



Munich Personal RePEc Archive

Trajectories in Knowledge Economy: Empirics from SSA and MENA countries

Asongu, Simplicé and Andrés, Antonio R.

December 2015

Online at <https://mpra.ub.uni-muenchen.de/71786/>
MPRA Paper No. 71786, posted 06 Jun 2016 06:43 UTC

A G D I Working Paper

WP/15/060

Trajectories in Knowledge Economy: Empirics from SSA and MENA countries

Simplice A. Asongu

African Governance and Development Institute,

P.O. Box 8413, Yaoundé, Cameroon.

E-mail: asongusimplice@yahoo.com

Antonio R. Andrés

Universidad del Norte

Escuela de Negocios

Departamento de Finanzas y Organizacion

Km 5 via a Puerto Colombia, Barranquilla, Colombia

E-mail: antoniorodriguez@uninorte.edu.co

AGDI Working Paper

Research Department

Trajectories in Knowledge Economy: Empirics from SSA and MENA countries**Simplice A. Asongu & Antonio R. Andrés**

December 2015

Abstract

In the first critical assessment of knowledge economy dynamic paths in Africa and the Middle East, but for a few exceptions, we find overwhelming support for diminishing cross-country disparities in knowledge-base-economy dimensions. The paper employs all the four components of the World Bank's Knowledge Economy Index (KEI): economic incentives, innovation, education, and information infrastructure. The main finding suggests that sub-Saharan African (SSA) and the Middle East and North African (MENA) countries with low levels in KE dynamics and catching-up their counterparts of higher KE levels. We provide the speeds of integration and time necessary to achieve full (100%) integration. Policy implications are discussed.

JEL Classification: F42; O10; O38; O57; P00

Keywords: Knowledge economy; Principal component analysis; Panel data; Convergence

1. Introduction

With the recent trend of globalization, it has become abundantly vivid that for any continent, region or country to be actively involved in the global economy, it must adopt competition as a benchmark to progress. Competition derives for knowledge economy (KE). The relevance of KE has emerged as a key theme in the late 1990s in the Organization for

Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) and World Bank reports (World Bank, 2007; Peter, 2008; Weber, 2011; Tchamyou, 2015; Andrés et al., 2015; Amavilah et al., 2014; Asongu, 2014ab). Knowledge created through innovation and technical progress as a long-run driver of economic growth has now been well established. The governments of the Newly Industrialized Economies (Korea, Taiwan, Hong Kong & Singapore), China and Malaysia are playing quite a substantial role in shifting toward knowledge-based economies, from the product economies of the post-industrialization period (Chandra & Yokoyama, 2011). The main idea is that the process of creation and diffusion of knowledge depends on convergence in certain criteria¹ which would lead to more common policies across members of the convergence club².

Consistent with recent literature (Tchamyou, 2015; Asongu, 2014c; Nyarko, 2013), there has been a recent wave of studies on the need to accelerate the move towards KE in Africa. The growing literature has consisted of *inter alia*: general surveys on KE (Anyanwu, 2012; Lin, 2006; Rooney, 2005); education (Amavilah, 2009; Chavula, 2010; Ford, 2007; Wantchekon et al., 2014; Weber, 2011); innovation (Carisle et al., 2013; Oyelaran-Oyeyinka & Gehl Sampath, 2007); economic incentives and institutional regime (Andrés & Asongu, 2013a; Andrés et al., 2015; Cogburn, 2003; Nguena & Tsafack, 2014; Saxegaard, 2006; Letiche, 2006); information and communication technologies (Asongu, 2013a; Butcher, 2011; Chavula, 2010; African Partnership Forum, 2008); indigenous knowledge systems (Lwoga et al., 2010; Raseroka, 2008); intellectual capital and economic development (Preece, 2013; Wagiciengo & Belal, 2012); intellectual property rights (Andrés et al., 2014; Andrés & Asongu, 2013ab; Asongu, 2013b; Lor & Britz, 2005; Myburgh, 2011; Zerbe, 2005); the economy of knowledge in space transformation (Maswera et al., 2008; Moodley, 2003); spatiality in the production of knowledge (Bidwell et al., 2011; Neimark, 2012) and research and development (African Development Bank, 2007; German & Stroud, 2007; Sumberg, 2005).

The narratives highlighted above emphasise the need of bridging gaps in KE among countries (Aubert, 2005; AfDB, 2007; Chavula, 2010; Bizri, 2009; Makinda, 2007; Britz et al., 2006; Lightfoot, 2011). As far as we have reviewed, there is apparently no study that has tackled the concern of how Sub-Saharan African (SSA) and Middle East and North African

¹E.g, convergence in education, information and communication technology (ICT), innovation, and economic incentives.

² The European Union's Lisbon strategy is an eloquent example.

(MENA) countries are bridging gaps in KE. This paper seeks to fill this gap and provides policy measures needed to enhance KE catch-up among countries.

In the light of the above, while some scholarly attention has focused on developed countries and the emerging economies of Latin America and East Asia, less attention has been devoted to SSA and MENA countries. A study on the current climate and future prospects in education, innovation and technology concludes that insofar as the main cultural underpinnings of KEs are concerned (innovation, education and technology), the Arab countries may be on arid grounds but not in a total desert. It further recommends more scholarly research on KE in the sub-region (Bizri, 2009). The pressing need for KE policy reform in SSA³ and MENA⁴ countries depends much on trajectories in the convergence process of various KE dynamics. The intuition behind this assertion is that blanket policies are more likely to succeed across countries depending on the degree of convergence and time required for full (100%) convergence in KE dynamics⁵.

Given the growing role of KE in the development process, policy makers are more likely today to ask the following questions. Are KE dynamics converging within SSA and MENA countries? If so, then what are the rates and timing of the convergence processes? Answers to these questions could provide relevant policy orientation to the timing, enforcement and standardization KE-oriented policies. An additional motivation for this work also draws from the ‘East Asian Miracle’⁶. Assessing if SSA and MENA countries with low levels in KE dynamics and catching-up their counterparts of higher KE levels could be crucial

³Africa remains the world’s poorest inhabited continent in spite of its abundance in minerals and human resources. Presently, the continent is lagging behind in the Knowledge Economy Index (KEI): a benchmark used to measure the knowledge infusion in an economy. The global knowledge revolution represents an opportunity for Africa which has missed the industrial era. Owing the South Korean example, Africa needs the four pillars of KE more than ever for its development: a sound economic incentive and institutional regime; an educated and creative population; an efficient innovation system and a dynamic information infrastructure. Also, see the discussion from Makinda (2007) and Chavula (2010) on the scope and positioning of the paper below.

⁴ This need for policy reform draws from the Lightfoot (2011) conclusion that emphasizes the need for deeper reforms as the way forward to fulfilling the policy aspirations rather than speculating over progress through technology enriched futures. When applying the framework of knowledge economy (KE) to developing nations in the Middle East and North African (MENA) region, a report (UNDP Arab Report, 2009) uncovered that they were not investing in key areas which are fundamental to KEs. *“To date, related investments in education, information infrastructure, research and development (R&D), and innovation have been insufficient or inappropriate in most MENA countries. Moreover, inadequate economic and institutional frameworks prevent these investments from yielding desired results”* (Aubert & Reiffers, 2003, p.1).

⁵ Within the framework of this study, convergence will imply the feasibility of common business and macroeconomic policies while, full (100%) convergence will mean, the enforcements common business and macroeconomic policies without distinction of nationality and locality.

⁶ Additional support for the imperative of investigating convergence in KE dynamics is the possibility that, the level of industrial development could be traced to the common ability of East Asian countries to replicate existing technology. Some evidence suggest that the ‘East Asian Miracle’ could have originated from these nations’ capacity to absorb, replicate and duplicate foreign innovations which might have contributed to their relatively high growth rates.

in the formulation of appropriate policy recommendations. In contrast to mainstream research approach which is based for the most part on one or two dimensions of KE, this paper employs all the four components of the World Bank's Knowledge Economy Index (KEI): economic incentives, innovation, education and information infrastructure.

The rest of this paper is organized as follows. Section 2 examines the intuition and theoretical underpinnings motivating the study as well as the relevant literature. The data and methodology are discussed in Section 3. The empirical analysis is covered in Section 4 while Section 5 concludes.

2. Intuition, literature and scope

2.1 Theoretical issues and Intuition

2.1.1 Theoretical issues

Theories of growth have been classified as either neoclassical or endogenous. With respect to the neoclassical model (Solow, 1956; Swan, 1956), the convergence process is premised on the existence of decreasing returns in capital accumulation. Therefore, increases in capital lead to less than proportional increases in product. This condition elucidates the existence of a steady-state level for the main magnitudes, such as product per unit of employment, to which the economy will depend after any transitory shock. Hence, poor economies will grow at higher rates than rich ones, guaranteeing convergence across all of them.

