



RETRACTED: Nexus Between Green Finance, Energy Efficiency, and **Carbon Emission: Covid-19 Implications From BRICS Countries**

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The threats of climatic change on life, health, and the environment have been regarded by the joint consensus of scholars in the recent decades. With the advancement of global green development, green finance has payed the way for the government to respond to the challenges of climate change by providing mature financial services, appropriate financing, investment, and project funds related to environmental protection. In this context, green finance was proposed, and the relationship between green finance, renewable energy, and carbon emissions in the BRICS countries from 2000 to 2018 was further studied based on the quantile regression model. The presence of cross-sectional dependence in panel results is tested through OD and LM methods. The findings show the negative effect of green finance and non-fossil energy consumption on CO2 emissions. Furthermore, economic growth, trade openness, energy consumption, and foreign direct investment increase the CO₂ emissions. Finally, the research results confirm that green finance is the best financial strategy to reduce carbon dioxide emissions.

words: green finance, quantile regression, CO₂ emission, energy efficiency, non-fossil energy consumption

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1 INTRODUCTION

The increase in energy consumption due to fossil fuel leads to increased greenhouse gas (GHG) emissions as recorded in recent years and in turn affects economic growth. Fossil fuels, such as coal and petroleum, are the main ingredients of industrial revolution, whereas industrial growth plays an important role in economic growth and uses fossil fuels as a powerful catalyst (Zhang et al., 2021). Moreover, the threats of climatic change on life, health, and the environment have been regarded by the joint consensus of scholars in the recent decades. Similarly, carbon emission is regarded as the main reason for climate change and, therefore, is stressed by many researchers and policymakers to overcome a global environmental disaster. Therefore, "the amount of GHG could double by 2035 from the pre-industrial level if no counter measures are taken," according to Stern et al. Hence, the average worldwide temperature will turn higher than 2°C in case of no action taken for GHG emission reduction, which is validated by the 2016 conference of the Paris Agreement (Zhang et al., 2021; Hsu et al., 2021; Ehsanullah et al., 2021). Furthermore, all aspects of life are threatened by the increasing temperature, which increases levels of GHG emissions and impacts nature and human life, according to the environmental institutions and environmental experts (Anser et al., 2020). Similarly, a rapid increase in sea levels, droughts, intense wildfires, increased hurricanes, less crops and fresh water, and a higher ice melting rate are expected if the threshold of 2°C is

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crossed, as stated by the Medical Society Consortium on the Climate and Health report (MSCCH). This decreases the quality of water, air, food, and health (Ullah et al., 2021; Abokyi et al., 2019).

Increase in CO₂, methane gas, and nitrous oxide is the main source of climate change. Most studies, including the Kyoto Protocol and the UN Convention on Climate Change (UNFCCC), fail to provide sufficient information on climate change difficulties (Li et al., 2021; Chien et al., 2021) and (Iqbal et al., 2021). Many researchers and scholars claim that environmental quality is potentially improved by implementing new regulations and economic policies; however, improving environmental quality through energy conservation reduces economic development (Alemzero et al., 2020a; Alemzero et al., 2020b). In addition, creating a balance between environmental degradation reduction and maintaining economic growth remains a major challenge for policymakers, which challenges them to reduce greenhouse gas (GHG) emissions and ensure availability of consistent and inexpensive energy sources (Iqbal et al., 2021) and (Zhang et al., 2021). Thus, green finance paves the way for governments aiming to face the climate change challenge by providing sophisticated financial services, appropriate financing, investments, and funds for projects related to environmental protection. Therefore, green finance represents an obvious way forward for the countries fighting against climate change. In essence, green finance aims to provide investment, financing, operating funds, and other financial services for environmentally friendly projects, with environmental protection as the main driver. Moreover, the leadership of a country needs to commit to factors such as project selection and project financing (Koomson and Danquah, 2021), which indicate how injecting green finance. into the industrial sector is more favorable than the renewable energy sector due to the reduction in industrial pollution and energy consumption, caused by this technological advancement in the industrial sector (Yu, 2021). Therefore, the behavior of financial institutions to support financing of energy conservation and environmental protection projects is referred to as green finance (Dong et al., 2021). Similarly, rational capital allocation and real economy representation is the essence of finance, whereas the behavior of financial institutions to actively the financing of energy conservation environmental protection projects is referred to as green finance (Guild, 2020; Baloch et al., 2020; Chandio et al., 2021).

This process enables industrial structure adjustment and economic development promotion. Moreover, green finance supports the transfer of capital from pollution and energy-intensive industries to industries with advanced concepts and technologies. In addition to promoting environmental sustainability and governance, green finance is considered as an efficient solution for environmental deterioration, as stated by Chen et al. (2021), which connects finance and ecology. Moreover, technological and innovation investment is supported by green finance (Nawaz et al., 2021), which highlights green finance as the most suitable way to fight against environmental pollution for both developed and developing countries. Investing and financing environmentally

friendly projects are the main aspects supported by green finance (Khan et al., 2018; Khezri et al., 2021; Liu et al., 2021; Lv and Li, 2021; Okere et al., 2021).

