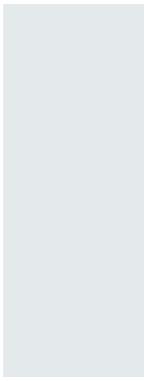


economics for energy



The impacts of energy efficiency policies: Meta-analysis

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Abstract

Public policies are a key instrument for increasing energy efficiency to slow the growth of energy consumption, thus being crucial for the transition to decarbonized economies. However, the design of these policies is not simple and their impacts depend on multiple factors. This is why many studies, both ex-ante and ex-post, have been conducted to try to determine the effects of different (real or hypothetical) policy options. This paper attempts to summarize quantitatively the existing empirical evidence on the effects of energy efficiency policies on energy demand and on the price of associated durable goods, as well as to identify the main factors that systematically affect the estimated impacts. To this end, a meta-regression analysis of the effects of energy efficiency policies is carried out on the basis of an extensive review of the existing literature, taking into account the econometric problems associated with this type of analysis (intra-class correlation, cross-sectional dependence, publication bias) in an attempt to obtain robust results. The results show that the studies that analyze the effects of energy efficiency policies estimate a significant impact of these policies on energy demand and the price of related durable goods.

Keywords: energy efficiency, meta-analysis, energy demand, price of durables

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1. Introduction

Energy saving is a key element to achieve decarbonization at a global level. Indeed, as the International Energy Agency has repeatedly indicated (e.g., IEA 2018), increased energy efficiency can provide up to 50% of the emission reduction required to meet the objectives of the Paris Agreement. Within the framework of this agreement, different countries commit to reducing emissions in this area through the objectives and actions collected in their Nationally Determined Contributions. However, numerous studies on the energy efficiency 'paradox' show that achieving large savings can be very difficult as the actual implementation of energy efficiency actions has been consistently below the (apparent) optimal level (Linares and Labandeira, 2010). The presence of several and persistent market failures and other barriers limiting the implementation of these efficiency measures create the need for public intervention to address these problems and achieve the desired levels of energy savings.

Yet, designing these public interventions is far from simple. Public intervention must respond to an identified market failure or barrier as effectively and efficiently as possible, which largely depends on the context in which these policies are applied. Although theory can help in policy design, in general the contexts in which energy efficiency policies are applied are second best at the very least, so the results do not necessarily correspond to those pointed out by the existing theoretical knowledge. Under these circumstances, it is essential to have solid empirical evidence that not only offers general patterns of effectiveness, but also makes it possible to identify the factors that may be behind the success or failure of the different policy actions.

There are a sizable and increasing number of academic papers, studies and reports by different organizations and institutions that analyze the effects of energy efficiency policies. They attempt to estimate the impact specific real or hypothetical policies, using ex-ante or ex-post information and varied methodologies. Several compilations of the main findings of this literature, in the form of surveys or meta-analysis, have been carried out to provide wider messages on policy impacts and on the factors likely to contribute to policy success or failure.

In this context, the aim of this paper is two-fold. First, it aims to complement existing literature by performing a meta-regression analysis on the effects of energy efficiency policies as a whole, rather than confining the analysis to a single type of policy as done by a (limited) number of papers so far. Moreover, seeking to provide greater robustness than related attempts in this area, the article uses a

much larger and more comprehensive set of studies as a basis. The paper is thus organized in six sections, including this introduction. The following section deals with previous surveys and meta-analysis of energy efficiency policies. Section 3 describes the data used in this paper, prior to detailed methodological considerations (Section 4). Section 5 presents the main results from the study, followed by the main messages and policy discussions of the concluding section.

2. Previous surveys and meta-analysis on the effects of energy efficiency policies

There are a number of papers that attempt to compile and analyze the literature on energy efficiency policies such as Banerjee and Solomon (2003), who study the effects of ecological labeling programs; Gillingham et al. (2006), providing a review of the literature on different types of energy efficiency policies (home appliance standards, financial incentive programs, information and volunteer programs and government energy use management); Barker et al., (2007), with an analysis of the literature on the macroeconomic effects of energy efficiency policies in the industrial sector; Ürge-Vorsatz et al. (2007) and Boza-Kiss et al. (2013), who study the cost-effectiveness of energy efficiency policies in the building sector; Mundaca and Neij (2010), who deal with modeling methodologies for ex ante evaluation of energy efficiency policies; Maidment et al. (2014), summarizing the health impact of energy efficiency measures in households; Frederiks et al. (2015) and Hahn and Metcalfe (2016), regarding the experimental literature on the impact of information provision and social norms on consumer energy behavior; Giraudet and Finon (2015), with a review of existing assessments on white certificate schemes; Ramos et al. (2015), who analyze empirical evidence about the effectiveness of information instruments in the residential sector; Maki et al. (2016), with a meta-analysis of the impact of financial incentives on household behavior regarding energy conservation and energy efficiency in transportation; Scepanovic et al. (2017), who study the effect of energy efficiency policies in households with different socio-economic, cultural and political contexts; or Wiese et al. (2018) who review the literature on energy efficiency policy instruments and their interactions to evaluate their effectiveness, efficiency and feasibility.

Likewise, Table 1 shows a selection of literature that includes the impact (in percentages) of energy efficiency policies on energy demand or on the price of energy-efficient buildings/products. Noteworthy among these studies are those that carry out a meta-regression analysis (Stanley and Jarrell, 1989), although they are scarce and generally consider a relatively small number of studies and a single type of policy. Conversely, Delmas et al. (2013) introduce duration and quality indicators as additional

explanatory variables to conduct a meta-analysis of experimental literature on the impact of information delivery strategy; Karlin et al. (2015) include frequency, the means for delivering the message, the type of message, its duration or its combination with other policies as explanatory variables to perform a meta-analysis about feedback policies and their impact on residential energy demand; Ankamah-Yeboah and Rehdanz (2014), Brown and Watkins (2015) and Fizaine et al. (2018) use meta-analysis to study the impact of green certificates on real estate price by geographical area, type of property, type of certificate, type of publication or the methodology as explanatory variables.

Table 1. Surveys and selected meta-analysis on the effects of energy efficiency policies

Study	Period	Articles considered	Energy Efficiency (EE) Policy	Effect on energy demand	Effect on property price
Nadel (1992)	1983-1992	54	Demand management programs	[-20%; -10%]	
Abrahamse et al. (2005)	1977-2004	38	Information feedback	[-21%; 2%] [-22%; 0%]	
Darby (2006)	1979-2005	38	Feedback energy consumption	[-27%; 0%]	
Fischer (2008)	1987-2007	26	Feedback energy consumption	[-20%; -1,1%]	
Ehrhardt-Martinez et al. (2010)	1974-2009	57	Feedback energy consumption	[-32%; 5,5%]	
Delmas et al. (2013)	1975-2012	156	Information	-7,4%	
McKerracher and Torriti (2013)	1979-2011	33	Feedback energy consumption	[-5%; -3%]	
Mudgal et al. (2013)	2007-2012	22	Energy efficiency certificates		[-5%; 31%]
Ankamah-Yeboah and Rehdanz (2014)	2008-2013	30	Energy efficiency certificates		7,6%
Brown and Watkins (2015)	2005-2015	17	Energy efficiency certificates		4,3%
Karlin and Zinger (2015)	1976-2010	42	Feedback energy consumption	-7,1%	
Ramos et al. (2015)	2010-2014	29	Energy efficiency certificates		[0%; 29%]
Staddon et al. (2016)	2000-2015	22	EE policies at the workplace	[-50%; 0%]	
Andor and Fels (2018)	1982-2017	44	Energy labeling and information	[-30%; 8%]	
Fizaine et al. (2018)	1996-2015	54	Energy efficiency certificates		[3.5%; 4.5%]

