

# Does ICT diffusion make human development sustainable in the era of globalization? An empirical analysis from SAARC economies

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## Research Article

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**Does ICT diffusion make human development sustainable in the era of globalization? An empirical analysis from SAARC economies.**

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1 **Does ICT diffusion make human development sustainable in the era of globalization? An**  
2 **empirical analysis from SAARC economies.**

3 **Abstract**

4 *This study intends to examine the impact of ICT diffusion, globalization, financial development,*  
5 *government effectiveness, and economic growth on sustainable human development (SHD) i.e.,*  
6 *the development of human capital adjusted against the human ecological footprint, using 2005-*  
7 *2020 panel data of SAARC economies. The methodology involves econometric techniques robust*  
8 *to cross-sectional dependence (CSD) such as Pesaran's CSD tests, second-generation unit root*  
9 *test, Pedroni, Kao, Westerlund cointegration tests, FMOLS, DCCE-MG, Driscoll-Kraay (DK)*  
10 *regression, and DH causality test. The findings of the cointegration tests demonstrate that the*  
11 *variables are cointegrated and have long run equilibrium relationship. The results from DCCE-*  
12 *MG and DK regression, indicate that ICT diffusion has a significant, favorable impact on SHD.*  
13 *Similarly, globalization and economic growth also have a significant positive impact on SHD.*  
14 *On the other hand, the impact of government effectiveness and financial development was found*  
15 *to be insignificant. In addition, the DH causality test results show the presence of a*  
16 *unidirectional causality running from ICT diffusion to SHD and globalization to SHD. A*  
17 *bidirectional causal link is detected between economic growth and SHD. Therefore, the study*  
18 *concludes that in order to resolve the undesirable consequences of environmental degradation*  
19 *on human development in the globalized era, it is essential for SAARC economies to tackle*  
20 *challenges for adequate ICT infrastructure, particularly: access and affordability. By*  
21 *eliminating these significant barriers to ICT access, CO2 emissions can be reduced, and human*  
22 *development can be sustained simultaneously.*

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25 DK regression, SAARC

26 **JEL code:** C23, O15, O33, O40

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## 28 **Introduction**

29 Development discourse nowadays is dominated by the objective of meeting the Sustainable  
30 Development Goals (SDGs). However, many economies continue to confront obstacles or view  
31 the corresponding objectives with despair, particularly when their development efforts do not  
32 adhere to the desired/targeted timeframes. The adjournments in fulfilling the incremental  
33 milestones leading to the fulfillment of SDGs can be attributed to several factors. These include,  
34 but are not limited to, the lack of a mechanism for disseminating information, which would help  
35 minimize the amount of ignorance around the procedures and methods required to achieve these  
36 goals (Latif et al. 2017). The advancements in information and communication technology (ICT)  
37 have proffered a plethora of options to disseminating information through the internet, mobile  
38 phones, fixed landlines, and other technological channels.

39 Increasing ICT adoption has a wide range of economic implications, including faster economic  
40 growth, financial sector development, educational efficiency, and ecological sustainability  
41 (Alimi and Adediran 2020; Verma and Giri 2020). Simultaneously, while these impacts differ by  
42 industry, the influence on sustainable development has attracted significant academic attention in  
43 recent years. Globalization has led to a greater spread of ICTs among geographically dispersed  
44 countries, creating new possibilities for inclusive and sustainable development (Pérez-Castro et  
45 al. 2021). It is essential, however, that the outputs of sustainable development be designed and  
46 built in such a way that the economic, social, as well as ecological dimensions of sustainable  
47 development, are all addressed equitably. Additionally, economic activity has an environmental  
48 impact; therefore, policymakers must examine this and establish policies that favor ecologically  
49 sustainable technologies in order to reduce the environmental impact (Jayaprakash and Pillai  
50 2021).

51 When it comes to the environment, ICT diffusion can have both positive and negative ecological  
52 repercussions. ICT can help households and businesses save money by lowering transactional  
53 and transportation expenses associated with CO<sub>2</sub> emissions. Moreover, ICT minimizes the  
54 problem of asymmetric information linked with environmental conservation by reducing  
55 information costs linked with CO<sub>2</sub> emissions (Chien et al. 2021). It is further envisaged that ICT  
56 will also help reduce carbon footprint through the establishment of smart cities; infrastructure;  
57 power stations; industrial operations; or rather emission reduction (Higón et al. 2017).

58 Contrastingly, ICT diffusion increases energy consumption by households and corporations,  
59 resulting in increased CO<sub>2</sub> emissions. In addition, ICT strengthens the financial industry and  
60 dissemination of information, resulting in increased financial integration as well as  
61 boosting economic activity. Increased economic activity results in an increase in CO<sub>2</sub> emissions  
62 (Avom et al. 2020). Thus, given the circumstances, ICT may have an adverse or favorable  
63 impact on environmental sustainability. This has prompted several researchers to conclude that  
64 the two notions are connected through an inverted U-curve (Cheng et al. 2021; Khan et al. 2020).

