



Reinvestigating the Environmental Kuznets Curve (EKC) hypothesis by a composite model constructed on the Arme y curve hypothesis with government spending for the US States

Cem Işık¹ · Serdar Ongan² · Umit Bulut³ · Sahir Karakaya⁴ · Muhammad Irfan^{5,6} · Rafael Alvarado⁷ · Munir Ahmad⁸ · Abdul Rehman⁹

Received: 7 June 2021 / Accepted: 21 September 2021 / Published online: 14 October 2021
© The Author(s), under exclusive licence to Springer-Verlag GmbH Germany, part of Springer Nature 2021

Abstract

This study reinvestigates the EKC hypothesis for US states with a new methodology that differs from all previous empirical studies using traditional EKC models. To this aim, this methodology, for the first time, unifies two seemingly different but strongly interrelated hypotheses (models), namely the Arme y curve (AC) and traditional EKC models, into one single composite model. The rationale for creating this composite model is twofold. First, the functional propositions of these two hypotheses are depicted with inverted U-shaped curves. Second, they also have economically interrelated-causal relationships. This means that rising government spending (through the AC hypothesis) increases real GDP per capita (RGDPPC) and, consequently, increases in RGDPPC (through the EKC hypothesis) increase CO₂ emissions. The composite model created may also allow US state policymakers to determine a single maximum spending level that will maximize or minimize CO₂ emissions. Empirical findings indicate that the composite model is capable of testing the EKC hypothesis for 7 US states. Additionally, for 7 US states, maximum spending level was calculated to be around 15% of their RGDPPCs. Hence, with this calculated spending level, policymakers of these states may be able to determine-adjust their golden spending levels so as not to cause environmental degradation and declines in GDP.

Keywords The Arme y curve hypothesis · the EKC hypothesis

Jel classification E62 · Q50

Responsible Editor: Eyup Dogan

✉ Cem Işık
cemisik@anadolu.edu.tr

Serdar Ongan
serdarongan@usf.edu

Umit Bulut
ubulut@ahievran.edu.tr

Sahir Karakaya
skarakaya@gsu.edu.tr

Muhammad Irfan
irfan@ncepu.edu.cn

Rafael Alvarado
jose.r.alvarado@unl.edu.ec

Munir Ahmad
munirahmad@zju.edu.cn

Abdul Rehman
abdrehman@henau.edu.cn

¹ Faculty of Tourism, Anadolu University, Tepebaşı, Eskişehir, Turkey

² Department of Economics, University of South Florida, Tampa, FL 33620, USA

³ Faculty of Economics and Administrative Sciences, Kirsehir Ahi Evran University, Kirsehir, Turkey

⁴ Department of Economics, Galatasaray University, İstanbul, Turkey

⁵ School of Management and Economics & Center for Energy and Environmental Policy Research, Beijing Institute of Technology, Beijing 100081, People's Republic of China

⁶ Center for Energy and Environmental Policy Research, Beijing Institute of Technology, Beijing 100081, China

⁷ Esai Business School, Universidad Espíritu Santo, 091650 Samborondon, Ecuador

⁸ School of Economics, Zhejiang University, Hangzhou 310058, People's Republic of China

⁹ College of Economics and Management, Henan Agricultural University, Zhengzhou 450002, People's Republic of China

Introduction

The roles of the governments in economic growth have been discussed for a long time. In the theoretical discussion, the neoclassical growth model, developed by Solow (1956), postulates that fiscal policies through taxation and government spending can affect the economic growth up to only a steady-state rate of growth, which is determined by the exogenous rate of technological progress. On the other hand, the endogenous growth model, pioneered by Romer (1986), Lucas (1988), and Barro (1990), postulates that a government can affect the economic growth since transition and steady-state growth rates and government is considered endogenous. This means that governments play a serious role in the economy. From a closer perspective, this discussion implicitly arises from a basic question about how much should a government be involved in the economy? According to Armeý (1995), rises in government spending trigger economic growth only up to a threshold (turning) point. Further rises in spending lead to falls in growth and the initially linear relationship between growth and spending becomes nonlinear just after this threshold point (optimal government spending level). This nonlinear relationship postulated draws a parabolic inverted U-shaped curve, the so-called Armeý curve shown in Figure 1. The rationale of this expectation is that real GDP per capita will initially increase by increasing productive government spending and eventually decrease after a threshold (turning) point due to different dynamics, such as the crowding-out effect, taxation, the law of diminishing returns, and bureaucratic costs (Bastiat 1983; Barro, 1990; Scully, 1994; Karras, 1997; Chao and Grubel, 1998; Sarte, 2001; Colombier, 2009).

The pattern of this curve gives government policymakers the maximum level of spending which could maximize their real GDP per capita. On the basis of causal interconnectivity among the macroeconomics variables in the economy, the Armeý curve resembles another inverted U-shape curve, the so-called Environmental Kuznets Curve (EKC), developed by Grossman and Krueger (2019), shown in Figure 2. According

to the EKC hypothesis, in the first stages of economic growth, rises in the real GDP per capita initially lead to increases in environmental degradation (CO₂ emissions) but further rises eventually lead to decreases in emissions after a certain turning point & In a way similar to the Armeý curve hypothesis, this certain point gives government policymakers the maximum level of real GDP per capita, which will trigger declines in CO₂ emissions. In a way similar to the Armeý curve hypothesis, this certain point gives government policymakers the maximum level of real GDP per capita, which will trigger declines in CO₂ emissions (Ahmad et al. 2021a, b, c; Alvarado et al. 2021a, b; An et al. 2021; Işık 2010, 2013; Işık et al. 2017, 2018, 2019a, b, 2020, 2021a, b; Ongan et al. 2017, 2018, 2021; Pata and Işık 2021; Rajput and Tariq 2019; Rehman et al. 2021a, b, c; Pablo-Romero et al. 2021; Roy 2009; Shahbaz et al. 2017; Shahzad et al. 2021; Sohag et al. 2021; Sun et al. 2021; Urban 2021; Vedder and Gallaway 1998; Verbič et al. 2021; Anser et al. 2020; Dogan et al. 2020; Dogru et al. 2019, 2020; Aslan et al. 2018; Apergis et al. 2017; Bekun et al. 2021; Bilgili et al. 2021; Bozma et al. 2019; Cheong-Fatt et al. 2020; Connolly and Li 2016; Dar and Khalkhali 2002; Data Planet 2021; Dogan and Inglesi-Lotz 2020; Dogan and Ozturk 2017; Dogan and Turkekul 2016; EIA 2021; Go et al. 2021; Güngör et al. 2021; Gyamfi et al. 2021; Khan and Hou 2021; Knoop 1999; Minlah and Zhang 2021; Murshed et al. 2021; Naqvi et al. 2021; Nawaz et al. 2021).

