1 Firm's Imperfect Compliance and Pollution Emissions: Theory

2 and Evidence from South Africa

3

4 Abstract

5

6 Carbon emissions exacerbate global climate change. Transitioning away from coal is a 7 cost-effective path to a low-carbon economy. Although many articles have considered the 8 issue of manufacturers' production and emission of pollution. Few papers have discussed 9 the impact of environmental tax and fuel tax on the cost of environmental 10 degradation. This paper seeks to fill this gap by developing a theoretical model to discuss 11 the relationship between environmental pollution and economic growth. Furthermore, in 12 order to support the theoretical results and testify the relationship between carbon 13 emissions and taxation, we take South Africa as a case for discussing the effect of 14 environmental taxation and fuel levy on firms' carbon emissions. We show that the impact 15 of environmental taxes on carbon dioxide emissions is greater than that of fuel taxes on 16 carbon dioxide emissions. In addition, we find that the GDP level of South Africa is on 17 the left of the inflection points of Kuznets Curve. In other words, the current growth of 18 South Africa's economy is at the cost of worsening the environmental degradation. 19 20 21 22 JFL classification: H23, H26, P43,Q 53 23 Key words: Carbon emission, Environmental tax, Fuel levy, Kuznets curve

24

25 **1.Introduction**

26 In 1932, Pigou proposed the use of economic incentives to deal with externalities 27 caused by pollution which show that the tax rate equivalent to the cost of the marginal 28 damage caused by pollution (that is, the Pigouvian tax) would make the resource 29 allocation of the society reach the Pareto optimality. Baumol and Oates (1988) further 30 pointed out that in a perfectly competitive market, the Pigouvian tax can indeed 31 internalize external effects and further correct externalities. Also, Heyes(2000), 32 Macho-Stadler(2008) and Shiota(2008) show that enforcement policies do affect actual 33 emissions. Sterner and Isaksson (2006) show that the Refunded emission payments (REP) 34 scheme offers an interesting alternative to permits, particularly when the regulator wants a 35 price-type instrument but does not want to place the full cost burden on the polluters. As 36 we know, however, the REP scheme has its limitations, the basis of refunding in an REP

scheme requires a common output, which can be hard to define. Requate (2006) and
Williams (2017) consider governments have a variety of tools at their disposal, among
which the emissions tax is publicly recognized as a central pillar. Nevertheless,
Greenstone and Jack (2015) point out that many developing countries still maintain lax
environmental policies, setting very low or even zero emissions taxes. Piciu and Trică
(2012) suggest that the environmental taxes can be returned to polluters in the form of
subsidies only under strict obligations.

44 Carbon emission in Africa has led to the premature deaths of 712,000 people every year. 45 In South Africa's case, we think it is a critical need for South Africa-specific studies on 46 the association between air pollution and environmental policy. In South Africa, after 47 more than eight years in the making, the carbon tax is expected to take effect on 1 june 48 2019 and aims to price greenhouse gas emissions by obliging the polluter to internalise 49 the external costs of emitting carbon, and contribute towards addressing the harm caused 50 by such pollution. The design included a number of features to increase its acceptability 51 and to limit the initial impact on South African economy. The proposed tax rate of R120 52 per tonne of carbon-dioxide -equivalent (tCO₂e) was intended to increase by 10% a year 53 until 2020 (phase 1), when it would then be reviewed. Among the mechanisms proposed 54 to make the tax more acceptable were an exemption for 60% of emissions by firms in all 55 the covered sectors, additional tax-free emissions allocations for trade-exposed, 56 energy-intensive sectors or those that had invested in efficiency measures, and allowing firms to utilise offsets to reduce a portion of their tax liabilities. In addition, the design of 57 the carbon tax provides significant tax-free emissions allowances ranging from 60% to 58 59 95% for the first phase. This will provide South African business with sufficient time and flexibility to transition their activities through investments in energy efficiency, 60 61 renewables and other low carbon measures.

