

Growth and natural resources: A meta-analysis contribution to the Energy–GDP causality and energy scarcity dialogue

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Abstract

The relationship between energy consumption and economic growth expressed in terms of gross domestic product (GDP), and the policy implications of the empirical and econometric findings have been extensively examined within the energy policy and resources economics research. The literature on the causal relationship between energy consumption and economic production dates back to the late '70s with the pioneering work by Kraft and Kraft in 1978, initiating an ongoing debate which counts more than 172 research papers since 2011 and covers various energy sources and energy measurement methods, different methodological approaches, several spatial levels (cities, countries and group of countries, etc) with various results about the existence of causality or not among variables. The main aim of present study is to review the studies of the Energy-GDP causality debate through a systematic Meta-analysis based on contemporary methods originated from operational research and multinomial logistic regression analysis. This is the first time, to our knowledge, that the meta-analysis tool has been applied as an alternative method of revealing the core of energy and GDP causal relationship.. The results of the meta-analysis application could be seen as one dimension of the critical question: can we possibly continue to assume that our economic growth engine will continue to grow, to serve the growing needs of an increasing population, taking into account with natural resources availability and scarcity and the technological advance?

Keywords

Energy consumption, Granger Causality, Rough set data analysis, Multinomial logistic regression, energy scarcity

1. Introduction

There has been a growing literature over the last three decades on the causal relationship between energy consumption and economic growth, measured in terms of GDP. This continuous debate on causality has produced more than 172 research papers. The causality debate presents a wide variety of approaches focusing on different countries, groups of countries or even parts of a country, employing different econometric methodologies, over various time periods and using different proxy variables. The direction of the causal relationship between energy consumption and economic growth can be grouped into four distinct categories, according to Ozturk (2010) and Payne (2010):

- **Neutrality hypothesis or no causality (E≠GDP):** no causality exists between GDP and energy consumption. It implies that energy consumption is not correlated with GDP growth.
- **Conservation hypothesis (GDP→E):** unidirectional causality running from GDP to energy consumption. It implies that GDP growth causes energy consumption.
- **Growth hypothesis (E→GDP):** unidirectional causality running from energy consumption to GDP. It implies that energy consumption causes GDP growth.

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- **Feedback hypothesis (E↔GDP) or bi-directional causality:** a bi-directional causality which flows between GDP and energy consumption. Both energy consumption and GDP growth cause each other.

The empirical findings on the energy consumption-economic growth nexus have resulted in mixed and sometimes conflicting results. These contradictions raise some very important questions (Beaudreau, 2010). Could the selected methodology be flawed? Or could the choice of variables be flawed? In the present work we survey the literature on the energy-growth causal relationship for the period 1978-2011. The purpose of this paper is dual: first, to give an integrated survey of the empirical literature on the energy-growth nexus since 2011 and, second, to examine these results with contemporary meta-analysis methods (rough set data-analysis and multinomial logistic regression analysis). The paper is organized as follows: Section 2 reviews the relevant causality debate literature from 1978 to 2011; Section 3 analyses the rough set meta-analysis methodology, application and estimated results; Section 4 describes the results of a multinomial logistic regression analysis; and, finally, Sections 5 and 6 present further discussion and the overall concluding remarks.

2. Literature review of causality debate between energy consumption and economic growth

The present study bases its literature review mainly on two previous literature surveys on the energy-GDP causality debate (Ozturk, 2010; Payne, 2010) as well as on personal research by the authors. The relevant literature can be categorized in various ways. We can condense the main common characteristics of energy-growth causality studies into five distinct categories:

- *Time period examined.* Some studies examine a very short period of time, up to 10 years (Sari et al., 2008; Abosedra et al., 2009), others examine a period between 10 and 40 years (Kraft & Kraft, 1978; Erol & Yu, 1987; Chang et al., 2001; Chontanawat et al., 2006), and many studies examine a period of 40 years or more (Stern, 1993; Cheng, 1999; Aqeel & Butt, 2001; Soytas & Sari, 2003; Jianhua & Zhaohua, 2011).
- *A single country or a group of countries is examined.* Countries may be grouped according to their economic status (Soytas & Sari, 2006; Acaravci and Ozturk, 2010; Apergis and Payne, 2010; Belke et al., 2011), geographical criteria (Narayan and Smyth, 2009; Mishra et al., 2009; Esso, 2010), their energy imports and exports profile (Mahadevan and Asafu-Adjaye, 2007; Squalli, 2007) or other country unions and trade agreements (Al-Ariani, 2006; Apergis and Payne, 2009, 2010). There are also studies referring to former country unions (Reynolds and Kolodziej, 2008) and separate parts, or economic sectors of a country. (Wolde-Rufael, 2004; Ho and Siu, 2007; Zhixin and Hin, 2011)
- *Methodology.* A broad variety of methodological approaches has been implemented in order to reveal the presence of causality between energy consumption and economic growth and in which direction this causality operates. These approaches can be classified into three broad classes (Beaudreau, 2010): early tests, cointegration tests and post-cointegration tests. Since the very beginning of the causality debate and until the mid-1990s, most studies (Kraft & Kraft, 1978; Yu & Hwang, 1984; Erol & Yu, 1987; Nachane et al., 1988; Abosedra & Baghestani, 1991; Stern, 1993) used a methodology generally based on both Granger (Granger, 1969) and Sims (Sims, 1972) econometric tests of causality, including the modified Engle-Granger causality test (Engle and Granger, 1987) and Hsiao's Granger causality test (Hsiao, 1981). In the 1990s the causality debate was enhanced by new methodological approaches (Johansen and Juselius, 1990) based on the cointegration method (Masih & Masih, 1996; Cheng, 1999; Stern, 2000; Yoo, 2005) and other alternatives such as Toda-Yamamoto causality tests (Toda and Yamamoto, 1995;

Fatai et al., 2002; Wolde-Rufael, 2005), Pedroni panel cointegration ((Pedroni, 1999; Lee, 2005; Mahadevan & Asafu-Adjaye, 2007; Costantini & Martini, 2010), ARDL bounds test (Shin et al., 2001; Fatai et al., 2002; Zachariadis, 2007; Ghosh, 2009; Ozturk & Acaravci, 2011) and more than 12 other methods (Thoma, 2004; Chiou-Wei et al., 2008; Belke et al., 2011).