When these two hypotheses (curves) are closely examined, a sequentially causal relationship can be clearly seen from the Armeý curve hypothesis to the EKC hypothesis. This means that rises in government spending lead to increases in real GDP per capita in the Armeý curve model and, thereby, rises in real GDP per capita lead to increases in CO₂ emissions in the EKC model. Moreover, this variable-level causal relationship between the two models was constructed on the same inverted U-shaped mathematical proposition. Therefore, an interesting question arises: Can these two hypotheses be jointly examined theoretically and mathematically? Does this mean that such similarity enables us to test the EKC

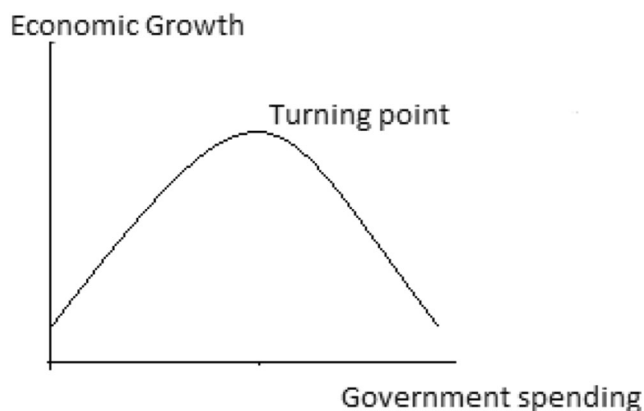


Fig. 1 Armeý curve

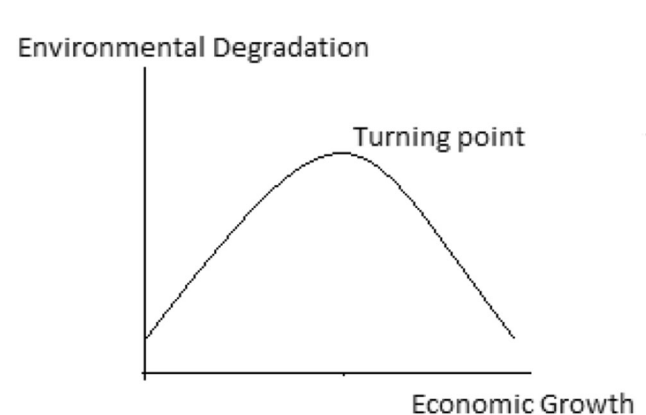
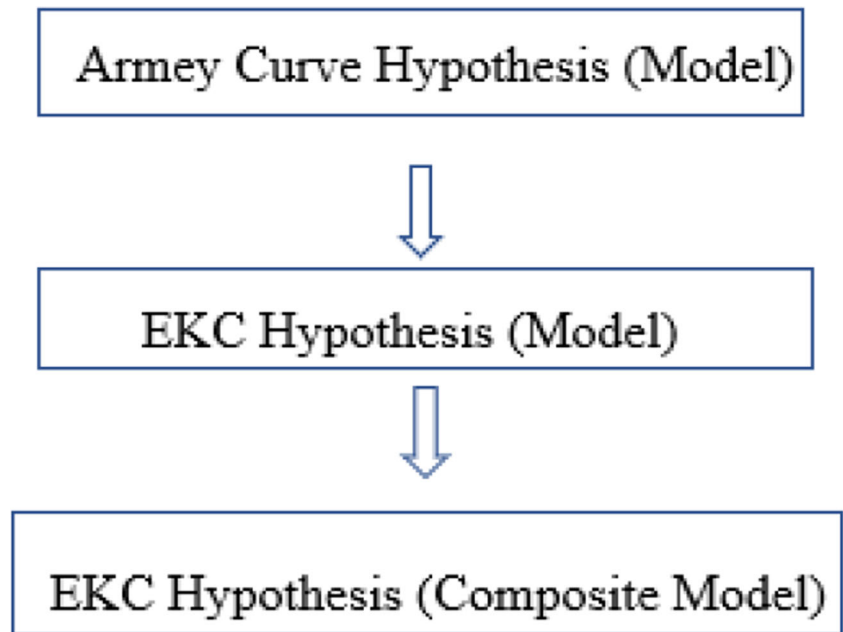


Fig. 2 Environmental Kuznets Curve

Fig. 3 EKC hypothesis testing through the Armeey curve hypothesis



hypothesis through the Armeey curve hypothesis (model)? If we can, this can be interpreted that the EKC hypothesis can be potentially tested by a kind of transmission mechanism of the Armeey curve model. The answers to these questions will reveal clearly the objective and the empirical contribution of this study in the related literature.

In this context, a single composite model derived from these two hypotheses (models) can be set up. To the best of our knowledge, this new methodological approach proposed using a single composite model will be the only attempt used in testing the EKC hypothesis in relevant literature. This alternative approach of testing the EKC hypothesis and transmission mechanism can be shown in the following Figure 3:

Therefore, we will try to test the EKC hypothesis in this methodological context for 50 US states from 1990 to 2017 based on the latest available year data. The rationale of a state-level empirical study is that US states have different levels of real GDP per capita, spending, CO₂ emissions, and energy policies. These differences make the USA a unique sample country. Another advantage of sampling US states is that this country provides a wide range of data at the state level for more detailed empirical results. The necessary conditions for testing the EKC hypothesis through the Armeey curve model are as follows: first, the Armeey curve must be validated for a sample US state. Second, the composite model must be significant for the same US state. This means that the curve shape of the Armeey model must be inverted U-shaped. However, significant composite model can be either U-shaped or inverted U-shaped. If the composite model's curve is also inverted U-shaped, this will imply that the EKC hypothesis is validated through the Armeey curve hypothesis (Case 1 in Figure 4). Otherwise, significant but U-shaped curve will not validate this hypothesis through the Armeey curve model (Case

2 in Figure 5). In the following Figures 4 and 5, we graphically depict these two potential curve cases of the composite EKC model with a validated Armeey curve hypothesis.

This proposed alternative EKC hypothesis testing method may provide an important advantage to US state policymakers in these two different cases. Case 1 may enable them to determine a maximum (optimal) spending level (through a maximum real GDP per capita level: point (A) that maximizes CO₂ emission (point B). Hence, the policymakers may know that additional spending after point A will decrease real GDP per capita and CO₂ emission, implying a dilemma between