Environmental issues are never incorporated into finance by any research. This study, therefore, has three major contributions:

- This study is the first to explore the relationship between green finance, renewable energy, and carbon emissions in the BRICS countries. Different from previous studies, this study focuses on green finance instead of considering the impact of financial development on environmental variables.
- 2) The research constructed a green finance index, which is composed of three financial indicators: green credit, green securities, and green investment.
- 3) This study draws a comparison between OLS regression and quantile regression. The advantages of quantile regression are as follows: 1) it proves the entire conditional distribution of the explained variable, not the mean value of the explained variable under this condition. Therefore, based on different explanatory variables CO₂ emissions are affected differently, explaining how the regression coefficients of different quantiles are usually different, and outliers indicate the significant impact of important information. 2) The estimated coefficients of quantile regression are much more robust than those of OLS regression, and the random error term through quantile regression does not strictly meet the classic econometric assumptions such as zero mean, omoscedasticity, and normal distribution. However, for abnormally distributed variables, the estimated values of parameters in quantile regression are more robust.
- 4) The implementation of green investment industrial policies at the country level poses a challenge to the leadership of the BRICS countries, considering the critical nature of policy implementation.

The rest of the article is organized as follows: Section 2 discusses the literature related to green finance, renewable energy, and CO_2 emissions. Section 3 presents research design, in which we explain the green finance calculation method, data source, and model specification. Moreover, Section 4 discusses empirical results, and finally, Section 5 provides the conclusion and policy recommendation for the decision maker.

2 LITERATURE REVIEW

Green development is an old concept in history that has evolved in conformance with the trend from being a mere ethical and aesthetical initiative concerned with ecological wellbeing to a comprehensive support system with economic, legal, and political dimensions. It is a manifestation of the currently improved realization of human–nature and human–social relationships. In its essence, finance facilitates resource allocation to serve real economic development, whereas green finance provides the support for environmental protection and energy conservation projects. Green finance is vital for improving the

structure of industry toward sustainable economic development. Its role is not limited to financing environmental governance but also includes resource reallocation from intensive fossil-energy industries to advanced technology sectors (Westerlund and Edgerton, 2008; Xu et al., 2021; Zaidi et al., 2019; Zhou et al., 2020).

The research field of environmental policy and green finance has grabbed a lot of attention recently. Some researchers have focused on developing a definition and establishing a framework for green finance (Agyekum et al., 2021) and (D. Zhang et al., 2021). Tolliver et al. (2019) explained the present situation of green finance and stressed the similarity between the two concepts of green finance and climate finance. On the other hand, limited research addressed the relation between finance and ecology. (Guild, 2020) pointed out the necessity of financing solar energy for promoting environmental sustainability. Similarly, (Jinzhou, 2011) suggested environmental finance to mitigate environmental deterioration based on the premise that green finance increases technology investments, especially non-fossil energy technologies, and promotes innovation (Sandberg et al., 2019). Nonetheless, the relationship between green finance and CO2 emission is still under investigation. Saeed Meo and Karim (2021) analyzed the impact of green finance on CO₂ emissions in the top ten supporters of green finance economies (Canada, Hong Kong, Denmark, Japan, Norway, New Zealand, Sweden, the United Kingdom, Switzerland, and the BRICSates). They found that green finance negatively influences carbon emissions; nonetheless, the impact varies throughout different quantiles. The variance in the impact is attributed to the market conditions of green finance and different countries. Overall, the study advocates green finance as an effective financial tool for carbon emission mitigation (Ozturk and Acaravci, 2013; Saidi and Mbarek, 2017).

The study of Guild (2020) has also analyzed the associations between green finance, non-fossil energy, and CO2 emission in China and consequently discovered a significant relation between green finance and carbon intensity. Nav et al. (2021) went a step further to study green bond financing and its impact on environmental protection; however, their study did not recommend any policies for sustainable development. On the contrary, the study of Huang and Lei (2021) performed a comprehensive review on the literature related to the significance of green bonds for building a low-carbon economy. The study listed some recommendations that are significant for being developed in the pre-SDG epoch. These policies were discussed again recently in the study of Zaid et al. (2018), stressing the importance of green bonds to promote firm environmental responsibility and utilize them to achieve the sustainable development goals. Unlike Flammer, (Saraswat and Digalwar, 2021) stressed the firm social responsibility instead of environmental responsibility while assessing the role of green bonds in this regard and the delivery of the firm actions through their CSR activities. Jiang et al. (2020) conducted an empirical analysis on the relationship between green finance and environmental and social sustainability based on the S&P 500 Global Green Bond Index and the S&P 500 Environmental and

TABLE 1 | Green finance index.

Component	Eigenvalue	Difference	Proportion	Cumulative
Comp1	2.845	2.693	0.9485	0.9485
Comp2	0.152	0.1487	0.0506	0.999
Comp3	0.0029	_	0.001	1
Eigenvectors				
Variable	Comp1	Comp2	Comp3	_
GC	0.5905	-0.2018	-0.7814	_
GS	0.5636	0.7962	0.2202	_
GIN	0.5777	-0.5704	0.5838	_
Correlation mat	rix			
Variable	GC	GS	GN	_
GC	1	_	_	_
GS	0.922	1	_	_
GIN	0.9867	0.8579	1	_

Social Responsibility Index between 2010 and 2020 using quantile-on-quantile Regression and wavelet multiscale decomposition approaches and pointed out a gradual negative transformational impact of green finance on environmental and social responsibility (oun et al., 2020b) and (Sun et al., 2020a) and furthermore, various researcher, such as (Chandio et al., 2020; Sun et al., 2020c).