Conversely, endogenous growth models incorporate mechanisms that determine the non-appearance of convergence. At the onset, the fact is not imposing decreasing returns of capital (Romer, 1990) and mechanisms in which technological growth is a non-decreasing function of some factors, lead to models of non-steady state or long-run equilibrium. It follows that increases in output can be sustained in the long-term through knowledge-related investments that are not subject to diminishing returns at the aggregate level. Such investments is the source of beneficial external effects which offset the limiting consequences of increasing capital per worker within a given form. Therefore, whereas investments by individual firms remain subject to diminishing returns, there is no decline in the overall marginal product of capital.

New growth theories have shown that new knowledge is an especially valuable factors of production, on account of the unique non-rival characteristics of information. In particular its ability to be transferred between users without losing usefulness. Investment in equipment (encompassing new technological developments) and education, invention and related

knowledge enhancing activities are viewed to be key to overcoming the impact of the diminishing returns that come into play as workers are equipped with more capital. Technological progress makes it possible to extract greater value from scarce resources and sustain the economy's growth over the long-run (Romer, 1990).

Lastly, the new theories maintain that characteristics that make knowledge a highly valuable and productive commodity also render it difficult to establish an efficient knowledge market. In other words, a market that provides incentives for both the production of knowledge and its distribution to all those who can benefit from it (Lamberton, 1996).

2.1.2 Motivation

The motivation of this study typically follows the evidence of income-convergence across countries that has been investigated in the context of neoclassical growth models, originally developed by the seminal studies of Baumol (1986), Barro & Sala-i-Martin (1992, 1995) and Mankiw et al. (1992). The theoretical underpinnings of income convergence (as highlighted in the previous section) are abundant in the empirical growth literature (Solow, 1956; Swan, 1956) and have recently been applied in other fields of development. Whereas there is a theory and vast empirical studies on per capita income convergence, there is yet not a theory on convergence in other development branches. However, there is growing importance of empirical convergence applications to other fields, e.g. applications to financial systems (Bruno et al., 2012; Narayan et al., 2011; Asongu, 2013a) and KE (Karagiannis, 2007; Asongu, 2015ab). In the light of these recent developments, we are aware of the risks of 'doing measurement without theory'. Like Constantini & Lupi (2005), we argue that reporting facts even in the absence of a formal theoretical model is a useful scientific activity.

The intuition underlying convergence in KE is that it is the basis for competitive and dynamic economies. To understand why convergence in the knowledge-based economy (KBE) model is so crucial for developing countries, it is important to underline the European Union's strategic agenda. According to Karagiannis (2007), the effect that KBE-policies may have on economic growth was the ultimate objective of the EU's Lisbon Strategy (LS). Prior to the LS, the importance of convergence in knowledge as an economic driver had been well documented (DTI, 1998; Stiglitz, 1999)⁷. In the current study, convergence will imply the

⁷ According to the British Department of Trade and Industry (DTI, 1998), "... it is an economy in which the generation and exploitation of knowledge have come to play the predominant part in the creation of wealth. It's not simply about pushing back the frontiers of knowledge; it is also about the more effective use and exploitation of all types of knowledge in all manner of economic activity...". Hence, considering the economic consequences of the knowledge society, understanding the 'tacit' nature of knowledge is quite often the basis of competitive

feasibility of common business and macroeconomic policies while, full (100%) convergence will mean, the enforcements common business and macroeconomic policies without distinction of nationality and locality. Since it is unlikely to find convergence within a very heterogeneous set of countries, the sample is sub-divided into two homogenous panels based on regional segmentation.

2.2 Scope and positioning of the paper

The focus of KE economy literature has been on developed countries and the emerging economies of Latin America and East Asia, particularly on the importance of good governance on KE development (Dahlan, 2007; Chandra & Yokoyama, 2011) and the incidence of KE in economic development (Karagiannis, 2007). On the one hand, a clear relationship between formal institutional quality and knowledge-based economic infrastructure has been established (Andrés et al., 2015). On the other hand, positive linkages between KE and economic growth have confirmed (Chavula, 2010). As far as we know, but for a thin exception (Chavula, 2010), the few SSA and MENA related-papers have been limited to a few dimensions of KE (Aubert, 2005; Britz et al., 2006; Makinda, 2007; African Development Bank, AfDB, 2007). In order to clearly position this paper in the light of existing literature we shall discuss the scope in two strands: policy issues on KE and the KE-growth nexus.

In the first strand, whereas the need for policy reforms on KE determinants in MENA countries has already been highlighted in the introduction⁸, Makinda (2007) provides one of the most detailed accounts of reforms required in SSA. With respect to Makinda, in order to rectify this gap between SSA and the Western World, African policy makers need to: (i) define the type of knowledge their countries require; (ii) establish conditions for nurturing strategic leaders who will in turn, seek the right forms of knowledge to tackle Africa's problems; (iii) build political and legal frameworks that encourage the absorption and application of scientific innovation and (iv) revamp universities, establish regional research centers and take capacity building more effectively. Chavula (2010) has also established that African countries need to direct policy efforts towards restructuring economic incentives that encourage the acquisition, adaptation and utilization of knowledge into productive use. Earlier, Britz et al. (2006) had assessed the question of whether Africa is moving towards a

advantage. More so, in order to improve current practices, it is not only important to extend the frontiers of knowledge, but also to diffuse and exploit the existing ones (Stiglitz, 1999).

⁸ See Arab Report (2009) and Bizri (2009).

knowledge society and found that Africa still has a far way to go down the road and the journey could be quickened with certain preconditions, *inter alia*: investment in human capital, stopping of brain drain, as well as effective development and maintenance of a physical infrastructure.

In the second strand, the AfDB (2007) has investigated the impact of public expenditure on the education dimension of KE and found the following. First, in the short-term, there is a positive relationship between ‘public expenditure on education’ and economic growth on the one hand, and on the other hand, between knowledge generation and human capital development. These relationships ultimately, have a potential to positively affect aggregate labor productivity. Second, in the long-term however, public expenditure is negatively related to economic growth due to the often lack of capacity to retrain human capital and subsequent ‘brain drain’. Chavula (2010) has also recently used panel data from 1990 to 2007 to examine the role of KE in economic growth. Findings support the positive bearing of mobile subscribers, telephone lines, tertiary enrolment and FDI inflows in per capita economic prosperity. In MENA countries, the United Arab Emirates thanks to Dubai (an internet and media city with world class standard created from scratch), demonstrates the best performance (Aubert & Reiffers, 2003). Of the MENA countries which have shown significant improvements, it is worthwhile articulating that Jordan and Tunisia have heavily invested in education and developed their ICT and/or electronic sectors. In SSA, South Africa distinguishes itself quite vividly. Among low-income countries in the sub-region, some significant progress is noticeable in Uganda, Senegal, Rwanda, and Mauritania (Aubert, 2005).

Europe and North America have fully understood the dynamics of KE and are inexorably driving developments in the global and international arenas. Other regions like South America and Asia are responding in calculated steps that underscore the role of KE in the current pursuit of national, regional and international initiatives. Consequently, the developed world and the emerging economies of Latin America and East Asia are already taking KE very seriously. Also, in Africa and the Middle East, KE issues are beginning to take central stage in discussions on development. It is therefore the interest of this study to assess pressing policy questions already discussed in the introduction.

3. Data and Methodology

3.1 Data

In accordance with previous empirical literature (Chavula, 2010; Weber, 2011), our dependent variables are from the World Bank's World Development Indicators (World Bank, 2011). Therefore, the study employs the variables identified under the World Bank's four KEI components which include: the economic environment, innovation, education, and information infrastructure. We estimate a panel of 21 African and Middle East countries over the years 1996-2010. We concur with the literature (Narayan et al., 2011; Asongu, 2013a) in asserting that it is unlikely to find convergence within a very heterogeneous set of countries. Therefore, we divide the data into two subsamples: SSA and MENA countries.

We control for macroeconomic conditions (*economic prosperity*, *financial depth* and *inflation*), government policy (*government expenditure*) and the institutional environment (*rule of law*). We limit the analysis to only five control variables because of constraints in the Overidentifying Restrictions (OIR) test for instrument validity. We expect government expenditure to generally stimulate KE if resources allocated for investment purposes are not tainted with corrupt practices or poorly managed. From a broad perspective, *economic prosperity* should be a natural driver of KE. The effects of *financial depth*, *inflation* and *rule of law* depend on the dimension of KE. For instance, while *inflation* could be stimulated by the demand for credit to compensate for falling purchasing power, it could as well decrease bank deposits (part for financial depth) and the need for ICT services. While the *rule of law* is an incentive to innovation, it could also substantially inhibit knowledge spillovers and hence, negatively affect the education dimension of KE.

Details about descriptive statistics (with presentation of countries), correlation analysis (showing the relationships between key variables used in the paper), and variable definitions are provided in the appendices. The summary statistics (Appendix 1) of the variables used in the dynamic panel regressions shows that there is quite some variation in the data utilized so that one should be confident that reasonable estimated linkages should emerge. The purpose of the correlation analysis (Appendix 2) is to avoid concerns resulting from overparameterization and multicollinearity. Based on a preliminary assessment of the correlation matrix, there do not appear to be any serious concerns in terms of the relationships to be estimated. Appendix 3 discloses definitions and corresponding sources of the variables.