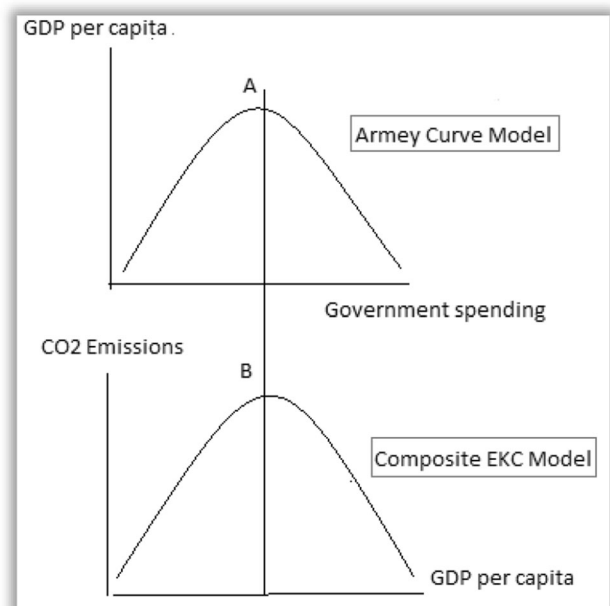


Fig. 4 Case 1

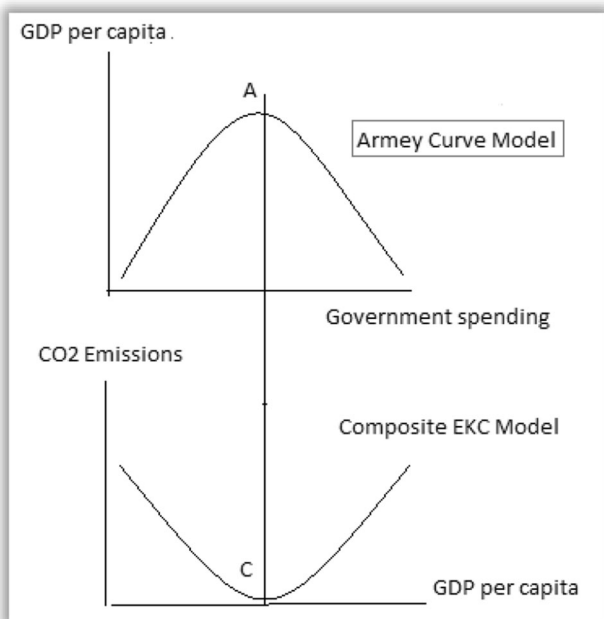


Fig. 5 Case 2

cleaner environment or lower real GDP per capita. From this point of view, they may determine a golden (optimal) ratio reckoning with the potential changes in real GDP per capita and CO₂ emission as a whole. Case 2 may enable them to determine a maximum (optimal) public spending level (through a maximum real GDP per capita level: point A) that minimizes CO₂ emission (point C). Hence, policymakers may know that additional spending, after point A, will decrease real GDP per capita and increase CO₂ emission (point C), implying no more government spending is needed after point A. To some degree, this proposed methodological approach also enables US state policymakers to find out whether their economic growth and energy policies are compatible with each other and sustainable or how these two policies interact with each other. In this interpretation, while we regard economic growth policy with the Army curve hypothesis (based on government spending), we regard energy policy with the EKC hypothesis (based on increases in real GDP per capita). Therefore, policymakers in cross-border states can develop some common economic and energy policies to ensure more sustainable environment. The following sections of the study are as follows: “Empirical model and estimation methodology” explains the empirical model and estimation methodology. “Empirical findings” and “Conclusion with policy implications” provide the empirical findings and the conclusion with policy implications, respectively. An updated comprehensive literature review that examines these two hypotheses

individually for the US or in a group of countries is provided in Table 6 in Appendix 1.

Empirical model and estimation methodology

The empirical model of this study was theoretically constructed based on Figure 3 in the introduction section. Hence, to create our composite EKC model, we, first, write the following Army curve model in the natural logarithmic form for the 50 US states:

$$\ln DI_{it} = \alpha + \beta \ln S_{it} + \gamma \ln S_{it}^2 + \zeta \ln EC_{it} + \varepsilon_{it} \tag{1}$$

where *DI* is state-level per capita real disposable personal income as the proxy of real GDP per capita. *S* and *S*² are state government spending and squared value of state government spending, respectively; *EC* is total energy consumption. According to the Army curve hypothesis, the signs for β and γ are expected to be significantly positive and negative, respectively. If these two coefficients are characterized by these signs ($\beta > 0; \gamma < 0$), it is implied that the Army curve hypothesis is valid for a US state. This means that rises in spending will initially lead to increases in real GDP per capita up to a threshold point (optimal state government spending level) and eventually lead to decreases in it. The dataset and definitions of the variables are provided before the references section.

Following the Army curve model in Eq. (1), we present the EKC hypothesis model in the following form:

$$\ln CO2_{it} = a + b \ln DI_{it} + c \ln DI_{it}^2 + z \ln EC_{it} + \varepsilon_{it} \tag{2}$$

where CO₂ is state-level carbon emissions, and *DI* and *DI*² are state-level per capita real disposable personal income and squared value of per capita real disposable personal income, respectively. *EC* is total energy consumption. According to the EKC hypothesis, the signs for *b* and *c* are expected to be significantly positive and negative, respectively. If these two coefficients are characterized by these signs ($b > 0; c < 0$), it is implied that the EKC hypothesis is valid for a US state. This means that rises in income will initially lead to an increase in CO₂ emissions and eventually lead to a decrease in it after a maximum point of income.

From the models in Eqs. (1) and (2), we create-obtain the following composite model without *EC* in Eq. (3). To show the methodological approach of this study clearly, we have designed the model in the following form without *EC*:

$$\ln CO2_{it} = a + b \underbrace{(\alpha + \beta \ln S_{it} + \gamma \ln S_{it}^2)}_{DI} + c \underbrace{(\alpha + \beta \ln S_{it} + \gamma \ln S_{it}^2)^2}_{DI^2} \dots \dots \dots \varepsilon_{it} \tag{3}$$

Hence, with this model formula, we can test the EKC hypothesis through the Arme y curve model mathematically since the independent variables of the EKC model (DI and DI^2) will be represented by the independent variables of the Arme y curve model in parentheses (S and S^2). The EKC hypothesis is validated if the signs for b and c (corresponding to DI and DI^2) are positive and negative, respectively.

To determine the maximum (optimal) government spending level that will maximize (Case 1 in Figure 4) or minimize (Case 2 in Figure 5) CO_2 emissions, we have created and used the following steps and formulae:

From the first-order optimization condition $dlnDI/dlnS$ applied to Eq. (1), we obtain the state government spending level as,

$$lnS = -\frac{\beta}{2\gamma}$$

The sufficient condition for maximization is $d^2lnDI/dlnS^2 = 2\gamma < 0$, so γ is expected to be < 0 . For data consisting of $S_i > 1$, lnS is positive, so β is expected to be > 0 . Later, we obtain the optimal level for the composite model in Eq. (3), from the first-order condition dCO_2/dS :

$$lnS_1 = -\frac{\beta}{2\gamma}$$

$$lnS_{2,3} = \frac{-\beta \pm \sqrt{\beta^2 - 2\left(\frac{b}{c}\right)\gamma - 4\alpha\gamma}}{2\gamma}$$

The value of $lnS = -\frac{\beta}{2\gamma}$ in Eq. (4) will be the optimal CO_2 emissions level for Eq. (3). When we insert the value of $lnS = -\frac{\beta}{2\gamma}$ into $d^2CO_2/dlnS^2 = 2b\gamma + 2c(\beta + 2\gamma lnS)^2 + 4c\gamma(\alpha + \beta lnS + \gamma lnS^2)$, we obtain the following formula:

$$\frac{d^2CO_2}{dlnS^2}(lnS_1) = -c\beta^2 + 2b\gamma + 4c\alpha\gamma$$

if $\gamma < 0$ and $-c\beta^2 + 2b\gamma + 4c\alpha\gamma > 0$, it means that the Arme y curve has an inverted U-shape and the composite EKC is U-shaped. If $\gamma < 0$ and $-c\beta^2 + 2b\gamma + 4c\alpha\gamma < 0$, it

means that the Arme y curve and the composite EKC are both inverted U-shaped. Finally, to estimate the coefficients of the model in Eq. (3), we have followed several methodological steps in the following sub-titles.

Cross-sectional dependence and heterogeneity tests

The empirical analysis begins with testing cross-sectional dependence and slope heterogeneity in the panel data set. The paper performs the Lagrange Multiplier (LM), CD, CD_{LM} , and LM_{adj} tests to examine whether cross-sectional dependence exists. While the LM test was produced by Breusch and Pagan (1980), CD and CD_{LM} tests were suggested by Pesaran (2004). In addition, LM_{adj} test was propounded by Pesaran et al. (2008). The paper also employs $\tilde{\Delta}$ and $\tilde{\Delta}_{adj}$ tests to investigate the possible presence of slope heterogeneity. Both tests were developed by Pesaran and Yamagata (2008). While cross-sectional dependence tests search for the null hypothesis of no cross-sectional dependence, heterogeneity tests examine the null hypothesis of slope homogeneity.