Note: Meta-regression analyses are in **bold font**

Source: Own elaboration from the cited literature

3. Data

As aforementioned, this paper jointly analyzes several energy efficiency policies and considerably increases the number of studies under consideration to thereby extend the scope of previous meta-analyses. Indeed, the work selected to conduct our meta-analysis emerged from a comprehensive and detailed analysis of existing literature on the impact of energy efficiency policies. To this end, this analysis reviewed the literature, included in the surveys and meta-analyses presented in the preceding section, and used internet search tools such as Google, Google Scholar, Science Direct, Jstor, Springer and Scopus. Two criteria were considered when selecting a piece of work: first, that it studies the impact of one or more energy efficiency policies on energy demand and/or the prices of durable goods that consume energy¹; and second, that the impact of energy efficiency policies is expressed in terms of the 'business as usual' energy demand/price of durable goods (or the article includes information that allows for the calculation of such impact) to make the results comparable. For this purpose, we selected 366 articles (see Appendix B) published between 1987 and 2019 and providing 1375 estimates of the impact of energy efficiency policies on energy demand and 108 estimates about the effects of such policies on the price of durable goods that consume energy (mainly buildings, but also appliances and vehicles).

Table 2 presents a statistical summary of the estimated impact of energy efficiency policies. It shows impacts on energy demand between -75.9% and 40%² with an average of -9.7% and a median of -6% and variations in the price of durable goods consuming energy between -1.2% and 50.7% with an average of 7.7% and a median of 5%. Figure 1 shows the density of the estimated impacts. Some estimated values are very extreme, generally as a result of small sample sizes³, so we have excluded 5% of the sample from the meta-analysis (2.5% of the high-end values of the distribution and 2.5% of

¹ These two impacts were selected because they represent the quantitative effects of the most studied energy efficiency policies in the literature with enough observations to carry out the meta-analysis.

² Some studies obtain increased energy demand derived from energy efficiency policies due to the use of tiny sample sizes, the consideration of the rebound effect or the existence of negative feedback in financial incentive policies (for example, when saving energy in exchange for money is considered morally inappropriate, or when the feedback indicates reduced real consumption).

³ For instance, the most extreme values (minimum and maximum) of the impacts on energy demand respectively arise from an article in which aggregate cross-sectional data is used (Xu et al., 2013) and an experiment with 118 households throughout the course of less than one year (Asensio and Delmas, 2016). On the other hand, in the case of the impact on the price of the durables, the most extreme values (minor and major) respectively correspond to a work that only has information on fewer than 300 buildings even though the panel data covers a period of 10 years (Devine and Kok, 2015), and to a study using cross-sectional data from 36 US states with less than 10 observations per state on average (Dermisi, 2009).

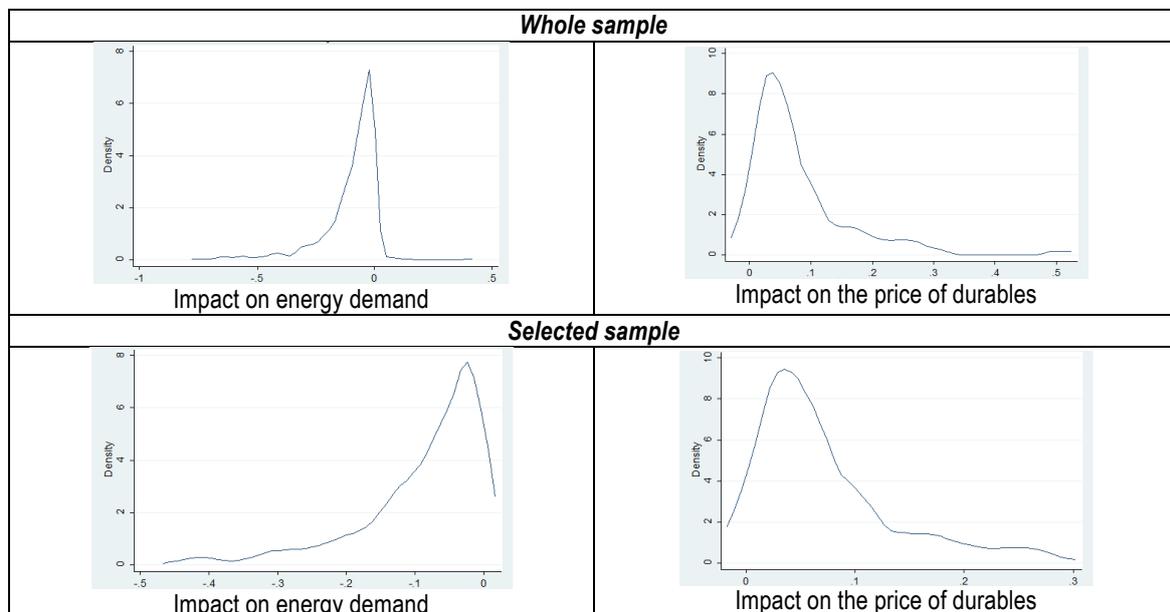
the low-end values) to eliminate outliers that could impact on the average results we want to adjust⁴. The second part of Table 2 presents the statistics of the selected sample, with impacts on energy demand between -45% and 0% (with an average of -8.8% and a median of -5.9%) and variations in the price of durable goods that consume energy between 0% and 28.5% (with an average of 7.2% and a median of 5%) while the second part of Figure 1 shows the density of the impacts in the selected sample. Thus, the elimination of outliers reduces the average impact of the policies, even though the median is hardly affected.

Table 2. Statistics on the impact of energy efficiency policies in the literature

Variable	Observations	Mean	Median	Standard Deviation	Minimum	Maximum
Whole Sample						
Impact on energy demand	1375	-0.0970	-0.0596	0.1193	-0.7590	0.4000
Impact on price of durable goods	108	0.0770	0.0500	0.0791	-0.0120	0.5070
Selected Sample						
Impact on energy demand	1311	-0.0877	-0.0590	0.0892	-0.4500	0
Impact on price of durable goods	105	0.0716	0.0500	0.0638	0	0.285

Source: Own elaboration

Figure 1. Density of energy efficiency policy impact. Whole and selected samples



Source: Own elaboration

⁴ As we will see later, estimating the model by GLS (see sections 4.1 and 5.1) with the whole sample results in a significantly lower impact on energy demand than it does using the selected sample (-5.94% vs. -8.80%), for instance. Moreover, it reduces the significance of the estimated parameter (only significant at 10%). Regarding the impact on the price of durables, although it is similar (9.83% versus 9.74%), the use of the whole sample results only in a 10% parameter significance.