3 RESEARCH DESIGN AND MODEL SPECIFICATION

3.1 Research Design

Financial development is important for promoting industry. CO₂ emissions and industrial structure are closely associated, according to prior studies. Similarly, renewable energy consumption is also shown to affect carbon emission reduction. This research assesses the relationships between green finance, renewable energy use, and CO₂ emission using quantile regression, considering green finance and renewable energy consumption as the core independent variables, whereas CO₂ emission is the independent variable. Furthermore, the results are strengthened by using control variables, such as foreign direct investment (FDI), per capita GDP (GDP), research and development (RD), trade openness (Trade), and energy consumption (EC).

3.1.1 Green Finance Index

The flow of financial investments flowing into sustainable development projects and initiatives, environmental products, and policies encouraging development of a more sustainable economy is referred to as green finance. We construct a green finance indicator with three sub indicators, 1) green credit (GC): green loans and deposits, such as mortgage loans and project loans, are collectively referred to as green credit. Green credit is measured as the company's one-year green credit divided by the total credit, that is, the ratio of green loans to listed companies. 2) Green securities (GS): the green securities index is calculated as the ratio of the value of environmentally friendly companies to the total value of all companies. 3) Green investment (Gin): investing in protecting the environment and conserving energy is

TABLE 2 | Summary statistics.

Variable	Description	Mean	Standard deviation	Minimum	Maximum
GFI	Green finance index	0.39	0.02	0.37	0.41
CO2	MLN_TONNE	3.72	0.03	3.68	3.76
R&D	MLN_USD	5.64	0.06	5.56	5.76
Trade	%GDP	1.43	0.05	1.35	1.49
EC	MLN_TOE	3.35	0.01	3.33	3.37
RE	% of total final energy consumption	0.80	0.10	0.65	0.94
FDI	% GDP	0.23	0.15	0.01	0.53
GDP	GDP per capita	4.68	0.07	4.56	4.80

Notes: Std = standard deviation and all the values are transfer into natural logarithm.

referred to as green investment. This study focuses on the public sector, and therefore, we compute green investment by dividing public spending on energy conservation and environmental protection by the total expenditure. The two reasons for selecting this index include 1) the lack of authoritative data on statistics for the investment in environmental protection and energy conservation for the private sector and 2) the impact of private investment on green finance is reflected through the green securities and green credit financing. Hence, the impact of government spending on the green finance index is explained better by removing private investment (Ikram et al., 2019a; Sun et al., 2019; Ikram et al., 2019b).

A comprehensive green finance (GF) index, constituted by green credit, green investment, and green securities is constructed by employing PCA, which captures the main information from the initial data. Moreover, the PCA results are shown in **Table 1**, where 70% of the standardized variance is accounted for by the first principal component (PC1), and is recorded at an eigenvalue of >1, utilizing it to construct the financial development index.

3.1.2 Data

The descriptive statistics of CO_2 emission and green finance are shown in **Table 2**, which also demonstrates the share of renewable energy consumption, energy consumption calculated in British units of thermal energy per person, trade openness calculated as the percentage of trade to total GDP, GDP calculated in trillions of USD in current value, and foreign direct investment in trillions of dollars, respectively. Similarly, recorded with a more than six-fold increase, clean energies show a dramatic and steady increase from 10,669.87 Mt (2000) to 67,933.13 Mt (2018), whereas the gradual decline of CO_2 emissions is recorded at 0.02995 to 0.01131 from 2000 to 2018, which is more than half of the previous value.

3.2 Model Specification

3.2.1 Cross-Sectional Dependence Test

The associations between the studied countries make crosssectional dependence (CD) an appropriate choice for panel data. Consistent and unbiased results are achieved only by detaching it from cross-sectional dependence; hence, testing the cross-sectional dependence becomes eminent and two tests are used throughout the study. The tests were suggested by Pesaran and Breusch and Pagan, respectively. The following equation represents the test of Pesaran:

$$CD = \sqrt{\frac{2T}{N(N-1)} \left(\sum_{j=i+1}^{N} \rho_{ji}\right)},$$

where the sample size is represented as N and time period as T, whereas i and j represent the correlation of errors for the countries addressed. Similarly, the second cross-sectional dependence test, developed by Breusch and Pagan, is a Lagrange multiplier (LM), depicted as follows:

$$y_{it} = \alpha_i + \beta_i x_{it} + \varepsilon_{it}$$

where the cross-sectional proportions are identified by i and the time period as t, and the cross-sections are independent according to the null assumption and mutually dependent on the alternative assumption.

3.2.2 Panel Unit Root Tests

The integration and regression techniques are employed only after checking the unit root. The unit root in the data is assessed by the first-generation unit root test, where cross-sectional dependence is not considered and the limited functions of the first-generation tests make them inefficient. We conduct second-generation root tests to check the cross-sectional dependence in panel data and investigate the roots of units using center augmented Dickey–Fuller (CADF) and cross-cut IPS (CIPS) for reliable results.

3.2.3 Panel Cointegration Test

Cointegration between the variables is analyzed after testing the cross-sectional dependence and unit roots, as proposed by Westerlund and Edgerton. The application of the test takes cross-sectional dependence into account, allowing heterogeneity in error correction models. The coefficients ϕN and t-test τN , derived from the LM unit root tests, are included in the cointegration tests as two different versions producing reliable results.