Pesaran (2007) panel unit root test

This paper carries out the augmented Dickey-Fuller (henceforth, CADF) panel unit root test of Pesaran (2007) to examine whether there is a unit root in the variables under consideration. This panel unit root test considers the null hypothesis of a unit root and can reveal biased and efficient output in the existence of slope heterogeneity and cross-sectional dependence in the panel data model.

Westerlund (2007) panel cointegration test

To test cointegration in the presence of cross-sectional dependence, Westerlund (2007) produces panel cointegration tests based on the error correction model. Among these tests, P_t and P_a statistics are defined as panel statistics and they depend on pooling information on error correction across cross sections in the panel. Besides, G_t and G_a are called group mean statistics and they do not use the information utilized by

Table 1 Descriptive statistics for the variables in the models

	lnDI	lnS	(lnS) ²	lnCO ₂	(lnDI) ²	(lnS+(lnS) ²)	(lnS+(lnS) ²) ²	lnEC
Descriptive statistics								
Mean	10.246	16.604	276.766	3.016	105.096	293.370	87336.03	5.842
Median	10.275	16.609	275.874	2.942	105.578	292.484	85546.89	5.797
Maximum	11.014	19.673	387.033	4.872	121.318	406.706	165409.8	7.087
Minimum	9.406	14.111	199.118	2.086	88.478	213.229	45466.74	5.159
Std. deviation	0.332	1.037	34.613	0.547	6.803	35.650	21331.43	0.364
Number of observations	1400	1400	1400	1400	1400	1400	1400	1400

Table 2 Cross-sectional dependence and heterogeneity tests results

<i>Armeiy curve model</i> $\ln DI = F(\ln S, (\ln S)^2, \ln EC)$	Test statistic	p-value
Cross-sectional dependence tests		
LM	7707.202*	0.000
CD _{LM}	190.960*	0.000
CD	74.337*	0.000
LM _{adj}	119.031*	0.000
Heterogeneity tests		
$\hat{\Delta}$	144.166*	0.000
$\hat{\Delta}_{adj}$	42.908*	0.000
<i>Traditional EKC model</i> $\ln CO_2 = F(\ln DI, (\ln DI)^2, \ln EC)$		
Cross-sectional dependence tests		
LM	7162.865*	0.000
CD _{LM}	119.963*	0.000
CD	52.835*	0.000
LM _{adj}	252.897*	0.000
Heterogeneity tests		
$\hat{\Delta}$	1525.583*	0.000
$\hat{\Delta}_{adj}$	44.414*	0.000
<i>Composite EKC model</i> $\ln CO_2 = F[(\ln S + (\ln S)^2), (\ln S + (\ln S)^2)^2, \ln EC]$		
Cross-sectional dependence tests		
LM	6429.641*	0.000
CD _{LM}	105.150*	0.000
CD	48.781*	0.000
LM _{adj}	216.052*	0.000
Heterogeneity tests		
$\hat{\Delta}$	741.817*	0.000
$\hat{\Delta}_{adj}$	56.913*	0.000

* indicates 1% statistical significance

panel statistics. The null hypothesis of no cointegration is tested for all tests. Westerlund (2007) uses the panel regression model defined as follows:

$$\Delta Y_{it} = \delta'_i d_t + \lambda'_i \Delta X_{it} + \gamma_i Y_{it-1} + \varphi_i X_{it-1} + \varepsilon_{it}$$

where d_t indicates deterministic components, λ_i shows long-run parameters, and α_{ij} and γ_{ij} stand for short-run parameters. For P_α and P_τ tests, the null hypothesis of cointegration ($H_0: p_i = 0$ for all i) is tested against the alternative of cointegration

($H_1: p_i < 0$ for all i). P_α and P_τ tests are computed as,

$$P_a = (\sum_{i=1}^N L_{i11})^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^N L_{i12}$$

$$P_t = \hat{\sigma}^{-1} (\sum_{i=1}^N L_{i11})^{-1/2} \sum_{i=1}^N L_{i12}$$

Additionally, for G_α and G_τ tests, the null hypothesis of no cointegration is defined as $H_0: p_i = 0$ for all i , while the alternative hypothesis of cointegration is described as $H_1: p_i < 0$ for at least some i . G_α and G_τ test statistics are computed as shown in the following:

$$G_a = \sum_{i=1}^N L_{i11}^2 L_{i12}$$

$$G_t = \sum_{i=1}^N \hat{\sigma}_i^{-1} L_{i11}^{-1/2} L_{i12}$$

Augmented mean group estimator

After detecting the presence of cointegration in a panel data model, the next step is to estimate long-run coefficients. Eberhardt and Teal (2010) propound a two-stage panel data estimator. The regression equations for this estimator are shown as

Table 3 CADF unit root test

Variable	Test statistic	
	Level	First difference
lnDI	- 1.766	- 2.213**
lnS	- 2.026	- 2.174**
(lnS) ²	- 2.022	- 2.170**
lnCO ₂	- 1.423	- 2.342*
(lnDI) ²	- 1.762	- 2.225**
(lnS+(lnS) ²)	- 2.023	- 2.170**
(lnS+(lnS) ²) ²	- 2.015	- 2.166**
lnEC	- 1.008	- 2.324**

* and ** respectively indicate 1% and 5% statistical significance

Table 4 Westerlund (2007) panel cointegration test

	G _t	G _a	P _t	P _a
Armey curve model lnDI=F(lnS, (lnS) ² , EC)	- 2.761*	- 0.937	- 4.075*	- 2.957
Traditional EKC model lnCO ₂ =F(lnDI, (lnDI) ² , EC)	- 2.221*	- 5.242	- 12.905*	- 4.625
Composite EKC model lnCO ₂ =F[(lnS+(lnS) ²), (lnS+(lnS) ²) ² , EC]	- 2.114*	- 6.396	- 13.408*	- 6.038**

* and ** indicate 1% and 5% statistical significances, respectively. G_t and G_a denote group mean statistics, while P_t and P_a denote panel statistics

$$\Delta y_{it} = b' \Delta x_{it} + \sum_{t=2}^T c_t D_t + e_{it} \hat{c}_t = \hat{\mu}_t^\circ$$

$$y_{it} = a_i + b_i' x_{it} + c_i t + d_i \hat{\mu}_t^\circ + e_{it} \hat{b}_{AMG} = N^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^N \hat{b}_i$$

In the first step, a standard pooled first difference regression that incorporates T-1 dummies, namely $\hat{\mu}_t^\circ$, is estimated. In the second step, this variable is included in N standard unit regressions. The cointegration parameters of the variables in the empirical models are demonstrated by \hat{b}_{AMG} for the panel.

The obtained values of descriptive are given in Table 1 for the datasets of US States.

Empirical findings

Table 2 reports the cross-sectional dependence (CSD) and slope heterogeneity tests results for the Armey curve, the traditional EKC, and composite EKC economic models.