65 Apart from ecological issues, ICT diffusion has a range of implications for social development.  
66 ICT, particularly smartphone technology, has revolutionized lives through advanced apps and  
67 services. As a result, current research has placed a strong emphasis on the economic and human  
68 development impact of ICT (Shehata 2017; Badri et al. 2019). Thus, owing to its favorable  
69 influence on globalization as well as CO<sub>2</sub> emissions, ICT has the potential to help accelerate  
70 human capital development (Asongu 2021). Likewise, education can be used in conjunction with  
71 ICT and mobile technologies to promote inclusive human development. However, this favorable  
72 effect of ICT diffusion varies according to the ICT dynamics, human development defined,  
73 available resources, or even proximity to the sea (Nchofoung and Asongu 2022). Another line of  
74 research examines the idea of social development in the context of population health. In this  
75 context, various academics have investigated the impact of ICT on health status. It has  
76 contributed to the regionalization of healthcare networks and bringing doctors and patients closer  
77 together (Dutta et al. 2019). According to Chib et al. (2008), digital inclusion is a key component  
78 of health initiatives. However, in an effort to improve lifestyle through ICT diffusion, its  
79 deployment model should be adapted to promote the basic rights, privacy, and security of  
80 individuals on the web (Hughes et al. 2017).

81 Similarly, ICT diffusion for sustainable human development (SHD) may be accomplished from  
82 an economical perspective. By increasing productivity and lowering transaction costs, ICT  
83 diffusion can boost growth in the economy (Aghaei and Nasab 2009). It can also increase  
84 financial development (Comin and Nanda 2019), with positive externalities on the economic  
85 expansion (Ibrahim and Alagidede 2018; Alshubiri et al. 2019). Adoption of ICTs, which in turn  
86 boosts economic growth by improving economies of scale, might thus help to accelerate  
87 globalization (Ahmed & Al-Roubaie 2013; Haseeb et al. 2019; Pérez-Castro et al. 2021).

88 However, without economic restructuring, ICT could be detrimental to economic growth (Verma  
89 and Giri 2020).

90 The literature frequently asserts that ICT exclusively benefits the economies of advanced  
91 countries. And that, the requisite human resource for managing ICT is lacking in emerging  
92 countries, particularly in low-income countries. Thus, ICT can be detrimental to overall  
93 development through its social, environmental, and economic elements. However, due to the  
94 interconnectedness of these factors, formulating sound economic policy can be challenging at  
95 times. For example, ICT development contributes to both economic growth (Verma and Giri  
96 2020) and CO<sub>2</sub> emissions (Danish et al. 2018). Increased CO<sub>2</sub> emissions are detrimental to  
97 health outcomes (Khan et al., 2020), hinder inclusive development (Antonio and Tuffley 2014),  
98 exacerbate inequality (Richmond and Triplett 2018), and reduce overall welfare (Omri and  
99 Belaïd 2021).

100 The main objective of the present study is to examine the impact of ICT diffusion on SHD. The  
101 fundamental linkages among ICT diffusion and various measures of sustainability, demonstrated  
102 in the literature, highlight the importance of studying this relationship. The idea of sustainable  
103 development is crucial since it serves as the main focus of the United Nations' 2030 Sustainable  
104 development Agenda (United Nations 2016). SHD, as explained in the following section, is  
105 defined as the development of human capital adjusted against the human ecological footprint. It  
106 incorporates the concept of development that occurs without causing environmental  
107 deterioration. Besides, the extant literature on ICT is overwhelmingly oriented toward advanced  
108 economies and mostly overlooks emerging economies (Khan et al. 2020). Moreover, the existing  
109 studies often measure ICT using a single dimension, mainly mobile phone and internet usage  
110 which cannot be generalized for other indicators of ICT (Lenka and Barik 2018; Noor and Hoque  
111 2021) Also, the existing literature on ICT generally ignores the presence of cross-sectional  
112 dependency (CSD) within the dataset (Chatterjee and Das 2019; Verma and Giri 2020).  
113 However, ignoring CSD may result in decreased estimator efficiency and biased results.  
114 Consequently, it is recommended that the findings of the studies that overlook endogeneity and  
115 CSD should be evaluated cautiously.

116 The above gaps in the ICT literature serve as the impetus for our study. Our research adds to the  
117 extant literature in a variety of ways. First, while previous researches have examined the

118 relationship between ICT and specific facets of human development, this paper takes a different  
119 approach by examining how ICT affects SHD i.e., human development adjusted for human  
120 carbon footprint, rather than looking at a particular component. Second, the study develops an  
121 ICT index using principal component analysis instead of focusing exclusively on a single ICT  
122 indicator. Finally, the study tackles the problem of CSD by utilizing estimators such as dynamic  
123 common correlated effects mean group (DCCE-MG) and Driscoll Kraay (DK) standard errors  
124 approach, which accounts for CSD and provides heteroskedasticity and autocorrelation-  
125 consistent standard errors.