3.2.4 Panel Quantile Regression

The fixed effect panel quantile regression method is used to avoid individual heterogeneity, differing from the (PQR) model utilized. The knowledge benefits of the quantile regression give

it preference and a reliable estimator is used to provide accurate measurements and calculations, whereas the properties of means and quantiles differ drastically. Individual error terms are generated by the fixed effect PQR, considering heterogeneity on an individual and distributional level which also controls the outliers. Hence, in case of the error term not following a normal distribution, the PQR, which is better than the CM method, is used, whereas the CM method is preferred when error terms are distributed normally. Nevertheless, it is difficult to satisfy the conjecture of normality, which drives the CM method to produce biased estimates. Hence, PQR provides detailed insights regarding various carbon emission determinants at different economic development stages suitable for the objective of this study.

The issue of the renewable energy production determinants, which is a sensitive cause stressed by the recent policy and economical literature, is also examined by this research. Hence, the following regression equation is estimated to test the relationship between non-fossil energy production, political stability, governance, and financial development, including other control variables:

$$CO2_{it} = \alpha_0 + \alpha_1 GFI_{it} + \alpha_2 NFE_{it} + \sum_{i=1}^{K} \lambda_j Z_{jit} + \tau_i + \epsilon_{it}, \qquad (1)$$

where the natural logarithm of environmental quality (CO₂) is determined as CO₂, the country as i, and the time period as t, which remains constant across countries but not overtime as a parameter. Similarly, the structural logarithm of the green finance indicator and renewable energy consumption, along with the interaction term between GFI and NFEC, is represented as GFI and NFE. Moreover, the vector of relevant control variables per capita GDP (GDP), foreign direct investment (FDP), technological innovation (RD), trade openness (Trade), and energy consumption (EC) is represented as Z

3.2.5 Estimation's Method

The impact of green finance and renewable energy on CO₂ emission in BRICS is examined in this study by developing a panel quantile regression model. The objective of the quantile regression approach initiated by Koenker and Basset (1978) is to assess the conditional quantile functions and to generalize the idea of univariate quantile estimation, which explains the formulation of conditional distribution of the variable through quantiles as functions of the observed explanatory variables. The symmetric features of the outcome variable distribution are easily examined by this method in contrast to the ordinary least square (OLS) method due to its high responsiveness to outliers. The quantile regression accounts for outliers and analyzes the determinants of renewable energy production across the conditional distribution. Moreover, the results of the OLS regression describe the "average" renewable energy production country, appreciating the mean effect, where the mean effect caused by OLS regression does not clarify the coefficients from the heterogeneous responses' model, as demonstrated by Koenker and Bassett, 1978.

Alternatively, in case of factors of interest with varied impacts throughout the conditional distribution of the dependent factor, it is suitable to apply the quantile regression model. Several studies have recently combined quantile regression with panel data (Graham et al., 2018). Hence, panel data enable the incorporation of fixed effects to authenticate the in-group variations in the mean regression model, whereas the underlying model is altered by the additive fixed effect (Mohsin et al., 2018a).

A robust inference is provided by the newly proposed method by Powell, sufficient for quantile estimators with fixed effect (μ_i), relying on the estimation of the distribution of $Y_{it} \mid X_{it}$ (Y_{it} given X_{it}) instead of $Y_{it} - \mu_i \mid X_{it}$ ($Y_{it} - \mu_i$ given X_{it}). The latter estimate is not always consistent where the inability of the additive fixed effect models to generate information on factors of policy effects and on the outcome distribution due to observations at the top of $Y_{it} - \mu_i$ distribution and at the bottom of Y_{it} is the gist of what Powell proposes (Mohsin et al., 2018b; Mohsin et al., 2018b; Ikram et al., 2019a). Therefore, the Powell method (2016) furnishes point estimates that could be explained in the same way as the ones resulting from cross-sectional regression. Furthermore, this method is consistent for short panel data and the underling model of this article, considering Powell's approach is as follows:

$$Y_{it} = \sum_{j} X'_{it} \alpha_{j}(\varepsilon_{it}), \varepsilon_{it}^* \sim \varepsilon(0, 1), \tag{2}$$

where renewable energy production is represented as Y_{it} , main explanatory factors as X'_{it} , the parameter of interest as α_j , and the error terms and the proneness for the outcome is represented as ε_{it} , which is time-varying for some time-fixed function of various error terms. Moreover, $X'_{it}\alpha_j(\varnothing)$ is strictly rising in \varnothing , whereas quantile regression depends on the following conditional restriction with the \varnothing th quantile of Y_{it} :

$$P(Y_{it} \le X'_{it}\alpha_i(\varnothing)|X_{it}) = \varnothing, \varnothing \epsilon[0,1]. \tag{3}$$

Hence, the probability of the latent outcome factor is lower than the quantile function and identical to all X_i and identical to \varnothing , according to Eq. 3. When fluctuation and the instrument are orthogonal, the probability to fluctuate is allowed by the quantile regression estimator for panel data of Powell (2016), and therefore, the following equation expresses the Powell's estimator, considering the conditional and unconditional restrictions:

$$P(Y_{it} \leq X'_{it}\alpha_j(\varnothing)|X_i) = P(Y_{is} \leq X'_{is}\alpha_j(\varnothing)|X_I), X_i$$

= (X_{i1}, \dots, X_{iT}) (4)

A numerical optimization, based on adaptive Markov Chain Monte Carlo sampling (MCMC), is employed to estimate the quantile regression model, which relies on multivariate normal distribution proposed by Baker (2014) for optimization.