Test results in Table 2 indicate that the null hypothesis of CSD is rejected at the 1% level of significance. This means all series of the models contains CSD and a shock in one of the US states can impact other US states. Furthermore, the null hypothesis of slope homogeneity can be rejected by both tests for all models. This means that US states have specific characteristics in terms of the Armey and the EKC hypotheses. The results of the covariate-augmented Dickey-Fuller (CADF) unit root test are reported in Table 3.

Test results in Table 3 indicate that all variables are integrated of order one (I(1)). This means that series are stationary at first differences. Hence, cointegration relationships in the models can be examined via the Westerlund (2007) panel cointegration test. The results of this test are reported in Table 4.

As seen in Table 4, G_t test statistic indicates there is a cointegration relationship in the Armey curve model, while G_t and P_t test statistics explore whether cointegration exists in the EKC model. Besides, G_t, P_t, and P_a test statistics show there is cointegration in the composite model. Hence, the Westerlund (2007) panel cointegration test implies there is a cointegration relationship in all models and the long-run coefficients of the independent variables in the models can be estimated via the augmented mean group (AMG) estimator.

Test results of the AMG estimator test results are reported in Table 7 in Appendix 2.

Test results in Table 7 indicate that the Armey curve hypothesis is validated only for 15 US states out of the 50, namely, Colorado, Connecticut, Georgia, Idaho, Illinois, Indiana, Kentucky, Maine, Minnesota, Mississippi, Missouri, New Jersey, South Dakota, Tennessee, and Wisconsin. However, the composite EKC model is significant for only 7 of them, namely, Colorado, Georgia, Indiana, Kentucky, Maine, South Dakota, and Tennessee. This means that it is possible to test the EKC hypothesis with the proposed methodological approach of this study only for these 7 US states since the Armey curve hypothesis has been validated and the composite model is significant for these states. Furthermore, the composite EKC model hypothesis is validated only for Kentucky, Maine, South Dakota, and Tennessee since $\gamma < 0$ and $-c\beta^2 + 2b\gamma + 4ca\gamma < 0$ (two inverted U-shaped curves: Case 1 in Figure 4). However, the composite EKC hypothesis is not validated for Colorado, Georgia, and Indiana since $\gamma < 0$ and $-c\beta^2 + 2b\gamma + 4ca\gamma > 0$ (inverted U-shaped Armey curve and U-shaped composite EKC model in Case 2 in Figure 5). Furthermore, the maximum (optimal) state government spending levels that will maximize CO₂ emissions for Kentucky, Maine, South Dakota, and Tennessee were calculated as 17.5%, 16.4%, 15.2%, and 16.6% of real GDP per capita of these states, respectively. This can be depicted in Case 1 in Figure 4. Similarly, the maximum (optimal) state government spending levels that will minimize CO₂ emissions for Colorado, Georgia, and Indiana were calculated as 16.40%, 16.45, and 16.7% of real GDP per capita of these states, respectively. This can be depicted in Case 2 in Figure 5. Apart from the methodological approach of this study, the traditional EKC hypothesis is validated for only 7 US states out of the 50 since the signs for *b* and *c* in Eq. (2) are positive and negative, respectively (inverted U-shaped curves).

Additionally, rises in energy consumption (EC) increase CO₂ emissions in 41 US states out of the 50 since the signs of this variable are significantly positive. Table 5 shows the curve shapes of the Armey, traditional EKC, and composite EKC models. We also created US state-level maps (in Figures 6, 7, and 8) to show the validations of the Armey curve, the

Table 5 Curve shapes of the Armeý, EKC, and composite models

State		Traditional EKC model	Armeý curve model	Composite EKC model
Number	Name			
1	Alabama	–	–	–
2	Alaska	–	–	–
3	Arizona	U	U	U
4	Arkansas	–	–	–
5	California	U	U	U
6	Colorado	U	∩	U
7	Connecticut	–	∩	–
8	Delaware	U	–	U
9	Florida	–	U	–
10	Georgia	U	∩	U
11	Hawaii	∩	U	–
12	Idaho	U	∩	–
13	Illinois	∩	∩	–
14	Indiana	–	∩	U
15	Iowa	–	–	–
16	Kansas	–	U	–
17	Kentucky	∩	∩	∩
18	Louisiana	U	–	U
19	Maine	–	∩	∩
20	Maryland	–	–	U
21	Massachusetts	U	–	–
22	Michigan	∩	–	∩
23	Minnesota	–	∩	–
24	Mississippi	–	∩	–
25	Missouri	–	∩	–
26	Montana	U	U	U
27	Nebraska	–	–	∩
28	Nevada	–	–	–
29	New Hampshire	U	–	U
30	New Jersey	–	∩	–
31	New Mexico	–	–	–
32	New York	U	U	U
33	North Carolina	–	–	–
34	North Dakota	–	–	∩
35	Ohio	–	–	U
36	Oklahoma	–	U	–
37	Oregon	–	U	–
38	Pennsylvania	–	U	–
39	Rhode Island	∩	–	∩
40	South Carolina	–	–	U
41	South Dakota	∩	∩	∩
42	Tennessee	∩	∩	∩
43	Texas	U	–	–
44	Utah	–	–	–
45	Vermont	–	–	–
46	Virginia	–	U	–
47	Washington	–	–	–
48	West Virginia	–	–	–
49	Wisconsin	–	∩	–
50	Wyoming	–	–	∩

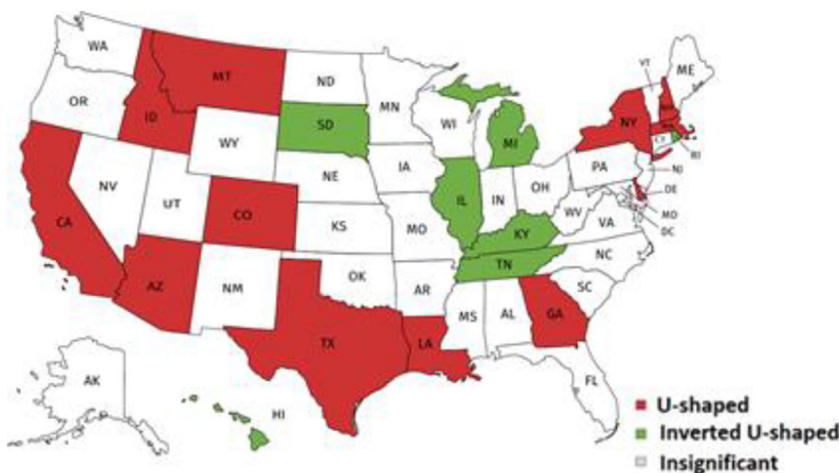
Curve shapes were obtained from Table 4. (U), U-shaped curve; (∩), inverted U-shaped curve; (–), insignificant model (curve)

traditional EKC, and composite EKC hypotheses. We believe that these maps will help state policymakers to re-review the results of their economic and energy policies in terms of these models. The Federal Government will also be enabled to re-review the states’ positions based on a holistic picture from these maps since the impact of the states’ economics-energy policies on CO₂ emissions varies from one another.