3.2 Methodology

3.2.1 Principal Component Analysis (PCA)

Given that each dimension of KE could be correlated with its component variables individually, one might criticize the redundancy in the information provided for each dimension of the KEI. Hence, we use principal component analysis (PCA) for treatment of the variables. The PCA is a common statistical method that is used to reduce a larger set of correlated variables into a smaller set of uncorrelated variables called principal components that account for most of variation in the original data set. As shown in Table 1, the first principal component (PC) accounts for approximately 65% of the variation in all four KE dimensions. *Educatex* for example which denotes about 77% of information in the education dimension of KE is the first PC of primary school enrolment (PSE), secondary school enrolment (SSE) and tertiary school enrolment (TSE). In the choice of the PCs, the criteria applied to determine how many common factors to retain are taken from Kaiser (1974) and Jolliffe (2002). Hence, only PCs with a corresponding eigenvalue greater than one are retained. It is worth noting that the first PCs are almost equal across dimensions. These results show that one PC model is appropriate for KE dimensions in our sample.

Table 1: Principal Component Analysis

Knowledge Economy dimensions		Component Matrix(Loadings)			First P.C	Eigenvalue	Indexes
Education	School enrolment	PSE 0.535	SSE 0.620	TSE 0.574	0.771	2.313	Educatex
Information & Infrastructure	ICTs	Internet 0.653	Mobile 0.661	Telephone 0.371	0.705	2.115	ICTex
Economic Incentive	Trade & Tariffs	Trade -0.707	Tariffs 0.707		0.645	1.290	Tradex
	Credit & IR Spread	Private Credit -0.707	Interest rate spread 0.707		0.679	1.358	Creditex
Innovation	Scientific Journals FDI Inflows	Reducing the dimensions of these is impractical owing to low correlation and conceptual dissimilarity.					

PSE: Primary School Enrolment. SSE: Secondary School Enrolment. TSE: Tertiary School Enrolment. PC: Principal Component. ICTs: Information and Communication Technologies. IR: Interest Rate. FDI: Foreign Direct Investment.

3.2.2 Estimation technique

The choice of the β -convergence approach is due to constraints in the data set. The use of cointegration and unit roots estimation strategies are not convenient because of limited

degrees of freedom in homogenous panels or convergence clubs. More so, the alternative strand of convergence (σ -convergence) which is of the view that a group of economies converge when the cross-section variance of the variable under consideration declines, is also inappropriate because our data structure is panel. Our estimation procedure typically follows the evidence of income convergence across economies, which has been investigated in the context of pioneering works of neoclassical growth models (Baumol, 1986; Barro & Sala-i-Martin, 1992, 1995; Mankiw et al., 1992). The theoretical underpinnings of income convergence are well documented in the empirical growth literature (Swan, 1956; Solow, 1956).

The two equations below are the standard approaches in the literature for investigating conditional convergence if $W_{i,t}$ is taken as strictly exogenous (Fung, 2009).

$$\ln(Y_{i,t}) - \ln(Y_{i,t-\tau}) = \beta \ln(Y_{i,t-\tau}) + \delta W_{i,t-\tau} + \eta_i + \xi_t + \varepsilon_{i,t} \quad (1)$$

$$\ln(Y_{i,t}) = \sigma \ln(Y_{i,t-\tau}) + \delta W_{i,t-\tau} + \eta_i + \xi_t + \varepsilon_{i,t} \quad (2)$$

Where $\sigma = 1 + \beta$, $Y_{i,t}$ is the proxy for KE in country i at period t . $W_{i,t}$ is a vector of determinants of KE, η_i is a country-specific effect, ξ_t is a time-specific constant and $\varepsilon_{i,t}$ the classical error term. Consistent with the neo-classical growth model, a statistically significant negative coefficient on β in Eq. (1) suggests that countries relatively close to their steady state of KE growth will experience a slowdown in growth of KE, known as conditional convergence (Narayan et al., 2011). In the same vein, according to Fung (2009) and recent African convergence literature (Asongu, 2013a), if $0 < |\sigma| < 1$ in Eq. (2), then $Y_{i,t}$ is dynamically stable around the path with a trend in KE the same as that of $W_{i,t}$, and with a height relative to the level of $W_{i,t}$. The variables contained in $W_{i,t-\tau}$ and the individual effects η_i are measures of the long-term level the KE to which is converging to. Therefore, the country-specific effect η_i emphasizes other determinants of a country's steady state not captured by $W_{i,t-\tau}$.

Requirements for conditional convergence elucidated above are valid if and only if, $W_{i,t}$ exhibits strict exogeneity. Unfortunately, this is not the case in the real world because, while *institutional quality*, *economic prosperity*, *inflation*, *financial development* and

government expenditure (components of $W_{i,t}$) influence KE, the reverse effect is also true. Thus, we are faced here with the issue of endogeneity where control variables ($W_{i,t}$) are correlated with the error term ($\varepsilon_{i,t}$). Also, country- and time-specific effects could be correlated with other variables in the model, which is very likely with lagged dependent variables included in the equations. A way of dealing with the problem of the correlation between the individual specific-effect and the lagged endogenous variables consists of eliminating the individual effect by first differencing. Therefore Eq. (2) becomes:

$$\ln(Y_{i,t}) - \ln(Y_{i,t-\tau}) = \sigma(\ln Y_{i,t-\tau} - \ln Y_{i,t-2\tau}) + \delta(W_{i,t-\tau} - W_{i,t-2\tau}) + (\varepsilon_{i,t} - \varepsilon_{i,t-\tau}) \quad (3)$$

However Eq. (3) still presents another issue. Estimation by Ordinary Least Squares (OLS) is still biased because there remains a correlation between the lagged endogenous independent variable and the disturbance term. To address this concern, we estimate the regression in differences jointly with the regression in levels using the Generalized Method of Moments (GMM) estimation. Arellano and Bond (1991) have suggested an application of the Generalized Method of Moments (GMM) that exploits all the orthogonality conditions between the lagged dependent variables and the error term. The procedure uses lagged levels of the regressors as instruments in the difference equation, and lagged differences of the regressors as instruments in the levels equation, thus exploiting all the orthogonal conditions between the lagged dependent variables and the error term. Between the difference GMM estimator (Arellano & Bond, 1991) and system GMM estimator (Arellano & Bover, 1995; Blundell & Bond, 1998), the system GMM will be given priority, consistent with Bond et al. (2001, 3-4)⁹. This GMM estimation approach has been extensively applied in the convergence literature. In contrast to Narayan et al. (2011), we shall adopt Fung (2009) owing to software specificities¹⁰. In model specification, we opt for the *second-step* GMM because it corrects the residuals for heteroscedasticity¹¹. The assumption of no auto-correlation in the residuals is crucial as lagged variables are to be used as instruments for the dependent variables. Moreover, the estimation depends on the assumption that the lagged values of the dependent

⁹ “We also demonstrate that more plausible results can be achieved using a system GMM estimator suggested by Arellano & Bover (1995) and Blundell & Bond (1998). The system estimator exploits an assumption about the initial conditions to obtain moment conditions that remain informative even for persistent series, and it has been shown to perform well in simulations. The necessary restrictions on the initial conditions are potentially consistent with standard growth frameworks, and appear to be both valid and highly informative in our empirical application. Hence we recommend this system GMM estimator for consideration in subsequent empirical growth research”. Bond et al. (2001, pp. 3-4).

¹⁰ Whereas, Narayan et al. (2011) have used Eq. (1) in the controlling for fixed effects, this paper applies Eq. (3) instead; in line with (Fung, 2009). The Fung (2009) has been used in recent African convergence literature (Asongu, 2013a). The system GMM has been applied in recent KE convergence literature (Karagiannis, 2007).

¹¹ In the *first-step*, the residuals are assumed to be homoscedastic.

variable and other independent variables are valid instruments in the regression. When the error terms of the level equation are not auto-correlated, the first-order auto-correlation of the differenced residuals should be significant whereas their second-order auto-correlation should not be. The validity of the instruments is examined with the Sargan over-identifying restrictions test (henceforth, OIR). Instruments are highly correlated with the potential endogenous variable. We need to look at the first stage regression equation and see whether our instruments are able to capture high variation in our endogenous variables. We should mention Staiger and Stock and the issue of weak instruments by employing a Fisher test.

In line with Islam (1995, 14), yearly time spans are too short to be appropriate for studying convergence, as short-run disturbances may loom substantially in such brief time spans. Therefore, considering the data span of 15 years, we use two-year non-overlapping intervals¹². This implies in our analysis, τ is set to 2. Hence, we compute the implied rate of convergence by calculating ' $\sigma/2$ '. We divide the estimated coefficient (σ) of the lagged differenced endogenous variable by 2 because we have used a two year interval to absorb the short-term disturbances. When the absolute value of the estimated autoregressive coefficient is greater than zero but less than one ($0 < |\sigma| < 1$), we conclude the existence of convergence. The broader interpretation suggests that past differences have less proportionate impact on future differences, denoting the variation on the left hand side of Eq. (3) is decreasing overtime as the economy is converging to a steady state (Asongu, 2013a).

4. Empirical analysis

4.1 Presentation of results

Before we dive into the presentation of results, it is important at the outset to understand the economic intuition motivating absolute and conditional convergence in KE.