4.5 Granger Causality Tests

The relationships between CO_2 emissions and other variables are demonstrated by the long-term estimation techniques. However, awareness about the direction of the short-term relationships is eminent for policymaking. Conclusively, the causal relationship between the variables is determined with the causality test by (Dumitrescu and Hurlin, 2012), whereas the vector autoregressive (VAR) method is used on stationary results,

TABLE 3 | Cross-sectional dependence test results.

Variable	CD test	Scaled LM test	Pagan LM test		
CO2	10.02***	62.32***	1,068.07***		
GFI	30.29***	93.48***	1,550.80***		
NFEC	50.57***	124.64***	2033.53***		
EC	32.58***	87.38***	1,456.21***		
Trade	29.91***	110.62***	1816.32***		
GDP	46.88***	160.59***	2,590.47***		
RD	7.11***	44.35***	789.62***		
FDI	30.16***	107.09***	1761.69***		

Note: variables are In-transformed. *** represents 1% significance level.

considering data heterogeneity, to determine the short-term relationship between variables by applying the test individually on regression.

4 EMPIRICAL ANALYSIS

4.1 CD, Unit Root, and Cointegration Tests

The presence of cross-sectional dependence in panel results is tested before evaluating the stationary properties of the variables, which is done through CD and LM methods as shown in **Table 3**. Hence, the null hypothesis is rejected to observe cross-sectional dependence between variables, according to the empirical findings, followed by a check for table existence of each variable, considering cross-sectional dependency. Moreover, **Table 4** shows the results for CIPS and CADF tests, indicating the root problems at the state level, such as CO₂ emissions, green finance, non-renewable energy consumption, energy consumption, trade openness, economic development, R&D, and foreign direct investment, respectively. However, unit root (stationary) is absent in the first difference in such variables.

4.2 Panel Quantile Regression

The results of the panel quantile regression model at the 10th, 20th, 30th, 40th, 50th, 60th, 70th, 80th, and 90th individual quantiles are reported in Table 5. In our model, CO2 is the dependent variable, whereas green finance and renewable energy consumption and other control variables are represented as independent variables. In addition, as the results show, the common observations in all variable estimates are statistically significant at a significance level of more than 5%. It can be seen from the research results that the impact of the green finance index on CO₂ emissions is obviously heterogeneous. The results show that at the lower 10th quantile and the middle 40th quantile, the effect is statistically significant and negative at the 1% level. On the other hand, the elasticity of green finance is statistically significant and positive in the 50th, 60th, 70th, 80th, and 90th quantiles. However, the negative coefficient of the green finance index is sufficient to support the hypothesis of this study that green finance has a significant negative impact on CO₂ emissions. It implies that green finance reduces CO2 emissions in BRICS. Similarly, the dependence structure between different quantiles of green finance and CO₂ emissions was tested by Saeed Meo and Karim

TABLE 4 | Cointegration test results.

Model	No s	shift	Mean	shift	Regime shift		
	Statistic	p-value	Statistic	p-value	Statistic	p-value	
LM_{τ}	-3.2959	0.0107	-5.3836	0.0001	-4.7054	0.0001	
LM_{ϕ}	-3.8118	0.0019	-5.3638	0.0001	-4.3355	0.0001	

Note: models are run with maximum five factors.

(2021), who reported the negative relationship between green finance and CO_2 emission and confirmed the negative impact of green finance on CO_2 emissions, showing a variation across quantiles.

In addition, in the case of non-fossil energy consumption (NFEC), the research results show that NFEC has a significant negative impact on carbon dioxide emissions at a 1% significance level at the 10th, 25th, 50th, and the higher 90th quantile. This shows how the BRICS countries regard renewable energy as an important tool for mitigating CO₂ emissions. Similarly, a decrease from 0.38 to 0.68% is recorded in CO2 emission in the BRICS with a 1% increase in non-fossil energy, constituting magnitude for the coefficients from 0.38 to 0.68. The impact of non-fossil energy is considered to be the key factor to high CO₂ emissions and has a more obvious impact at higher quantiles, prompting the authorities to use renewable energy as a key factor to achieve the greatest growth. The research results are particularly interesting because it shows that the development and expansion of financial activities promote the development of the renewable energy sector through the provision of equity financing, debt, and capital loans for green projects (Charfeddine and Kahia, 2019; rand Ozturk, 2021; Wang et al., 2021). The findings of the study are also consistent with the results of the study by (Danish et al., 2019) for OECD countries and the study by (Zaman et al., 2021) for China and (Ryan et al., 2020) the economy-wide impact of renewable energy expansions in Chile's energy mix and (Mehmood, 2021) for G11 economies.