Given the heterogeneity of the selected works, which generates a significant variation in the estimated impacts, we have considered several factors that may affect the estimation of the effects from energy efficiency policies and are described below (and summarized in Table 3):

- *Policy instrument*

One of the main factors that influence the impact of energy efficiency policies is the type of instrument. Although there are multiple energy efficiency policy instruments, they can be grouped into three broad categories (see Markandya et al., 2015):

- *Standards* set mandatory norms for agents regarding the energy efficiency of products, services and activities that include building codes, minimum energy efficiency requirements for appliances, vehicles and fuels, and energy savings obligations. They generally force producers to provide energy efficient options whereas consumers must reduce energy consumption by installing or buying a certain product, so that minimum levels of energy efficiency can be attained (although not necessarily energy savings). However these instruments lack flexibility and usually provide no incentives to increase energy efficiency beyond the compliance threshold (see Linares and Labandeira, 2010; Wiese et al., 2018).
- *Economic instruments* seek to modify the energy behavior of the agents through economic incentives. They conform a flexible approach, through the decentralization of decisions to increase energy efficiency in consumers and producers. These instruments include taxes, generally on carbon dioxide (CO₂) emissions or energy consumption; markets for energy efficiency certificates (white certificates) that establish the reduction of energy demand among participating agents as an objective in absolute terms and allow them to trade this obligation via negotiable certificates (see Giraudet and Finon, 2015; Afshari and Friedrich, 2016); and subsidies and tax relief for investments in energy efficiency measures, such as building retrofitting or the acquisition of efficient appliances and vehicles, and for the reduction of energy consumption.
- *Information instruments* intend to address the problem of incomplete information associated to energy efficiency as well as specific barriers related to bounded rationality (Linares and Labandeira, 2010). These instruments include certificates and labels for household appliances, buildings and vehicles that provide information on their energy efficiency characteristics; energy audits that analyze the energy consumption of households or companies to provide information on cost-effective measures to improve energy efficiency; education programs on ways to save energy; smart meters, which allow agents to know their real-time energy consumption; or

information on the invoices concerning current consumption, its relation to past consumption as well as to that of similar consumers (see Ramos et al., 2015; Wiese et al., 2018).

Finally, energy efficiency policies frequently use a combination of instruments to take advantage of their synergies and increase policy effectiveness. This is because energy efficiency faces multiple market failures that a single instrument is unable to properly address (see Benneer and Stavins, 2007; Wiese et al., 2018) as well as the fact that the aforementioned instruments present both advantages and disadvantages, especially in terms of their practical implementation (Linares and Labandeira, 2010).

- Sector

Energy efficiency policies can be aimed at the entire economy or at certain groups of consumers. Since different types of consumers use energy for different purposes with different responses measured by elasticities, the impact of energy efficiency policies should also vary according to the type of consumer. Within this context, we distinguish between studies analyzing the effects of policies on the residential, industrial, and commercial or public sectors and those focusing on the economy as a whole.

- Energy product

Given that the consumers' relative share of spending and their reaction to changes in prices vary by energy product, they may also react differently in function of the energy product targeted by the energy efficiency policy. Thus, if we compare the average impact of energy efficiency policies on different energy products (Table 3) with their estimated elasticities in the meta-analysis of Labandeira et al. (2017), the effects on the demand of gas is higher than those on the demand for electricity and both are lower than the overall impact on energy demand (which corresponds to the lower short-term elasticity of electricity in relation to gas, and of both energy goods in relation to energy). In this context, we distinguish between studies that address policies aimed at energy consumption as a whole and energy efficiency policies aimed at electricity, gas (natural gas and LPG) or liquid fuels (gasoline, diesel and heating oil).

- Country

The effect of energy efficiency policies may vary by country. We have therefore considered two factors that may affect the results: the extent to which the country is a developed one and its energy dependence. In the first case, we use the Human Development Index (HDI) established by the UN to

distinguish between highly developed countries (with an HDI rated as very high)⁵ and the rest of the countries (see UNDP, 2019); in the second case, we use World Bank (2019) data to differentiate between exporting countries and net energy importers⁶. Likewise, we initially considered the introduction of the country's energy price level even though we finally decided to discard it⁷.

- *Scope*

The impact of energy efficiency policies also depends on the spatial scope of the adopted measures. We therefore distinguish between subnational (local or regional) policies, national policies, and supranational policies.

- *Data*

The type of data is another important factor that may have influence on the results. We thus distinguish, on the one hand, between studies that use macroeconomic data, whose results are based on the existence of representative consumers, and those that use microeconomic data with information on the individual behavior of agents. On the other hand, we distinguish between studies that use cross-sectional data, time series data and panel data. Finally, we also distinguish between studies that estimate the impact of real energy efficiency policies and those that are experimentally conducted in laboratory conditions (with voluntary participation).

- *Ex-ante vs. ex-post*

The type of analysis performed in the cases under study may also have an impact on the results. In this sense, we distinguish between ex-ante studies that simulate the future impact of real or hypothetical

⁵ Countries rated by the UN as having a very high HDI are Norway, Switzerland, Australia, Ireland, Germany, Iceland, Hong Kong, Sweden, Singapore, Holland, Denmark, Canada, USA, United Kingdom, Finland, New Zealand, Belgium, Liechtenstein, Japan, Austria, Luxembourg, Israel, South Korea, France, Slovenia, Spain, Czech Republic, Italy, Malta, Estonia, Greece, Cyprus, Poland, UAE, Andorra, Lithuania, Qatar, Slovakia, Brunei, Arabia Saudi, Latvia, Portugal, Bahrain, Chile, Hungary, Croatia, Argentina, Oman, Russia, Montenegro, Bulgaria, Romania, Belarus, Bahamas, Uruguay, Kuwait, Malaysia, Barbados and Kazakhstan (UNDP, 2019).

⁶ When the article uses data from several countries, we consider the category to which most countries belong.

⁷ Here we used the final energy price index of the IEA (2019), with a set level of 100 for 2015 in every country: therefore it allows the measurement of price deviations with respect to 2015, but not a complete comparison among regions. In any case, we discarded the introduction of this index because annual dummies already collect the effect of the sample period (see Period analyzed in this same section) and introducing the average index of the sample period corresponding to each work involves restricting the impact of the sample period to a single common parameter throughout the entire sample. Moreover, the use of a price index would imply assigning price effects to data lacking these effects (studies with cross-sectional data). As a continuous variable, it would also complicate the analysis of the average effects of energy efficiency policies, which would be sensitive to the considered price level. Alternatively, we also considered including the price index as a dummy (distinguishing between low, medium and high prices), although the estimated parameters were not significant.

energy efficiency policies and ex-post studies that calculate the impact of policies after they are implemented.

- Rebound effect

The rebound effect is a phenomenon that occurs when an improvement in energy efficiency does not result in a proportional reduction of energy demand, or it even causes an increase in energy demand (see Greening et al., 2000; Sorrell, 2007; Gillingham et al., 2016). Three fundamental reasons explain the rebound effect (Linares and Labandeira, 2010). On one side, improvements in energy efficiency cause a reduction in the cost of associated energy products and services, leading to an increase in consumption (direct rebound effect or price effect). On the other side, reduced energy costs lead to an increase in the disposable income of agents, allowing them to increase their demand for other products and services that consume energy (indirect rebound effect or income effect). Likewise, at the macroeconomic level a reduced energy cost brings about a change in the relative price of the different inputs of productions processes, leading to shifts in use that benefit the most energy-intensive sectors. Moreover, increased energy efficiency may stimulate economic growth, thus requiring additional energy consumption (macroeconomic effects). Within this context, the studies that do not contemplate the possible existence of rebound effects could overestimate policy impacts on energy demand. Thus, our analysis distinguishes between papers that consider a rebound effect and those that do not⁸.

- Free riders

Another factor that may affect the estimated impact of energy efficiency policies is the presence of free riders: agents that would have carried out actions to improve their energy efficiency even if the policy had not been implemented. Although the presence of free riders has no impact on the absolute effect on energy demand, it does have effects on policy effectiveness and efficiency. Therefore, not taking the likely presence of free riders into account could mean overestimating impacts on energy demand resulting from policy implementations (see Train, 1994; Rosenow and Galvin, 2013). Thus, our analysis includes a dummy to differentiate between studies that do consider the presence of free riders and those that do not.

⁸ A study takes into account the rebound effect if it explicitly indicates so or if it can be deduced from its results that it does so.