- *Energy source type.* Various types of energy inputs have been examined in the energy-GDP causality debate. We can divide the literature into groups of studies estimating energy inputs contributions from fossil fuels at aggregate and disaggregate levels (Yoo, 2006; Zou & Chau, 2006; Narayan and Wong, 2009), electricity consumption (Ramcharran, 1990; Ghosh, 2002; Thoma, 2004; Zachariadis & Pashourtidou, 2007), nuclear energy consumption (Yoo & Jung, 2005; Payne and Taylor, 2008; Wolde-Rufael, 2010), renewable energy consumption (Tiwari, 2011), exergy approach (Warr et al., 2010) and divisia index of quality weighted energy consumption (Stern, 1993; Zarnikau, 1997; Stern, 2000).
- Four distinct types of direction of causality results can be described:
 1. The **neutrality hypothesis** as documented by Akarca and Long (1980), Yu and Hwang (1984), Yu and Choi (1985), Erol and Yu (1987), Yu et al. (1988), Yu and Jin (1992), Cheng (1996), Masih and Masih (1996), Glasure and Lee (1997), Fatai et al. (2002), Soytas and Sari (2003), Altinay and Karagol (2004), Chontanawat et al. (2006), Jobert and Karanfil (2007), Lee (2006), Soytas et al. (2007), Zachariadis (2007), Chiou-Wei et al. (2008), Karanfil (2008), Yuan et al. (2008), Chontanawat et al. (2009), Halicioglu (2009), Payne (2009), Soytas and Sari (2009), Wolde-Rufael (2009), Acaravci & Ozturk (2010), Yoo & Kwak (2010), Payne & Taylor (2010), Payne (2011a.), Yanqin (2011).
 2. The **conservation hypothesis** has empirical support from Kraft and Kraft (1978), Abosedra and Baghestani (1989), Masih and Masih (1996), Cheng and Lai (1997), Cheng (1998, 1999), Soytas et al. (2001), Aqeel and Butt (2001), Soytas and Sari (2003), Soytas and Sari (2006), Lee (2006), Zachariadis (2007), Zamani (2007), Mehrara (2007), Lise and Van Montfort (2007), Lee and Chang (2007b), Chiou-Wei et al. (2008), Ang (2008), Zhang and Cheng (2009), and Wolde-Rufael (2009), Chih Chang (2010), Ozturk et al. (2010), Lean & Smyth (2010), Costantini & Martini (2010), Ezzo (2010), Kumar (2011), Chih Chang et al. (2011).
 3. The **growth hypothesis** is supported by empirical findings in Stern (1993), Masih and Masih (1996), Glasure and Lee (1997), Stern (2000), Asafu-Adjaye (2000), Soytas and Sari (2003), Wolde-Rufael (2004), Thoma (2004), Lee (2005), Lee and Chang (2005), Soytas and Sari (2006), Lee (2006), Lee and Chang (2007b), Ho and Siu (2007), Climent and Pardo (2007), Ang (2007), Narayan and Smyth (2008), Chiou-Wei et al. (2008), Wolde-Rufael (2009), Odhiambo (2009), Tsani (2010), Magazzino (2011), Fatros & Maabudi (2011), Heo et al. (2011), Alam et al. (2011), Tiwari (2011), Jianhua & Zhaohua (2011), Zhixin & Xin (2011), Arifin & Syahrudin (2011).
 4. The **feedback hypothesis** is documented by Hwang and Gum (1991), Masih and Masih (1996,1997), Asafu-Adjaye (2000), Yang (2000), Hondroyiannis et al. (2000), Glasure (2002), Soytas and Sari (2003), Paul and Bhattacharya (2004), Oh and Lee (2004a, 2004b), Ghali and El Sakka (2004), Soytas and Sari (2006), Lee (2006), Zachariadis (2007), Mahadevan and Asafu-Adjaye (2007), Erdal et al. (2008), Belloumi (2009), Mishra et al. (2009), Wolde-Rufael (2009), Apergis & Payne (2010), Belke et al. (2011), Kahsai et al. (2011), Eggoh et al.(2011), Shuyun & Donghu (2011), Kouakou (2011).

The literature survey reveals more than 172 studies. However, due to lack of the specific data required, accessibility and other reasons, we used 158 studies in our meta analysis (further details in Section 3).

To sum up, although the literature on the relationship between energy consumption and economic growth is quite vast, it provides mixed results and fails to reach a consensus as far as the direction of causality considered. Under these conditions, the present study tries to reveal the core of the causality debate by using the alternative approach of rough set meta analysis and a multinomial logistic regression method, for the first time in the history of this ongoing dialogue.

3. Methodology analysis.

The present paper tries to evaluate the contribution of the causality debate by testing the reliability of used methods and derived results under a meta-analysis re-examination. According to Glass (1976), meta-analysis is the statistical analysis of the results of a large collection of analyses for the purpose of integrating their findings (analysis of the analyses). A meta-analysis establishes the presence of an effect and could be a valuable tool for resolving differences in a debate or determining important moderators of an effect (De Coster, 2004). In other words, the basic purpose of meta-analysis is to provide the same methodological rigour to a literature review that is required from experimental research. According to Hawcroft and Milfont (2010), the procedure of meta-analysis can be described in three steps: (1) a search for studies (the database), (2) selection of studies that meet criteria for inclusion in the meta-analysis and, (3) coding of relevant study attributes. Following all of the above, special focus will be given to the way that our dataset is organized. For the 158 studies comprising our database, the following 8 categories (attributes) are recorded:

- The year of publication
- The time series period that is being examined
- The econometric method utilized to answer the question of causality
- A single country or a group of countries is being examined
- The wealth categorization of the country or group of countries
- The type of energy input
- The energy measuring method
- The causality direction of the result (the decision attribute)

Because of this categorization of attributes, we excluded some studies from the initial sample of more than 172 studies. Among the exclusions are literature reviews (Ozturk, 2010; Payne, 2010), special view points (Karnafil, 2009; Beaudreau, 2010) and a few studies that failed to give substantial input for the requisite categories (Suri, 1998; Holtedahl and Joutz, 2004; Adams and Shachmurove, 2008), or studies lacking accessibility to further details of the research beyond the study's abstract. Furthermore, we excluded studies or parts of studies examining other variables (e.g. causality between employment and GDP, employment and energy consumption etc). However, studies estimating the causality among a specific industry sector and relevant industrial production, business cycle or economic structure (Thoma, 2004; Ziramba, 2009; Feng et al., 2009) instead of GDP, are included in our estimations as part of the specified country. Variations in usage of GNP instead of GDP in earlier studies are considered as the same variable in our analysis, since the majority of the studies use GDP. Hence, it is our concern that the categorization of relevant studies according GDP and GNP is

meaningless in the present meta-analysis set. Another element excluded from the meta-analysis was the distinction between causality results in the short run and the long run. Distinctions between periods were estimated only in a few studies (Apergis & Payne, 2009b; Belloumi, 2009; Ciarreta & Zarraga, 2009; Magazzino, 2011; Ozturk & Acaravci, 2011; Alam et al., 2011; Zhixin & Xin, 2011) and for these we take into account only the results of the short run period. Studies which estimate causality for a group of countries are broken down into its component countries. The category “*single country or a group of countries*” was created for those studies where this separation was not possible.

Our research emphasizes the fundamental issue of causality, focusing on the direction of causality (or the lack of any relationship between GDP and Energy consumption). One advantage of meta-analysis is the investigation of the credibility of different methods and results, and the critical synthesis of them into an overall picture of the whole debate contribution. The Meta Analysis tool we apply is the Rough Set Data Analysis (RSDA) method which is further presented in the next section. The model used in the present study can be described in three general stages:

1. Data preparation (Data Coding)
2. Rough Set Analysis (Data Reduction, Rules Generation)
3. Validation of the results (Choice of Decision rules that better explain the dataset)

A fourth stage of a multinomial logistic regression was applied in order to further investigate the strength of each attribute’s contribution to the causality results.