Conclusion with policy implications

The testing methodology of this study’s EKC hypothesis differs from all previous empirical studies, in relevant literature, that have used traditional EKC models. This methodology unifies two seemingly different but strongly interrelated hypotheses (models) into one single composite model. These are

Fig. 6 Traditional EKC Hypothesis



the Arme y curve and EKC hypotheses, which were constructed on the same nonlinear mathematical propositions with inverted U-shaped curves. These two hypotheses (models) also have economically interrelated-causal relationships between their independent and dependent variables. This can be explained because rising government spending (based on the Arme y curve hypothesis) increases real GDP per capita and, consequently, the increases in real GDP per capita increase environmental degradation (CO₂ emissions). In other words, the Arme y curve model’s dependent variable is the independent variable of the EKC model. Therefore, both mathematically and economically, we can create a single composite model, which will be derived from the individual Arme y and EKC models, to test the EKC hypothesis through the Arme y curve hypothesis (model) for US states. This methodology proposed may also allow US state policymakers to determine a single maximum (optimal) spending level that will maximize or minimize CO₂ emissions depending on the composite model’s curve shape. With this methodology, both economic policies through the Arme y curve, based on government spending, and energy policies through the EKC hypothesis, based on real GDP per capita, can be jointly

examined to a certain extent. This examination may also provide state policymakers to re-consider whether their economic and energy policies are compatible with each other.

Empirical findings indicate that the methodology proposed in this study, with its composite EKC model constructed based on the Arme y curve model, is capable of testing the EKC hypothesis for 7 states namely, Colorado, Georgia, Indiana, Kentucky, Maine, South Dakota, and Tennessee. For 4 of the 7 states, namely, Kentucky, Maine, South Dakota, and Tennessee, the EKC hypothesis is validated but not for the other 3 states. But, more importantly, regardless of the verification of the EKC hypothesis, with the model proposed by this study, these 4 US states’ policymakers will be able to determine the maximum spending levels that will maximize the real GDP per capita and CO₂ emissions. Hence, they will know that additional spending after this maximum threshold points will decrease environmental degradation as well as real GDP per capita. This outcome, of course, may create a dilemma for the policymakers who will have to choose between lower economic growth and cleaner environment. However, they can determine a golden ratio that will ensure them sustainable-compatible economic

Fig. 7 Arme y Curve Hypothesis

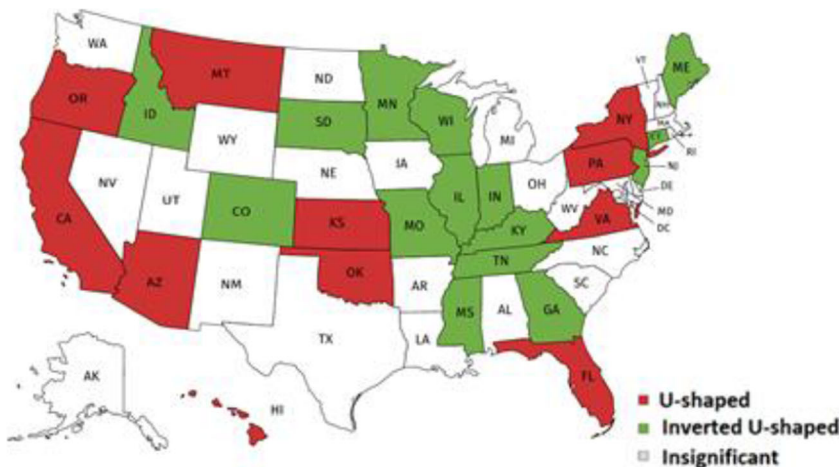
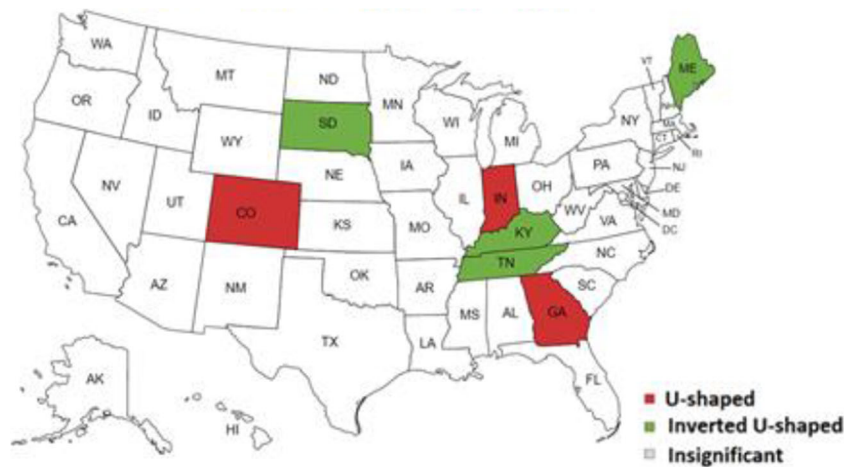


Fig. 8 The Composite EKC Model



and energy policies at a lower cost. From the same methodological context, the policymakers of Colorado, Georgia, and Indiana will be able to determine their maximum spending levels that will maximize the real GDP per capita and minimize CO₂ emissions. Hence, they will know that additional spending after this maximum threshold points will decrease real GDP per capita and increase CO₂ emissions. This outcome may give them an ideal (optimal) maximum spending level rather than creating a dilemma, as was the case with Kentucky, Maine, South Dakota, and Tennessee. Therefore, policymakers may slow down their economies with no more spending for compatible-sustainable economic and energy policies. Empirical findings of the models reveal that the maximum spending levels that will maximize or minimize real GDP per capita and CO₂ emissions are between 15.2 and 17.5% of the states’ real GDP per capita. Additionally, the map created in Figure 7 clearly shows that the Arme y curve hypothesis is validated in the states mostly located in the inner agricultural areas of the USA. Additional spending in these states initially increases real GDP per capita until a certain point and eventually decreases it.

All these outcomes and interactions expected between the variables should be considered based only on the proposed methodology of the study incorporating the Arme y curve and the traditional EKC models and not on other macroeconomic variables of the economy. The findings of this study show the need for further empirical studies that will re-approach and re-test the old and recent hypotheses-theories based on multi-dimensional-functional perspectives as we did for the EKC hypothesis. These types of approaches may enable examining economic issues from a holistic point of view since macroeconomic variables dynamically and causally interact with one another.

Supplementary Information The online version contains supplementary material available at <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11356-021-16720-2>.

Author contribution Conceptualization, S.O. and C.I.; methodology, U.B., C.I., S.O. and S.K.; investigation, R.A., M.I. and M.A.; writing—original draft preparation, S.O. C.I., U.B.; writing—review and editing, S.O. C.I., U.B., S.K. R.A., M.I. and M.A.; supervision, S.O. and S.K.; All authors have read and agreed to the published version of the manuscript.

Data availability *DI* and *S* are in USD; *C* is million btu. Data of state government spending were obtained from the Urban Institute (Urban). Data of state-level total energy consumption-CO₂ emissions (metric million tons) and real *DI* were obtained from the U.S. Energy Information Administration (EIA) and Data Planet, respectively.

Declarations

Ethics approval and consent to participate Not applicable.

Consent for publication Not applicable.

Competing interests The authors declare no competing interests.