Table 7 confirms the results of the control variables. At the 1% significance level, all control variables except R&D show statistically significant positive impact on CO₂ emissions. In terms of GDP, the impact of economic growth on carbon dioxide emissions is positive and statistically significant. Therefore, the results indicate that the level of CO2 emissions increases as GDP increases. From the consistency of the results, the entire distribution of CO2 emissions follows the same trend. However, the magnitude of the coefficients varies from 1 to 2.4%, higher quantiles show effects with less prominence and as compared to the 10th quantile, the impact on CO₂ emission is twice as less for the 20th, 50th, 70th, and 90th quantiles. This means that the increase in disposable income brought about by economic growth can be used to stimulate the deployment of non-fossil energy sources and promote the development of environmental protection technologies. Our research results are supported by Jaforullah and King (2015), who concluded that the per capita consumption of fossil energy is the determinant of US real GDP growth. Moreover, Boontome et al. (2017) highlighted that GDP has a positive and statistically significant impact on CO₂ emission in Thailand. Therefore, the levels of GDP determine the effect of economic growth on CO₂ emission in the BRICS, whereas the significance of FDI becomes stable with a decreasing trend

TABLE 5 | Panel quantile regression with fixed effects results.

Variable	Q10	Q20	Q30	Q40	Q50	Q 60	Q70	Q80	Q90
GFI	-0.018***	-0.026***	-0.024***	-0.021***	0.025*	0.024*	0.021*	0.022**	0.024**
	(0.007)	(0.007)	(0.006	-0.004	-0.003	-0.002	-0.004	-0.002	-0.002
NFEC	-0.038**	-0.049**	-0.04	-0.071***	-0.062***	-0.060***	-0.080***	-0.086***	-0.061***
	(0.034)	(0.024)	(0.025	-0.02	-0.017	-0.013	-0.016	-0.013	-0.012
EC	2.609***	1.783**	1.219**	0.679	0.898**	0.994***	0.337***	0.315***	0.196***
	(0.857)	(0.709)	-0.571	-0.497	-0.432	-0.346	-0.432	-0.308	-0.195
Trade	0.063**	0.028**	0.022**	0.038**	0.017**	0.009***	0.005***	0.003***	0.003***
	(0.031)	(0.025)	-0.016	-0.019	-0.018	-0.018	-0.016	-0.008	-0.008
GDP	2.339***	2.213***	1.650***	1.459***	1.080***	1.048***	0.905**	0.699***	0.383**
	(0.655)	(0.52)	-0.468	-0.415	-0.363	-0.321	-0.364	-0.222	-0.148
RD	-0.393***	-0.398***	-0.417***	-0.274**	-0.271**	-0.265**	0.326*	0.343	0.339*
	(0.037)	(0.028)	(0.025)	(0.02)	(0.016)	-0.013	-0.016	-0.014	-0.011
FDI	1.531***	1.511***	1.486***	1.463***	1.443***	1.426***	1.404***	1.419***	1.379***
	(0.054)	(0.034)	-0.034	-0.026	-0.02	-0.014	-0.023	-0.021	-0.026
Constant	-11.305***	-9.071***	-6.602***	-4.987***	-4.552***	-4.627***	-2.849***	-2.323***	-1.417***
	-2.038	-1.57	-1.283	-1.125	-0.963	-0.794	-0.957	-0.648	-0.519
N	308	308	308	308	308	308	308	308	308

Note: Standard errors in parentheses, *** p < 0.01, **p < 0.05, *p < 0.10.

TABLE 6 Robust results.									
Variable	Q10	Q20	Q30	Q40	Q50	Q60	Q70	Q80	Q90
GFI	-0.005***	-0.005***	0.002***	0.002**	0.003	0.001**	0.004***	0.002***	0.002***
	(0.009)	(0.009)	(0.005)	(0.003)	(0.003)	(0.002)	(0.005)	(0.004)	(0.002)
NFEC	0.036	0.036	0.026	0.039**	0.011	0.006	0.003	-0.001	0.003
	(0.025)	(0.025)	(0.018)	(0.018)	(0,02)	(0.014)	(0.013)	(0.007)	(0.008)
EC	1.679**	1.679**	0.802	0.614	0.850**	0.377	0.321	0.137	0.196
	(0.839)	(0.839)	(0.605)	(0.457)	(0.416)	(0.328)	(0.37)	(0.299)	(0.195)
Trade	-0.046	-0.046	-0.056**	-0.074***	-0.058***	-0.068***	-0.088***	-0.070***	-0.061***
	(0.034)	(0.034)	(0.025)	(0.019)	(0.017)	(0.013)	(0.014)	(0.014)	(0.012)
FDI	1.515***	1.515***	1.465***	1.442***	1.433***	1.419***	1.402***	1.402***	1.379***
	(0.051)	(0.051)	(0.033)	(0.023)	(0.02)	(0.017)	(0.021)	(0.016)	(0.026)
GDP	2.580***	2.580***	1.562***	1.154***	1.259***	1.050***	0.873***	0.786***	0.383**
	(0.639)	(0.639)	(0.476)	(-0.39)	(0.353)	(0.31)	(0.275)	(0.236)	(0.148)
RD	-0.386***	-0.386***	-0.384***	-0.362***	-0.365***	-0.346***	-0.314***	-0.344***	-0.339***
	(0.028)	(0.028)	(0.025)	(0.018)	(0.016)	(0.013)	(0.015)	(0.009)	(0.011)
Constant	-9.705***	-9.705** *	-5.487***	-4.151***	-4.815***	-3.305***	-2.719***	-2.146***	-1.417***
	(1.785)	(1.785)	-1.357	(1.044)	(0.911)	(0.715)	(0.771)	(0.646)	(0.519)