3.1 Data preparation: coding attributes for Rough Set Data Analysis (RSDA)

In this section we analyze the method we used for preparing the dataset coding, thus we further discuss the first step presented in the previous section. We selected RSDA mainly because it is a simplified method used to discover information overlooked by other methods, to preprocess the data for further studying and to strengthen results previously found by other methods (Rupp, 2005). RSDA has been developed as an alternative data mining tool by Pawlak (1982, 1991) and further developed by Slowinski (1993). A rough set is a set for which it is uncertain in advance which objects belong precisely to that set. Rough set theory takes for granted the existence of a finite set of objects for which some information is known in terms of factual (qualitative or numerical) knowledge on a class of attributes (features, characteristics) (Bithas and Nijkamp, 1997a, 1997b). The rough set model is intended to be a structural, non-numerical method of information analysis, thus its quantitative aspects are of secondary interest (Duntsch and Gediga, 1998). Table 1 (see Appendix A) represents the “raw data”, the coding of our dataset. The dataset of 158 studies produced 686 cases. The Table 1 interpreted as follows: first column includes the unique number ID of each examined case. Second column is a brief reference of the relevant case study (e.g. name of the author/s and year of publication). Columns 3-10 describe the examined attributes concerning our cases. Last column d (decision), contains the decision variable, thus, the causality estimation for each case. The attributes and the decision variable respectively examined in following sub-sections.

3.1.1 Year of study publication

The coding of the attribute “*year of study publication*” is explained in Table 2 (see Appendix A). We divided publication years into four distinct categories: 1. 1970s, 2. 1980s, 3. 1990s and 4. 2000-2011 period. Table 1 presents only the coded value of the time period, thus 1,2,3 or 4.

3.1.2 Examined time period

The coding of the attribute “*examined time period*” is explained in Table 3 (see Appendix A). Six distinct categories were used: 1. Less than 10 years, 2. between 10-20 years, 3. between

20-30 years, 4. between 30-40 years, 5. More than 40 years and 6. No period defined. Table 1 presents only the coded value of the examined time period, thus 1, 2,3,4,5 or 6.

3.1.3 Country categorization

The coding of the attribute “*country categorization*” is explained in Table 4 (see Appendix A). Countries are categorized into 5 groups: 1. G7 member countries, 2. OECD member countries, 3. Non-OECD High Development Countries, 4. Other non-OECD countries, 5. Part (city or region) or Economic Sector of a country. Table 1 presents only the coded value of the country categorization, thus 1,2,3,4 or 5.

3.1.4 Methodology

The coding of the attribute “*methodology*” is explained in Table 5 (see Appendix A). Methodology was categorized into 6 distinct groups, described briefly as: 1. Sims & Engle-Granger Causality, 2. Johansen-Juselius, 3. Toda-Yamamoto Causality, 4. Pedroni Panel Cointegration, 5. ARDL Bounds test and 6. Others. Table 1 presents only the coded value of the methodology categorization, thus 1,2,3,4, 5 or 6.

3.1.5 Energy type

We examined each energy type separately in order to test causality results among different energy source inputs. The coding of the attribute “*energy type*” is explained in Table 6 (see Appendix A). The energy types examined in the causality debate are categorized into 9 distinct types: 1. Total fossil fuels consumption (Coal, Oil, Gas), 2. Electricity consumption (or production), 3. Energy consumption per capita (primary or electricity etc), 4. Total energy consumption (primary fuels+electricity), 5. Oil or petroleum consumption (or production), 6. Coal consumption (or production), 7. Gas consumption (or production), 8. Nuclear energy consumption (or production) and 9. Renewables energy consumption. Table 1 presents only the coded value of the methodology categorization, thus 1, 2, 3,4, 5, 6, 7, 8 or 9.

3.1.6 Energy measurement method

The way in which energy is measured is a crucial issue in the relationship between energy consumption, useful work and economic growth (Kaufmann, 1992; Warr et al., 2010; Stern, 2011). Since the causality debate plays a very important role in energy policy decisions, this attribute can be considered to be a significant component of our meta analysis study. The coding of the attribute “*energy measurement method*” is explained in Table 7 (see Appendix A). The energy measurement methods used in the causality debate are categorized into 9 distinct types: 1. Btu's, 2. Oil equivalent, 3. Electricity (watt), 4. Coal equivalent, 5. Exergy, 6. Crude quantity, 7. Devisia Index, 8. Joule and 9. Not defined (for those studies that do not specify the unit of measurement of energy). Table 1 presents only the coded value of the energy measurement method, thus 1, 2, 3,4, 5, 6, 7, 8 or 9.

3.1.7 Single country or group of countries

The coding of the attribute “*Single country or group of countries*” is explained in Table 8 (see Appendix A). This categorization created for those studies could not been managed as individual countries causality estimations. The dataset divided into two distinct categories: 1. Single country, if the estimated causality result referred to one sinle country and, 2. Group of countries, if the estimated causality result referred to an overall group of countries. Table 1 presents only the coded value of this category, either 1 or 2.

3.1.8 Decision variable coding. The causality results

The decision variable in present study is the causality result. The coding of the decision variable is explained by Table 9 (see Appendix A). As we defined in Section 1, the causality results can be divided into four distinct categories: 1. Growth hypothesis ($E \rightarrow GDP$), 2. Conservation hypothesis ($GDP \rightarrow E$), 3. Feedback hypothesis ($E \leftrightarrow GDP$) and, 4. Neutrality hypothesis or No causality ($E \neq GDP$). Table 1 presents in its final column only the coded value of the decision variable, thus 1, 2, 3 or 4.

3.2 RSDA Analysis

In order to analyze data successfully with RSDA, a decision table must be created. This expresses all the knowledge about the model. In our case, the decision table, containing all the attributes and the decision attribute, is given by Table 1 (see Appendix A). A crucial step is the decision table coding which has been described extensively in the previous section. Rough set analysis of the data is used to obtain preliminary information. For this purpose we used the Rosetta Rough Set Toolkit (Øhrn and Komorowski, 1997) which offers a wide range of “ready to apply” statistical tools and filters. After the decision table has been defined and coded, any objects with incomplete values must be removed. As we have no such objects, we proceed to the next step. The decision table is unnecessarily large in part because it is redundant. The same or indistinguishable objects may be represented several times. This requires the reduction of repeated attributes. The rejected attributes are redundant since their removal cannot worsen the decision attribute values (classification). Computing reducts is rather a complex procedure. Fortunately, there exist good heuristics based on genetic algorithms (Komorowski et al., 2002) that compute sufficiently many reducts by using the Rosetta Toolkit. The discernibility procedure of a genetic algorithm produces a set of minimum attribute subsets that define functional dependencies. An example of the discernibility function is given below:

$$\begin{aligned}
 f(6) = & \\
 & (A3 \text{ Country} + D \text{ Causality results}) * \\
 & (A2 \text{ time period} + A3 \text{ Country}) * \\
 & (A2 \text{ time period} + A5 \text{ Energy Category} + A6 \text{ Energy Measurement}) * \\
 & (A1 \text{ Year of publication} + A5 \text{ Energy Category} + A6 \text{ Energy Measurement}) * \\
 & (A1 \text{ Year of publication} + A6 \text{ Energy Measurement} + D \text{ Causality results}) * \\
 & (A1 \text{ Year of publication} + A3 \text{ Country} + A6 \text{ Energy Measurement}) * \\
 & (A1 \text{ Year of publication} + A4 \text{ Methodology} + A6 \text{ Energy Measurement}) * \\
 & (A1 \text{ Year of publication} + A4 \text{ Methodology} + A5 \text{ Energy Category} + A7 \text{ Single or group of} \\
 & \text{ countries} + D \text{ Causality results}) * \\
 & (A1 \text{ Year of publication} + A2 \text{ time period} + A4 \text{ Methodology} + D \text{ Causality results})
 \end{aligned}$$

end

A part of the reducts generated from the data analysis is shown in Figure 1 below:

| | Reduct |
|----|---|
| 1 | {A1 Year of publication} |
| 2 | {A1 Year of publication, A2 time period, A3 Country} |
| 3 | {A1 Year of publication, A2 time period, A5 Energy Category} |
| 4 | {A2 time period, A3 Country, A6 Energy Measurement} |
| 5 | {A1 Year of publication, A2 time period, A6 Energy Measurement} |
| 6 | {A2 time period, A4 Methodology, A6 Energy Measurement} |
| 7 | {A2 time period, A3 Country, A4 Methodology, A5 Energy Category} |
| 8 | {A3 Country, A4 Methodology, A6 Energy Measurement} |
| 9 | {A1 Year of publication, A3 Country, A5 Energy Category} |
| 10 | {A1 Year of publication, A3 Country, A6 Energy Measurement} |
| 11 | {A2 time period, A3 Country, A5 Energy Category, A6 Energy Measurement} |
| 12 | {A2 time period, A3 Country, A6 Energy Measurement, A7 Single or group of countries} |
| 13 | {A3 Country, A5 Energy Category, A6 Energy Measurement} |
| 14 | {A1 Year of publication, A3 Country} |
| 15 | {A2 time period, A3 Country, A4 Methodology} |
| 16 | {A3 Country, A4 Methodology, A5 Energy Category} |
| 17 | {A2 time period, A3 Country, A4 Methodology, A6 Energy Measurement} |
| 18 | {A2 time period, A6 Energy Measurement} |
| 19 | {A1 Year of publication, A2 time period} |
| 20 | {A2 time period, A4 Methodology} |
| 21 | {A1 Year of publication, A2 time period, A3 Country, A6 Energy Measurement} |
| 22 | {A1 Year of publication, A2 time period, A3 Country, A5 Energy Category} |
| 23 | {A1 Year of publication, A2 time period, A3 Country, A4 Methodology} |
| 24 | {A1 Year of publication, A3 Country, A4 Methodology} |
| 25 | {A2 time period, A3 Country, A4 Methodology, A5 Energy Category, A6 Energy Measurement} |
| 26 | {A3 Country, A4 Methodology, A5 Energy Category, A6 Energy Measurement} |
| 27 | {A1 Year of publication, A3 Country, A4 Methodology, A6 Energy Measurement} |
| 28 | {A1 Year of publication, A6 Energy Measurement} |

Figure 1: Example of reducts generated by the Rosetta toolkit

Once the reducts have been computed, the rules are easily constructed by overlaying the reducts over the originating decision table and reading the values by using the Rosetta Toolkit. 235 Rules were generated from the acquired reducts. An example of the rules generated is given in Figure 2.

| | Rule |
|-----|---|
| 128 | A1(3) AND A3 (3) AND A6 (3) => D (1) OR D (4) OR D (2) OR D (3) |
| 129 | A1(3) AND A3 (2) AND A6 (3) => D (4) OR D (2) OR D (3) OR D (1) |
| 130 | A1(4) AND A3 (1) AND A6 (7) => D (1) |
| 131 | A1(4) AND A3 (2) AND A6 (9) => D (4) |
| 132 | A1(4) AND A3 (4) AND A6 (1) => D (3) |
| 133 | A2 (3) AND A3 (4) AND A5(4) AND A6 (1) => D (1) |
| 134 | A2 (4) AND A3 (2) AND A5(4) AND A6 (9) => D (4) |
| 135 | A2 (4) AND A3 (2) AND A5(4) AND A6 (1) => D (2) |
| 136 | A2 (3) AND A3 (4) AND A5(4) AND A6 (2) => D (1) |
| 137 | A2 (3) AND A3 (4) AND A5(3) AND A6 (3) => D (2) |
| 138 | A2 (3) AND A3 (3) AND A5(3) AND A6 (3) => D (1) |
| 139 | A2 (3) AND A3 (4) AND A6 (1) AND A7 (1) => D (1) |
| 140 | A2 (4) AND A3 (2) AND A6 (2) AND A7 (2) => D (3) |
| 141 | A2 (3) AND A3 (3) AND A6 (2) AND A7 (2) => D (2) |
| 142 | A2 (4) AND A3 (2) AND A6 (3) AND A7 (2) => D (2) |

Figure 2: Example of original rules generated by the Rosetta toolkit

Let us give an example of a rule obtained from a reduct and its interpretation:

If A2 (5) AND A4 (3) AND A5(4) AND A6 (9) then decision for causality: => D (1)

(LHS) Support=3
 (LHS) coverage= 0.004373
 (RHS) Accuracy= 100%

From this rule, the conditional attributes have a support of 3 objects from the total of 686 objects (LHS support), which accounts for 0.43% of the total objects in the decision table (LHS coverage) and 100% of these 3 objects (RHS Accuracy) have a decision value=D4. It can be easily concluded that only rules with relatively high support (hence, higher coverage) and high accuracy should be considered. To continue with the previous example, despite the fact that this rule presents the highest possible level of accuracy (100%), it fails as far as its support and coverage level are concerned. In other words, this means that the former rule fails to define an accredited functional dependency considering the dataset as a whole.

Since the original reduction generated 235 rules, which are rather too many to comprehend, a ready to apply Quality Filtering within the Rosetta Toolkit was used in order to gather only those rules that met the minimum support threshold. Filtering the set of 235 rules originally generated produced a subset of 173 decision rules. Due to lack of space only part of the derived results is presented below:

```

QualityRuleFilterLoop
{FILTERING=Torgo; REMOVE.UNDEFINED=T; INVERT=F; RESOLUTION=Dynamic;
  RESOLUTION.THRESHOLD=100; RESOLUTION.FRACTION=0.01;
  FILENAME=Undefined; DECISIONTABLE=causality$, CLASSIFIER=StandardVoter;
  RULES=No name; FRACTION=0.0; IDG=F; SPECIFIC=F; VOTING=Support;
  NORMALIZATION=Firing; ROC.CLASS=1; FALLBACK.CERTAINTY=0.5}
    Threshold Rules      AUC      SE
    0.764249  1.0      0.510358  0.026466
    
```


| | | | |
|------------|------|----------|----------|
| 0.757669 | 2.0 | 0.515066 | 0.026504 |
| 0.755181 | 3.0 | 0.518832 | 0.026532 |
| 0.754839 | 4.0 | 0.528145 | 0.026592 |
| 0.754601 | 5.0 | 0.530915 | 0.026608 |
| 0.753886 | 6.0 | 0.533686 | 0.026623 |
| 0.753226 | 9.0 | 0.552093 | 0.026694 |
| 0.753067 | 12.0 | 0.557414 | 0.026706 |
| 0.752857 | 20.0 | 0.571606 | 0.026719 |
| 0.752591 | 26.0 | 0.582249 | 0.02671 |
| 0.751613 | 50.0 | 0.65092 | 0.026262 |
| 0.751534 | 94.0 | 0.683531 | 0.025797 |
| etc | | | |

| Quality | Rule index |
|------------|------------|
| 0.764249 | 90 |
| 0.757669 | 106 |
| 0.755181 | 89 |
| 0.754839 | 1 |
| 0.754601 | 202 |
| 0.753886 | 88 |
| 0.753226 | 60 |
| 0.753226 | 64 |
| 0.753226 | 174 |
| etc | |

Once preliminary results have been obtained, validation procedures ensure that the knowledge obtained by rules is correct. The rules filtering further performed in order to find the rules that are accurate representations of the data. However, the quality filtering results showed that the quality and the minimum threshold support are extremely close between rules. Almost all the 173 rules derived from the filtering support the same quality level. For instance, there are 94 rules with quality level between 0.764249 and 0.751534. Hence, even after filtering, the new decision rules set fails to explain the data adequately. This can be easily explained by a careful examination of the generated quality index. The great majority of the obtained rules failed to fulfil the high support and high accuracy conditions previously described. There are rules with, on the one hand, high support (e.g. 66) and coverage (9.62%), that on the other hand present very low accuracy (e.g. less than 20%).