Absolute convergence in KE occurs when countries share similar fundamental characteristics with regard to their KE dynamics such that only variations across countries in initial levels of KE development exist. Absolute convergence therefore results from factors such as the formulation of monetary unions and adoption of a unique currency, among others (Asongu, 2013a). The quest for absolute convergence is usually in line with an overall global strategy in a monetary union. For example the Lisbon Strategy that was launched in 2000 by

¹² We have 8 two-year non-overlapping intervals: 1996; 1997-1998; 1999-2000; 2001-2002; 2003-2004; 2005-2006; 2007-2008; 2009-2010.

the European government leaders¹³. This strategy is implemented through a combination of policies aiming at boosting the information society, improving research and development, accelerating structural reforms for competitiveness and enhancing innovation, while modernizing the European social model. Simultaneously to the above, a growth-friendly macroeconomic policy mix is applied¹⁴.

In the same vein, absolute convergence should occur in SSA and MENA countries because of adjustments common to these countries. For instance since the 1980s, many countries have undertaken structural reform initiatives engineered by the International Monetary Fund (IMF) and the World Bank (WB). These reforms have included improving education, development of ICT, innovation and economic incentives. The degree of internet penetration, extensive use of mobile phones, increasing literacy rate...etc witnessed in SSA and MENA countries over the past decade are factors that could facilitate absolute convergence in KE.

On the other hand, conditional convergence is that which depends on structural and institutional characteristics. Consistent with the economic growth literature (Barro, 1991), conditional convergence depicts the kind of convergence whereby one's own long-term steady state (equilibrium) depends on structural characteristics and fundamentals of its economy or market (Nayaran et al., 2011). Therefore, findings are conditional on the macro economic variables we empirically test (model). Owing to constraints in data availability and degrees of freedom required for the OIR test, we could not condition the analysis beyond five macroeconomic variables. This is consistent with the convergence literature in which only two variables have been used (E.g. see Bruno et al., 2012). For a monetary union, identical structural characteristics could be reflected in real, fiscal and monetary policy convergence. This could ultimately lead to KE convergence if simultaneously, growth-friendly macroeconomic policies-mix are applied by all member states in view of a long-term KE strategic interest.

4.1.1 Summary of results

This section examines three principal concerns: (i) assessment of the presence of convergence; (ii) computation of the speed of convergence and (iii) determination of the time

¹³ The launch of the Lisbon Strategy in 2000 by European governments signaled the initiation of an agenda aiming at introducing employment and productivity-enhancing reforms in order for Europe to become the most competitive and dynamic knowledge-based economy in the world capable of sustainable economic growth with more jobs, better employment facilities and greater social cohesion (Karagiannis, 2007).

¹⁴ The implementation period of the mixture of ambitious objectives and policies is from 2000 to 2010.

needed for full (100%) convergence. The summary of overall results is presented in Table 2 in which the three issues are addressed. Results for absolute (unconditional) and conditional convergence are presented in Table 3 and Tables 4-5 respectively.

Absolute convergence is estimated with just the lagged difference of the endogenous indicator as independent variable whereas conditional convergence is with respect to Eqs. (2) and (3), controlling for macroeconomic conditions, government expenditure and institutional quality. Thus, unconditional convergence is estimated in the absence of $W_{i,t}$: vector of determinants of KE (*rule of law, GDP growth, financial depth, inflation and government expenditure*). In order to assess the quality of estimated models we have employed two types of specification tests, notably: the Sargan test to check for the validity of our instruments, and the AR(2) test of error autocorrelation. The latter test does not show any evidence of error specification in almost all estimated models at the 1% significance level. The Sargan tests also confirm the validity of models.

Table 2: Summary of results on convergence

	Panel A: Education and Information and Communication Technology							
	Education (Educatex)				Information & Communication Tech (ICTex)			
	AC	CC	SAC	SCC	AC	CC	SAC	SCC
Middle East & North Africa (MENA)	Yes	Yes	39.80% (5.02 Yrs)	33.85% (5.90 Yrs)	Yes	Yes	43.40% (4.60 Yrs)	42.65% (4.68 Yrs)
Sub-Saharan Africa (SSA)	Yes	Yes	39.85% (5.01 Yrs)	37.15% (5.38 Yrs)	Yes	Yes	37.85% (5.28 Yrs)	26.20% (7.63 Yrs)
MENA & SSA (Full Data)	Yes	Yes	39.45% (5.06 Yrs)	37.55% (5.32 Yrs)	Yes	Yes	41.20% (4.85 Yrs)	41.50% (4.81 Yrs)
	Panel B: Economic Incentive							
	Trade (Tradex)				Credit (Creditex)			
	AC	CC	SAC	SCC	AC	CC	SAC	SCC
Middle East & North Africa (MENA)	Yes	No	36.65% (5.45 Yrs)	n.a	No	No	n.a	n.a
Sub-Saharan Africa (SSA)	Yes	No	44.40% (4.50 Yrs)	n.a	Yes	No	36.20% (5.52 Yrs)	n.a
MENA & SSA (Full Data)	Yes	Yes	38.72% (5.16 Yrs)	30.45% (6.56 Yrs)	Yes	Yes	46.57% (4.29 Yrs)	31.60 % (6.32 Yrs)
	Panel C: Innovation							
	Scientific & Technical Journals				Foreign Direct Investment Inflows			
	AC	CC	SAC	SCC	AC	CC	SAC	SCC
Middle East & North Africa (MENA)	No	Yes	n.a	49.20% (4.06 Yrs)	Yes	Yes	27.50% (7.27 Yrs)	10.80% (18.51 yrs)
Sub-Saharan Africa (SSA)	Yes	Yes	49.20% (4.06 Yrs)	49.85% (4.01 Yrs)	Yes	No	23.40% (8.54 Yrs)	n.a
MENA & SSA (Full Data)	No	Yes	n.a	43.86% (4.55 Yrs)	Yes	No	26.80% (7.46 Yrs)	n.a

Yrs: Years. Educatex is the first principal component of primary, secondary and tertiary school enrolments. ICTex: first principal component of mobile, telephone and internet subscriptions. Creditex: first principal component of Private credit and Interest rate spreads. Tradex: first principal component of Trade and Tariffs. n.a: not applicable due to absence of convergence.

A summary of the results from Tables 3-5 is presented in Table 2. This includes findings for Absolute Convergence (AC), Conditional Convergence (CC), the Speed of

Absolute Convergence (SAC), the Speed of Conditional Convergence (SCC) and the rate required to achieve full (100%) convergence.

From a general perspective, the following conclusions could be drawn. (i) But for a few exceptions, there is overwhelming convergence in most KE dynamics. (ii) For the most part, the convergence rate within SSA is very substantially different from that within MENA. (iii) Both the lowest and highest rates of convergence are apparent for CC in innovation with corresponding rates of 10.80% per annum (MENA) and 49.85% per annum (SSA) respectively. (iv) The hypothesis of convergence is highly significant for *education* and *ICT* (where all hypotheses are valid), followed by *innovation* (where four hypotheses are invalid) and lastly by *economic incentive* (where five hypotheses are invalid).

4.1.2 Absolute convergence (AC)

Table 3 below shows results of AC. *Education* and *ICT* findings are presented in Panel A while, Panel B and Panel C respectively reveal results for *economic incentive* and *innovation*. Though all initial lagged endogenous variables are significant, estimated coefficients with a value greater than one do not meet the convergence criterion. From Panel A, it could be observed that almost all the estimated coefficients are quasi-equal across specifications and KE dimensions. But for MENA in the *Creditex* regressions, results of Panel B denote convergence rates that vary from 36.65% per annum to 46.57% per annum (p.a). MENA and ‘Full data’ findings in the *Journals* dimension of KE in Panel C do not meet the convergence criterion.

