



RETRACTED: Integrating the Role of Green Fiscal Policies With Energy Prices Volatility and Energy Efficiency: Presenting a COVID-19 Perspective

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Energy and other related sectors are changing in China. This study attempted to estimate the energy product price volatility with energy efficiency during COVID-19 with the role of green fiscal policies. For this, we applied unit-root tests, ADCC-GARCH, and CO-GARCH techniques to infer the study findings. The results showed that energy price volatility was significantly connected until 2018. More so, the green fiscal policies were significantly connected between energy product price volatility and energy efficiency during COVID-19 (2019–2020). From energy products, the crude oil price volatility was significant at 16.4%, heating oil volatility was significant at 18.2%, natural oil price volatility was 9.7%, gasoline price volatility was 28.7%, and diesel price volatility was 34.1% significant with energy efficiency, due to the intervening role of green fiscal policies. The findings of this study are robust in comparison to previous studies. Multiple stakeholders can take guidelines from the findings of the recent study. As per our best understanding and knowledge, if suggested recommendations are implemented effectively, these results will help to enhance energy efficiency through green fiscal policies in the post-COVID period.

Keywords: COVID–19, energy consumption, energy efficiency, price volatility, energy products, green fiscal policies

INTRODUCTION

Several nations have their own clean energy sector strategy plans. Greenhouse gas mitigation and aggressive decarbonization goals have necessitated fast investment development in renewable energy industries. In order to encourage the fast expansion of the energy sector, the Chinese government has implemented a number of green economic measures, such as the use of government subsidies and tax rebates. As a result of China's fiscal incentives, stringent environmental regulations, and investment-consciousness improvement, the Chinese green energy market has grown significantly, and China has become a global leader in renewable energy industries.

Many academics have shown that various macro-perspectives, including tax incentives and subsidies, may spur investment in renewable energy sources. For renewable energy projects, high investment costs, the availability of capital, subsidies, and stable market conditions are key considerations. Future developments in low-carbon energy technologies as well as integration of

capabilities and feed-in tariffs make renewable energy investment viable. The welfare of green investment projects might be harmed by free-riding and overheating of green investment subsidies. Reducing subsidies for fossil fuels in the Middle East and North Africa might lead to stronger GDP growth per capita and more employment and labor force participation. Subsidies for the growth of China's renewable energy vehicle sector and a reduction in the country's vehicle emissions have been a success.

For energy producing companies, the efficiency of renewable energy investment is determined by a number of micro basic elements. Higher energy price uncertainty reduces the responsiveness of investment, while increasing energy prices have a negative effect on investment in the industrial sector. Renewable energy companies in the United States, Germany, Mexico, and Brazil vary in economic value due to variances in capacity adjustment and market power rents. Investor preferences and demand, knowledge base, and asset price of socially responsible investments all play a significant role in enabling the investment inputs of these assets. New energy companies' investment efficiency is influenced by both macroeconomic and company-specific factors. The empirical findings highlight the potential worth of renewable energy companies.

Prices of products are variable (Pindyck, 2004). This is evident where the energy products prices have faced a downturn in the recent decade (Cabrera and Schulz, 2016). Such volatility, although significant, is not unprecedented in the last century with many major price cycles (Gilbert, 2006). Over the last 2 decades, global commerce in products has increased more than seven times and export proportions have grown (Williamson, 2012). The magnitude and the pattern of growing export concentrations of these price fluctuations have revived attention in the quantitative impacts of price shifts in products (Bakas and Triantafyllou, 2018). Two key issues are whether or not change in products prices is advantageous or expensive. In other words, in what way should fiscal strategy react best. The usual assumption is that domestic reserves on the earth are known (Judith et al., 2017). There is no mechanism through which companies may increase current reserves by exploring. Existing reserves are also not depleted. These two channels, which are highlighted in the literature on natural resources, are summarized by assuming a technology for the extraction of Cobb-Douglas with exogenous technological changes in reservations. There is minimal difference between natural resources and other economic sectors (Dwyer et al., 2011).

We see a richer supply model by incorporating exploration, depletion, and reserve shortage into a tiny commode exporting economy otherwise typical (Onour and Sergi, 2011). The source of investments is treated as the main variable in contrast toward the view of reserves as fixed and invariant to changes in products prices (Lence and Hayes, 2002). Companies may spend in exploration to discover new deposits (Gilbert and Muger, 2014). The fact that the extraction of assets leads to their depletion is also taken into consideration (Combes and Guillaumont, 2002). We investigate the extra resource subtleties that are relevant and aimed at the exhibition of product valuing volatility shockwave propagation with the

effects on national wellbeing and the optimum strategy directions (Arezki et al., 2014).

China's energy production sector has experienced significant changes decades after the introduction of green revolution technology and price support government policy (Trolle and Schwartz, 2009). In consequence, China has gone from being a country with a food deficit to a food surplus nation. Many energy products are still affected by government restrictions on production, supply, and distribution (Kroner et al., 1995). Future products trade has a long history in China and began in 1857 with cotton. It remained for many decades in a hibernating condition owing to concerns about the potential advantages of derivatives and fear of needless speculation in vital products (Ahuja et al., 2006). After independence, numerous governmental efforts for the protection of the energy sector negatively impacted the development of markets for energy goods. The Essential Products Act of 1955 envisioned price and movement protection for different energy products, in particular food grains such as paddy, wheat, raw grains, and pulses, in order to preserve the interests of both manufacturers and consumers.

It was believed that throughout the development of economic liberalization, there was a necessity for energy products reorientation policies and regulations. Similarly, Swaray (2007) suggested that futures trade be reintroduced in most key sector products. In July 2000, the National Energy Policy stated that external and domestic market reforms *via* the implementation of a future trade/market system and dismantling of all energy products market controls and restrictions should be implemented (Moledina et al., 2004). Consequently, prior to this, the Government of China published notices and allowed futures trading for a broad range (excluding options trading) of farming products (Choi and Hammoudeh, 2010). There are now four national and regional levels of products markets in China allowing for the trading of derivative farming products (Arezki et al., 2012).