References

- Ahmad M, Jabeen G, Irfan M, Işık C, Rehman A (2021a) Do inward foreign direct investment and economic development improve local environmental quality: aggregation bias puzzle. *Environ Sci Pollut Res*:1–21
- Ahmad M, Işık C, Jabeen G, Ali T, Ozturk I, Atchike DW (2021b) Heterogeneous links among urban concentration, non-renewable energy use intensity, economic development, and environmental emissions across regional development levels. *Sci Total Environ* 765:144527
- Ahmad M, Jabeen G, Shah SAA, Rehman A, Ahmad F, Işık C (2021c) Assessing long-and short-run dynamic interplay among balance of trade, aggregate economic output, real exchange rate, and CO₂ emissions in Pakistan. *Environ Dev Sustain* 1–41
- Alvarado R, Tillaguango B, López-Sánchez M, Ponce P, Işık C (2021a) Heterogeneous impact of natural resources on income inequality: the role of the shadow economy and human capital index. *Econ Anal Policy* 69:690–704
- Alvarado R, Tillaguango B, Dagar V, Ahmad M, Işık C, Méndez P, Toledo E (2021b) Ecological footprint, economic complexity and

- natural resources rents in Latin America: empirical evidence using quantile regressions. *J Clean Prod* 318:128585
- An H, Razaq A, Haseeb M, Miharjo LW (2021) The role of technology innovation and people's connectivity in testing environmental Kuznets curve and pollution heaven hypotheses across the Belt and Road host countries: new evidence from Method of Moments Quantile Regression. *Environ Sci Pollut Res* 28(5):5254–5270
- Anser MK, Yousaf Z, Nassani AA, Abro MMQ, Zaman K (2020) International tourism, social distribution, and environmental Kuznets curve: evidence from a panel of G-7 countries. *Environ Sci Pollut Res* 27(3):2707–2720
- Apergis N, Christou C, Gupta R (2017) Are there Environmental Kuznets Curves for US state-level CO₂ emissions? *Renew Sust Energ Rev* 69(C):551–558
- Armev D (1995) *The freedom revolution: why big government failed, why freedom works, and how we will rebuild America*. Regnery Publishing, Washington, DC
- Aslan A, Destek MA, Okumus I (2018) Bootstrap rolling window estimation approach to analysis of the Environment Kuznets Curve hypothesis: evidence from the USA. *Environ Sci Pollut Res* 25(3):2402–2408
- Barro RJ (1990) Government spending in a simple model of endogenous growth. *J Polit Econ* 98:S103–S125
- Bastiat F (1983) *Oeuvres économiques, coll. Libre échange*, PUF, Paris
- Bekun FV, Alola AA, Gyamfi BA et al (2021) The relevance of EKC hypothesis in energy intensity real-output trade-off for sustainable environment in EU-27. *Environ Sci Pollut Res* 28:51137–51148. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11356-021-14251-4>
- Bilgili F, Nathaniel SP, Kuşkaya S, Kassouri Y (2021) Environmental pollution and energy research and development: an Environmental Kuznets Curve model through quantile simulation approach. *Environ Sci Pollut Res*:1–16
- Bozma G, Başar S, Eren M (2019) Investigating validation of Armev curve hypothesis for G7 countries using ARDL model. *Doğuş Üniversitesi Dergisi* 20(1):4–59
- Breusch TS, Pagan AR (1980) The Lagrange multiplier test and its applications to model specification in econometrics. *Rev Econ Stud* 47(XLVII):239–253
- Chao J, Grubel H (1998) Optimal levels of spending and taxation in Canada, Chapter in *How to use the fiscal surplus: what is the optimum size of government*, The Fraser Institute, Vancouver.
- Cheong-Fatt N, Chee-Keong C, Lin-Sea L (2020) Environmental Kuznets curve hypothesis: asymmetry analysis and robust estimation under cross-section dependence. *Environ Sci Pollut Res Int* 27(15):18685–18698
- Colombier C (2009) Growth effects of fiscal policies: an application of robust modified M-estimator. *Appl Econ* 41(7):899–912
- Connolly M, Li C (2016) Government spending and economic growth in the OECD countries. *J Econ Policy Reform* 19(4):386–395
- Dar AA, Khalkhali SA (2002) Government size, factor accumulation, and economic growth: evidence from OECD countries. *J Policy Model* 24(7–8):679–692
- Data Planet (2021) *Data Planet Statistical Datasets* by SAGE Publishing Resource
- Dogan E, Inglesi-Lotz R (2020) The impact of economic structure to the environmental Kuznets curve (EKC) hypothesis: evidence from European countries. *Environ Sci Pollut Res* 27(11):12717–12724
- Dogan E, Ozturk I (2017) The influence of renewable and non-renewable energy consumption and real income on CO₂ emissions in the USA: evidence from structural break tests. *Environ Sci Pollut Res* 24(11):10846–10854
- Dogan E, Turkekel B (2016) CO₂ emissions, real output, energy consumption, trade, urbanization and financial development: testing the EKC hypothesis for the USA. *Environ Sci Pollut Res* 23(2):1203–1213
- Dogan E, Ulucak R, Kocak E, Isik C (2020) The use of ecological footprint in estimating the environmental Kuznets curve hypothesis for BRICST by considering cross-section dependence and heterogeneity. *Sci Total Environ* 723:138063
- Dogru T, Işık C, Sirakaya-Turk E. (2019) The balance of trade and exchange rates: Theory and contemporary evidence from tourism. *Tour Manag* 74:12–23
- Dogru T, Bulut U, Kocak E, Isik C, Suess C, Sirakaya-Turk E (2020) The nexus between tourism, economic growth, renewable energy consumption, and carbon dioxide emissions: contemporary evidence from OECD countries. *Environ Sci Pollut Res* 27(32):40930–40948
- Eberhardt M, Teal F (2010) *Productivity analysis in global manufacturing production*. University of Oxford Department of Economics Discussion Paper Series 515.
- EIA (2021) U.S. Energy Information Administration, <https://www.eia.gov/state/seds/seds-data-complete.php>
- Go YH, Lau LS, Ng CF, Yiew TH (2021) Obesity Kuznets curve hypothesis and global warming: a robust estimation under cross-section dependence. *Environ Sci Pollut Res*:1–9
- Grossman GM, Krueger AB (2019) *Environmental impacts of a North American Free Trade Agreement*. National Bureau of Economic Research Working Paper: 3914, NBER, Cambridge MA.
- Güngör H, Abu-Goodman M, Olanipekun IO, Usman O (2021) Testing the environmental Kuznets curve with structural breaks: the role of globalization, energy use, and regulatory quality in South Africa. *Environ Sci Pollut Res* 28(16):20772–20783
- Gyamfi BA, Adedoyin FF, Bein MA, Bekun FV (2021) Environmental implications of N-shaped environmental Kuznets curve for E7 countries. *Environ Sci Pollut Res* 1–11.
- Işık C (2010) Natural gas consumption and economic growth in Turkey: a bound test approach. *Ener Syst* 1(4):441–456
- Işık C (2013) The importance of creating a competitive advantage and investing in information technology for modern economies: an ARDL test approach from Turkey. *J Knowl Econ* 4(4):387–405
- Işık C, Kasımatı E, Ongan S (2017) Analyzing the causalities between economic growth, financial development, international trade, tourism expenditure and/on the CO₂ emissions in Greece. *Energy Sources, Part B: Economics, Planning, and Policy* 12(7):665–673
- Işık C, Dogru, T, Turk ES (2018) A nexus of linear and non-linear relationships between tourism demand, renewable energy consumption, and economic growth: Theory and evidence. *Int J Tour Res* 20(1):38–49
- Işık C, Ongan S, Ozdemir D (2019a) Testing the EKC hypothesis for ten US states: an application of heterogeneous panel estimation method. *Environ Sci Pollut Res* 26(11):10846–10853
- Işık C, Ongan S, Özdemir D (2019b) The economic growth/development and environmental degradation: evidence from the US state-level EKC hypothesis. *Environ Sci Pollut Res* 26(30):30772–30781
- Işık C et al (2020) An evaluation of the tourism-induced environmental Kuznets curve (T-EKC) hypothesis: evidence from G7 Countries. *Sustainability* 12(21):9150
- Işık C et al (2021a) The increases and decreases of the environment Kuznets curve (EKC) for 8 OECD countries. *Environ Sci Pollut Res* 28(22):28535–28543
- Işık C et al (2021b) Convergence analysis of the ecological footprint: theory and empirical evidence from the USMCA countries. *Environ Sci Pollut Res*:1–12
- Karras G (1997) On the optimal government size in Europe: theory and empirical evidence. *Manch Sch* 65(3):280–294
- Khan I, Hou F (2021) Does multilateral environmental diplomacy improve environmental quality? The case of the United States. *Environ Sci Pollut Res (Forthcoming)* 28:23310–23322
- Knoop TA (1999) Growth, welfare, and the size of government. *J Econ Inquiry* 37(1):103–119
- Lucas RE (1988) On the mechanics of economic development. *J Monet Econ* 22:3–42