This paper is organized as follows. In section 1, we discuss the relationship between CO2 emissions and environmental tax and fuel levy in South Africa's case. Section 2, we explore the South Africa's Kuznet inflection point between income and its carbon dioxide emissions

66 2. Literature review

67 Tullock(1967) first put forward the hypothesis of double dividend. By levying 68 environmental taxes on water resources, pollutants can be reduced. Panayotou(1997) sampled data from 30 countries from 1982 to 1994 and found that low-income policies 69 70 had a positive effect on improving the environment. With the increase of income level, 71 the effect became more obvious. However, the faster the economic growth, the higher the 72 population density, the higher the environmental cost of economic growth. Harbaugh et 73 al.(2002) show that the relationship between economic growth and environmental 74 pollution is not only influenced by economic factors, but also by sample selection and

research methods. Bruyu(1997) selected data from developed countries in the 1980s to 75 76 study, which showed that changes in economic structure had no significant effect on SO2 77 emissions, but in the high-income stage, environmental policies formed by international 78 agreements could well explain the negative correlation between environment and 79 income.Grossman(1995) regards urban air pollution and oxygen content in river water as 80 environmental indicators. Through regression analysis, it is concluded that economic 81 growth causes deterioration of environmental indicators in the low-income stage, and 82 improves with economic growth in a certain stage, and the inflection point occurs at the income level of \$8,000 (some examples are Sherry 2008, David 2004, Gurluk 83 84 2009).Copeland(2004)), analyzed the relationship among economic growth, international 85 trade and environmental pollution, and found that on the inverted U-shaped curve of 86 economic growth and environmental pollution, international trade and capital flow had a 87 great impact on environmental pollution. Llorca and Meunie(2009) obtained the N-curve relationship between SO2 emission and per capita income. 88

89 **2. The Model**

Aiming at the relationship between environmental pollution and economic growth, this paper establishes indirect utility functions as Eq.(1). In the formula, R represents real income, a_1 , a_2 , γ , δ represent constants. These constants are greater than 0, Z represents pollution emissions, and assumes that the marginal negative utility of pollution emissions remains unchanged. In order to eliminate the impact of structural effects, it is assumed that only one commodity model is used for analysis. Therefore, the national income function Y is expressed as Eq.(2):

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$$\mathbf{V} = a_1 - a_2 \times e^{-\frac{\kappa}{\delta}} - \gamma \times \mathbf{Z} \tag{1}$$

$$\mathbf{Y} = \mathbf{P} \times \lambda \times \mathbf{Z}^{\beta} \times F(\mathbf{k})^{1-\beta} \quad ; \mathbf{k} = \frac{K}{L}$$
(2)

In the formula, λ is the conversion coefficient, P is the commodity price, F(k) is the production function and β is the constant, then the marginal output value of pollution emission is equal to the demand of reverse pollution emission, which can be expressed as follows.

103
$$\Gamma^{\rm D} = \beta \times \mathbf{P} \times \lambda \times \mathbf{Z}^{\beta-1} \times F(\mathbf{k})^{1-\beta} = \frac{\beta}{\mathbf{Z}} \times \mathbf{Y}$$

104 (3)

Also, the supply-utility function of pollutant emissions can be obtained as follows.

106
$$\Gamma^{\rm S} = -\frac{V_Z}{V_Y} = \frac{\gamma \times \Omega(P) \div \delta}{a_2} \times e^{\frac{R}{\delta}}$$
(4)

107 Through the supply-demand function, the expression of the environmental Kuznets curve

108 can be obtained as Eq.(5) and Eq(6)

109
$$Z^* = \frac{\beta \times a_2 \times R}{\gamma \times \delta} \times e^{-\frac{R}{\delta}}$$
(5)

110 The following formula can be obtained by calculating the derivative of environmental 111 pollution Z.

112
$$\frac{dZ}{dR} = \frac{\beta \times a_2}{\gamma \times \delta} \times (e^{-\frac{R}{\delta}} - \frac{1}{\delta} \times R \times e^{-\frac{R}{\delta}}) = \frac{(\delta - R)}{R \times \delta} \times Z$$
(6)