Disordered sales of energy goods soon after harvest due to shortage of the ability of farmers to wait for an appropriate moment for pay prices and the uncertainty in potential future pricing are consistent significant issues both for producers and consumers (Hegerty, 2016). As noted in the literature, energy future contracts assist to achieve the intent considered with the study topicality. Two essential administrative tasks include price discovery and price risk management for the particular products (Mensi et al., 2013). This helps producers since they have a good notion of pricing that will prevail in the future and thus their limited available resources may be allocated among different competitors. It offers food processors and consumer notion of pricing at which the particular products are accessible at a future time point.

Exogenous resource models contradict data for SCEs in numerous ways. Notable is the fact that reserve growth is not related to price growth (Naylor and Falcon, 2010). Empirically, price increases, research, and subsequent discovery of new deposits are beneficial. When prices are high, companies are more motivated to find new reserves, and as not all expeditions are successful, they do find new deposits. Second, traditional

models predict significant positive change in both pricing and extraction simultaneously (Creti et al., 2013). In the data, the present correlation is close to zero, and the growth lag is negative where prices first rise and by the time extraction increases price growth is already declining back to baseline (Cashin and McDermott, 2002). We show that searching for new resources and building new mines are major adjustment margins that postpone the response to extraction, which better explains the data correlations (Du et al., 2011).

Exploration and depletion better reflect resource price fluctuations (Kang et al., 2017). It is possible to achieve a good balance between price growth and exploration growth, and exploration growth and reserve expansion (Brooks and Prokopczuk, 2013). So there is no current relationship between rising prices and increased extraction, no contemporary link between the real exchange rate and extensive products and labor mobility. The results emphasize exploration, which leads to new resources and increased production potential (Power and Turvey, 2010). When resource prices increase, businesses ramp up exploration, and if new reserves are found, the production system can never slow down (Alemzero et al., 2021). This increases complementarity in extraction, exploration, investment, and demand for mining employees, allowing for higher resource sector development in price increases and contraction in price decreases (Li et al., 2021a). So long as production returns are stable and there is no pricing power on global markets, reserve stockpiles and the business are unpredictable (Iqbal et al., 2021a). It is true that endogenous reserves amplify the effect of price changes (Li et al., 2021b).

The remainder of this work is structured as follows. *Literature Review* provides a literature summary. *Data and Methodology* discusses empirical methods. *Results and Discussion* contains the data and descriptive statistics. *Conclusion and Implications* provides empirical results and analyses.

LITERATURE REVIEW

This research has quadrupled its contribution to the literature. First, we provide new evidence of the heterogeneous volatility dependence between crude oil and China's energy futures market under different market conditions (Iqbal et al., 2021b). No precise correlations in violent/stable market circumstances are defined despite many studies on the volatility linkages between crude oil and energy markets. So we give a comprehensive review of the heterogeneous volatility spillovers using the QQR technique (Ahmad et al., 2021). Asymmetric volatility is linked to violent and stable markets, the results suggest. Moreover, extremely high or low volatility oil has significant effects on the environment.

Since the financialization of products, several studies have examined how products are linked together (Ri and Mishra, 2021)). Products markets need an understanding of oil and energy products fundamentals (Umar et al., 2021). For example, several previous studies examined the potential interrelationships between energy and energy and metals markets (Ouyang and Zhang, 2020). There is evidence that the rise in food costs is linked to the usage of biofuels, which

replace oil-based products. Prices of energy inputs may also be affected by oil price fluctuations (Tiwari et al., 2021). Agribusiness relies heavily on oil for its energy needs, thus oil price fluctuations may affect energy products. Shipping costs for energy products may also be affected by oil prices (Michail and Melas, 2021).

Previous research has shown that increasing biofuel production justifies increasing the effect of oil prices on energy products (Vu et al., 2020). For a profitable alternative asset, products may be used to diversify portfolio risks. Energy products markets are responsive or indifferent to oil price changes, according to some researchers (Ali and Khan, 2020). For example, does the form of an oil shock affect how transmission affects from the oil market to other products markets? The effect of risk, demand, and supply shocks on the products markets should be studied (Sharma and Kumari, 2021). Research shows that the variables examined respond differently to oil shocks depending on the source (Palazzi et al., 2020).

Several studies have been conducted to mimic crude oil price volatility characteristics. The structural dynamics of oil future volatility was examined by Sun et al. (2021). For the European Brent and WTI markets, Cheong studied volatility persistence and leverage effect (Liang et al., 2021). The studies also explained the predicting capabilities of an SV model by adding the system change character. For example, Chan and Grant found that SV models outperform GARCH models in terms of energy price dynamics. Fasanya and Odudu (2020) used the autoregressive benchmark model to show how crude oil volatility may help forecast short-term inventory volatility. A fat tail distribution, clustered volatility, and mean reversal are all accepted characteristics of crude oil prices (Kotzya et al., 2021).

Contrary to popular belief, products index traders (CITs) are not speculators (Asgari et al., 2020). Traditional speculators, also known as long-term investors, were significantly decreased in impact, despite the empirical research rejecting Master's theories (e.g., Stoll and Whaley, 2010; Irwin and Sanders, 2012; Hamilton and Wu, 2015). These differences in investment styles may have varied effects on market outcomes. The market is expected to defeat short-term speculators who, unlike CITs, buy and hold long positions in near-term contracts (Berman et al., 2020). If speculative trading stabilizes or destabilizes (products) prices, the theory is unclear. To summarize, speculative trading stabilizes prices by buying low and selling high (Zhang et al., 2020). Prices would be destabilized if speculators bought high and sold low, but they would eventually leave the market anyhow (Oscar et al., 2020).