Table 3: Absolute convergence

	Panel A: Education and Information and Communication Technology					
	Education (Educatex)			Information & Communication Tech (ICTex)		
	MENA	SSA	Full Data	MENA	SSA	Full Data
Initial	0.796*** (0.000)	0.797*** (0.000)	0.789*** (0.000)	0.868*** (0.000)	0.757*** (0.000)	0.824*** (0.000)
AR(2)	-1.182 (0.237)	-1.135 (0.256)	-1.314 (0.188)	-0.814 (0.415)	-0.145 (0.884)	-1.026 (0.304)
Sargan	6.971 (0.994)	4.043 (0.995)	11.734 (0.946)	13.911 (0.974)	6.267 (1.000)	20.995 (0.742)
Wald test	7.856*** (0.005)	407.06*** (0.000)	164.827*** (0.000)	988.40*** (0.000)	216.25*** (0.000)	903.90*** (0.000)
Countries	7	5	12	14	7	21
N	25	18	43	95	47	142

Panel B: Economic Incentive						
	Trade (Tradex)			Credit (Creditex)		
	MENA	SSA	Full Data	MENA	SSA	Full Data
Initial	0.733*** (0.000)	0.888*** (0.000)	0.774*** (0.000)	1.131*** (0.000)	0.724*** (0.000)	0.931*** (0.000)
AR(2)	0.989 (0.322)	-1.476 (0.139)	0.775 (0.438)	-1.303 (0.192)	-0.452 (0.651)	-1.098 (0.272)
Sargan	9.897 (0.955)	6.010 (0.999)	17.169 (0.841)	7.735 (0.999)	3.892 (1.000)	14.853 (0.960)
Wald test	11.362*** (0.000)	66.163*** (0.000)	45.921*** (0.000)	465.17*** (0.000)	11.680*** (0.000)	539.37*** (0.000)
Countries	12	7	19	9	6	15
N	40	26	66	44	41	85

Panel C: Innovation						
	Scientific & Technical Journals			Foreign Direct Investment Inflows		
	MENA	SSA	Full Data	MENA	SSA	Full Data
Initial	1.034*** (0.000)	0.984*** (0.000)	1.024*** (0.000)	0.536*** (0.000)	0.468*** (0.000)	0.550*** (0.000)
AR(2)	0.316 (0.751)	0.195 (0.844)	0.261 (0.793)	-1.110 (0.267)	1.712* (0.086)	-0.809 (0.418)
Sargan	13.041 (0.836)	6.909 (0.906)	20.584 (0.360)	13.651 (0.977)	5.699 (1.000)	20.978 (0.743)
Wald test	20407*** (0.000)	143.99*** (0.000)	12190*** (0.000)	8.808*** (0.003)	17.500*** (0.000)	8.754*** (0.003)
Countries	14	7	21	14	7	21
N	79	35	114	95	49	144

***, **, *: significance levels of 1%, 5% and 10% respectively. AR (2): Second Order Autocorrelation test. Sargan: Overidentifying Restrictions test. N: Number of observations. Initial: lagged endogenous estimated coefficient. SSA: Sub-Saharan Africa. MENA: Middle East and North Africa. Tech: Technology.

4.1.3 Conditional convergence (CC)

Tables 4-5 below report empirical findings for CC. While Table 4 displays the results for *Educatex*, *ICTex*, *Tradex* and *Creditex*, Table 5 reveals results for *innovation*. Not all control variables are used in certain equations due to constraints in degrees of freedom. However, to assess the validity of the results in models without all control variables, the conditioning information sets are used interchangeably. Results from the various specifications are not different from those finally reported in the tables.

Most of the control variables are significant with the right signs. (i) In Panel A of Table 4, government expenditure may either mitigate KE or not, depending on two factors. On the one hand on how funds allocated for education and communication infrastructure are managed. On the other hand, how the enforcements of property rights through the *rule of law* mechanism (especially in business software piracy) may substantially limit knowledge spillovers and the smooth development of the ICT sector. (ii) In Table 5, economic prosperity and low inflation could be strong incentives to FDI inflows.

Table 4: Conditional convergence for Education, ICT and Economic Incentive

Panel A: Education and Information and Communication Technology						
	Education (Educatex)			Information & Communication Tech (ICTex)		
	MENA	SSA	Full Data	MENA	SSA	Full Data
Initial	0.677*** (0.000)	0.743*** (0.000)	0.751*** (0.001)	0.853*** (0.000)	0.524** (0.022)	0.830*** (0.000)
Intercept	0.265*** (0.000)	-0.034 (0.743)	0.315 (0.486)	0.564 (0.256)	0.305 (0.343)	0.484*** (0.001)
Gov. Exp.	0.004 (0.272)	0.026** (0.019)	0.015 (0.185)	-0.004* (0.058)	0.002 (0.784)	-0.003 (0.155)
GDP growth	---	---	0.015 (0.165)	0.006 (0.541)	-0.040 (0.570)	0.010 (0.146)
M2	---	---	-0.456 (0.261)	0.031 (0.955)	---	0.079 (0.687)
Rule of Law	---	---	0.123 (0.389)	-0.248*** (0.000)	---	-0.227*** (0.000)
Inflation	---	---	-0.011 (0.575)	-0.003 (0.813)	---	-0.011** (0.028)
AR(2)	-1.291 (0.196)	-1.091 (0.275)	-1.155 (0.247)	-0.173 (0.862)	0.943 (0.345)	-0.717 (0.473)
Sargan	3.922 (0.999)	1.663 (1.000)	3.563 (1.000)	6.654 (1.000)	2.599 (1.000)	13.973 (0.973)
Wald test	111.85*** (0.000)	193.57*** (0.000)	1704.7*** (0.000)	1210.93*** (0.000)	12.205*** (0.006)	2753.3*** (0.000)
Countries	7	5	10	12	6	18
N	25	18	39	67	38	105

Panel B: Economic Incentive						
	Trade (Tradex)			Credit (Creditex)		
	MENA	SSA	Full Data	MENA	SSA	Full Data
Initial	1.423 (0.657)	1.081 (0.104)	0.609*** (0.001)	1.305*** (0.003)	1.092* (0.084)	0.632* (0.092)
Intercept	-10.978 (0.582)	0.061 (0.704)	0.391 (0.129)	0.043 (0.782)	-0.835 (0.319)	0.452 (0.397)
Gov. Exp.	0.010 (0.810)	0.005 (0.628)	-0.005 (0.170)	0.0005 (0.834)	-0.015 (0.334)	-0.004 (0.410)
GDP growth	-0.107 (0.731)	-0.047 (0.406)	-0.026 (0.367)	0.006 (0.721)	0.123 (0.227)	-0.019 (0.234)
M2	12.879 (0.571)	---	-0.399 (0.255)	---	---	-0.766 (0.372)
Rule of Law	2.354 (0.491)	---	-0.222 (0.207)	---	---	-0.140 (0.365)
Inflation	0.045 (0.872)	---	-0.018 (0.169)	---	---	0.019 (0.209)
AR(2) t	0.694 (0.487)	-1.200 (0.230)	0.870 (0.384)	-1.397 (0.162)	0.112 (0.910)	-1.230 (0.218)
Sargan	0.000 (1.000)	1.878 (1.000)	5.763 (0.998)	4.355 (1.000)	1.143 (1.000)	8.448 (0.999)
Wald	59.356*** (0.000)	10.195** (0.017)	480.33*** (0.000)	87.254*** (0.000)	10.083** (0.017)	1380.7*** (0.000)
Countries	7	5	12	9	5	14
N	27	18	45	43	33	76

***, **, *: significance levels of 1%, 5% and 10% respectively. AR (2) Auto: Second Order Autocorrelation test. Sargan: Overidentifying Restrictions test. N: Number of observations. Initial: lagged endogenous estimated coefficient. SSA: Sub-Saharan Africa. MENA: Middle East and North Africa. Tech: Technology. Gov. Exp: Government Expenditure. M2: Money Supply.

Table 5: Conditional convergence for Innovation

	Innovation					
	Scientific & Technical Journals			Foreign Direct Investment Inflows		
	MENA	SSA	Full Data	MENA	SSA	Full Data
Initial	0.877*** (0.000)	0.997*** (0.007)	0.984*** (0.000)	0.114 (0.628)	0.191 (0.824)	0.216* (0.078)
Intercept	0.396* (0.088)	0.003 (0.995)	0.066 (0.420)	-1.613 (0.830)	0.839 (0.825)	-2.230 (0.399)
Gov. Exp.	-0.005* (0.053)	0.001 (0.348)	-0.0003 (0.817)	-0.0004 (0.995)	0.061 (0.304)	0.031 (0.457)
GDP growth	-0.003 (0.388)	0.010 (0.548)	0.0005 (0.878)	0.138 (0.636)	0.176 (0.745)	0.309* (0.067)
M2	0.043 (0.578)	---	0.007 (0.908)	4.159 (0.655)	---	3.210 (0.267)
Rule of Law	0.057 (0.331)	---	-0.012 (0.534)	1.916 (0.547)	---	-0.275 (0.847)
Inflation	-0.0005 (0.877)	---	-0.001 (0.160)	0.343** (0.041)	---	0.177*** (0.004)
AR(2) test	0.150 (0.880)	-0.114 (0.908)	0.144 (0.885)	-1.107 (0.268)	0.643 (0.519)	-1.008 (0.313)
Sargan test	2.158 (1.000)	0.182 (1.000)	9.397 (0.966)	8.994 (0.999)	3.856 (1.000)	15.086 (0.955)
Wald test	2872.8*** (0.000)	13.359*** (0.003)	2599.8*** (0.000)	21.868*** (0.001)	29.867*** (0.000)	37.183*** (0.000)
Countries	12	6	18	12	6	18
N	55	30	85	67	40	107

***, **, *: significance levels of 1%, 5% and 10% respectively. AR (2): Second Order Autocorrelation test. Sargan: Overidentifying Restrictions test. N: Number of observations. Initial: lagged endogenous estimated coefficient. SSA: Sub-Saharan Africa. MENA: Middle and North Africa. Gov. Exp: Government Expenditure. M2: Money Supply.

4.2 Discussion of results, policy implications and caveats

4.2.1 Discussion of results

The progressive build-up of knowledge-based economies in SSA and MENA countries calls for more capacity building for research, technological development, innovation and economic incentives. Trajectories of and tendencies in *education* and *ICT* are encouraging.