pattern. Similarly, FDI shows a positive value at other quantiles, except the higher quantile, showing a positive value with a weaker effect, suggesting the secondary effect of FDI with CO₂ in the BRICS getting positively affected by foreign direct investment. In case of R&D, the effect is more substantial for the low quantiles and weak for the higher quantiles. This means that lower-cost environmental protection technologies are favored by the advanced technological innovation sector. In addition, the recent literature is consistent with our findings, that is, the importance of technological innovation to the promotion of clean energy, which regards technological innovation as a prerequisite for promoting clean energy (Blondeau and Mertens, 2019; Pejović et al., 2021). Therefore, advanced technological innovation can easily promote the development of renewable projects, which is a necessary prerequisite for the development of renewable energy (Goh and Ang, 2018). Nevertheless, enhancement of economic feasibility, raising the awareness of economic agents, fostering stockholder engagement, and promoting consumer

engagement in green energy investment are some of the essential features to conduct the ongoing R&D process. According to the results, trade openness and fossil energy consumption are considered as important drivers of $\rm CO_2$ emission in the BRICS.

4.3 Robustness Check

The stability of the estimated results is tested through several robustness tests, applying Canay's fixed quantile regression model followed by an alternative proxy indicator for the green finance index, which examines the variation in the main findings.

4.3.1 Canay's (2011) Fixed Effect Quantile Model

A Canay's (2011) fixed-effect quantile model, extracted from the fixed effect model, is developed to assess the robustness of our empirical analysis, whereas **Table 6** shows the regression estimates. Similarly, **Table 6** shows the corresponding Canay's panel quantile regression diagrams, and therefore, the results of

TABLE 7 | Robust analysis using the original variables green credit, green investment, and green securities.

Variable	Q1	Q2	Q3	Q4	Q 5	Q6	Q7	Q8	Q 9
Green_Cr	-0.011***	-0.003***	0.001*	0.001**	0.002**	0.003***	0.001***	-0.001***	0.0004***
_	(0.005)	0.008)	(0.004)	(0.004)	(0.002)	(0.002)	(0.002)	(0.002)	(0.002)
NFEC	-0.071**	-0.056**	-0.054**	-0.071***	-0.061***	-0.061***	-0.080***	-0.080***	-0.068**
	(0.032)	(0.027)	(0.025)	(0.020)	(0.018)	(0.014)	(0.014)	(0.013)	(0.013)
EC	2.829***	1.416**	1.229**	0.68	0.908*	0.963**	0.33	0.352	0.194
	0.881)	0.673)	0.552)	0.513)	0.462)	0.374)	0.402)	0.291)	0.194)
Trade	0.076**	0.032	0.026	0.038**	0.017	0.01	0.006	0.0001	0.001
	0.033)	0.026)	0.016)	0.019)	0.019)	0.018)	0.016)	0.008)	0.006)
FDI	1.546***	1.522***	1.489***	1.463***	1.443***	1.425***	1.404***	1.418***	1.388***
. 5.	0.052)	0.036)	0.029)	0.027)	0.023)	0.016)	0.020)	0.020)	0.027)
GDP	2.307***	2.289***	1.584***	1.454***	1.088***	1.059***	0.908***	0.704***	0.472**
GDI	0.594)	0.545)	0.461)	0.427)	0.392)	0.328)	0.342)	0.205)	0.195)
RD	-0.388***	-0.398***	-0.402***	-0.374***	-0.371***	-0.364***	-0.327***	-0.340***	-0.339**
ND	0.040)	0.029)	0.021)	0.021)	0.017)	0.013)	0.014)	0.013)	0.011)
Panel C: ind	ependent varial	ble: green invest	tment						
Green In	-0.0103	-0.0113*	-0.0123***	-0.0144***	-0.0133***	-0.095***	0.013***	-0.081***	-0.04
GIOGIT_III	(0.064)	(0.061)	0.038)	(0.039)	0.034)	0.029)	0.026)	0.026)	0.026)
NFEC	-0.048	-0.015	-0.023	-0.043**	-0.053***	-0.058***	-0.061***	-0.067***	-0.055***
	(0.037)	(0.031)	0.019)	(0.021)	0.020)	0.018)	0.015)	0.007	0.013)
EC	2.499**	1.747**	0.724	0.56	0.273	0.358	0.584*	0.207	0.283
EC				(0.471)	0.273	0.356)	0.337)	0.207	0.298)
Trada	(0.976)	(0.847)	0.517)	, ,			0.018	,	,
Trade	0.072**	0.027	0.033**	0.027	0.017	0.012		0.009	0.005
EDI	(0.036)	(0.031)	0.016)	(0.020)	0.015) 1.553***	0.014)	0.011)	0.009)	0.013)
FDI	1.611***	1.584***	1.570***	1.579***		1.506***	1.487***	1.470***	1.430***
000	(0.068)	(0.061)	0.035)	0.038)	0.031)	0.029)	0.025)	0.027)	0.033)
GDP	1.532*	1.26	0.789	0.06	0.147	0.559	0.067	0.35	0.071
	(0.921)	(0.810)	0.484)	0.546)	0.461)	0.430)	0.359)	0.279)	0.336)
RD	-0.401***	-0.398***	-0.390***	-0.373***	-0.356***	-0.344***	-0.333***	-0.334***	-0.356**
	(0.043)	(0.032)	0.019)	0.019)	0.018)	0.016)	0.015)	0.014)	0.010)
Panel D: ind	ependent varial	ble: green secur	ity						
Green_Se	-0.0143	-0.0133*	-0.0125***	-0.015***	-0.033***	-0.089***	-0.015***	-0.097***	-0.014***
	(-0.054)	(-0.067)	(-0.047)	(-0,051)	(-0.034)	(-0.079)	(-0.056)	(-0.036)	(-0.039)
NFEC	-0.049	-0.048**	-0.052**	-0.072***	-0.069***	-0.070***	-0.080***	-0.080***	-0.071***
	(-0.039	(0.022)	(0.024)	(0.019)	(0.018)	(0.013)	(0.015)	(0.012)	(0.013)
EC	2.810***	1.886***	1.325**	0.638**	0.835*	0.843**	0.346	0.35	0.194
	(1.01)	(0.444)	(0.596)	(0.482)	(0.469)	(0.335)	(0.416)	(0.303)	(0.209)
Trade	0.083**	0.029	0.030*	0.038**	0.02	0.012	0.004	0.0005	0.002
	(0.036)	(0.024)	(0.017)	(0.019)	(0.019)	(0.017)	(0.016)	(0.006)	(0.009)
FDI	1.485***	1.508***	1.493***	1.466***	1.454***	1.439***	1.406***	1.417***	1.393***
	(0.052	(0.022)	(0.028)	(0.020)	(0.019)	(0.014)	(0.018)	(0.016)	(0.016)
GDP	2.276***	2.149***	1.597***	1.439***	1.157***	1.072***	0.925***	0.701***	0.468*
	(0.776)	(0.392)	(0.487)	(0.411)	(0.392)	(0.309)	(0.347)	(0.231)	(0.269)
RD	-0.375***	-0.397***	-0.406***	-0.374***	-0.371***	-0.362***	-0.326***	-0.341***	-0.339**
. 10	(0.043)	(0.022)	(0.024)	(0.016)	(0.015)	(0.013)	(0.015)	(0.015)	(0.009)