- *Period analyzed*

Given that technological progress is crucial on the availability of energy efficiency improvements, we introduce a series of dummies indicating the period in which the impacts of energy efficiency policies were estimated. Our application distinguishes between works that evaluate the effect of energy efficiency policies before 1990; from 1990 to 1999, 2000 to 2009, 2010 to 2019, 2020 to 2029; and from 2030 onward.

- *Publication*

Finally, we have considered the type of publication in which each of the analyzed studies appears. We distinguish between articles published in journals subject to a review process and those published in other formats, such as working papers or reports; additionally, we differentiate between journal articles published in the best academic journals in terms of impact factors (those that belong to Q1 in any JCR category) and the rest.

Table 3 summarizes the main factors considered and provides the average variations in energy demand and the price of durables shown by the studies considered in the paper. Some elements, already anticipated in the previous description, are noteworthy. Ex-post studies usually offer lower demand reductions, and they consider free riding. Prospective studies (which are ex-ante by definition as well as with uncertainty) generally offer much greater and probably unrealistic reductions. For its part, the large average variation of supranational studies is striking. The fact that most of these studies are ex-ante and post-2030 may explain this.

Table 3. Main factors that may influence the estimated effects of energy efficiency policies

Factor	Energy demand		Price of durables	
	Observations	Average variation	Observations	Average variation
<i>Policy instrument</i>				
Standard	559	-0.0983	4	0.0814
Economic	139	-0.0728	-	-
Information	308	-0.0663	101	0.0712
Combination	305	-0.0966	-	-
<i>Sector</i>				
Residential	730	-0.0867	60	0.0593
Industrial	87	-0.0640	-	-
Commercial/Public	219	-0.1140	45	0.0880
Total	275	-0.0768	-	-
<i>Energy Product</i>				
Electricity	655	-0.0843	6	0.0614
Gas	120	-0.0864	-	-
Liquid fuels	119	-0.0757	3	0.0639

Energy	409	-0.0968	96	0.0724
Country				
Highly developed	1141	-0.0805	105	0.0716
Rest	170	-0.1357	-	-
Net exporter of energy	110	-0.0919	6	0.0743
Net importer of energy	1201	-0.0873	99	0.0714
Scope				
Local/regional	604	-0.0734	11	0.0786
National	633	-0.0929	71	0.0791
Supranational	70	-0.1656	23	0.0451
Data				
Macroeconomic	708	-0.0957	-	-
Microeconomic	603	-0.0782	105	0.0716
Cross-section	687	-0.0920	77	0.0660
Time series	207	-0.0880	-	-
Panel	417	-0.0804	28	0.0869
Experiment	237	-0.0744	-	-
No experiment	1074	-0.0906	105	0.0716
Analysis				
Ex-ante	730	-0.1056	-	-
Ex- post	581	-0.0651	105	0.0716
Rebound effect				
Yes	207	-0.0824	-	-
No	1104	-0.0887	105	0.0716
Free riding				
Yes	120	-0.0601	-	-
No	1191	-0.0905	105	0.0716
Period				
Pre-1990	38	-0.0886	1	0.0158
1990-1999	128	-0.0550	-	-
2000-2009	463	-0.0710	73	0.0793
2010-2019	259	-0.0795	31	0.0554
2020-2029	230	-0.1030	-	-
Post-2030	193	-0.1419	-	-
Publication				
Journal Q1	408	-0.0957	39	0.0809
Journal no Q1	143	-0.1041	46	0.0749
Other	760	-0.0803	20	0.0461

Source: Own elaboration

4. Methodological approach

4.1. Basic methodology

Following Nelson and Kennedy (2009) and Stanley et al. (2013), we have performed a meta-regression analysis (Stanley and Jarrell, 1989), i.e., a regression analysis of the set of estimates included in the selected literature. Thus, the analysis aims to adjust the value of the effect of energy efficiency policies on energy demand, the price of energy-consuming durable goods, and to identify the main factors explaining the difference between different study results. To this end, we propose the following simple model:

$$b_i = \beta + \sum_{j=1}^J \alpha_j X_{ij} + e_i \quad (i = 1, 2, \dots, K) \quad (1)$$

with b_i being the estimated impact of energy efficiency policies on the i -th observation of our sample; X , the J explanatory variables indicating the relevant characteristics of the empirical work that influence the estimated impacts; α_j the parameters of these variables; β , the unconditional average value of the impact of energy efficiency policies; e_j is the error term of the meta-regression; and K is the number of observations of the impacts on energy demand / price of durables in the sample (with different sample sizes, as shown by Table 3).

4.2. Econometric problems and their treatment

The simple model proposed can still present a number of econometric problems, which must be addressed to prevent biased estimates of parameters in Equation 1. First of all, in many cases our analysis considers several estimated impacts of energy efficiency policies from the same study. The average in the case of energy demand is 4.1 observations per paper and 2.4 results for the price of durables (see Table 4). Estimates from the same study generally share data, hypotheses and estimation methods, so they are likely to be correlated (Havranek and Kokes, 2015; Nelson and Kennedy, 2009). Correlation of this kind invalidates the results of any method in which the heterogeneous effects are random if they are not ruled out from the equation at the estimation step. A methodology to eliminate them (first differences, intra-groups, orthogonal deviations, etc.) could avoid this problem, although this procedure could not yield good results when within-groups or time variation is not enough to properly identify the parameters. We will therefore assume that random effects depend on some variables, checking via a Hausman test that compares fixed-effect and random-effect estimates (see Adkins and Hill, 2011). We assume, following Mundlak (1978), that random effects depend on the average of the variables with which they are correlated, and we estimate the model in levels including these sample means as additional variables⁹.

In addition, cross-sectional dependence may be due to the use of several papers by the same author or authors from the same institution. This may cause correlation among the paper-effects of these studies.

⁹ Of course, t-tests on individual variables (means) serve as checks of correlation. Moreover, a joint F-test is also a valid option. Of course, only time-varying variables are usable and we assume that their means approximate the correlation in an adequate way.

Thus, we check its presence by a test (see De Hoyos and Sarafidis, 2006), estimating Equation 1 with standard errors robust to intra-group correlation.

Another important problem associated with meta-analysis is the presence of publication bias (see Rothstein et al., 2005; Doucouliagos and Stanley, 2013; Havranek and Kokes, 2015), according to which certain results can be more easily accepted for publication¹⁰. Consequently, meta-analysis results based on this literature would be biased (Palmer et al., 2008). In this context, we analyze funnel plots relative to estimated effects and their standard errors and use the Egger test (Egger et al., 1997) to check publication bias. When we detect bias, we follow Feld and Heckemeyer, (2011) and include the standard error of estimated impacts to take it into account.

Table 4. Observations by study included in the meta-analysis

	Number of studies	Number of observations per paper				
		Average	Median	Standard Deviation	Minimum	Maximum
Studies analyzing the impact on energy demand	321	4.08	2	7.48	1	94
Studies analyzing the impact on the price of durables	44	2.39	2	1.94	1	9

Source: Own elaboration

5. Results

5.1. General model and robustness test

First, we estimate Equation 1 for each of the impacts (energy demand and price of durables) using GLS to take into account heteroscedasticity and correlation. We additionally consider the estimation of Equation 1 using the panel structure of our data, whose dimensions are the type of energy efficiency policy and the study (Panel 1) or, alternatively, the type of energy product and the study (Panel 2) to try to control for specific unobservable factors in each study. In this case, the specification model is:

¹⁰ Sometimes results may be akin to those of previous publications; but the results may also be counterintuitive or more innovative, especially in the best academic journals (in terms of impact).

$$b_{ik} = \beta + \sum_{j=1}^J \alpha_j X_{ikj} + \eta_i + \varepsilon_{ik} \quad (2)$$

with b_{ik} being the estimation of the impact of energy efficiency policies on the i -th observation of the type of policy/product k ; η_i the unobservable individual effect, and ε_{ik} the idiosyncratic error term.