Results of the *Education* and *ICT* dimensions of KE demonstrate that, countries with lower levels of education and ICT are catching-up with their counterparts of higher levels in the KE dimensions. This interpretation holds for all types of convergences and is valid across samples. It follows that: (i) the objectives of the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) are bearing fruits within Africa and the Middle East¹⁵ and (ii) cross-countries differences in internet penetration, telephone subscriptions and mobile phone usage are substantially decreasing.

The absence of conditional convergence in the trade and credit aspects of the economic incentive dimension of KE, point to, the: (i) need for more intra-trade among

¹⁵ For further details, see: 'Towards a convergence of knowledge acquisition and skills development', a UNESCO report of education reform (Iwamoto, 2005).

sampled countries (in SSA and MENA) and (ii) absence of credit facilities for economic operators. The low intra-trade in Africa and the Middle East is far from surprising as it has been substantially documented in the literature (Longo & Sekkat, 2004; Askari et al., 2003). The absence of convergence in Creditex could be the result of the perennial issue of surplus liquidity in African formal financial institutions (Saxegaard, 2006).

From the innovation dimension: while, the absence of AC in publication of ‘scientific and technical journals’ demonstrates the absence of an overall strategy or framework aimed at improving contribution of knowledge in the scientific domain, lack of conditional convergence in FDI inflows shows how cross-country differences in structural and institutional characteristics matter in the attraction foreign capital. Thus, disparities in macroeconomic policies/conditions and government quality among countries could lead to this deficiency in conditional convergence.

On a general note, domestic credit and foreign investment inflows have very heterogeneous initial conditions and are influenced by different fundamental, institutional and structural characteristics of development. It implies that countries should work towards adopting common institutional and structural characteristics that favor financial allocation efficiency. Such institutional characteristics include government-quality dynamics of rule of law, regulation quality, corruption-control, government effectiveness, political stability (no violence), democracy, voice and accountability, and press-freedom.

4.2.2 Policy implications: towards more integrated KE strategies

a) Regional integration

Our findings are highly relevant for policy makers in terms of regional integration. The absence of CC in trade in SSA and MENA countries points to the need for more intra-regional trade. This brings us to the question of whether policies implemented by African and Middle East countries to promote intra-regional trade have had any noticeable effects on the observed convergence patterns. Though from an AC sense, integration may be occurring, it is not yet noticeable when structural and institutional characteristics are integrated into the equation. It is thus tempting to conclude that geographical proximity is neither a necessary nor a sufficient condition for trade convergence, which could further suggest that efforts at promoting trade liberalization may not be so apparent.

b) Credit facilities

The absence of CC in economic incentives, especially in *Creditex*, implies that credit facilities are not converging contingent on structural and institutional characteristics. This is a call for more regional investment banks and investment funds which could be instrumental in addressing cross-country credit facility disparities. Also, given the substantially documented issues of surplus liquidity in African banks, innovation mechanisms should be developed that would facilitate the granting of credit to economic operators (Saxegaard, 2006; Asongu & Tchamyou, 2015).

c) Support for regional research and innovation

The absence of AC in ‘technical and scientific journals’ means that fundamental characteristics enabling countries with lower levels of publications to catch-up with their counterparts of higher levels are absent. Thus, there should be *encouragement and validation activities targeting local and regional initiatives to promote development of new innovating businesses and ‘transfer and exchange’ of best practices as well as the establishment of an environment more conducive to innovation*. The focus should be on:

- trans-regional cooperation to facilitate the development of research and innovation;
- strategies as well as initiation of programs involving local actors and corresponding activities should be developed in close coordination with inclusive regional policies;
- particular attention should be paid to the participation of sampled countries’ regions, notably in relation to the transfer of schemes that have proved successful at local and national levels.

The development of research and innovation strategies, as well as inter-regional technology transfer could greatly benefit sampled countries. This would include, *supporting the development of regional scientific infrastructure*. Hence, specific attention should be paid to the valorization or development of new scientific infrastructure in the regions, in collaboration and synergy with activities of the regional investment banks (funds). The example of the EU has shown that modern scientific infrastructure is a key enabler of regional economic development. For researchers within the regions to be able to cooperate under state-of-the-art conditions with their counterparts in advanced regions as well as with the rest of the world, much needs to be considered. For instance, scientific and technical parks for efficient clustering and cooperation between academia and industry (or high-speed electronic networks and related facilities for the information economy). A good example is the broadband electronic interconnection backbone that could link SSA and MENA electronic research and education networks.

Within the context of research training networks and knowledge transfer, fellowships could be *developed to target more and better scientific and technical human resources*. Therefore, more opportunities should be offered to researchers originating from less favored countries. This will ease the convergence process. Special attention should also be paid to a number of factors affecting socioeconomic conditions of researchers, notably gender equity, linguistic balance, and career structure. Ultimately, in view of further reinforcing the human potential for research in sampled regions, human resource and mobility actions should target, *inter alia*: (i) the best and most promising researchers from undeveloped countries, promote the training of regional researchers abroad and stimulate the return of scientists established outside Africa and the Middle East; (ii) improving communication between experts and policymakers through the establishment of joint working and communication platforms between them at regional levels and (iii) clear statistical indicators that are able to describe the characteristics, structure and performance of knowledge-based economy should be developed at national and regional levels.

4. 2. 3 Caveats

Three main caveats have been retained: negative spillovers due to trade convergence, the absence of a theoretical basis and, draw-backs in the methodology. Firstly, during trade convergence periods, policy makers should be aware that economies are subject to spillover effects and a real shock emerging from a certain country/industry might spread quickly to other countries/industries. Secondly, using econometrics to accomplish more than just testing theory does not come without risks. The intuitive basis of the study implies that results should be interpreted with caution as the model is conditioned on the variables we choose and empirically test, which may not directly reflect implemented policies that drive KE convergence. Thirdly, as we have already outlined in the first paragraph of Section 3.2.2, the choice of the convergence approach which is based on constraints in data structure also has its draw-backs. Consistent with Apergis et al. (2010), skeptics of β -convergence argue that if countries converge to a common equilibrium with identical internal structures, then the dispersion of the variable under study should disappear in the long-term as all countries converge to the same long-run path. If, however, countries converge to ‘convergence clubs’ or to their own unique equilibrium, the dispersion of this indicator will not near zero (Miller & Upadhyay, 2002). Moreover, in the latter case of country-specific equilibrium, the movements of the dispersion are contingent on the initial distribution of the variable under investigation with regard to their final long-run outcomes. Overall, as sustained by Caporale et al. (2009),

the approach may suffer from specific estimation deficiencies associated with the data structure. Indeed, data on KE dimensions is scarce and these issues can only be overcome with time.

5. Conclusion

In the first critical assessment of knowledge economy dynamic paths in Africa and the Middle East, but for a few exceptions, we find overwhelming support for diminishing cross-country disparities in knowledge-base-economy dimensions. The paper employs all the four components of the World Bank's Knowledge Economy Index (KEI): economic incentives, innovation, education, and information infrastructure. The main finding suggests that sub-Saharan African (SSA) and the Middle East and North African (MENA) countries with low levels in KE dynamics and catching-up their counterparts of higher KE levels. We provide the speeds of integration and time necessary to achieve full (100%) integration. Policy implications are discussed.

Future inquiries can improve the extant literature by engaging in comparative studies between SSA and MENA and other countries in the KE frontier.

Appendices

Appendix 1: Summary statistics and presentation of countries

		Panel A: Summary Statistics				
		Mean	S.D	Min	Max	Obs.
Knowledge Economy	Educatex (Education)	-0.038	1.370	-4.344	1.858	126
	ICTex (Information & Infrastructure)	0.028	1.440	-3.750	3.183	310
	Tradex (First Economic Incentive)	-0.058	1.143	-2.901	2.635	161
	Creditex (Second Economic Incentive)	0.118	1.224	-2.296	3.488	193
	Scientific and Technical Journals	2.142	0.676	0.518	3.821	284
	Foreign Direct Investment Inflows	3.119	3.908	-4.025	33.566	319
Control variables	Rule of Law	-0.063	0.727	-1.606	1.258	264
	Inflation	5.585	6.274	-9.797	43.073	296
	Government Expenditure	12.318	11.321	-34.88	80.449	295
	Economic Prosperity	4.689	3.450	-4.300	26.750	313
	Financial Depth	0.523	0.291	0.121	1.279	240

Panel B: Presentation of Countries

MENA: Algeria, Bahrain, Egypt, Jordan, Kuwait, Lebanon, Libya, Morocco, Oman, Qatar, Saudi Arabia, Tunisia, United Arab Emirates, Yemen.

SSA: Botswana, Cameroon, Kenya, Mauritius, Nigeria, Senegal, Zambia.

S.D: Standard Deviation. Min: Minimum. Max: Maximum. Obs: Observations. MENA: Middle East and North Africa. SSA: Sub-Saharan Africa.