Canay's model are aligned with the results of Powell's model, supporting our previous estimations shown in **Table 6**.

4.3.2 Different Alternative Measures

The alternative measures for the green finance index are considered to examine the robustness of results in this study, which uses three original variables as proxies for green finance, including green credit, green investment, and green securities. The results in **Table 7** show that three original variables, green credit, green investment, and green securities, basically presented the same negative significant effect on CO_2 emission as the GFI. In summary, various measures of green finance have had a significant impact on carbon dioxide emissions.

Green finance improves environmental performance by reducing carbon dioxide emissions. Therefore, our results are reliable, and our main conclusions have not changed and the findings are robust.

5 CONCLUSIONS AND POLICY IMPLICATION

The study analyzes the relationship between green finance, nonfossil energy consumption, and CO₂ emission in BRICS. We used a fixed effect quantile regression on panel data between 2000 and 2018. We have developed an indicator of green finance based on three sub-indicators—green credit, green investment, and green securities—to accurately measure green finance and precisely estimate its impact. The overall findings show the negative impact of green finance on CO₂ emissions in BRICS. However, the relationship between green finance and CO₂ emissions varies on different quantiles, even though the coefficient of green finance is not very encouraging. Furthermore, non-fossil energy consumption in BRICS has strongly mitigated carbon emission; however, its impact was short and discontinuous. Finally, CO₂ emission showed fluctuated results in the BRICS.

Based on the findings discussed above, we advocate designing a stable and continuous green finance policy because fluctuation in green policy negatively impacts CO_2 emissions and renewable energy production. Therefore, the stability and continuity of green finance stand out as a significant condition to maintain an effective emission reduction. Green finance in BRICS must be developed in its whole industrial chain. Furthermore, it should be implemented on a large scale to improve energy conservation. For that, the policy of green finance must be enhanced as follows:

- Strengthening the legal supervision green finance system construction and implementing the suitable rules and regulations for such supervision. This system should include a full financial service related to green securities, green investment, green loans, and green bonds.
- 2) Financial authorities need to participate in the development of the carbon market through encouraging banks to introduce carbon emission rights in the pledge loans and provide higher pledge rate within the risk-controllable range in the early stage of carbon finance. At the same time, they need to

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- innovate carbon emission rights, finance products, and establish green channels for special approvals.
- 3) A green securities and bond rating system should be established that suits the national conditions of the BRICS economies. Before issuing green securities and bonds, an authoritative third party is required to verify whether these tools are indeed green and scientifically evaluate and measure the green benefits of the project. In addition, a team of experts should be formed who understand the value of green investment and can analyze and monitor the specific aspects of the funds used to support the green industry.
- 4) In order to achieve green landscaping that meets standards of energy-saving and to purchase green houses and new energy vehicles that meet the national building energy-saving certification, identify individual customers and provide special loans and support to small industries.

DATA AVAILABILITY STATEMENT

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

AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

JH: conceptualization, ZX: data curation, JH: methodology and writing—original draft, and XW: data curation, visualization, review, and editing.

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