113 The inflection point of environmental pollution is $R = \delta$. When economic growth 114 reaches the level of δ , environmental pollution can be alleviated. It means that people 115 begin to pay attention to the issue of sustainable environmental management. Eq.(6) is a 116 convergence function, and its value is greater than zero. If n positive convergence functions are added together, the function obtained should also be convergent. Based on 117 118 the theoretical models derived from Eq.(1) to (6), we will use statistical methods to verify 119 the existence of the Environmental Kuznets Curve and where the Environmental Kuznets 120 Curve is located in South Africa's air pollution emissions and national income data over 121 the past 27 years.

3. Methodology and Analyses 122

123 Being carbon neutral is increasingly seen as good corporate or state social 124 responsibility and a growing list of corporations, cities and states are announcing dates for 125 when they intend to become fully neutral. As we know, most of South Africa's energy 126 needs are directly derived from coal and most of coal consumed on the African continent 127 is mined in South Africa. Thus, reducing carbon emissions while keeping a high pace of 128 economic growth lies at the heart of South Africa's sustainable development plan. 129 However, it is worth discussing whether there is a causal relationship between the 130 increase of CO2 caused by the government's raising the minimum emission standard of 131

CO2 and environmental tax and fuel levy on polluters's carbon dioxide emissions. In

132 contrast with the traditional method, we focus on examining the relationship between

133 carbon emissions, environmental tax and fuel levy by using an empirical approach, where

134 carbon emissions are measured in MtCO2, environmental tax and fuel levy are measured 135 in ZAR millions, respectively. The data on carbon dioxide emissions came from The

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International Energy Agency, the environmental tax and fuel levy data collected from The

137 National Treasury and SARS statistics

138 In the beginning the time evolution of carbon emissions, environmental tax and fuel 139 levy in terms of levels (logarithms) are presented in Fig. 1, which shows the 140 environmental tax series have an obvious increasing trend, and those sequences show that 141 the mean values are varying in different periods, we then judge that the sequences are

142 unstable.



Table 1. Performance of unit root test of LCO2, LEnvironmental Tax and Lfuellevy

| | | | 1990 | to | 2017 | | | |
|----------|------------|----------------|---------------------|----------------|------|-------------|----------------|---|
| Variable | ln CO2 | | In EnvironmentalTax | | | ln fuellevy | | _ |
| | level | 1st difference | level | 1st difference | e | level | 1st difference | |
| ADF | - 1.347750 | - 3.672751** | -1162135 | -2.228849* | * | 0.629275 | -3.834209** | |
| | (0.5517) | (0.0316) | (0.8591) | (0.0313) | | (0.9828) | (0.3870) | |
| РР | -3.204750 | - 5.718489** | -0.553918 | -5.696321* | * | -2.325449 | -3.819368 | |
| | (0.1340) | (0.0062) | (09575) | (0.0064) | | (0.39) | (0.0202) | |
| KPSS | 0.493548 | 0.177420** | 0.163124 | 0.078848** | k | 0.514265 | 0.167027** | |

157 Notes: Variables in logarithmic form ; ADF test and PP test,** stand for rejection of null

158 hypothesis at 5% significance level, KPSS test, ** stand for acceptance of null hypothesis at 5% 159 significance level.

160 Next, we check the residuals for a unit root. The residual used to test the cointegration161 relationship is as follows:

162 e= LCO 2 - 5.235428 + 0.001524LEnvironmentalTax - 0.074901LFuellevy (8) 163 Eq.(8) indicates the t-statistic of the residual series is -3.486349(Prob*=0.0364), which 164 is less than the critical value at 5% significant level, and thus reject the null hypothesis, 165 indicating that the residual series has no unit root and is stationary at I(0). The estimation