Table 5 shows the average effects of energy efficiency policies resulting from estimating the model of Equation 1 under different methods (Table A1 in Appendix A provides the full parameter estimates). Energy efficiency policies are observed to have a significant impact on energy demand and on the price of durable goods, causing an average reduction in energy demand between 10.5% and 8.8%, while its effect on the price of associated durable goods is a change between 9.6% and -9.7%.

Table 5. Average impact of energy efficiency policies in empirical literature

	GLS	Panel 1	Panel 2
Energy demand	-0.0880***	-0.1046***	-0.1027***
Durables price	0.0974***	0.0974***	0.0964***

Note: *** 1% significance
Source: Own elaboration

However, given that the meta-regression analysis can present some econometric problems (see section 4.2), we have performed a series of robustness tests to detect them and correct the estimates if necessary¹¹. First, the analysis of our database shows intra-class correlation of 55.7% in studies analyzing energy demand impact, while intra-class correlation is only 10.9% in the case of impacts on the price of durables; there is a correlation problem between the results of the same study in the first case, but not in the second. We address this by assuming that the random effects depend on the average of the variables with which they are correlated (we test it through a Hausman test), estimating the model that includes these averages as additional variables (see Tables A2 and A3). The first row of Table 6 shows the average impact of policies with estimates robust to intra-class correlation. We observe a lower impact on energy demand using Panel 1 (with a similar result for Panel 2).

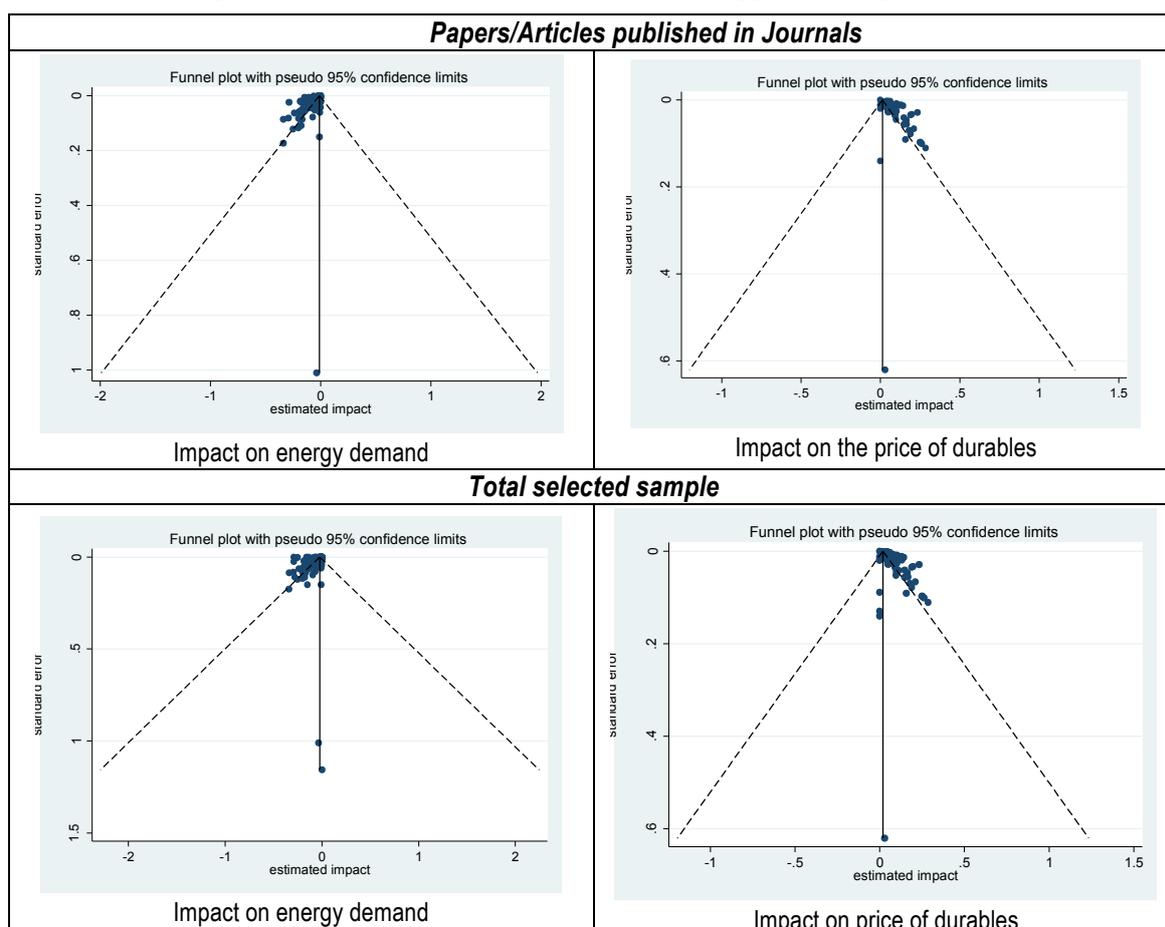
The Pesaran test (2015) detects cross-sectional dependence in both panels (see Table A4), so we estimate Equation 1 with robust standard errors (Table A5). This estimate makes no change in the

¹¹ Appendix A (Tables A2-A8) reports the complete results of the different estimates and tests.

estimated values of the effects of energy efficiency policies, as expected, although it does modify the significance of the explanatory factors.

Finally, in terms of publication bias, an asymmetry in funnel plots relates estimated effects and standard errors¹² (Figure 2), especially in the case of effects on the price of durables, which could indicate database publication bias. We have used the Egger test to determine its presence and its results reveal publication bias in the case of energy demand if only articles published in journals are considered (Table A6). However, including other types of publications in the analysis can correct it. On the contrary, publication bias is present when dealing with the price of durable goods even when all the papers are included. Following Feld and Heckemeyer (2011), we take account of it by including the standard error of the effect on the price (see Table A7).

Figure 2. Funnel plots on the impact of energy efficiency policies



Source: Own elaboration

¹² We only have information on the standard error and/or the t-statistic for 237 estimates concerning the effects on energy demand and 101 estimates concerning the effects on the price of durables. We therefore limit our analysis to these observations, assuming they represent the whole sample.

The second column of Table 6 presents the estimated effects of energy efficiency policies on energy demand if only articles published in journals are considered (see Table A8). This shows that taking no heed of other types of literature would generally lead to overestimating the average impact of these policies (except in Panel 2). On the other hand, the last column of Table 6 presents the impact on the price of the durables considering publication bias. The impact of durable price policies is overestimated when publication bias is not considered.

Table 6. Average impact of energy efficiency policies in the empirical literature

		GLS	Panel 1	Panel 2
Energy demand	Robust to intra-class correlation	-	-0.0885***	-0.1044***
	Articles published in journals	-0.0994***	-0.1147***	-0.0988***
Price of durables	Robust to publication bias	0.0702***	0.0962***	0.0957***

Note: *** 1% significance

Source: Own elaboration

5.2. Final results and explanatory factors

Once we analyze the econometric problems associated with meta-analysis, we perform a meta-regression robust to these problems. The results, depicted in Table 8, show that studies analyzing the impacts of energy efficiency policies estimate a significant impact of these policies on the energy demand and the price of durable goods that results in an average reduction in energy demand of between 10.5% and 8.8% and an increase of between 7% and 9.6% in the price of associated durable goods, depending on the method used. Although these studies focus on a specific type of energy efficiency policy rather than on the set of existing policies, the results are slightly larger than those obtained in the previous meta-regression analyses.