The relationship between biofuel and energy products prices is increasingly being studied using econometric methods by academics. The majority of studies focus on price interdependencies (Erten and Ocampo, 2021). Few have examined market transmission and volatility. Most studies on biofuels and energy products pricing use data from Brazil and the US since they are significant producers of biofuels (Roman et al., 2020). However, the European market lacks empirical risk assessment (Levi et al., 2020). An overview of recent studies on biofuel price transfers is provided below. In an appraisal by Yuan et al. (2020), they investigate non-linear adjustment to long-term balance between crude oil, ethanol, and petrol in Brazil

using Bayesian techniques. In long-term equilibrium between each price pair, they found a link between oil, petrol, and ethanol. Identical conclusions are reached. As a result of changing economic and political forces in Germany, Olagunju et al. (2021) utilize a VECM regime-dependent Markov switch. Overall, they find that crude oil drives biodiesel prices, which drives vegetable oil costs.

We concentrate on exploration and depletion since these are probably essential in seizing the spread of product tremors (Guhathakurta et al., 2020). In partial balancing models for natural resources and the opportunity cost of depletion, it is essential to understand how resource companies adapt to price fluctuations. Macroeconomic reserves may also be significant (Vivian and Wohar, 2012). With the restricted spread of product value tremors, when fixed, the relationship (Ezeaku et al., 2021). Given the adaptation occurring by the quantity of output when products prices vary, the study examined whether extra wealth benefits related with the finding of novel reservations may help explain data on products price volatility with macro-economic performance (Regnier, 2007).

Similarly, Manogna and Mishra (2020) examined unidirectional volatility transmission. These spills range from basic pricing to catfish prices, and they used an exponential GARCH model to investigate them. An analysis of the spillovers between energy input costs and retail food prices was carried out by Apergis and Rezitis (2003a). Their findings indicate that energy input and output volatility affect food price volatility. Protection is required because to the volatility of production prices caused by own and price volatility. Using a DCC-GARCH-multivariate model, Zhang et al. (2009) examine price transmissions and volatility spillovers across weekly US ethanol, corn, diesel, gasoline, and oil prices. Prices of energy products were shown to be volatile, but not ethanol prices (Apergis and Rezitis, 2003b). Accordingly, the energy markets are seeing increasing volatility. Price changes are ignored. Encoding products correlations into distances is the goal. They were only weakly related before the 2008/2009 food crisis. The bonds deepened during and after the food crisis (Askan et al., 2020). The petroleum, biofuel, and energy products industries have been more intertwined in recent years, according to those studied (Pradhan et al., 2021).

DATA AND METHODOLOGY

Green Fiscal Policies in China

As worldwide environment change revision and energy security anxieties increase, the Chinese government has applied government subsidies and tax rebate policies to inspire the fast development of renewable energy industries; the beneficial effects of these fiscal policies indicate theoretical value and policy implications. Subsidies and tax breaks from the government are becoming more important in alleviating the lack of investment in renewable energy companies and increasing their investment efficiency.

Two new research topics arise as a result of this change:

- 1) How much of a difference does it make if we encourage investment in renewable energy firms?

- 2) Is the use of tax incentives and subsidies to encourage renewable energy companies to invest more efficiently a factor?

By focusing on the effects of firm-specific characteristics, energy prices, and investor preferences on renewable energy firms' investment efficiency, as well as the financial performance impacts of subsidies and tax policies, this article aims to fill in knowledge gaps from the analysis of the preceding articles.

There has been a lack of knowledge of the important effect of government subsidies and tax rebates on increasing renewable energy enterprises' investment efficiency and identifying investment gaps in the renewable energy sector at a micro-level in prior literature studies. Renewable energy enterprises' investment efficiency gaps may be impacted by both firm-specific factors: varied government subsidies and tax rebates policies. Renewable energy companies must determine if government subsidies and tax breaks really encourage excessive development, as well as whether factor inputs really do help to improve investment efficiency. Government and company leaders are particularly interested in the relationship between green fiscal policies and the purpose of firms to improve factor investment efficiency. There are two major fiscal policy issues in emerging and developing countries: the use of government subsidies and tax refunds to supplement or replace private component investment.

In contrast to renewable energy enterprises in industrialized nations, Chinese renewable energy firms have distinct investment gaps because of their unique institutional foundation and market conditions. Government policymakers and managers can make better investment choices for renewable energy businesses by evaluating the investment efficiency of renewable energy enterprises and monitoring the implementation efficiency gaps of renewable energy fiscal policies.

Study Data

NCDEX, a well-known agri-products marketplace, provided the daily closing futures prices for six key energy products (2004–2018). They remained chosen because they represent over 75% of all energy futures traded at NCDEX in terms of value. While collecting adjusted closing prices of different products in spot souks, that include the delivery point for futures contracts, the NCDEX website was also utilized. **Table 1** shows expressive data for spot and stocks for several products. ADCC-GARCH and CO-GARCH tests were used to compare the mean values of futures price volatility (**Table 2**).

Study Model and Estimation

The use of test statistics has increased in the research of energy products prices volatility, which is supported by the literature review (Ismail et al., 2017; Hau et al., 2020; Tariq et al., 2020). Co-integration efficacy in predicting price confluence to assess futures trading effectiveness has been investigated in other studies. Price coordination between spot and futures prices is required for markets to function effectively. It ensures that the two series are kept in equilibrium over time (Zafeiriou et al., 2018). The absence of serial correlation in a futures market indicates that futures prices have little connection to cash price fluctuations, implying that the

TABLE 1 | Daily energy products spot prices and futures prices.

