^{jnt, from}$
- $X_{i \rightarrow \bullet, t}^{jnt, to} = \sum_{j=1, j \neq i}^Z jST_{ij,t}$

Finally, allowing the scaling parameter to vary by row allows to compute the net total and pairwise directional connectedness measures as follows:

$$X_{i,t}^{jnt, net} = X_{i \rightarrow \bullet, t}^{jnt, to} - X_{i \leftarrow \bullet, t}^{jnt, from} \quad (16)$$

$$X_{ij,t}^{jnt, net} = gST_{ji,t} - gST_{ij,t} \quad (17)$$

4. RESULTS

This paper starts by reporting the average TCI values before displaying the pattern of the TCI over the studied period. By analyzing changes in the TCI's pattern from 1985 to 2019, we also evaluate the effects of the uncertain event on the interlinkages among

the considered variables. In the following step, we also analyze net total connectedness and net pairwise connectedness, which help us achieve a more deeply insightful knowledge about the economic and environmental effects of renewable and nonrenewable energy consumption within our proposed system. It is worth noting that each variable can play a role of either a net shock transmitter or net shock receiver. Finally, for comparison purposes, we then follow Lastrapes and Wiesen (2021) to quantify the joint spillover index, which can be useful to explore the insights behind changes in interlinkages of these variables within the system.

4.1. Time-variant of Average Dynamic Connectedness

By concentrating over the 1985-2019 period, average results regarding interlinkages of diverse variables within the network of various variables are reported in Table 3. In this table, the volatility of a particular variable is accounted by its own shocks is reported by the diagonal element, and a contribution of this variable to others' volatility (FROM) and others to this variable's volatility (TO) are summarized in off-diagonal elements. Particularly, in Table 3, we outline each individual variable's contribution to a particular variable's forecast error variance in the rows, whilst columns correspond to the effect that one specific type of variable has on all other variables separately.

Considering the entire set of observations, the TCI average value is 57.90%, implying that fluctuations within this network can elucidate 57.90% of the variant in our network of considered variables. This result also suggests that nearly 42% of error variance within the system stems from idiosyncratic impacts. The last row of Table 2 indicates the role of each variable, meaning that, on net values, GDP and CO₂ emission play an inconsiderable role in transmitting effects and volatility of shocks to other variables within the system. By implication, nonrenewable and renewable Energy Consumption are net receivers of corresponding shocks, in which the most vital shock receiver is the NEC. The finding regarding GDP, CO₂ emission and energy consumption stays in line with many papers in the literature, such as Mezghani and Ben Haddad (2017), Mezghani et al. (2016) show that oil and non-oil GDP in Saudi Arabia play a role in net transmitters to energy consumption and CO₂ emissions. It is noted that the consumption of all types of energy in Iran is a net shock receiver from variables.

4.2. Time-variant of Total Connectedness

It would be instructive to note that the aforementioned average results only present a mere summary of interlinkages among considered variables within the system. In order to shed light on the influences of the crises on the interlinkages across a network of variables, it is vital to employ a more dynamic framework of analysis, which takes the time-variant of the TCI into account and reflects the time-variant of the role of studied variables within the network. For example, it is a prerequisite to consider changes in the behavior of a particular variable from a net shock transmitter to a net shock receiver and vice versa. This paper starts with the time-variant of total connectedness estimations presenting the intertemporal changes of the TCI as illustrated in Figure 2. It can be seen that the TCI values do not vary remarkably across our studied sample period. The TCI tended to increase in the early years and peaked at about 65% in 1989. It would be worth

noting that high values of TCI suggest high contagions between the diverse variables. However, the TCI values slightly declined to about 55% in 2019.