Appendix 2: Correlation Matrix (N = 168)

Knowledge Economy						Control Variables					
Educatex	ICTex	Tradex	Creditex	Journals	FDI	RL	Inflation	Gov. Exp.	GDPg	Fin. Depth	
1.000	0.213	-0.310	-0.774	0.172	0.256	0.411	-0.384	0.553	0.142	0.576	Educatex
	1.000	-0.212	-0.289	0.390	0.134	-0.007	-0.204	0.109	0.061	0.227	ICTex
		1.000	0.382	0.325	-0.418	-0.551	0.002	-0.257	-0.294	-0.277	Tradex
			1.000	-0.324	-0.141	-0.600	0.433	-0.295	-0.139	-0.765	Creditex
				1.000	0.029	-0.013	-0.188	-0.088	-0.089	0.293	Journals
					1.000	0.125	0.063	0.136	0.191	0.215	FDI
						1.000	-0.299	0.167	0.157	0.570	RL
							1.000	-0.193	0.135	-0.311	Inflation
								1.000	0.033	0.175	Gov. Exp.
									1.000	0.005	GDPg
										1.000	Fin. Depth

Educatex: Education. ICTex: Information and Communication Technology. Tradex: Trade economic incentive. Creditex: Credit economic incentive. Journals: Scientific and Technical Journals. FDI: Foreign Direct Investment. RL: Rule of Law. Gov. Exp: Government Expenditure. GDPg: GDP growth. Fin. Depth: Financial Depth (M2).

Appendix 3: Variable definitions

Variables	Variable definitions		Data sources
Panel A: Dimensions in Knowledge Economy (KE)			
Primary School Enrolment	PSE	Log of PSE	World Bank (WDI)
Secondary School Enrolment	SSE	Log of SSE	World Bank (WDI)
Tertiary School Enrolment	TSE	Log of TSE	World Bank (WDI)
Education in KE	Educatex	First PC of PSE, SSE & TSE	PCA
Internet Users	Internet	Log of Internet	World Bank (WDI)
Mobile Cellular Subscriptions	Mobile	Log of Mobile	World Bank (WDI)
Telephone lines	Tel	Log of Tel	World Bank (WDI)
Information & Infrastructure in KE	ICTex	First PC of Internet, Mobile & Tel	PCA
Trade Openness	Trade	Exports plus Imports of Commodities (% of GDP)	World Bank (WDI)
Tariff Barriers	Tariff	Tariff rate, most favored nation, weighted mean, all products (%)	World Bank (WDI)
1st Economic Incentive dimension in KE	Tradex	First PC of Trade & Tariff	PCA
Private domestic credit	Credit	Private domestic credit (% of GDP)	World Bank (WDI)
Interest rate spread	Spread	Lending rate minus deposit rate (%)	World Bank (WDI)
2nd Economic Incentive dimension in KE	Creditex	First PC of Credit and Spread	PCA
1st Innovation dimension in KE	Journals	Log of Number of Technical & Scientific Journals	World Bank (WDI)
2nd Innovation dimension in KE	FDI	Net Foreign Direct Investment (% of GDP)	World Bank (WDI)
Panel B: Control variables			
Rule of Law	R.L	Rule of Law (estimate)	World Bank (WDI)
Government Expenditure	Gov. Exp.	Government final consumption expenditure (% of GDP)	World Bank (WDI)
Inflation	Infl.	Consumer price index (annual %)	World Bank (WDI)
Economic Prosperity	GDPg	GDP growth rate (annual %)	World Bank (WDI)
Financial Depth	M2	Broad Money Supply (% of GDP)	World Bank (FDSD)

WDI: World Bank's World Development Indicators. FDSD: Financial Development and Structure Database. GDP: Gross Domestic Product. PC: Principal Component. PCA: Principal Component Analysis. Log: logarithm.

References

African Development Bank (2007, December). “Growing knowledge based economy: Evidence from public expenditure on education in Africa”, *Economic Research Working Paper Series* No. 88.

Africa Partnership Forum (2008), “ICT in Africa: Boosting Economic Growth and Poverty Reduction”, 10th Meeting of Africa Partnership Forum, Tokyo, Japan (7-8th April).

Amavilah, V. H., (2009). “Knowledge of African countries: production and value of doctoral dissertations,” *Applied Economics*, 41,(7-9), pp. 977-989.

Amavilah, V. H. S., Asongu, S. A., & Andrés, A. R., (2014). “Globalisation, Peace & Stability, Governance and Knowledge Economy”, *African Governance and Development Institute Working Paper* No. 14/012.

Andrés, A. R., & Asongu, S. A., (2013a). “Fighting software piracy: which governance tools matter in Africa?”, *Journal of Business Ethics*, 118(3), pp. 667-682.

Andrés, A. R., & Asongu, S. A., (2013b). “Global dynamic timelines for IPRs harmonization against software piracy”, *Economics Bulletin*, 33(1), pp. 874-880.

Andrés, A. R., Asongu, S. A., & Amavilah, V. H. S., (2015). “The Impact of Formal Institutions on Knowledge Economy”, *Journal of the Knowledge Economy*: 6(4), pp. 1034-1062.

Anyanwu, J. C., (2012). “Developing Knowledge for the Economic Advancement of Africa”, *International Journal of Academic Research in Economics and Management Sciences*, 1(2), pp. 73-111.

Asongu, S. A., (2013a). “On the obituary of scientific knowledge monopoly”, *Economics Bulletin*, 33(4), pp. 2718-2731.

Asongu, S. A., (2013b). “Harmonizing IPRs on Software Piracy: Empirics of Trajectories in Africa”, *Journal of Business Ethics*, 118(3), pp. 667-682.

Asongu, S. A., (2014a). “Knowledge economy and financial sector competition in African countries”, *African Development Review*, 26(2), pp. 333-346.

Asongu, S. A., (2014b). “Software piracy and scientific publication: knowledge economy evidence from Africa”, *African Development Review*, 26(4), pp. 572-583.

Asongu, S. A., (2015a). “Knowledge economy gaps, policy syndromes and catch-up strategies: Fresh South Korean lessons to Africa”, *Journal of the Knowledge Economy*, <http://link.springer.com/article/10.1007%2Fs13132-015-0321-0>

Asongu, S. A., (2015b). “The Comparative Economics of Knowledge Economy in Africa: Policy Benchmarks, Syndromes, and Implications”, *Journal of Knowledge Economy*, <http://link.springer.com/article/10.1007%2Fs13132-015-0273-4>

Asongu, S. A., & Tchamyou, V. S., (2015). "The Comparative African Regional Economics of Globalization in Financial Allocation Efficiency", *Brussels Economic Review*: Revised and Resubmitted.

Apergis, N., Christou, C., & Miller, S. M., (2010). "Country and industry convergence in equity markets: International evidence from club convergence and clustering", Department of Banking and Financial Management, University of Piraeus, Greece.

Arellano, M., & Bond, S., (1991). "Some tests of specification for panel data: Monte Carlo evidence and an application to employment equations". *The Review of Economic Studies*, 58, pp. 277-297.

Arellano, M., & Bover, O., (1995). "Another look at the instrumental variable estimation of error-components models", *Journal of Econometrics*, 68, pp. 29-52.

Askari, H., Atie, R., & Khouri, N., (2003, September). "Intra-middle eastern trade: why is it so low?", *BNL Quarterly Review*, No. 226, pp. 1-32.

Asongu, S. A., (2012). "African stock market performance dynamics: A multidimensional convergence assessment", *Journal of African Business*, 14(3), pp. 186-201.

Aubert, J. E., (2005). "Knowledge economies: A global perspective", In A. Bonfour & L. Edvinsson (Eds.), *Intellectual capital for communities*. Elsevier, Oxford.

Aubert, J. E., & Reiffers, J. L., (2003). *Knowledge Economies in the Middle East and North Africa: Toward New Development Strategies*. Washington, D. C: The World Bank.

Barro, R. J., (1991). Economic growth in a cross section of countries", *Quarterly Journal of Economics*, 106, 407-443.

Barro, R. J., & Sala-i-Martin, X., (1992). "Convergence", *Journal of Political Economy*, 100, pp. 223-251.

Barro, R. J., & Sala-i-Martin, X., (1995). *Economic Growth*. The MIT Press, Cambridge, MA.

Baumol, W. J., (1986). "Productivity, growth, convergence and welfare: What the long run data show?", *American Economic Review*, 76, pp. 1072-1085.

Blundell, R., & Bond, S., (1998). "Initial conditions and moment restrictions in dynamic panel data models", *Journal of Econometrics*, 87(1), pp.115-143.

Bidwell, N. J., Winschiers-Theophilus, H., Kapuire, G. K., & Rehm, M., (2011). "Pushing personhood into place: Situating media in rural knowledge in Africa", *International Journal of Human-Computer Studies*, 69 (10), pp. 618-631.

Bizri, O., (2009). "The Knowledge economy and the Arab Countries: current climate and future prospects in education, innovation and technology", Carthage High Level International Conference on Building Knowledge Economies for job creation, increased competitiveness and balanced development. December, 1-3, 2009.