Products	Legend	Mean	Min	Max	SD	CV%	F-value	p-value
Crude oil	Products price	0.1274	0.0615	0.0107	0.0229	32.57	5.251*	0.000
	Futures price	0.6714	0.0355	0.02015	0.0107	38.99		
Heating oil	Products price	0.2328	0.0544	0.1272	0.5378	26.71	9.913*	0.000
	Futures price	0.2497	0.0084	0.1199	0.8692	16.68		
Natural oil	Products price	0.3129	0.1143	0.2967	0.9813	89.99	3.315*	0.000
	Futures price	0.8792	0.0816	0.8769	0.7149	14.81		
Gasoline	Products price	0.8477	0.0852	0.5589	0.5833	27.63	8.257*	0.000
	Futures price	0.762	0.0236	0.0432	0.1216	11.03		
Diesel	Products price	0.4254	0.2022	0.6662	0.1786	12.81	1.053*	0.000
	Futures price	0.2023	0.3192	0.5889	0.5561	11.57		
Brown coal	Products price	0.2384	0.0106	0.2317	0.1111	17.97	8.775*	0.000
	Futures price	0.6852	0.0114	0.9312	0.1054	36.75		

*significance at p-value < 0.05.

TABLE 2 | Energy prices turnover and energy efficiency with respect to gross domestic product.

Year	GDP (in billions)	Energy futures turnover			Futures markets turnover (in billions)
		Energy GDP (in billions)	Volume (in billions)	Value (in billions)	
2004–2006	30,307	25,914	132 (6.5)	44 (1.7)	60.4
2006–2008	27,055	10,017	554 (2.1)	170 (5.8)	233.9
2008–2010	14,059	11,707	734 (1.0)	967 (1.4)	261.01
2010–2012	19,885	6,720	104 (15)	141 (3.6)	130.14
2012–2014	19,500	8,203	816 (3.3)	148 (7.3)	143.25
2014–2016	33,600	71,791	496 (0.7)	152 (4.3)	556.91
2016–2018	43,014	35,1012	176 (4.9)	471 (0.8)	230.00
2018–2020	45,901	34,510	101 (3.5)	222 (0.56)	171.03

market is relatively inefficient. The current study follows the same approach as earlier work.

After establishing how the spot prices of energy future contracts are interrelated, the orientation of the connection must be determined in order to show causality. Prior to connectedness examination, the study has operationalized the unit root analysis (see **Table 3**). More so, to determine the stationary condition in the empirical model of study, the autoregressive analysis technique was tested. The series is in a stationary condition if it has no dependency on time. The normality of all futures and spot price series was evaluated using unit root tests utilizing the ADF and PP techniques, which can deal with non-parametric data (**Table 4**). Using this equation, a regression equation was calculated to evaluate the stationarity of futures and spot prices:

$$\Delta Y_t = \beta_0 Y_{t-1} + \sum_{i=1}^T y_i \Delta Y_{t-1} + \varepsilon_{it} \quad (1)$$

The tests below show how we estimated the lag length using a constant intercept and Schwarz information criterion. A co-integration test was used to assess whether or not non-stationary series are connected by length in an equilibrium connection. This

study used the probabilistic approach, which employs Johansen's co-integration tests, to estimate the long-term forecast of spot and futures prices (**Tables 5,6**). The Johansen co-integration test, which estimates an n-dimensional vector under the premise of an n-dimensional vector X_t with integration of order I (1), may be used to estimate a vector autoregressive model. Johansen and Juselius (1990) improved the model by adding an error correction that was visualized as follows:

$$Y_t = c + \sum_{i=1}^k y_i \delta Y_{t-1} + \varepsilon_{it} \quad (2)$$

Two Lagrange multiplier test statistics are presented by the traces and maximum eigenvalues of the residual vectors. The trace statistics check to see whether r equals k. The maximum eigenvalue statistics is used to determine if a series is trending over time or has reached its stationary point.

$$\Delta Y_t = \mu + \sum_{i=1}^k y_i \delta Y_{t-1} + \varepsilon_{it} \quad (3)$$

On the advantage of employing two checks for serial correlation, there are many points of view. While Johansen

TABLE 3 | Unit root analysis.

Products	Legend	ADF		PP	
		Level	1st diff	Level	1st diff
Crude oil	Products price	0.69 (0.455)	0.27* (0.000)	0.81 (0.895)	0.44* (0.000)
	Futures price	0.17 (0.111)	0.77* (0.000)	0.25 (0.662)	0.64* (0.000)
Heating oil	Products price	0.19 (0.351)	0.76* (0.000)	0.65 (0.707)	0.96* (0.000)
	Futures price	0.85 (0.078)	0.58* (0.000)	0.29 (0.559)	0.63* (0.000)
Natural oil	Products price	0.56 (0.907)	0.78* (0.000)	0.55 (0.603)	0.99* (0.000)
	Futures price	0.21 (0.321)	0.31* (0.000)	0.89 (0.170)	0.83* (0.000)
Gasoline	Products price	0.85 (0.103)	0.24* (0.000)	0.09 (0.131)	0.28* (0.000)
	Futures price	0.42 (0.885)	0.85* (0.000)	0.63 (0.119)	0.99* (0.000)
Diesel	Products price	0.86 (0.900)	0.67* (0.000)	0.72 (0.322)	0.57* (0.000)
	Futures price	0.79 (0.830)	0.88* (0.000)	0.64 (0.343)	0.63* (0.000)
Energy efficiency		0.43 (0.777)	0.67* (0.000)	0.39 (0.236)	0.41* (0.000)

*significance at p-value < 0.05, ADF (Augmented Dickey-Fuller test), PP (Phillip Person test).

TABLE 4 | Co-integration test.