- Minlah MK, Zhang X (2021) Testing for the existence of the Environmental Kuznets Curve (EKC) for CO₂ emissions in Ghana: evidence from the bootstrap rolling window Granger causality test. *Environ Sci Pollut Res* 28(2):2119–2131
- Murshed M, Alam R, Ansarin A (2021) The environmental Kuznets curve hypothesis for Bangladesh: the importance of natural gas, liquefied petroleum gas, and hydropower consumption. *Environ Sci Pollut Res* 28(14):17208–17227
- Naqvi SAA, Shah SAR, Anwar S, Raza H (2021) Renewable energy, economic development, and ecological footprint nexus: fresh evidence of renewable energy environment Kuznets curve (RKC) from income groups. *Environ Sci Pollut Res* 28(2):2031–2051
- Nawaz MN, Alvi S, Akmal T (2021) The impasse of energy consumption coupling with pollution haven hypothesis and environmental Kuznets curve: a case study of South Asian economies. *Environ Sci Pollut Res* 28:48799–48807
- Ongan S, Işık C, Özdemir D (2017) The effects of real exchange rates and income on international tourism demand for the USA from some European Union countries. *Econ* 5(4):51
- Ongan S, Ozdemir D, Işık C (2018) Testing the J-curve hypothesis for the USA: applications of the nonlinear and linear ARDL models. *South-Eastern Europe Journal of Economics* 16(1)
- Ongan S, Isik C, Ozdemir D (2021) Economic growth and environmental degradation: evidence from the US case environmental Kuznets curve hypothesis with application of decomposition. *J Environ Econ Policy* 10(1):14–21
- Pata UK, Işık C (2021) Determinants of the load capacity factor in China: A novel dynamic ARDL approach for ecological footprint accounting. *Resour Pol* 74:102313
- Pesaran MH (2004) General diagnostic tests for cross section dependence. CESifo Working Paper 1229.
- Pesaran MH (2007) A simple panel unit root test in the presence of cross-section dependence. *J Appl Econ* 22:265–312
- Pesaran MH, Yamagata T (2008) Testing slope homogeneity in large panels. *J Econ* 142(10):50–93
- Pesaran MH, Ullah A, Yamagata T (2008) A bias-adjusted LM test of error cross-section independence. *Econ J* 11:105–127
- Rajput S, Tariq A (2019) Government size and economic growth: a panel data study comparing OECD and non-OECD countries. *Appl Econ J* 26(2):22–37
- Rehman A, Ulucak R, Murshed M, Ma H, Işık C (2021a) Carbonization and atmospheric pollution in China: The asymmetric impacts of forests, livestock production, and economic progress on CO₂ emissions. *J Environ Manag* 294:113059
- Rehman A, Ma H, Ahmad M, Ozturk I, Işık C (2021b) An asymmetrical analysis to explore the dynamic impacts of CO₂ emission to renewable energy, expenditures, foreign direct investment, and trade in Pakistan. *Environ Sci Pollut Res* 28:1–13
- Rehman A, Ma H, Ahmad M, Ozturk I, Işık C (2021c) Estimating the connection of information technology, foreign direct investment, trade, renewable energy and economic progress in Pakistan: evidence from ARDL approach and cointegrating regression analysis. *Environ Sci Pollut Res* 28:1–13
- Romer PM (1986) Increasing returns and long-run growth. *J Polit Econ* 94:1002–1037
- Pablo-Romero MdP, Pozo-Barajas R, Molleda-Jimena G (2021) Residential energy environmental Kuznets curve extended with non-linear temperature effects: a quantile regression for Andalusian (Spain) municipalities. *Environ Sci Pollut Res* 28:48984–48999. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11356-021-13608-z>
- Roy AG (2009) Evidence on economic growth and government size. *Appl Econ* 41:607–614
- Sarte PD (2001) Rent-seeking bureaucracies and oversight in a simple growth model. *J Econ Dyn Control* 25:1345–1365
- Scully GW (1994) What is the optimal size of government in the US? Policy Report 188, National Center for Policy Analysis.
- Shahbaz M, Solarin SA, Hammoudeh S, Shahzad SJH (2017) Bounds testing approach to analyzing the environment Kuznets curve hypothesis with structural breaks: the role of biomass energy consumption in the United States. *Energy Econ* 68:548–565
- Shahzad U, Radulescu M, Rahim S, Isik C, Yousaf Z, Ionescu SA (2021) Do environment-related policy instruments and technologies facilitate renewable energy generation? Exploring the Contextual Evidence from Developed Economies. *Energies* 14(3):690
- Sohag K, Mariev O, Davidson N (2021) Revising environmental Kuznets curve in Russian regions: role of environmental policy stringency. *Environ Sci Pollut Res* 28:52873–52886. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11356-021-14515-z>
- Solow RM (1956) A contribution to the theory of economic growth. *Q J Econ* 70:65–94
- Sun Y, Li M, Zhang M, Khan HSUD, Li J, Li Z, Sun H, Zhu Y, Anaba OA (2021) A study on China's economic growth, green energy technology, and carbon emissions based on the Kuznets curve (EKC). *Environ Sci Pollut Res* 28(6):7200–7211
- Urban Institute (2021) State and Local Finance Data. <https://state-local-finance-data.taxpolicycenter.org/pages.cfm>
- Vedder RK, Gallaway LE (1998) Government size and economic growth. Paper prepared for the Joint Economic Committee of the US Congress, Washington.
- Verbič M, Satrovic E, Muslija A (2021) Environmental Kuznets curve in Southeastern Europe: the role of urbanization and energy consumption. *Environ Sci Pollut Res*:1–11
- Westerlund J (2007) Testing for error correction in panel data. *Oxf Bull Econ Stat* 69(6):709–748

Publisher's note Springer Nature remains neutral with regard to jurisdictional claims in published maps and institutional affiliations.