The results remained insignificant for every alternative combination of statistical methods and altering filter procedures we applied by using the Rosetta Toolkit. The procedure always resulted in too many rules with high RHS Accuracy (100%) but low LHS Support (only few objects), while other rules had high LHS support but low Accuracy. There were also rule cases with different accuracy between identical rules. Every filtering procedure failed to reduce the original rules set significantly. Under these circumstances, it is impossible to choose, with accuracy and consistency, between rules with high accuracy but low support and rules with low accuracy but high support. Due to lack of concrete and effective results, no accurate rules can be derived from the Rough Set Data Analysis concerning the causality debate.

4. Multinomial Logistic Regression Analysis

Logistic regression analysis examines the influence of various factors on a dichotomous outcome by estimating the probability of the event's occurrence (Anderson, 1982). It does this by examining the relationship between one or more independent variables and the log odds of the dichotomous outcome by calculating changes in the log odds of the dependent variable as opposed to the value of the dependent variable itself. In the present study, the dependent

variable is the causality result, which is not dichotomous but is comprised of four categories. We therefore apply the multinomial logistic regression model (Agresti, 1996). This analysis fits simultaneously three models, holding one result category as reference category and comparing each of the other three categories to it. Hence, taking E≠GDP as reference decision category, the three regression models are:

1. E→GDP compared to E≠GDP
2. GDP→E compared to E≠GDP
3. E↔GDP compared to E≠GDP

Let π_j be the probability that the causality result is the category j, then these regression models are of the logit form:

$$\log \frac{\pi_j}{\pi_4} = \alpha_j + \beta_{1j} x_1 + \beta_{2j} x_2 + \dots + \beta_{pj} x_p$$

for $j=1,2,3$, where the constants α_j and regression parameters β_{pj} are to be estimated by maximum likelihood from the data table. Because all our explanatory variables are categorical, x_1, x_2, \dots, x_p will be dummy variables and, for each of the attributes considered, we must also set an attribute reference category. For example, for the attribute “Methodology” we choose the subcategory “others”, coded as “6” in previous sections. It must be clarified that the choice of reference category does not affect the overall statistical significance of a variable, such as the “Methodology” attribute, nor the probabilities derived at the end.

Likelihood ratio tests in the analysis with all six explanatory variables identified two attributes as statistically significant: “Methodology” ($P < 0.001$) and “Energy Measurement” ($P = 0.016$). Each of the other attributes had $P > 0.1$. We repeat the analysis using only these two attributes as explanatory variables to obtain the final results.

- For the “Energy Measurement” attribute we obtain:

The value 1=“Btu’s” of the “Energy Measurement” attribute seems to reduce the probabilities of E→GDP or E↔GDP versus E≠GDP, but not of GDP→E versus E≠GDP, compared to category 9=“undefined” of energy measurement. This appears to be the only category of energy measurement that is differentiated from the rest.

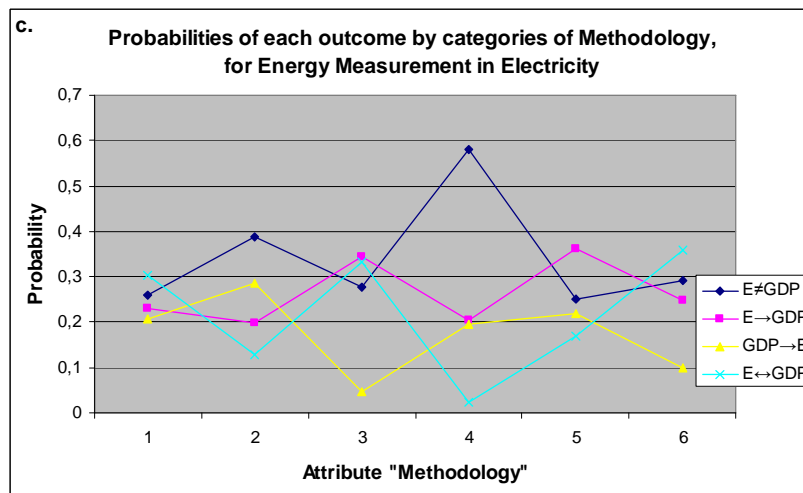
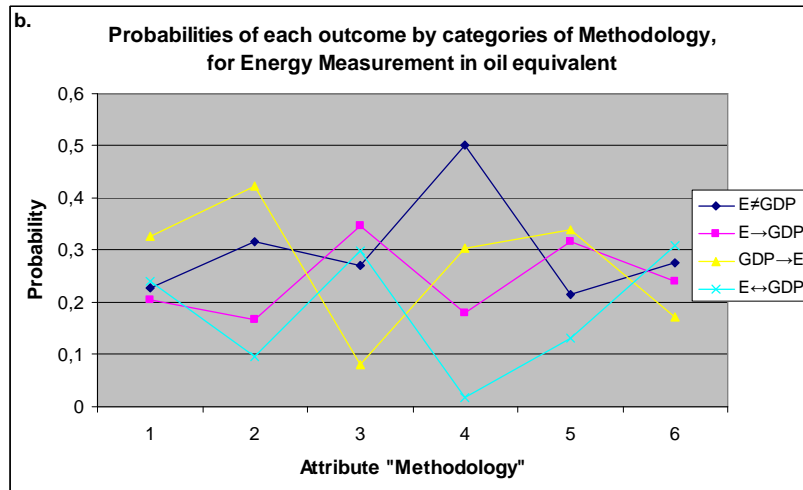
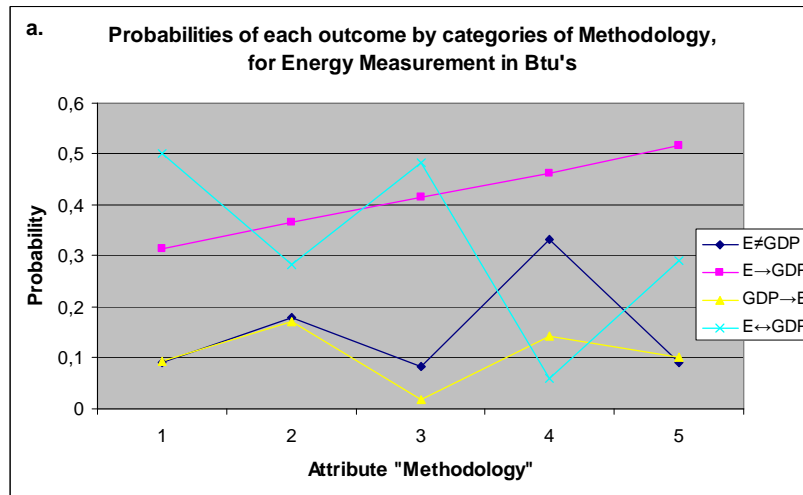
| Regression models | Rate Ratio | 95% Confidence interval |
|--------------------|------------|-------------------------|
| E→GDP versus E≠GDP | 0.18 | 0.06 - 0.58 |
| GDP→E versus E≠GDP | 1.28 | 0.45 - 3.61 |
| E↔GDP versus E≠GDP | 0.13 | 0.04 - 0.47 |