Products		Trace values		Maximum eigenvalues	
		Trace	Significance	Trace	Significance
Crude oil	$H_0: r = 0$	0.65	(0.000)	0.88	(0.000)
	$H_0: r \leq 1$	0.71	(0.000)	0.22	(0.000)
Heating oil	$H_0: r = 0$	0.95	(0.000)	0.57	(0.000)
	$H_0: r \leq 1$	0.58	(0.000)	0.99	(0.000)
Natural oil	$H_0: r = 0$	0.69	(0.000)	0.53	(0.000)
	$H_0: r \leq 1$	0.23	(0.000)	0.81	(0.000)
Gasoline	$H_0: r = 0$	0.83	(0.000)	0.93	(0.000)
	$H_0: r \leq 1$	0.48	(0.000)	0.39	(0.000)
Diesel	$H_0: r = 0$	0.89	(0.000)	0.73	(0.000)
	$H_0: r \leq 1$	0.83	(0.000)	0.443	(0.000)
Energy efficiency	$H_0: r = 0$	0.74	(0.000)	0.129	(0.000)
	$H_0: r \leq 1$	0.82	(0.000)	0.346	(0.0000)

TABLE 5 | DCC-ADCC findings.

	DCC estimated outputs			ADCC estimated outputs		
	Co-efficient	Standard error	T-stats	Co-efficient	Standard error	T-stats
Crude oil	0.9165	0.1564	0.3475	0.0529	0.0993	0.0343
Significance	(0.001)			(0.000)		
Heating oil	0.2496	0.0365	0.0397	0.0324	0.0407	0.2781
Significance	(0.000)			(0.000)		
Natural oil	0.1279	0.3398	0.0488	0.9317	0.9029	0.0465
Significance	(0.000)			(0.000)		
Gasoline	0.0103	0.1954	0.0217	0.0541	0.1296	0.0794
Significance	(0.000)			(0.000)		
Diesel	0.0863	0.2558	0.0933	0.2763	0.2207	0.8213
Significance	(0.000)			(0.000)		
Energy efficiency	0.0761	0.3271	0.0441	0.3333	0.1012	0.7681
	(0.000)			(0.002)		

TABLE 6 | Empirical results of ADCC-GARCH estimates.

	ADCC	GARCH
Crude oil	0.961* (0.000)	0.576* (0.000)
Heating oil	0.572* (0.000)	0.103* (0.000)
Natural oil	0.811 (0.000)	0.121* (0.000)
Gasoline	0.304* (0.000)	0.184* (0.000)
Diesel	0.814* (0.000)	0.724* (0.000)

and Juselius (1990) studied complex circuits, it was proposed that the trace test may be weaker than the maximum eigenvalue test, as Cheung and Lai demonstrated (1993).

$$\alpha_{max} = -T \sum_{i=r+1}^k \ln(1 - \gamma_i) \quad (4)$$

Previous values may also assist to clarify the cause, in addressing other factors. For example, it is believed that if Y is Granger causes X, which may then be used to forecast Y, or that Granger will have coefficients. It is worth noting that X is still important after the transmission.

$$\alpha_{max} = -T \ln(1 - \gamma_i) \quad (5)$$

The regression Eq. 5 were created to determine whether X and Y have a short-term connection. Furthermore, if spot and futures prices are co-integrated, causality may be unidirectional or bidirectional. In regression analysis, a test of causation searches for statistically significant information in the lagged values of Y and X. The following are the F-statistic values:

$$Y_t = c_0 + \sum_{i=1}^p \beta_i y_i + \sum_{j=1}^p \beta_j Y_{t-j} + \varepsilon_{it} \quad (5a)$$

Lastly, the causality test was used to assess the connection between futures and spot prices of major farm products, as well as the price direction and future. This (Granger (1969)) technique looks at how much of the variation in one variable can be described by prior values of some other variables, and then tries to figure out whether any past numbers of the other factor may be added to account for the variation in the variable.

Estimation Technique: ADCC-GARCH

The excessive kurtosis in the return distribution may be attributed to the high volatility of petroleum commodities prices and the substantial existence of a conditional variance impact and variance stickiness. As a result, risk management studies often make the unreasonable request that returns are spread regularly.

$$D_t = \text{diag}(h_{1,t}^{1/2}, \dots, h_{mt}^{1/2}) \quad (6)$$

As a consequence, other than testing for model superiority, assessing the data to identify the best suitable substantial component is regarded of equal relevance for many investigations (Table 7).

TABLE 7 | Robustness estimates: CO-GARCH test.

	U (1)	U (1)	U (3)	U (4)	U (5)
U (1)	0.2825	0.0277	0.2576	0.0833	0.0508
U (2)	0.1127	0.0438	0.0086	0.1247	0.1134
U (3)	0.6572	0.0084	0.5195	0.0836	0.5212
U (4)	0.1617	0.1111	0.0405	0.0314	0.1631
U (5)	0.1745	0.0705	0.1843	0.1966	0.0612

The misplaced medium is B

	B (1)	B (2)	B (3)	B (4)	B (5)
B (1)	0.0009	0.1151	0.0994	0.2427	0.0191
B (2)	0.5992	0.1866	0.1032	0.0097	0.1475
B (3)	0.1001	0.0099	0.2069	0.8875	0.6202
B (4)	0.0101	0.9093	0.1851	0.0307	0.0727
B (5)	0.1516	0.0326	0.7594	0.0166	0.2742

Estimated outputs of CO-GARCH

	Crude oil	Heating oil	Natural oil	Gasoline	Diesel
Crude oil	0.0156	0.0543	0.0037	0.0379	0.0816
Heating oil	-0.5316	0.0446	0.1509	0.0228	0.1772
Natural oil	0.2983	0.0708	0.0053	0.0013	0.3025
Gasoline	0.1338	0.0125	0.2352	0.0146	0.3202
Diesel	0.2588	0.0325	0.0326	0.2667	0.0145

$$R_t = \text{diag}(q_{1,t}^{-1/2}, \dots, q_{n,t}^{-1/2}) Q_t \text{diag}(q_{1,t}^{-1/2}, \dots, q_{n,t}^{-1/2}) \quad (7)$$