4.3. Time-variant of Net Total and Pairwise Directional Connectedness

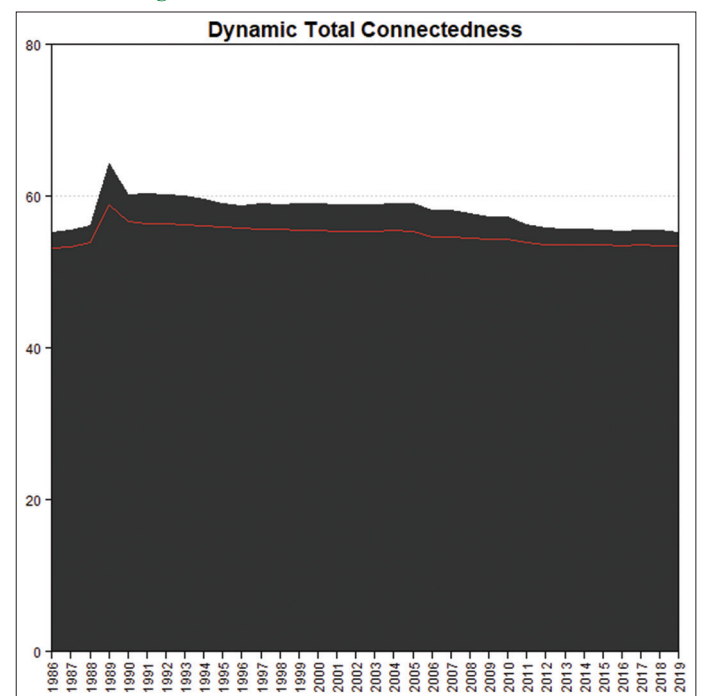
In the following analysis, we focus on net connectedness results, which can help us to classify a typical variable into a net shock transmitter or a net shock receiver. The current dynamic approach differs from the previous classification, which permits us to identify the process of shifting in each variable's role. In other words, the roles played by a specific variable as a net shock receiver and a net shock transmitter in the system at different times will be conditional on the time interval and the particular variable within the studied network.

Our study starts with the net total connectedness, which helps us detect a variant in the role of a variable throughout the separated periods. In the following, we outline our estimates regarding pairwise net connectedness. The investigation of pairs of

Table 3: Averaged joint connectedness

| | Whole sample | | | | |
|-----|--------------|-------|-------|-------|-------|
| | NEC | REC | GDP | CO2 | FROM |
| NEC | 40.45 | 24.44 | 13.07 | 22.04 | 59.55 |
| REC | 22.97 | 33.61 | 23.11 | 20.31 | 66.39 |
| GDP | 11.38 | 21.05 | 50.55 | 17.02 | 49.45 |
| CO2 | 20.83 | 18.79 | 16.59 | 43.80 | 56.20 |
| TO | 55.18 | 64.27 | 52.77 | 59.37 | TCI |
| NET | -4.38 | -2.11 | 3.32 | 3.17 | 57.90 |

Figure 2: Time-variant of total connectedness



Notes: We follow Balcilar et al. (2021) to set up the lead (20 leads) and lag length (1 lag) order of forecast error variance decomposition in our TVP-VAR system. The robustness checks were also conducted by changing these values. We display both the joint interlinkages (the black shaded area) and original interlinkages (the red line)