166 results represent a cointegration relationship between LCO2 emissions,

167 LEnvironmentalTax and LFuellevy, error correction models(ECM) can then be analyzed.

168 In order to ensure that the random disturbance term in ECM become white noise, the

169 model with lag terms is estimated first, and then we adjust the regression model. We find

that the short-term elasticity of LCO2 to LEnvironmentalTax is -0.018906 and the

short-term elasticity of LCO2 to LFuellevy is -0.051104. As can be seen from Eq.(9)

172
$$\Delta LCO2_{t} = \alpha + \sum_{i=0}^{2} \beta_{i} \Delta LCO2_{t-1} + \sum_{i=1}^{2} \gamma_{i} \Delta LENVIRONMENTALTAX_{t-i} + \sum_{i=1}^{2} \kappa_{i} \Delta LFUELLEVY_{t-1} + \lambda e_{t-1} + v_{i}$$

173 $\Delta LCO2_{t} = 0.009826 - 0.018906 \Delta LENVIRONME NTALTAX - 0.051104 \Delta LFUELLEVY + 1.130707 \Delta LCO_{t-1} \qquad (9) + 0.925546 \Delta LCO_{t-2} - 2.316379 e_{t-1}$

174 **4. Estimation Results**

As indicated in table 1, which shows that LCO2 and Lenvironmentaltax and Lfuellevy are I(1) sequence. We then adopt Johansen Cointegration to test whether there exist a long-term equilibrium relationship between LCO2 and Lenvironmentaltax and Lfuellevy. In Table 2, Trace test result shows that there exists a set of cointegrating vectors at the 5% level, and Max-eigenvalue test also indicates the same result.

| | | 2006 | to 2017 | |
|---------------|----------------|-----------|-------------------|--------|
| НО | HI | Statistic | 5% critical value | Prob** |
| Trace test | | | | |
| None* | | 63.01094 | 29.79707 | 0.0000 |
| At most 1* | | | | |
| $\gamma = 0$ | $\gamma \ge 1$ | 14.54274 | 15.49471 | 0.0692 |
| Max-eigenvalu | <u>e test</u> | | | |
| None* | | 48.46820 | 21.13162 | 0.0000 |
| At most 1* | | | | |
| $\gamma = 0$ | $\gamma \ge 1$ | 9.422608 | 14.26460 | 0.2527 |

Table 2. Performance of Johansen Cointegration Test of LCO2, LEnvironmental tax and LFuellevy

Notes: y denotes number of cointegrating equations; Max-eigenvalue test indicates 1 cointegrating eqn(s)

at the 0.05 level Max-eigenvalue test indicates 1 cointegrating eqn(s) at the 0.05 level

- 175 Next, we discuss the interaction between environmental tax and fuel levy on carbon
- 176 dioxide emissions and the level of their influence, respectively. Thus, we use (VAR)
- 177 Vector Autoregressiond to explore the following hypotheses:

Hypothesis 1: Environmental tax and fuel levy both have a negative impact on CO2 emissions, but its impact gradually decreases over time.

- 180 Hypothesis 1 can be analyzed by using the generalized impulse method (Pesaran and
- 181 Shin, 1998), Figure 2 shows that the adverse impact of environmental tax on carbon
- 182 dioxide emissions reached its maximum in the second phase, and then gradually
- 183 diminished after the tenth period.



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Fig.2 Impact of CO2, EnvironmentalTax and Fuellevy shock on CO2

Hypothesis 2: The correlation between environmental tax and CO2 emissions is higher than the correlation between fuel levy and CO2 emissions

187 Hypothesis 2 is explored using a generalized variance decomposition method(Koop et. 188 al, 1996). Through the VAR model. Table 3 shows the unexpected impact variation of 189 LEnvironmental Tax and LFuel levy on LCO2, respectively. At the beginning, the 190 percentage of LCO2 explained by LEnvironmental tax and LFuel levy is extremely small, 191 when looking forward to the forecast of 10 periods. LFuel levy could explain only 0.11%192 of the variation of LCO2 prediction errors. Comparatively, LEnvironmental tax could 193 explain 1.41% of the variation of LCO2 prediction error, thus indicating that the 194 environmental tax has a higher correlation with CO2 emissions. 195 Fuel levy is a kind of consumption tax. But even if fuel levy is levied, the market 196 demand for oil products will not decrease significantly and thus the purpose of improving

air pollution will not be achieved. Environmental tax is a tax levied on firms/polluters
who directly produce air pollution, conforms to the polluter-pays principle. According to
our empirical analysis, we show that the collection of environmental protection tax is
more effective than the collection of fuel tax in reducing air pollution and improving
environmental quality.