- Bond, S., Hoeffler, A., & Temple, J., (2001). "GMM estimation of empirical growth models", University of Oxford.
- Britz, J. J., Lor, P. J., Coetzee, I. E. M., & Bester, B. C., (2006). "Africa as a knowledge society: A reality check", *The International Information & Library Review*, 38, pp. 25-40.
- Bruno, G., De Bonis, R., & Silvestrini, A., (2011). "Do financial systems converge? New evidence from financial assets in OECD countries", *Journal of Comparative Economics*, 40 (1), pp. 141-155.
- Butcher, N., (2011). *ICT in Africa. A Few Key Challenges*, in: ICT, Education, Development, and the Knowledge Society, Thematic Paper prepared for GeSCI African Leadership in ICT Program, December 2011, pp. 33-39.
- Caporale, G. M., Erdogan, B., & Kuzin, V., (2009). "Testing for convergence in stock markets: A non-linear factor approach", *Discussion Paper No. 932*, Deutsches Institut für Wirtschaftsforschung, Berlin.
- Carisle, S., Kunc, M., Jones, E., & Tiffin, S., (2013). "Supporting innovation for tourism development through multi-stakeholder approaches: Experiences from Africa", *Tourism Management*, 35, pp. 59-69.
- Chandra, D. S., & Yokoyama, K., (2011). "The role of good governance in the knowledge-based economic growth of East Asia – A study on Japan, Newly Industrialized Economies, Malaysia and China", Graduate School of Economics, Kyushu University.
- Chavula, H. K., (2010). "The role of knowledge in economic growth. The African perspective", *ICT, Science and Technology Division (ISTD), United Nations Economic Commission for Africa (UNECA)*.
- Cogburn, D., (2003). "Governing global information and communications policy: Emergent regime formation and the impact on Africa", *Telecommunications Policy*, 27, pp. 135-153.
- Costantini, M., & Lupi, C., (2005). "Stochastic convergence among European economies", *Economics Bulletin*, 3(38), pp.1-17.
- Dahlman, C., (2007). "The challenge of the knowledge economy for Latin America", *Globalization, Competitiveness and Governability Journal*, 1(1), pp. 18-46.
- Department of Trade and Industry (1998) "Our Competitive future: Building the knowledge Driven Economy: Analysis & Background" Cm 4176. The Stationary Office, London.
- German, L., & Stroud, A., (2007). "A Framework for the integration of diverse learning approaches: Operationalizing agricultural research and development (R&D) linkages in Eastern Africa", *World Development*, 35(5), pp. 792-814.
- Ford, D. M., (2007). "Technologizing Africa: On the bumpy information highway", *Computers and Composition*, 24, pp. 302-316.

Fung, M. K., (2009). "Financial development and economic growth: convergence or divergence?", *Journal of International Money and Finance*, 28, pp. 56-67.

Islam, N., (1995). "Growth empirics: A panel data approach", *The Quarterly Journal of Economics*, 110, (4), pp. 1127-1170.

Iwamoto, W., (2005). "Secondary education reform: Towards a convergence of knowledge acquisition and skills development", UNESCO, ED-2005/WS/37.

Jolliffe, I. T., (2002). *Principal Component Analysis* (2nd Ed.), New York: Springer.

Kaiser, H. F., (1974). "An index of factorial simplicity". *Psychometrika*, 39, pp. 31–36.

Karagiannis, S., (2007, February). "The knowledge-based economy, convergence and economic growth: Evidence of the European Union", Center of Planning and Economic Research. *Working Paper* No. 91.

Lamberton, D. M., (1996). *"The Economics of Communication and Information"*. Cheltenham, U. K: Edward Elgar Editions.

Letiche, J. M., (2006). "Positive economic incentives. New behavioural economics and successful economic transitions", *Journal of Asian Economics*, 17, pp. 775-796.

Lightfoot, M., (2011). "Promoting the Knowledge Economy in the Arab World", London Knowledge Lab, Institute of Education.

Lin, B., (2006). "A sustainable perspective on the knowledge economy: A critique of Austrian and mainstream view", *Ecological Economics*, 60(1), pp. 324-332.

Longo, R., & Sekkat, K., (2004). "Economic obstacle in explaining intra-African trade", *World Development*, 32 (8), pp. 1309-1321.

Lor, P. J., & Britz, J., (2005). "Knowledge Production from an African perspective: International information flows and intellectual property", *The International Information & Library review*, 37, pp. 61-76.

Lwoga, E. T., Ngulube, P., & Stilwell, C., (2010). "Managing indigenous knowledge for sustainable agricultural development in developing countries: Knowledge management approaches in the social context", *The International Information & Library Review*, 42(3), pp. 172-185.

Makinda, S. M., (2007). "How Africa can benefit from knowledge", *Futures*, 39, pp. 973-985.

Mankiw, N. G., Romer, D., & Weil, D. N., (1992). "A contribution to the empirics of economic growth", *Quarterly Journal of Economics*, 107, pp. 407–437.

Maswera, T., Dawson, R., & Edwards, J., (2008). "E-commerce adoption of travel and tourism organisations in South Africa, Kenya, Zimbabwe and Uganda", *Telematics and Informatics*, 25 (3), pp. 187-200.

- Moodley, S., (2003). "The Challenge of e-business for the South African apparel sector", *Technovation*, 23, pp. 557-570.
- Miller, S. M., & Upadhyay, M. P., (2002). "Total factor productivity and the convergence hypothesis", *Journal of Macroeconomics*, 24, pp. 267-286.
- Myburgh, A. F., (2011). "Legal developments in the protection of plant-related traditional knowledge: An intellectual property lawyer's perspective of the international and South African legal framework", *South African Journal of Botany* 77, pp. 844-849.
- Narayan, P. K., Mishra, S., & Narayan, S., (2011). "Do market capitalization and stocks traded converge? New global evidence", *Journal of Banking and Finance*, 35, pp. 2771-2781.
- Neimark, B. D., (2012). "Industrializing nature, knowledge, and labour: The political economy of bioprospecting in Madagascar", *Geoforum*, 43, pp. 980-990.
- Nguena, C. L., & Tsafack, N. R., (2014). "On the Sensitivity of Banking Activity Shocks: Evidence from the CEMAC Sub-region". *Economics Bulletin*, 34(1), pp. 354-372.
- Nyarko, Y., (2013). "Sustaining High Economic Growth in Sub-Saharan Africa: Knowledge and the Structure of the Economy", *Journal of African Economies*, 22, suppl_1(January), pp: -i101.
- Oyelaran-Oyeyinka, B., & Gehl Sampath, P., (2007). "Innovation in African Development. Case Studies of Uganda, Tanzania and Kenya", A World Bank Study.
<http://info.worldbank.org/etools/docs/library/239730/InnovationInAfricaFinalPaper.pdf>
(Accessed: 21/09/2014).
- Preece, J., (2013). "Africa and international policy making for lifelong learning: textual revelations", *International Journal of Educational Development*, 33, pp. 98-105.
- Raseroka, K., (2008). "Information transformation Africa: Indigenous knowledge – Securing space in the knowledge society", *The International Information and Library Review*, 40, pp. 243-250.
- Romer, P. M., (1990). "Endogenous growth and technical change," *Journal of Political Economy*, 98, pp. 71-102.
- Rooney, D., (2005). "Knowledge, economy, technology and society: The politics of discourse", *Telematics and Informatics*, 22, pp. 405-422.
- Saxegaard, M., (2006). "Excess liquidity and effectiveness of monetary policy: Evidence from Sub-Saharan Africa", *IMF Working Paper*, No. 06/115.
- Solow, R. M., (1956). "A contribution to the theory of economic growth", *Quarterly Journal of Economics*, 70, pp. 65-94.
- Stiglitz, J., (1999, January). "Knowledge in the modern economy" Paper Presented at the "Economics of the Knowledge Driven Economy" conference, organized by DTI & CERP, London.

Sumberg, J., (2005). "Systems of innovation theory and the changing architecture of agricultural research in Africa", *Food Policy*, 30 (1), pp. 21-41.

Swan, T. W., (1956). "Economic growth and capital accumulation", *Economic Record*, 32(2), pp. 334-361.

Tchamyou, S. V., (2015). "The Role of Knowledge Economy in African Business", *African Governance and Development Institute Working Paper*, No. 15/049.

UNDP (2009). Arab Knowledge Report 2009. Towards Productive Intercommunication for Knowledge. United Nations Development Programme. United Arab Emirates. Dubai.

Wagiciengo, M. M., & Belal, A. R., (2012). "Intellectual capital disclosure by South African companies: A longitudinal investigation", *Advances in Accounting*, 28 (1), pp. 111-119.

Wantchekon, L., Klasnja, M., & Novta, N., (2014). "Education and Human Capital Externalities: Evidence from Colonial Benin", Department of Politics, Princeton University.

Weber, A. S., (2011). "The role of education in knowledge economies in developing countries", *Procedia Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 15, pp. 2589-2594.

World Bank, (2007). "Building Knowledge Economies. Advanced Strategies for Development", World Bank Institute.

World Bank (2011). World Development Indicators CD-ROM. Washington, DC: The World Bank.

Zerbe, N., (2005). "Biodiversity, ownership, and indigenous knowledge: exploring legal frameworks for community, farmers, and intellectual property rights in Africa", *Ecological Economics*, 53, pp. 493-506.