- For the “Methodology” attribute we obtain:

Values 2=“Johansen Juselius”, 4=“Pedroni Panel” and 5=“ARDL” increase the probability of other results compared to E≠GDP, in comparison to the reference category 6=“Others” and also to 1=“Sims-Granger causality” and 3=“Toda_Yamamoto causality test”, which do not differ significantly from the reference category.

| Regression models (versus E≠GDP) | Johansen Juselius | Pedroni Panel | ARDL |
|-------------------------------------|--------------------|--------------------|--------------------|
| | RR (95%. ci) | RR (95%. ci) | RR (95%. ci) |
| E→GDP | 4.34 (1.90 - 9.94) | 2.39 (1.00 - 5.72) | 8.80 (3.4 - 22.8) |
| GDP→E | 35.5 (4.29 - 293) | 14.0 (1.60 - 123) | 33.0 (3.69 - 295) |
| E↔GDP | 1.95 (0.66 - 5.78) | 3.14 (1.13 - 8.75) | 4.70 (1.46 - 15.1) |

Table 10 (see Appendix A) shows the fitted probabilities of each causality result estimated by using only the most significant attributes, “Energy Measurement” and “Methodology”. The following diagrams a., b., c., d., and e., present the probabilities of Table 10.



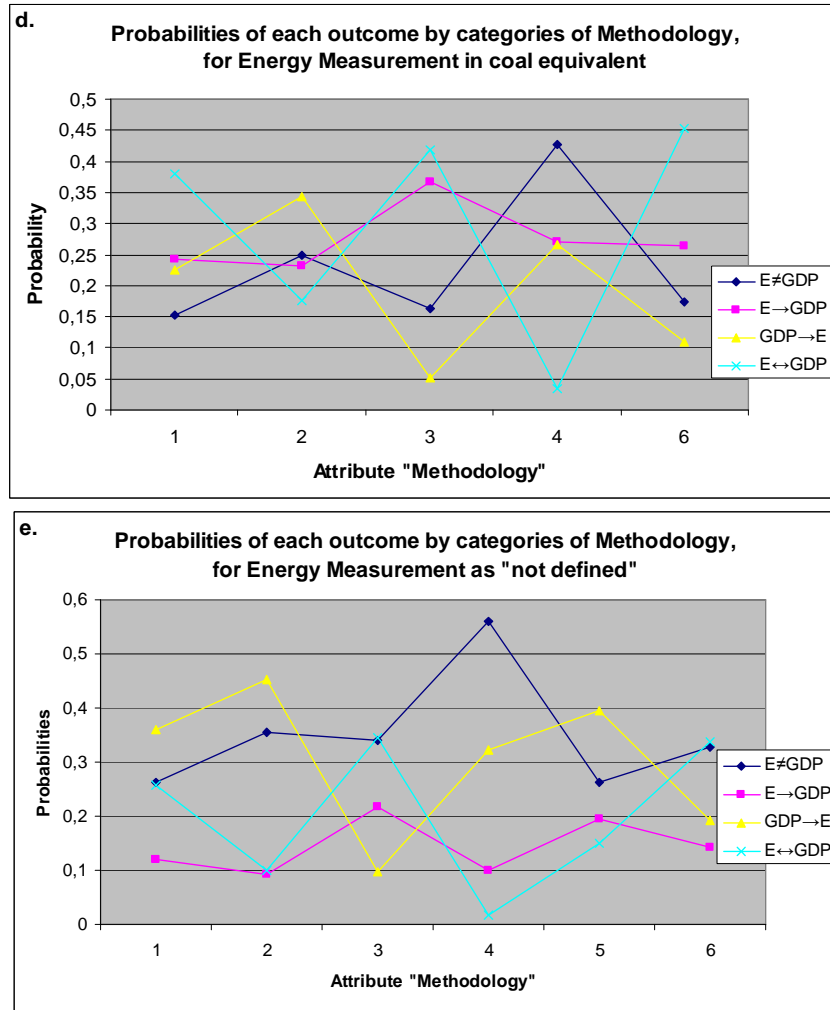


Figure 3: Representation of Table 10.

According to the probabilities of each causality result presented in Table 10 and further visualized in Figure 3, we can find the combination of attributes with the highest probability of each causality direction. From Figure 3a, we can pick the attribute pairs with the higher probability, hence:

1. ARDL Bounds test with Btu's gives probability 0.517 of outcome 2 (E→GDP)
2. Sims & Engle-Granger with Btu's gives probability 0.502 of outcome 4 (E↔GDP)

Both results give a more than 50% probability. However, considering the support of the results in the total n=686 objects of our dataset we have: first case=1.16% of the total and second case=2.33% of the total, respectively. According to the aforementioned assumptions and Figure 3, we can categorize the most significant results as:

| N | "Methodology" attribute category | "Energy Measurement" category | Causality result and probability | Support in n=686 |
|---|----------------------------------|-------------------------------|----------------------------------|------------------|
| 1 | Pedroni Panel | Electricity | E≠GDP with Prob. 0.58 | 0.58% |
| 2 | Pedroni Panel | Not defined | E≠GDP with Prob. 0.559 | 0.14% |
| 3 | ARDL | Btu's | E→GDP with Prob.0.517 | 1.16% |
| 4 | Sims&Engle-Gr. | Btu's | E↔GDP with Prob. 0.502 | 2.33% |
| 5 | Pedroni Panel | Oil equivalent | E≠GDP with Prob. 0.501 | 6.41% |
| 6 | Johansen- Juselius | Oil equivalent | GDP→E with Prob. 0.423 | 14.43% |
| 7 | Others | Coal equivalent | E↔GDP with Prob. 0.452 | 0.14% |

It must be underlined that, as rough set analysis showed, the support level of each probability is so important as the probability itself. To continue with our analysis, we can conclude that in most cases the high probability is not associated with a high support level of the dataset. According to previous categorization of the results, only the 6th result has a considering support level. The higher support level is valid for the following results:

- Johansen- Juselius (Methodology) AND Oil equivalent (Energy Measurement) = GDP→E (with probability =0.423) and Support=99 objects (14.43%)
- Sims&Engle-Granger (Methodology) AND Oil equivalent (Energy Measurement) = GDP→E (with probability=0.327) and Support=122 objects (17.78%)

Concluding the findings of multinomial logistic regression, we can accept that the Johansen-Juselius Methodology and Oil equivalent energy measurement method, support the conservation hypothesis (GDP→E) with probability=0.423 and support=14.43%.

5. Discussion of results

The main purpose of the present study was to estimate whether or not there is a general pattern of causality which holds regardless of the specific micro characteristics of each case study included in our survey, considering and categorizing only the most common attributes (country, methodology, period of time, etc). The investigation was based on standard statistical methods as well as on relatively new methods of operational research. We tried to identify those conditions (attributes) that determine or at least influence the direction of causality. We assumed that all four causality relationships are possibly empirically valid depending on the seven main common attributes of each case study at hand. We performed a Rough Set Data Analysis and a multinomial logistic regression on a database consisting of 158 case studies. In this context we tried to investigate if it is possible in the whole dataset to efficiently define a set of decision rules and thus, to determine which attributes-characteristics best explain the causality direction. In addition, we performed a number of classical statistical tests, regression and filtering methods. Unfortunately, no general rules that lead to each direction of causality can be identified. According to the results of multinomial logistic regression, the most statistical significant attributes among all were the “Methodology” and “Energy Measurement”. Specifically the Johansen-Juselius methodology and oil equivalent energy measurement seems to mainly support the conservation hypothesis.