In any case, these results represent the average impact considering all the studies and depend on the other variables included in the regressions. Table 7 presents the average impacts on energy demand (obtained from the results of Table 8) of the papers published in the best journals in terms of impact (Q1 of JCR) that perform an ex-post analysis and take into account both free riding and the rebound effect. This approach provides robustness to the results as we feel that they estimate the impact of

energy efficiency policies more precisely¹³. Energy efficiency policies thus have an average impact on energy demand in the range [-5.2%; -3.2%] in the best-published studies on the subject. Therefore, the meta-analysis that analyzes all the existing literature overestimates the true impact of these policies.

Regarding the factors that influence the estimated impact of energy efficiency policies on the energy demand in the literature, a combination of instruments generates a significantly larger impact on energy demand with respect to the use of a single economic instrument. This confirms the advantage of the synergies among different instruments, as previously indicated. The choice of instrument does not seem to be significant except in the case of information instruments that, interestingly, can lead to a lower reduction in demand (perhaps associated with its lower persistence).

Table 7. Average impact of energy efficiency policies in studies published in journals Q1 JCR, ex-post, with rebound and free riding

	GLS	Panel 1	Panel 2
Energy demand	-0.0323***	-0.0505***	-0.0517***

Note: *** 1% significance

Source: Own elaboration

In addition, studies analyzing energy efficiency policies applied on the residential and commercial sectors (especially the latter) estimate significantly greater demand reductions than do policies aimed at the economy as a whole¹⁴, while policies on the industrial sector have significantly lower impacts. This result is interesting because, in general, residential and commercial energy demand shows lower elasticities and, therefore, one would expect fewer reductions in these sectors. One possible explanation is that, as the industrial sector is more elastic, energy efficiency policies are not as necessary or, rather, the policy's energy saving potential is lower. The residential and commercial sectors, less elastic but with many barriers to energy efficiency adoption, show better conditions for higher response to policies.

Concerning the country and the moment the policy is applied, reductions in energy demand are significantly higher when the efficiency level is lower (developing countries relative to the more

¹³ We limit this analysis to the impact on energy demand given that observations concerning the effect on the price of the durable performing an ex-post analysis, considering the rebound effect and/or taking into account free riding are unavailable to us while the parameter of studies in Q1 JCR journals is insignificant.

¹⁴ This can be explained by the fact that by definition these studies cannot take the macroeconomic rebound effect into account, while studies on impacts on the economy as a whole can do so.

developed countries and pre-1990 studies relative to current ones). Likewise, our results indicate that ex-post analyses show significantly smaller reductions than do ex-ante studies; thus, they overestimate the effects of energy efficiency policies. Moreover, studies that analyze future impacts of energy efficiency policies (2020-2029 and post-2030) show significantly larger reductions and increasing ex-ante bias.

Regarding the type of data used in the analysis, the use of aggregate and cross-section data leads to significantly lower demand reductions, while some evidence signals that studies based on experimental economics obtain larger reductions in energy demand probably due to the sample selection process. Likewise, studies that take the presence of free riders into account obtain significantly lower impacts on energy demand, with papers that take no heed of them overestimating policy impacts. Finally, in terms of the type of publication, articles published in journals show significantly larger reductions in energy demand, although some evidence points out that those published in journals Q1 JCR provide smaller reductions. The publications in Q1 journals also reflect a slightly larger standard deviation and a slightly smaller minimum¹⁵.

Although most of the factors influencing the impact of energy efficiency policies on the price of associated durable goods are non-significant because of the small sample size, the model outcomes reinforce the results of the meta-analysis concerning the effects on energy demand. Considering that policies with the largest impact on the price of durables are expected to be those generating larger energy demand reductions, the meta-regression results indicate a larger impact in terms of prices on the commercial sector relative to the residential sector. This effect was also found in the case of energy demand, with a larger demand reduction from policies on the commercial sector relative to the residential sector.

¹⁵ Although the estimated coefficient of the dummy proxying Q1 papers is only significant in GLS estimation.

Table 8. Final estimated parameters. Impact of energy efficiency policies on energy demand and the price of durables

Regressor	GLS		Panel 1		Panel 2	
	Energy demand	Price of durables	Energy demand	Price of durables	Energy demand	Price of durables
$\hat{\beta}$	-0.0880***	0.0702***	-0.0892***	0.0961***	-0.1045***	0.0954***
Standard	0.0031	0.0308	-	-	-0.0024	0.0332
Information instrument	0.0191**	-	-	-	0.0045	-
Instrument combination	-0.0001	-	-	-	-0.0257**	-
Residential	-0.0181***	-0.0178	-0.0026	-0.0330**	-0.0160**	-0.0289**
Industrial	-0.0032	-	0.0226**	-	0.0178**	-
Commercial/Public	-0.0384***	-	-0.0063	-	-0.0385***	-
Electricity	0.0077	0.0099	0.0022	0.0167	-	-
Gas	-0.0090	-	-0.0014	-	-	-
Liquid fuels	-0.0061	0.0283	0.0059	0.0110	-	-
Developing country	-0.0448***	-	-0.0401***	-	-0.0763***	-
Net energy exporting country	-0.0172*	0.0018	-0.0142	-0.0059	-0.0123	-0.0133
Local	0.0065	0.0196	0.0073	0.0303	0.0103	0.0249
Supranational	-0.0391**	-0.0082	-0.0685***	-0.0110	-0.0575***	-0.0208
Aggregate data	0.0042	-	0.0062	-	0.0226***	-
Cross section	0.0084	-0.0191	0.0394	-0.0219	0.0141**	-0.0218
Time series	0.0030	-	-0.0027	-	-0.0043	-
Experiment	-0.0150**	-	-0.0054	-	-0.0044	-
Ex-post	0.0142**	-	0.0192**	-	0.0298***	-
Rebound effect	-0.0091*	-	-0.0096	-	-0.0046	-
Free rider	0.0357***	-	0.0168**	-	0.0156**	-
Pre-1990	-0.0398***	-	-0.0275*	-0.0934**	-0.0162	-0.1107**
1990-1999	-0.0025	-	-0.0113	-	-0.0070	-
2000-2009	-0.0090*	0.0096	-0.0031	0.0038	-0.0006	0.0021
2020-2029	-0.0478***	-	-0.0158	-	-0.0267***	-
Post-2030	-0.0497***	-	-0.0638***	-	-0.0503***	-
No journal	0.0328***	-0.0330	0.0318***	-0.0130	0.0319***	-0.0042
Journal Q1	0.0148*	0.0063	0.0123	0.0202	0.0120	0.0237
Standard Error	-	0.5660***	-	0.1244	-	0.1560
Average (Residential)	-	-	-0.0128	-	-	-
Average (Commercial)	-	-	-0.0476***	-	-	-
Average (Aggregate data)	-	-	0.0068	-	-	-
Average (Cross section)	-	-	-0.0318	-	-	-
Average (2020-2030)	-	-	-0.0304	-	-	-
Average (Post-2030)	-	-	0.0186	-	-	-
Average (Developing Country)	-	-	-	-	0.0415	-
Joint significance	F(40,1320) = 28.5 (p-value = 0.000)		Wald χ^2 (43) = 3009.6 (p-value = 0.000)		Wald χ^2 (37) = 2690.7 (p-value = 0.000)	
R ²	0.46		0.34		0.34	

Notes: *** 1% significance; ** 5% significance; * 10% significance; For the sake of not losing efficiency, impacts on energy demand and the price of durables were jointly estimated while the regressor interacts with dummies for the type of study (energy demand / durable price). Total sector, energy, highly developed country, energy importing country, national scope, microeconomic and panel data, no experiment, ex-ante, no rebound effect, no free riding, 2010-2019 and journal no Q1 are the economic instrument base.