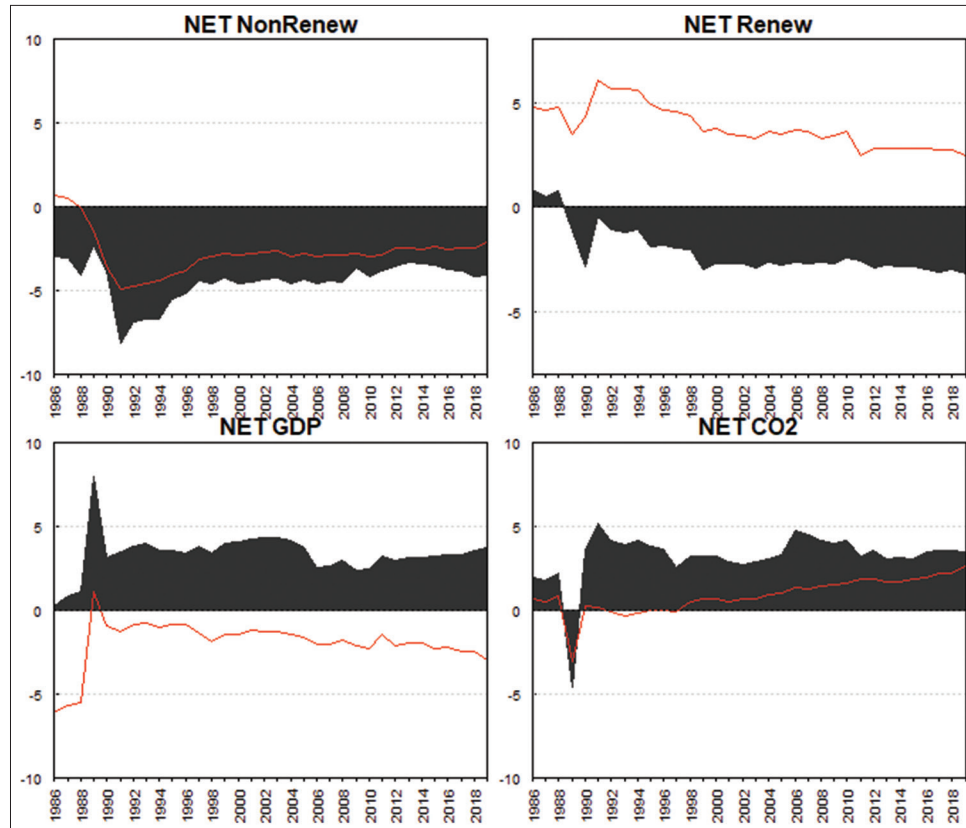
considered variables allows us to indicate how their interlinkage has exchanged between these two potential roles over time. We plot estimated results in Figure 3. It is essential to recall that the positive and negative values reflect the net transmitting and receiving roles. Being consistent with main findings indicated previously by using net total connectedness results, nonrenewable energy consumption consistently acts as a net contagion shock receiver and receives the most shocks from the variable in 1991. The use of renewable energy is seen as a net transmitter for the first 2 years and largely variable shocks absorber after that because of the collapse of credit unions and the financial crisis in 1989.

The popularity of clean energy is increasingly dependent on shocks from GDP and other variables. Before 1989, the economy's stagnation with hyperinflation made the production cost of clean power high, so its role was highly faint compared to other variables. Renewable energy received many net shocks, especially in 1989, due to the large demand for electricity when the economy developed and the inauguration of the largest Hoa Binh Hydropower Plant. Therefore, all kinds of energy consumption depend heavily on variable shocks. GDP, by contrast, is a net transmitter over time and peaks in 1989. In spite of the Renovation policy in 1986, it was not until 1989 that effective policies were put into practice. For example, the government transferred land use rights to individual households, the state monopoly in foreign trade was abolished, and the stamp system and price controls were abolished. It gave GDP growth a jump and established the

transmission of shocks to other variables in 1989. In particular, during the 2008 financial crisis, GDP transmits fewer shocks to variables. In 2008, Vietnam's economy faced many challenges due to inflation control, so the State Bank implemented a tight monetary policy. Besides, Vietnam also experienced a rapid increase in the trade deficit and a decline in the stock market. Because of rising costs, production stalled, and energy demand also decreased. CO₂ emission is a net transmitter for most of the time except from 1988 to 1990. This figure shows that GDP is heavily affected by CO₂ emission shocks.