One possible limitation of the present study may be the unequal distribution between countries within a group. Differences in productivity, energy consumption, level of industrialization, economic sectors and GDP characteristics among the countries comprising a group (e.g. Non OECD countries), may further complicate our results. It is possible that a more accurate country grouping would lead to better estimation, or the use of more than seven attributes would explain the decision attribute better. Furthermore, the attribute “Methodology” would be better represented if the comparison had been made among the numerical results of each econometric method instead of comparing methods simply with respect to the direction of causality. Nevertheless, the main aim of the present study was to examine the most common attributes, in order to build a more concrete picture of the results of the entire causality debate. In this context, and due to the mixed results from Rough Set analysis, we are forced to choose among three alternative scenarios:

- First, the methods and/or the attributes we chose are inappropriate
- Second, the methods applied in individual case studies are inappropriate and lead to biased and sometimes conflicting results.
- Third, there are no general rules that describe a functional causal relationship between economic growth and energy consumption.

We choose the third alternative and in this context we share the opinion of Mehrara (2007) who comments on the energy-GDP growth causality debate: *“when it comes to whether energy use is a result of, or a prerequisite for, economic growth, there are no clear trends in the literature. Depending on the methodology used, and country and time period studied, the direction of causality between energy consumption and economic variables has remained empirically elusive and controversial”*.

6 .Concluding remarks

Given that there is a huge concern of policy makers for robust and reliable results so that they may be in a position to design effective energy policies, the causality debate should offer a more coherent understanding of the energy-growth nexus and find better ways to do so.

Over the last three decades the ongoing debate on causality between energy consumption and economic growth - following closely the advances in econometric theory, energy and environmental economics – has produced a significant amount of working papers. However, in spite of this growing research, the state of knowledge still remains quite indeterminate and controversial. The present study aimed, firstly, to provide an exhaustive survey of the whole energy-GDP causality debate between 1978-2011 and, secondly, to be the first effort at examining the concreteness and the consistency of the debate’s results using contemporary analytical tools (Rough Set Data Analysis and multinomial logistic regression). The weak results of multinomial logistic regression and the inability of the RSDA tool to produce a sufficient number of rigid rules by using various filtering tools, probably reflect the contradictive results that the debate itself presents. These contradictions and conflicts within the empirical results have been mentioned recently by many researchers (Mehrara, 2007; Beaudreau, 2010; Ozturk, 2010). Although progress in econometric methods provides several powerful tools for the analysis and understanding of the energy-economic growth relationship, applied studies using these tools are open to the criticism that many of these studies yield conflicting and even contradictory findings which makes it difficult to draw out any reliable policy implications for energy and environmental policy makers (Karanfil, 2009). Motivated by the fact that contradictory results are still being reported in this ongoing debate, we attempted to define the causality direction based on the core of attributes-characteristics while leaving out other microcharacteristics of each and every case. As Karanfil (2009) and Ozturk (2010) characteristically mention, research papers using the same methods with the same variables, just by changing the time period examined, have no more potential to make a contribution to the existing energy-growth literature. On the contrary, it seems that they contribute further complication and conflict, something which is unavoidably reflected in the present study. Nevertheless, the most crucial conclusion of the causality debate so far, for most authors, is that energy is an important determinant of economic growth. Beyond that, the remaining query goes like this: is it really crucial to investigate whether energy consumption causes GDP growth, or the opposite? The interest of our future research focuses on trends in GDP in relation to energy use trends. Beyond its prima facie interest this relation reflects to some extent the direction of causality indirectly but probably more substantially.

Acknowledgements

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Appendix A.

Table 1. The “raw data” of out Dataset cases. The right part consists of the Decision Table used in Rough Set Analysis and multinomial logistic regression.

| No | paper | 1. | 2. | 3. | 4. | 5. | 6. | 7. | d. |
|-----|----------------------|-----|-----|----|----|----|----|----|-----|
| 1 | Kraft & Kraft (1978) | 1 | 3 | 1 | 1 | 4 | 1 | 1 | 2 |
| 2 | Akarca & Long (1980) | 2 | 3 | 1 | 1 | 4 | 1 | 1 | 4 |
| 3 | Yu & Hwang (1984) | 2 | 4 | 1 | 1 | 4 | 1 | 1 | 4 |
| ... | | ... | ... | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | ... |

(Due to space shortage the full decision table of 686 objects could be available after request)

Table 2. Attribute “year of publication” Coding

| Decade of Publication | year | publications | decade Total |
|-----------------------|------|--------------|--------------|
| 70s | 1978 | 1 | 1 |
| | 1979 | 0 | |
| 80s | 1980 | 1 | 5 |
| | 1981 | 0 | |
| | 1982 | 0 | |
| | 1983 | 0 | |
| | 1984 | 1 | |
| | 1985 | 1 | |
| | 1986 | 0 | |
| | 1987 | 1 | |
| | 1988 | 1 | |
| | 1989 | 0 | |
| 90s | 1990 | 1 | 16 |
| | 1991 | 2 | |
| | 1992 | 1 | |
| | 1993 | 1 | |
| | 1994 | 0 | |
| | 1995 | 1 | |
| | 1996 | 2 | |
| | 1997 | 5 | |
| | 1998 | 2 | |
| | 1999 | 1 | |
| 2000-2011 | 2000 | 4 | 136 |
| | 2001 | 3 | |
| | 2002 | 4 | |
| | 2003 | 1 | |
| | 2004 | 14 | |
| | 2005 | 8 | |
| | 2006 | 8 | |
| | 2007 | 23 | |
| | 2008 | 17 | |
| | 2009 | 20 | |

| | | |
|--------------|------|------------|
| | 2010 | 14 |
| | 2011 | 20 |
| Total | | 158 |

Table 3. Attribute “examined time period” Coding

| coding | Time period | number of cases |
|---------------|----------------------------|------------------------|
| 1 | <i>less than 10</i> | 5 |
| 2 | <i>between 10-20 years</i> | 8 |
| 3 | <i>Between 20-30 years</i> | 191 |
| 4 | <i>Between 30-40 years</i> | 353 |
| 5 | <i>more than 40 years</i> | 127 |
| 6 | <i>no period defined</i> | 2 |
| | Total | 686 |

Table 4. Attribute “Country categorization” Coding

| | | | |
|-----------|---|----------------|-----|
| 1. | G7 | France | 121 |
| | | Germany | |
| | | Italy | |
| | | Japan | |
| | | United Kingdom | |
| | | USA | |
| | | Canada | |
| 2. | OECD countries (- G7) According to www.oecd.org 2012 | Australia | 163 |
| | | Austria | |
| | | Belgium | |
| | | Chile | |
| | | Czech Republic | |
| | | Denmark | |
| | | Estonia | |
| | | Finland | |
| | | Greece | |
| | | Hungary | |
| | | Iceland | |
| | | Ireland | |

| | | | |
|--------------|---|---|------------|
| | | Israel | |
| | | S. Korea | |
| | | Mexico | |
| | | Luxeburg | |
| | | Netherlands | |
| | | New Zealand | |
| | | Norway | |
| | | Poland | |
| | | Portugal | |
| | | Slovak Republic | |
| | | Slovenia | |
| | | Spain | |
| | | Sweden | |
| | | Switzerland | |
| | | Turkey | |
| 3. | High Developing Countries (non-OECD members) | Russia | 148 |
| | | China | |
| | | India | |
| | | Brazil | |
| | | Indonesia | |
| | | Taiwan | |
| | | Singapore | |
| | | Hong Kong | |
| | | Malaysia | |
| | | Gulf Cooperation Countries | |
| | | South Africa | |
| 4. | Non-OECD | Remaining countries not included in previous grouping | |
| 5. | City or part or sector of a country | | 9 |
| Total | | | 686 |