The following three-step process is necessary to be effective and to obtain the best accurate distributions of innovation for a certain GARCH class model.

$$h_{i,t} = \omega_i + \alpha_i \varepsilon_{i,t-1}^2 + \beta_i h_{i,t-1} \quad (8)$$

To begin, we remove the innovations from the GARCH model coefficients to get the quasi maximal probability estimation (QMLE) method.

$$Q_t = (1 - \theta_1 - \theta_2) \bar{Q} + \theta_1 z_{t-1} z'_{t-1} + \theta_2 Q_{t-1} \quad (9)$$

Second, the inventions are reviewed to see if they fall inside a typical normal distribution or not, to use an appropriate diagnostic tool.

$$h_{i,t} = \omega_i + \alpha_i \varepsilon_{i,t-1}^2 + \beta_i h_{i,t-1} + d_i \varepsilon_{i,t-1}^2 I(\varepsilon_{i,t-1}) \quad (10)$$

After that, assuming that the innovators do not follow a typical normal distribution, all the information gathered in the second step is used, and only distributions that closely match the tail shape of a given case's discoveries dispersion are chosen for final analysis. However, this strategy presents a contradiction that is difficult to comprehend.

$$Q_t = (\bar{Q} - A' \bar{Q} A - B' \bar{Q} B - G' \bar{Q} G) + A' z_{t-1} z'_{t-1} A + B' Q_{t-1} B + G z_{t-1} z'_{t-1} G \quad (11)$$

In contrast to the original assumption of a conventional normal distribution, innovations may follow a heavy tailed distribution when the particular technique is applied to

normal GARCH processes—which resembles an IGARCH model.

$$f_t = H_t^{1/2} z_t \quad (12)$$

Due to the fact that this impact is most noticeable in investment rewards, the aforementioned technique is less suited for analyzing energy datasets.

$$A = \Sigma^{1/2} U \quad (13)$$

The GARCH models' discoveries dispersion was checked for normality, and a relative symmetry test was developed by Klar et al. (2012) to supplement the usual goodness-of-fit tests. GARCH models' Gaussian distribution assumption may be tested using their technique, which is supported by their findings;

$$r_t = m_t + A H_t^{1/2} z_t \quad (14)$$

To test for the suitability of other assumed distributions, such as the Student-t test, they may be appropriately expanded. Furthermore, Sun et al. (2014) established a test for the innovations distribution by comparing the studied tail indices with the Hill tail index estimates in an attempt to overcome the intricacy of the aforementioned troubleshooting technique. It was discovered that the test produced robust findings when utilizing genuine, lengthy, time-series return data from a variety of financial indices, leading to a more thorough and secure estimation of the GARCH model's caudal component (Figure 1).

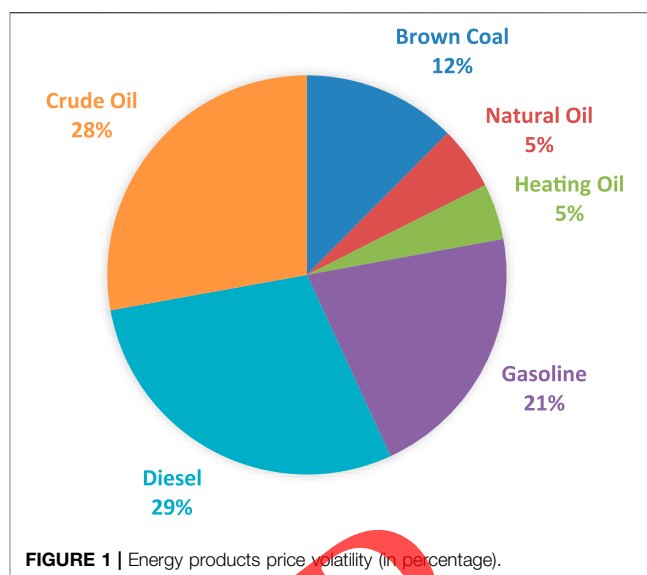
RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Empirical Results

The data collected by Pindyck (2001) from the petroleum complex over the past 2 decades shows that the futures and spot prices are correlated. This 6-month crude oil futures contract should trade at a discount of approximately 3% below the 6-month spot price. Our findings demonstrate that the trade in Chinese futures affects both market volatility and efficiency but also has an effect on stocks not traded in the market. Although there are still many unknowns in the forecasting of such markets, there is considerable progress in this area as new research continues to be discovered. Several studies have shown that the volatility of the futures market is directly correlated to the volatility of the spot market. Examples of a substantial link between financial markets include contagion, integration, interdependence, co-movement, return, and volatility spillovers.

There is also a desire to see how well all of the used models do in both the pre- and post-disaster cases. In order to generate our forecasts, we rely on the rolling window method, which covers a 48-month period. We have postcrisis forecasting predictions (January 2010 to December 2012) and precrisis forecasting predictions (January 2007 to December 2009) to select from. We are investigating the effect of volatility on the predictability of the S&P 500's volatility (see Figures 2, 3).

More so, the three models using monthly diesel, diesel oil, and cotton RVs (each of which is isolated) demonstrate significant predictive value for the S&P 500 spot. The sample reveals that



price information on the products of grains and softs was most effective. Perhaps the reason is the United States is the world's largest producer and exporter of cotton and diesels, which are the country's two most popular exports. FA methodology forecasts outperform FA and average in most cases. In many cases, the FA method is used because it improves a model's accuracy and represents findings with fewer numbers than the original variables.

Based on the data, it is clear that products futures, volatility, and correlation are all connected to financialization, although index futures are more important than non-index futures. As a result, the relationship between the stock market and products is stronger. Markets are a pipeline for global financial factors, influencing products spot price. This research shows that the daily products return's factor structure is weaker than the volatility factor structure, giving insight into volatility and price dynamics.