Another, air pollution is an important factor that causes the cost of environmental degradation. In this section, based on the theoretical models derived from Eq.(1) to (6), we use Kuznets curve to analyze the relationship between environmental degradation costs and economic variables in South Africa(some examples are Grossman et al., 1991; David, 2004; Sherry, 2008; Panayotou, 1997). Following is the establishment of a pollution emission loss model. Based on the KC curve, relevant variables are introduced.

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Table 3. Variance Decomposition of LCO2

| | | - | | |
|--------|----------|----------|-------------------|-----------|
| Period | S.E. | LCO2 | LEnvironmentaltax | LFuellevy |
| 1 | 0.033721 | 100.0000 | 0.000000 | 0.000000 |
| 2 | 0.033838 | 99.60687 | 0.360335 | 0.032794 |
| 3 | 0.033904 | 99.29391 | 0.648124 | 0.057963 |
| 4 | 0.033954 | 99.05782 | 0.866059 | 0.076126 |
| 5 | 0.033992 | 98.88001 | 1.030896 | 0.089098 |
| 6 | 0.034020 | 98.74621 | 1.155533 | 0.098258 |
| 7 | 0.034042 | 98.64567 | 1.249697 | 0.104630 |
| 8 | 0.034058 | 98.57028 | 1.320745 | 0.108980 |
| 9 | 0.034070 | 98.51387 | 1.374252 | 0.111875 |
| 10 | 0.034079 | 98.47181 | 1.414454 | 0.113739 |
| | | | | |

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 $\Delta \ln \text{Loss}_{t} = \beta_{1} \ln \text{GDP}_{t} + \beta_{2} (\ln \text{GDP}_{t})^{2} + \beta_{3} \ln \text{EC}_{t} + \beta_{4} \ln \text{POP}_{t} + \beta_{5} \ln \text{NEX}_{t} + \beta_{6} \ln \text{ELC}_{t} + u_{t} \quad (10)$

Eq(10), LnLoss indicates the cost of environmental degradation caused by air pollution, 210 211 mainly related to carbon dioxide emissions. InCO2 is the logarithm of energy from coal 212 measured in Mt, InGDP is the logarithm of gross national product measured in billion 213 2010 USD, and (InGDP)² using a quadratic form means that the cost rises at an increasing 214 rate with the depreciation rate, lnEC is the logarithm of energy from coal measured in 215 Mtoe, InPOP is the logarithm of population measured in millions, InNEX is is the 216 logarithm of net export of energy measured in Mtoe, InELC is the logarithm of electricity 217 consumption measured in TWh. In table 4, model 2 adds EC variable on the basis of 218 model 1, while other models add different variables separately. To illustrate the 219 environmental degradation costs and economic variables. The analyses can be stated 220 formally as Hypothesis 3.

221 Hypothesis 3: In table 4, model 1 expresses that not considering the effects of

222 policies, the current economic development of South Africa has approached the left

223 end of the inflection point of the Kuznets curve.

224 In Table 4, we analyze the path of the coordinating the conflicts between economic 225 growth and environmental pollution. Our empirical results show that not considering the 226 effects of policies, the GDP level of South Africa is on the left of the inflection points of 227 Kuznets curve. In Table 4, model 1 shows that the inflection point of the quadratic curve is 228 6.13, and the GDP of South Africa is 420 billion USD in 2016 based on 2010. The 229 logarithmic value of 420 is 6.04. This proves that not considering the effects of policies, 230 the current economic development of South Africa has approached the left end of the 231 inflection point of the Kuznets curve. It means that increasing the domestic products 232 including net exports can make the environment condition worse.