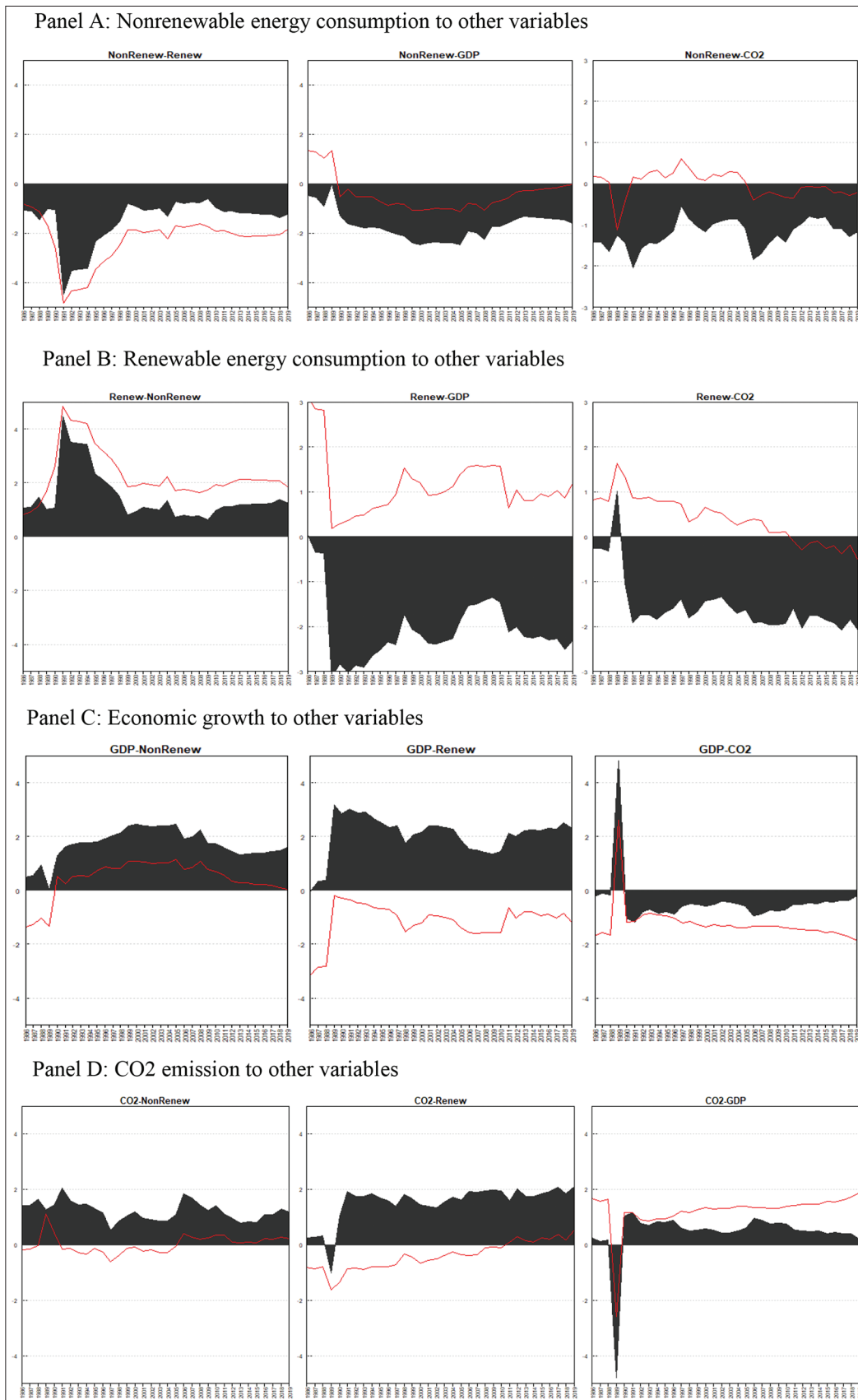
Subsequently, our study concentrates on net pairwise connectedness estimates, as displayed in Figure 4. We firstly look into contagion effects associated with *NER* to ascertain the critical role of *NER* within our considered network of diverse variables as shown in Panel A. Concerning the interrelation between *NER* and other variables, the consumption of nonrenewable energy is a persistent net shock receiver. In particular, *NER* receives the most shocks from *RER* in 1991 and gradually decreases after that. The shocks arising from *RER* have a more considerable effects on *NER* after the 2009 crisis. Panel B presents the spillover effects of renewable energy consumption on other variables. Notably, on net terms, the role of *RER* may exchange with CO₂ emission. Although *RER* exerts only a relatively substantial impact on CO₂ emission at the beginning of the time series, *RER* completely takes on the shocks from CO₂ emission since 1990. The consumption of renewable energy is also more dependent on GDP during crises. Concerning