Table 5. Attribute “Methodology” Coding

| coding | Methodology | Methodology categories | Total |
|--------------------------------|--------------------------------------|---|--------------|
| 1 | Sims & Engle-Granger Causality | Sims Causality | 207 |
| | | Granger Causality | |
| | | Hsiao's Granger causality | |
| | | Engle-Granger Causality | |
| 2 | Johansen- Juselius for Cointegration | with VDC | 189 |
| | | with VECM | |
| | | with Pair-wise | |
| | | with IRF | |
| 3 | Toda Yamamoto Causality | | 116 |
| 4 | Pedroni Panel Cointegration | (all combination forms used) | 52 |
| 5 | ARDL Bounds test | | 52 |
| 6 | Others | VAR | 70 |
| | | Dolado Lutkepohl causality | |
| | | Beak & Broch non-linear | |
| | | Dynamic Panel estimation causality | |
| | | Hodrick-Prescott filter | |
| | | Carrion-i-Silvestre | |
| | | Hansen and Seo threshold co-integration test | |
| | | Westerlund(2006) panel cointegrationtest | |
| | | Gregory and Hansen | |
| | | Graph Theoretic Approach | |
| | | Markov-switching vector autoregressive (MS-VAR) | |
| | | Erik-Gunnar (E-G) two steps method | |
| | | GLS | |
| Bootstrapped Granger causality | | | |
| TOTAL | | | 686 |

Table 6. Attribute “Energy Type” Coding

| Energy Type | | |
|--------------------|--|------------|
| 1 | Total Fossil fuels Consumption (Coal, Oil, Gas) | 3 |
| 2 | Electricity Consumption (or production) | 139 |
| 3 | Energy Consumption per capita (primary or electricity etc) | 272 |
| 4 | Total (Primary fuels+electricity) Energy Consumption | 214 |
| 5 | Oil &/or petroleum Consumption (or production) | 14 |
| 6 | Coal Consumption (or production) | 22 |
| 7 | Gas Consumption (or production) | 13 |
| 8 | Nuclear Energy Consumption (or production) | 5 |
| 9 | Renewables energy consumption | 4 |
| Total | | 686 |

Table 7. Attribute “Energy measurement method” Coding

| Energy Measurement method | | |
|----------------------------------|---------------------------|------------|
| 1 | <i>Btu's</i> | 49 |
| 2 | <i>Oil equivalent</i> | 357 |
| 3 | <i>Electricity (watt)</i> | 168 |
| 4 | <i>Coal equivalent</i> | 25 |
| 5 | <i>EXERGY</i> | 1 |
| 6 | <i>Crude quantity</i> | 12 |
| 7 | <i>Devisia Index</i> | 5 |
| 8 | <i>Joule</i> | 2 |
| 9 | <i>Not defined</i> | 67 |
| Total | | 686 |

Table 8. Attribute “Single country or group of countries” Coding

| Group of countries or single country | | |
|---|-----------------------------|-----|
| 1 | Single Country examined | 637 |
| 2 | Group of countries examined | 49 |
| total | | 686 |

Table 9. Decision variable (causality result) Coding

| Causality results | | |
|--------------------------|-------|------------|
| 1 | E→GDP | 193 |
| 2 | E←GDP | 163 |
| 3 | E↔GDP | 175 |
| 4 | E≠GDP | 155 |
| Total | | 686 |

Table 10. Multinomial logistic regression: fitted probabilities of each outcome for each combination of the attributes "Methodology" and "Energy Measurement"

| a/a | "Methodology" attribute | "Energy Measurement" attribute | Probabilities | | | | n |
|---------------|-------------------------|--------------------------------|---------------|-------|-------|-------|-----|
| | | | E→GDP | GDP→E | E↔GDP | E≠GDP | |
| 1 | 1 | 1 | 0,09 | 0,315 | 0,093 | 0,502 | 16 |
| 2 | 1 | 2 | 0,227 | 0,205 | 0,327 | 0,241 | 122 |
| 3 | 1 | 3 | 0,26 | 0,229 | 0,207 | 0,304 | 31 |
| 4 | 1 | 4 | 0,153 | 0,243 | 0,226 | 0,379 | 11 |
| 5 | 1 | 9 | 0,263 | 0,119 | 0,361 | 0,258 | 27 |
| 6 | 2 | 1 | 0,179 | 0,365 | 0,172 | 0,284 | 13 |
| 7 | 2 | 2 | 0,316 | 0,166 | 0,423 | 0,095 | 99 |
| 8 | 2 | 3 | 0,387 | 0,198 | 0,287 | 0,128 | 35 |
| 9 | 2 | 4 | 0,249 | 0,231 | 0,344 | 0,176 | 29 |
| 10 | 2 | 9 | 0,355 | 0,093 | 0,453 | 0,099 | 13 |
| 11 | 3 | 1 | 0,084 | 0,416 | 0,018 | 0,483 | 10 |
| 12 | 3 | 2 | 0,272 | 0,348 | 0,082 | 0,298 | 47 |
| 13 | 3 | 3 | 0,276 | 0,345 | 0,046 | 0,333 | 33 |
| 14 | 3 | 4 | 0,163 | 0,368 | 0,051 | 0,418 | 3 |
| 15 | 3 | 9 | 0,34 | 0,218 | 0,098 | 0,344 | 23 |
| 16 | 4 | 1 | 0,333 | 0,463 | 0,144 | 0,059 | 2 |
| 17 | 4 | 2 | 0,501 | 0,179 | 0,303 | 0,017 | 44 |
| 18 | 4 | 3 | 0,58 | 0,203 | 0,195 | 0,022 | 4 |
| 19 | 4 | 4 | 0,428 | 0,271 | 0,267 | 0,034 | 1 |
| 20 | 4 | 9 | 0,559 | 0,1 | 0,323 | 0,017 | 1 |
| 21 | 5 | 1 | 0,09 | 0,517 | 0,102 | 0,291 | 8 |
| 22 | 5 | 2 | 0,214 | 0,317 | 0,338 | 0,132 | 20 |
| 23 | 5 | 3 | 0,25 | 0,362 | 0,219 | 0,169 | 23 |
| 24 | 5 | 9 | 0,262 | 0,194 | 0,395 | 0,149 | 1 |
| 25 | 6 | 2 | 0,277 | 0,241 | 0,172 | 0,31 | 25 |
| 26 | 6 | 3 | 0,292 | 0,248 | 0,1 | 0,36 | 42 |
| 27 | 6 | 4 | 0,173 | 0,265 | 0,11 | 0,452 | 1 |
| 28 | 6 | 9 | 0,327 | 0,142 | 0,193 | 0,338 | 2 |
| Total objects | | | | | | | 686 |

Appendix B.

References referred to causality debate survey, rough set and multinomial logistic regression dataset

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