According to our results, price information on softs and grains has predictive power in regards to the S&P 500 index. The resulted generated from this study should assist market players in comprehending the significance of petroleum and other resource goods volatilities in hedging the risk associated with renewable power commodities. Additionally, speculators may utilize the data offered in the market volatility indices of essential sectors to anticipate clean energy stock market returns. In addition, regulators might rely on the results of this article to design policies trying to reduce the transmission that actually comes from unpredictable commodities markets. The results of this work might also be valuable for researchers engaged in research concerning valuation models, with this advancement also reliant on a better understanding of the linkages among commodities and marketplaces.

There are futures markets for certain energy products. As Telser (1981) writes, futures markets enable price information to be centralized and shared, which, in turn, increases the information in spot prices (according to Powers (1970), Cox

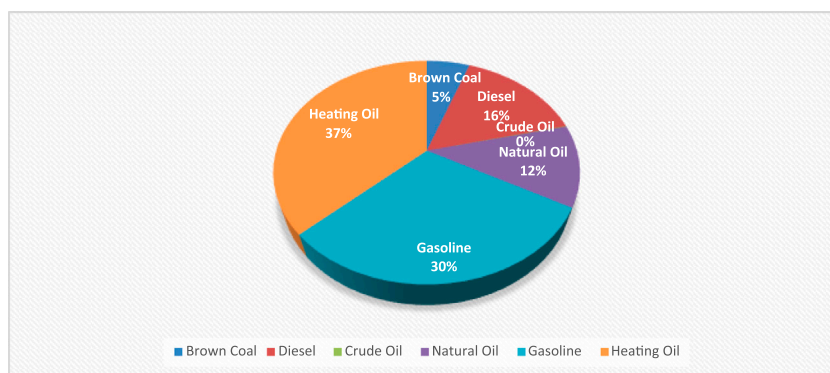


FIGURE 2 | Energy future prices volatility (in percentage).

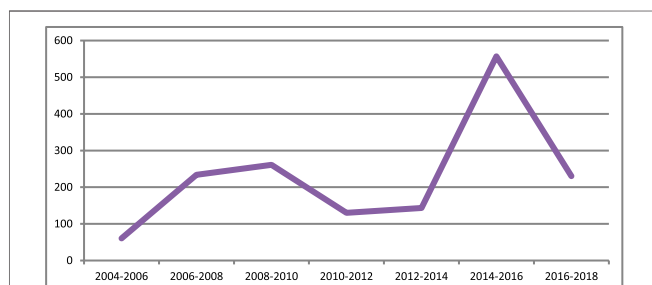


FIGURE 3 | Energy futures contract volatility during the sample period.

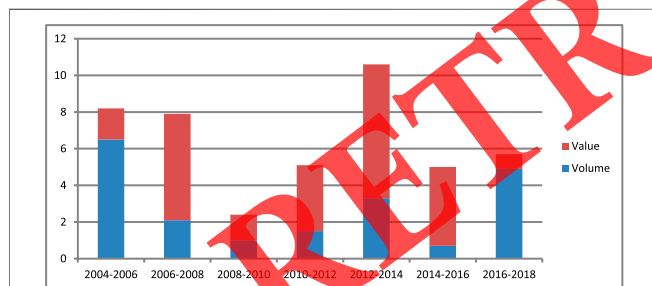


FIGURE 4 | Energy commodity futures turnover.

(1976), Peck (1976), and Telser (1981)). Research by Garbade and Silber (1983), Brorsen et al. (1984), and Yang et al. (2001) has concluded that a futures market dominates the price discovery process (2013). New information initially impacts futures prices, then spot prices. Even more than on the spot market, economic players may easily alter their holdings on the futures market when new information is received.

Price movement is an indicator of communication. The variation of underlying asset prices on the market is equal to the variance of information flow arriving in the absence of arbitrage (Ross, 1989). If not, it may provide a chance for arbitrage. Numerous investigations have backed up this idea. Similar to Johansen and causality tests, the amount of delays is computed in the same manner.

Over time, the market in China for young people has gained international importance and shown continuous improvement in the ability to efficiently sell goods. Despite the study results showing that Chinese energy futures markets remain susceptible to big price fluctuations, there are positive aspects of the research findings that suggest Chinese energy futures markets are still resilient. The authors are worried that speculative activity makes markets less capable of handling weird orders. The research articles are sparse: we found just two relevant documents. In each market, how prices rise and fall every day is examined.

The authors find that when volume rises, volatility rises as well; however, as open interest increases, volatility decreases. The findings imply that volatility is enhanced by speculative activity. Chen and Paulraj (2004) investigated the relationship between price movement and transaction volume for copper, aluminum, diesels, and wheat futures contracts, comparable to the work done by Moberly (2017).

The authors show that absolute returns and trading volume are positively correlated both contemporaneously and in the future, *via* Granger causality tests and correlation analysis. In addition, they find that absolute returns and trading volumes are closely connected. Only with copper does a significant connection exist between the two returns: the absolute return and the volume of trade (Figure 4).

Sustainable energy development incentives, preferred VAT, corporate tax, and corporation tax preference ratios are only a few of the existing tax rebate schemes in place in China. Tax cuts may encourage operational and maintenance investment by lowering investment costs and increasing cash flow *via* indirect fiscal spending, which in turn improves enterprises' cash flow. The basics of the endogenous financing of renewable energy corporations are cash flows, which indicate the availability of capitals that companies may freely manage.

As a result of tax reductions, sustainable energy companies are able to access external monetary resources, which in turn affects their spending intentions and reduces overall external financing limitations, thereby encouraging more lucrative renewable energy investment projects. Reducing borrowing costs and improving the investing advantages of renewable energy investments is a

result of higher tax ratio refunds that motivate renewable energy enterprises to engage in lucrative renewable energy projects and so promote renewables efficiency.