233 Nevertheless, from the results of Table 4, model 2, we can see that the regression 234 coefficient of lnEC, energy from coal, is 0.0049, reaching a significant level of 1%. Due to the positive sign of the coefficient, it shows that the increase of LnEC can dramatically 235 236 lift the cost of environmental degradation to a certain extent. In Table 4, model 6 shows 237 that the cost of environmental degradation is negatively correlated with lnELC, electricity 238 consumption in logarithmic form, reaching a significant level of 10%, revealing that the 239 source of electricity consumption not came from coal-fired power generation, but also 240 hydroelectric power, wind energy and natural gas.

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| Independent | Model 1 | Model 2 | Model 3 | Model 4 | Model 5 | Model 6 |
|----------------------|-------------|----------------|--------------|-------------|--------------|--------------|
| variable | / | $ \land \land$ | | | | |
| InGDP | 12.96364* | 3.773657 | 14.18636* | 13.16644* | 15.27784* | 6.608958*** |
| | (6.208422) | (0.696761) | (6.812107) | (6.148074) | (3.718701) | (1.769524) |
| (InGDP) ² | -1.056245* | 0.320307 | -1.141393* | -1.074742* | -1.252545* | -0.517988 |
| | (-5.777492) | (-0.584613) | (-6.371491) | (-5.726069) | (-3.563494) | (-1.629599) |
| In EC | | 0.663706* | | | | 0.857076* |
| $\langle \rangle$ | | (3.110537) | | | | (3.804819) |
| In POP | | | -0.513972*** | | | -0.249946 |
| | | | (-1.909694) | | | (-0.953709) |
| In NEX | | | | -0.010070 | | 0.000195 |
| | | | | (-0.612448) | | (0.014658) |
| In ELC | | | | | -0.133002 | -0.367812*** |
| | | | | | (-0.656844) | (-1.850764) |
| AR(1) | 1.498388* | 1.190972* | 1.323322* | 1.574146* | 1.314486* | |
| | (8.497288) | (5.395506) | (7.056437) | (7.341918) | (5.952779) | |
| AR(2) | -0.510447* | | -0.465848* | -0.565642** | -0.362335*** | |

Table 4 Regression analysis of environmental degradation cost

| | (-2.850285 | | (-2.859872) | (-2.540726) | (-1.731689) | |
|-------------------------|------------|----------|-------------|-------------|-------------|----------|
| D-Wstat | 1.918295 | 1.842529 | 1.601369 | 1.872873 | 1.386572 | 2.214722 |
| | | | | | | |
| Adjusted-R ² | 0.994294 | 0.980583 | 0.976190 | 0.995093 | 0.972923 | 0.984124 |
| | | | | | | |
| $\gamma * (inflection$ | 6.136663 | 5.890687 | 6.214494 | 6.125395 | 6.098719 | 6.379450 |
| point of EKC) | | | | | | |

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Notes: Variables in logarithmic form ; *,**,*** stand for at 1%,5% and 10% significance level; The number in brackets is the t-statistic of the estimated parameter

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246 5. Conclusions and Discussion

In comparison with traditional literature, the major findings of this study indicated the 247 248 following results. Firstly, as noted in Figure 2 and Table 3, in South Africa's case, we 249 show that the collection of environmental protection tax is more effective than the 250 collection of fuel tax in reducing air pollution and improving environmental quality. 251 Secondly, as noted in Table 4, we find that not considering the effects of government 252 policies, the current economic development of South Africa has approached the left end 253 of the inflection point of the Kuznets curve. It means that the further growth of economic 254 scale will lead to the worsening of environmental quality. It is hoped that the formal 255 analysis presented in this paper, even though it is based on a simple model, can be useful 256 in improving developing countries' carbon pollution, and considered by decision-makers 257 as a call to take relevant methods to mitigate emissions level without harming the economic growth. 258

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