Figure 3: Time-variant of net total directional connectedness



Notes: We follow Balcilar et al. (2021) to set up the lead (20 leads) and lag length (1 lag) order of forecast error variance decomposition in our TVP-VAR system. The robustness checks were also conducted by changing these values. We display both the joint interlinkages (the black shaded area) and original interlinkages (the red line)

Figure 4: Time-variant of net pairwise directional connectedness



Notes: We follow Balcilar et al. (2021) to set up the lead (20 leads) and lag length (1 lag) order of forecast error variance decomposition in our TVP-VAR system. The robustness checks were also conducted by changing these values. We display both the joint interlinkages (the black shaded area) and original interlinkages (the red line)

GDP and CO₂ emission, Panel C and D all reveal that these two variables may play time-varying roles with the remaining variables. It is observed that only during the financial crisis of 1989, the impact of GDP spread strongly affected CO₂ emission, and GDP is always a net receiver from CO₂ emission from 1990. It shows that at the beginning of development in 1989, Vietnam had a trade-off between economic growth and environmental degradation. CO₂ emissions are constantly increasing every year, of which the largest share is emissions from energy, followed by industry, agriculture, and waste, respectively. Like many other developing countries, Vietnam's manufacturing industry relies heavily on fossil energy and outdated technology. At the same time, there are many gaps in the policy on corporate responsibility for the environment, so CO₂ emission often plays the role of a net transmitter to GDP. The long-term and sustainable economic development strategy in Vietnam is required to reduce the proportion of polluting industries. In general, we reveal that all economic and environmental variables are significantly interrelated, hence it is vital to manage both economic and ecological strategies better simultaneously and appropriately to ensure economic development at a lower environmental cost.

5. CONCLUSIONS AND POLICY IMPLICATIONS

Our paper employs a network connectedness approach to estimate the interlinkages of four variables, namely the energy, crude oil, gold, and silver in a time-varying fashion using a TVP-VAR approach. We also follow Balcilar et al. (2021) approach that allows for more flexibility and enables us to attain the measures for net pairwise connectedness. Our focus is paid to detect the dynamic connectedness between nonrenewable and renewable energy consumption, economic growth and CO₂ emission. In this paper, we collect the yearly data for the benchmark GDP volatility and CO₂ emission volatility, nonrenewable and renewable energy consumption volatility, which starts from 1985 to 2019.

By using the full set of observations, our results show that all studied variables are considerably interconnected. The TCI value is approximately 57.90% when we use the whole sample. By using the time-variant of net total and pairwise directional connectedness analysis, we indicate the shift in the role of each variable within our designed system over time. However, except for the crisis of 1989, the GDP appears consistently as a net receiving of volatility shocks into the volatility of CO₂ emission. The consumption of nonrenewable energy is always strongly affected by the shocks of CO₂ emission, GDP and the use of renewable energy. The findings suggest that our developed network is exposed to high variable risk.

On the policy front, our findings provide vital implications for investors and authorities along with practices from the contagions across the diverse variables and their interlinkages. Insightful knowledge about key antecedents of the contagions among these variables, help policymakers design the most adequate policies to reduce these variables' vulnerabilities as well as minimize the spread of risk or uncertainty across these variables. Our findings show considerable interlinkages between four variables, thus

emphasizing the potential risk of either low or high diversification for investors toward these variables. Our findings further underscore the increasing interlinkages within unexpected and highly uncertain events. In our findings, we demonstrate that there are influences of a shock in a typical variable on the entire network. Furthermore, the findings of this paper can also be useful for policy in an effort to enhance public welfare, which stems from the direct impact between nonrenewable and renewable energy consumption, economic growth and CO₂ emission. It is vital to use the key insights that there are contentions of uncertainty and risk in energy variables to that on the economic growth and vice versa. Hence, it is a prerequisite to take them into account when designing policies for a vulnerable group as a way to enhance the welfare of society.

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