Sensitivity Analysis

A new property category for energy products prices volatility in the renewable energy industry has arisen during the last millennium. Clean energy and other asset types have been the subject of several research topics. However, academics have paid relatively little consideration to the question of how buyers with assets in clean energy efficiency might protect their bets. This study analyses whether commodities market volatility indexes may be utilized as hedging mechanisms against the downside risk of clean energy stock indexes in order to expand this sparse literature. This study's actual research takes into account the fluctuation indices for crude oil as well as heating oil, and three different clean energy stock indices. The DCC-GARCH model applied to the moment comparison groups is evaluated theoretically to determine the efficiency of hedge.

The following is a summary of the results of this inquiry. There is a negative correlation between the three fluctuation indices and the clean energy stock indices, which suggests that volatility indexes may be used to hedge clean energy stock indexes effectively. In practice, a rise in the implied volatility of crude oil or precious metals might counterbalance a decline in green power stock index returns (crude oil and heating oil).

This conclusion is supported by the asymmetrical DCC-GARCH model. Second, crude oil implied value is the strongest hedging instrument, following by crude oil and heating oil implied volume. It is also important to note that the correlations between pairs are time-dependent and hence not continuous. Commodity volatility and equities prices move in opposing directions, as seen by the negative analysis. Investing in both renewable energy assets and commodities fluctuation indices may help investors diversify their renewable energy stock price risk.

Discussion

First, we devised a method for calculating long and short-term price risks, which are crucial to long-term price risk. In order to accomplish this, monthly biodiesel, crude oil, and rapeseed prices in Germany were examined from 2003 to 2012. Only short-term variations in volatility have been studied thus far, with little attention paid to long-term trends. We utilize a Vector Error Correction Model (VECM) to filter out data to adjust for long-term price changes. A regression analysis is used to generate estimates of long-run and short-run price levels in the VECM. In the near term, a dynamic conditional correlation was employed to assess volatility and volatility linkages. Because it includes long-run dynamics that may be defined for the unconditional covariance matrix, the model utilizes non-parametric methods to provide a more flexible and accurate fitting approach than the (DCC) GARCH model.

The volatility measure determines the uncertainty in the result, which is one of the research's major flaws. When it comes to pricing, GARCH outperforms the competition and aids regime stability. Volatility regimes have no impact on

price series when heteroskedasticity exists. The most serious problem with GARCH volatility is that it may lead to regime misclassification due to a failure to properly assess and characterize underlying variability. One last point to make about this study is that it overlooks the impact of trade. It would be interesting to see if trade or knowledge transfer dominates price transmission.

Even though the correlations between different products are low, and because products such as oil and grains tend to move together, it is conceivable that a single random component, affected by the effect of market connections, will be larger than anticipated. The fact that the energy sectors are so tightly connected is one explanation for the crossover. According to the findings, output shocks in the energy market would affect bioenergy feedstocks and, ultimately, food products. Since energy costs rise during a financial crisis, we learn that energy products earnings are passed on to farmers *via* an increase in the price of fuel. Return correlations may become more apparent as a result of shocks in one market, but these shocks may also ricochet to other markets, making return-volatility correlations persist for a long time.

CONCLUSION AND IMPLICATIONS

It mentions the relationship to products markets, such as the one previously brought up by Boako and Alagidede (2016). The findings of the study may help products index traders and fund managers get insights into their investments. Those who recently put money into products and now need to rebalance their portfolio without exposure to the volatile products markets may want to investigate African stock markets for diversification. The fact that African economies must increase products financialization supports the argument. The two most important alterations occurring in Europe are improved market dynamics and less debt; both of these support increasing investments. People must put in a huge effort to establish derivatives trading throughout the continent and prioritize introducing products exchanges and demutualizing local stock markets.

The implications of our research will be profound. The evidence suggests that rapeseed and biodiesel prices have an inextricable connection that will never leave them far apart. As a result, the rise and fall of prices will be in relation to how much deviation has occurred. The price of rapeseed and crude oil is not expected to be affected by the biodiesel market in the short term, but in the long run, it will be in direct response to changes in those other markets. Advocates must have the knowledge gained from this research in debates on how to lower increasing food prices. Biodiesel's volatility is more influenced by rapeseed's and crude oil's volatility, which is very mild. The link between rapeseed and crude oil volatility is increasing, although that does not hugely affect refining. Food security concerns have impacted markets everywhere, creating big changes that have upended the global economy.

A financial trader may stand in for a counterparty in a transaction if one has the expectation that prices will rise and enter into a futures contract. Volatility is what would impact the

value of the deals. People may avoid price fluctuation risks by controlling and receiving delivery of products through products futures markets. If a group of traders whose only interest is profit, or traders who are withdrawing their money from the market unexpectedly, suddenly affect the price volatility, it will go up significantly. To respond to Cheng and Xiong (2014) call for a scholar-led move beyond a simplistic bubble-like view of financialization, researchers are suggesting avoiding a “business as usual” distinction. Instead of concentrating on the potential benefits of financialization, additional study is needed to analyze the effect of it on three main products market functions: storage incentives, risk-sharing, and information discovery. This article covers the effect of investors on the market research for financial transactions. People like us have come before. Henderson et al. (2015) looked at the impact of financialization through products-linked notes (OTC) on

information efficiency (CLNs). Issuances of CLNs may impact futures prices, since issuers of CLNs use their futures contracts to hedge their products price risk.

DATA AVAILABILITY STATEMENT

The original contributions presented in the study are included in the article/Supplementary Materials, further inquiries can be directed to the corresponding author.

AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

All authors listed have made a substantial, direct, and intellectual contribution to the work and approved it for publication.

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