Source: Own elaboration

6. Conclusions and policy implications

Given the importance of energy savings for a successful transition to low-carbon societies and the existence of numerous barriers to their achievement, particularly in the residential and commercial sectors, it is imperative to design and implement intense public policies to promote energy efficiency. This design must consider the context in which these policies are applied to ensure their effectiveness and efficiency. In this respect, solid empirical evidence is fundamental because many of the interventions occur in suboptimal contexts in which theory is not always capable of correctly predicting results.

We believe that the results of this paper may contribute to a proper design and implementation of energy efficiency policies as, on the one hand, it provides information on the energy abatement potential of these policies. On the other hand, the paper identifies the factors that seem to contribute most to the reduction of energy demand.

Summing up, the first conclusion of the paper is that public policies in the energy efficiency domain are effective. The evidence shows that it is possible to achieve an 8-10% reduction in energy demand and a 7-9% increase in the price of durable goods through energy efficiency policies. However, it is important to emphasize that these results may be overestimated, mainly due to ex-ante biases, the rebound effect, and free riding. When we only use the results published in the best academic journals in terms of impact (with presumably higher reviewing standards) with ex-post approaches that take into account the rebound and free riding effect, we obtain a more robust estimation of energy demand reduction (between 3 and 5%). In this sense, our analysis points to the importance of considering the rebound and free riding effect when evaluating the expected effects of energy efficiency policies, as well as the need for ex-post evaluations that provide more realism and allow for more precise estimates of impacts that may be useful for customary policy adjustments.

It is striking that, for the considered sample, the choice of policy instrument has no impact, in clear contrast with the case of instruments that are combined to achieve synergies. The sector on which policies are applied does, however, make an impact. It seems to be much more effective to address residential and commercial sectors, which are more receptive to public policies promoting energy savings probably due to the prevalence of numerous barriers to their achievement. It is interesting to remember that many of these barriers may not necessarily be economic, and can therefore be

addressed with low-cost information instruments even though further research on their persistence is required (see Ramos et al, 2015).

Finally we must point out that, despite the importance of the considered factors, we are unable to explain more than 50% of the impact of energy efficiency policies. Therefore, there is plenty of room to analyze other possible factors (such as the heterogeneity of consumers, technological availability, the interaction between design elements, etc.) that may determine the success or failure of these policies. Clearly further research is required in this area, which is sometimes undervalued against supply policies, crucial for a successful transition to a decarbonized energy system.

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ANNEX A. Estimation results

Table A1. Estimated parameters Impact on energy demand and the price of durables

Regressor	GLS		Panel 1		Panel 2	
	Energy demand	Price of durables	Energy demand	Price of durables	Energy demand	Price of durables
$\hat{\beta}$	-0.08797***	0.09736***	-0.10457***	0.09746***	-0.10273***	0.09642***
Standard	0.00315	0.02619	-	-	-0.00235	0.03180
Information instrument	0.01915**	-	-	-	0.00450	-
Instrument combination	-0.00008	-	-	-	-0.02617***	-
Residential	-0.01807***	-0.02885*	-0.01226*	-0.03442	-0.01679**	-0.02990
Industrial	-0.00319	-	0.01585	-	0.01731*	-
Commercial/Public	-0.03839***	-	-0.03385***	-	-0.03917***	-
Electricity	0.00769	0.03067	0.00278	0.02005	-	-
Gas	-0.00902	-	-0.00098	-	-	-
Liquid fuels	-0.00608	0.02569	0.00745	0.01074	-	-
Developing country	-0.04483***	-	-0.03645***	-	-0.03803***	-
Net energy exporting country	-0.01723*	-0.01458	-0.01156	-0.00357	-0.01224	-0.01219
Local	0.00646	0.03394	0.00451	0.03058	0.01042*	0.02535
Supranational	-0.03915**	-0.01788	-0.06179***	-0.00803	-0.05463***	-0.01829
Aggregate data	0.00418	-	0.01525**	-	0.02225***	-
Cross section	0.00840	-0.02795	0.01148	-0.02252	0.01427*	-0.02246
Time series	0.00298	-	-0.00312	-	-0.00379	-
Experiment	-0.01497**	-	-0.00374	-	-0.00439	-
Ex-post	0.01419**	-	0.02701***	-	0.02946***	-
Rebound effect	-0.00912*	-	-0.00717	-	-0.00488	-
Free rider	0.03575***	-	0.02002**	-	0.01556*	-
Pre-1990	-0.03984***	-	-0.02652*	-0.09753	-0.01662	-0.11070
1990-1999	-0.00250	-	-0.01006	-	-0.00733	-
2000-2009	-0.00903*	0.01196	-0.00125	0.00685	-0.00103	0.01837
2020-2029	-0.04776***	-	-0.03319***	-	-0.02726***	-
Post-2030	-0.04967***	-	-0.05047***	-	-0.05035***	-
No journal	0.03278***	-0.03615	0.03185***	-0.01432	0.03138***	-0.00378
Journal Q1	0.01485*	0.01010	0.01400*	0.02217	0.01180	0.02662
Joint significance	F(39,1321) =27.8 (p-value=0.0000)		Wald χ^2 (36)=715.2 (p-value=0.0000)		Wald χ^2 (35)=720.7 (p-value=0.0000)	
R ²	0.43		0.33		0.34	

Notes: *** 1% significance; ** 5% significance; *10% significance. To avoid efficiency loss, energy demand and the price of durable goods were jointly estimated for each methodology while the regressors interacted with dummies for the type of study (energy demand/price of durable goods).

Table A2. Hausman Test. Fixed effects vs. random effects

Regressor	Difference (fixed effects-random effects)	
	Panel 1	Panel 2
Standard	-	-0.00760
Information instrument	-	-0.00343
Instrument combination	-	-0.00400
Residential	0.01536***	0.00759
Industrial	0.00490	0.01497
Commercial/Public	0.01574**	0.01010
Electricity	-0.00405	-
Gas	-0.00765	-
Liquid fuels	0.00227	-
Developing country	0.00373	0.01837**
Net energy exporting country	-0.00521	-0.00108
Local	-0.00227	0.00341
Supranational	-0.00551	0.00175
Aggregate data	0.01998***	-0.00638
Cross section	-0.01046*	0.00639
Time series	-0.01107	0.01334
Experiment	-0.00546	0.00685
Ex-post	-0.00097	-0.00243
Rebound effect	-0.00656	0.01079
Free rider	0.00412	0.00176
Pre-1990	-0.01126	-0.00676
1990-1999	-0.00946	0.00050
2000-2009	-0.00225	0.00331
2020-2029	-0.01483*	-0.00977
Post-2030	-0.01853**	0.00486
No journal	0.00537	0.01380*
Journal Q1	0.00523	0.00276

Note: *** 1% significance; ** 5% significance; * 10% significance

Table A3. Impact on energy demand. Estimated parameters robust to intra-class correlation

Regressor	Panel 1	Panel 2
$\hat{\beta}$	-0.08846***	-0.10441***
Standard	-	-0.00217
Information instrument	-	0.00462
Instrument combination	-	-0.02553***
Residential	-0.00092	-0.01608**
Industrial	0.02308**	0.01031*
Commercial/Public	-0.00496	-0.03862***
Electricity	0.00212	-
Gas	-0.00168	-
Liquid fuels	0.00598	-
Developing country	-0.04024***	-0.07680***
Net energy exporting country	-0.01436	-0.01234
Local	0.00680	0.01023*
Supranational	-0.06810***	-0.05756***
Aggregate data	0.00865	0.02274***
Cross section	0.03828	0.01398*
Time series	-0.00278	-0.00457

Experiment	-0.00539	-0.00453
Ex-post	0.01877**	0.02983***
Rebound effect	-0.00988	-0.00476
Free rider	0.01645*	0.01567*
Pre-1990	-0.02773*	-0.01608
1990-1999	-0.01132	-0.00707
2000-2009	-0.00299	-0.00069
2020-2029	-0.01613	-0.02659***
Post-2030	-0.06395***	-0.05031***
No journal	0.03171***	0.03182***
Journal Q1	-0.01250	0.01204
Average (Residential)	-0.01445	-
Average (Commercial)	-0.04849***	-
Average (Aggregate data)	0.00418	-
Average (Cross section)	-0.03114	-
Average (2020-2030)	-0.03036	-
Average (Post-2030)	0.01838	-
Average (Developing country)	-	0.04179
Joint significance	Wald $\chi^2(30)=307.0$ (p-value=0.0000)	Wald $\chi^2(30)=333.4$ (p-value=0.0000)
R ²	0.19	0.21

Note: *** 1% significance; ** 5% significance; *10% significance

Table A4. Pesaran test for weak cross-sectional dependence

	Energy		Durables price	
	Panel 1	Panel 2	Panel 1	Panel 2
CD	154.633	241.923	11.874	9.603
p-value	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000

Note: Ho errors are weakly cross-sectional dependent

Table A5. Estimated parameters robust to cross-sectional dependence

Regressor	Panel 1		Panel 2	
	Energy demand	Price of durables	Energy demand	Price of durables
$\hat{\beta}$	-0.10457***	0.09746***	-0.10273***	0.09642***
Standard	-	-	-0.00235	0.03180
Information instrument	-	-	0.00450	-
Instrument combination	-	-	-0.02617***	-
Residential	-0.01226	-0.03442**	-0.01679**	-0.02990**
Industrial	0.01585*	-	0.01731*	-
Commercial / Public	-0.03385***	-	-0.03917***	-
Electricity	0.00278	0.02005	-	-
Gas	-0.00098	-	-	-
Liquid fuels	0.00745	0.01074	-	-
Developing country	-0.03645***	-	-0.03803***	-
Net Energy Exporting Country	-0.01156	-0.00357	-0.01224	-0.01219
Local	0.00451	0.03058	0.01042	0.02535
Supranational	-0.06179**	-0.00803	-0.05463***	-0.01829
Aggregate data	0.01525*	-	0.02225***	-
Cross section	0.01148	-0.02252	0.01427**	-0.02246
Time series	-0.00312	-	-0.00379	-
Experiment	-0.00374	-	-0.00439	-

Ex-post	0.02701***	-	0.02946***	-
Rebound effect	-0.00717	-	-0.00488	-
Free rider	0.02002***	-	0.01556**	-
Pre-1990	-0.02652*	-0.09753**	-0.01662	-0.11070**
1990-1999	-0.01006	-	-0.00733	-
2000-2009	-0.00125	0.00685	-0.00103	0.01837
2020-2029	-0.03319***	-	-0.02726***	-
Post-2030	-0.05047***	-	-0.05035***	-
No journal	0.03185***	-0.01432	0.03138***	-0.00378
Journal Q1	0.01400	0.02217	0.01180	0.02662
Joint significance	Wald $\chi^2(36)$ =2930.2 (p-value=0.0000)		Wald $\chi^2(35)$ =2693.8 (p-value=0.0000)	
R ²	0.33		0.34	

Notes: *** 1% significance; ** 5% significance; *10% significance. To avoid efficiency loss, energy demand and the price of durable goods were jointly estimated for each methodology while the regressors interacted with dummies for the type of study (energy demand/price of durable goods).

Table A6. Egger's test for small-study effects

	Energy demand		Price of durables	
	Journals	All the sample	Journals	All the sample
Bias	-3.3987***	-4.4757	4.2290***	3.6395***

Note: ***1% significance

Table A7. Impact on the price of durables. Estimated parameters robust to publication bias

Regressor	GLS	Panel 1	Panel 2
	Price of durables	Price of durables	Durables price
$\hat{\beta}$	0.07021***	0.09618***	0.09567***
Standard	0.03079	-	0.03338
Residential	-0.01785	-0.03316	-0.02921
Electricity	0.00992	0.01529	-
Liquid fuels	0.02833	0.01089	-
Net energy exporting country	0.00180	-0.00482	-0.01360
Local	0.01957	0.03016	0.02551
Supranational	-0.00822	-0.01088	-0.02055
Cross section	-0.01913	-0.02189	-0.02216
Pre-1990	-	-0.09181	-0.11102
2000-2009	0.00965	0.00401	0.00225
No journal	-0.03300	-0.01338	-0.00398
Journal Q1	0.00629	0.02036	0.02393
Standard error	0.56601***	0.11936	0.15505
Joint significance	F(40,1320) =28.5 (p-value=0.0000)	Wald $\chi^2(37)$ =715.6 (p-value=0.0000)	Wald $\chi^2(36)$ =722.6 (p-value=0.0000)
R ²	0.46	0.33	0.34

Notes: *** 1% significance; ** 5% significance; *10% significance. To avoid efficiency loss, energy demand and the price of durable goods were jointly estimated for each methodology while the regressors interacted with dummies for the type of study (energy demand/price of durable goods).

Table A8. Impact on energy demand (articles published in journals). Estimated parameters

Regressor	MCG	Panel 1	Panel 2
$\hat{\beta}$	-0.09936***	-0.11470***	-0.09875***
Standard	0.00575	-	-0.00779
Information instrument	-0.01204	-	0.00413
Instrument combination	-0.02221	-	-0.03015**
Residential	-0.00966	0.00930	-0.00741
Industrial	-0.00353	0.04618**	0.04457**
Commercial/Public	-0.04091**	-0.03895**	-0.04490***
Electricity	0.01902*	0.01646	-
Gas	0.00026	0.00572	-
Liquid fuels	0.00278	0.01158	-
Developing country	-0.04572***	-0.03912***	-0.03593***
Net energy exporting country	0.02224**	0.03082**	0.03309**
Local	-0.01161	-0.01766	-0.01599
Supranational	-0.09312***	-0.13090***	-0.11998***
Aggregate data	0.02221*	0.03786***	0.04378***
Cross section	-0.00272	-0.02291**	-0.02069*
Time series	-0.11723	-0.04926***	-0.04277***
Experiment	-0.01693	-0.01149	-0.00741
Ex-post	0.04267***	0.03754***	0.03472**
Rebound effect	-0.01405	-0.02168**	-0.01956*
Free rider	0.01640	0.02118*	0.02006
Pre-1990	-0.04413***	-0.04297**	-0.02750
1990-1999	-0.00279	-0.00555	0.00166
2000-2009	-0.00318	-0.00041	0.00253
2020-2029	-0.02900*	0.01115	0.01168
Post-2030	-0.05552***	-0.05934***	-0.06070***
Journal Q1	0.01572*	0.02341**	0.01626*
Joint significance	F(26, 517) = 6.4 (p-value=0.0000)	Wald χ^2 (23)=225.2 (p-value=0.0000)	Wald χ^2 (23)=224.8 (p-value=0.0000)
R ²	0.24	0.29	0.30

Note: *** 1% significance; ** 5% significance; *10% significance

ANNEX B. Literature used in the meta-analysis

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