126 The remaining segment of the study has been arranged in this manner: “Literature review”  
127 section presents a brief review of available literature while the “Data and model” section presents  
128 the data source and definition of variables. The “Methodology” section presents the  
129 methodological framework for the analysis while the “Empirical results and discussion” section  
130 outlines the estimated findings of the study. Lastly, the “Conclusion” section draws the inference  
131 of the study and recommends policy initiatives.

## 132 **Literature review**

133 The 'Virtuous Triangle' of ICT diffusion (Figure 1) extends well beyond the obvious cost-  
134 effective advantages, evolving the significance of ICT as a critical driver of sustainable human  
135 development. Therefore, the review of literature is organized into three major pillars, namely  
136 social, economic, and environmental aspects of the goals. The environmental segment is  
137 primarily concerned with the impact of ICT diffusion on CO<sub>2</sub> emissions; the social segment is  
138 concerned with the impact of ICT diffusion on different facets of human development such as  
139 education, well-being, and inequality; and the economic segment is concerned with the impact of  
140 ICT diffusion on economic development because of growth and poverty alleviation.

141 **\* Insert Figure 1 here\***

### 142 *ICT diffusion and environment*

143 ICT has gradually spread evolved and penetrated different economic and sociological domains,  
144 becoming a significant driver of worldwide economic growth in the contemporary industrial and  
145 technological revolution (Erumban and Das 2016; Arvin et al. 2021). Simultaneously, global

146 warming and the degradation of the ecosystem continue to be a major concern. Scholars  
147 throughout the world are focusing on the right judgment and comprehension of the link among  
148 ICT diffusion and CO<sub>2</sub> emissions (Haseeb et al. 2019). Theoretically, ICT diffusion  
149 impacts CO<sub>2</sub> emissions by raising production and energy consumption efficiency efficacy and by  
150 reducing the cost of energy consumption (Moyer and Hughes 2012). In the digital age, data  
151 acquisition and resource evaluation using ICT have become an integral aspect of every corporate  
152 operation in terms of increasing production efficiency. May et al. (2017) stated that  
153 ICT automates the manufacturing process which thereby increases productivity and  
154 reduces energy consumption. In terms of boosting energy efficiency, Takase and Murota (2004)  
155 discovered that ICT can help Japan and the United States improve their energy efficiency.  
156 Pradhan et al. (2020) added to this by attributing the aforementioned phenomena to the  
157 substantial effect of ICT's "virtualization" and "digitalization" on productivity and lifestyle. In  
158 terms of cost savings associated with energy usage, Khan et al. (2018) suggested that  
159 ICT enables the development of an intelligent energy management system and the subsequent  
160 reduction of energy consumption. Additionally, Kumari et al. (2020) noted that ICT in the power  
161 sector has transformed the existing infrastructure, resulting in the formation of a smart grid  
162 capable of meeting customer demand and lowering energy costs through the bi-directional  
163 exchange of electricity and data.

164 The academic community has not yet established a consensus on whether ICT diffusion is  
165 advantageous for carbon reduction. According to some scholars, ICT can boost economic growth  
166 and enhance energy efficiency. However, the CO<sub>2</sub> and other toxic compounds generated during  
167 its installation and use will constitute a severe danger to economic development on a sustainable  
168 basis (Lee et al. 2017; Park et al. 2018). For example, Salahuddin and Gow (2016) discovered  
169 that OECD countries are unable to efficiently utilize ICT, resulting in a rise in CO<sub>2</sub> emissions.  
170 Shabani and Shahnazi (2019) employed a panel causality model to investigate the relationship  
171 between ICT and CO<sub>2</sub> emissions, and the results showed that ICT considerably increased CO<sub>2</sub>  
172 emissions. In comparison, some experts assert that ICT helps to minimize CO<sub>2</sub> emissions and  
173 promotes sustainable development (Danish et al. 2018; Lee & Brahma 2014; Nchofoung &  
174 Asongu 2022). Nchofoung and Asongu (2022) found that ICT can lower the risk of  
175 environmental contamination to SHD. Haseeb et al. (2019) used panel data from BRIC countries  
176 from 1994 to 2014 and assessed the impact of ICT, energy use, and financial markets

177 development on environment quality and found detrimental impact of ICT on CO<sub>2</sub> emissions.  
178 Moreover, as research content has expanded, some scholars have concluded that the relationship  
179 between ICT and CO<sub>2</sub> emissions is nonlinear (Higón et al., 2017; Ozcan & Apergis, 2018).

#### 180 *ICT diffusion and social development*

181 Another body of literature discussed about the impact of ICT diffusion on social development.  
182 Various studies have analyzed the perceived social sustainability with reference to inclusive  
183 human development (Andrés et al. 2017; Asongu and Le Roux 2017; Nchofoung and Asongu  
184 2022). Policies aimed at accelerating ICT diffusion will lead to an increase in inclusive human  
185 development, the magnitude of which will vary according to the level of income, institutional  
186 quality, legislative origin, oil revenue, and geographic location (Asongu and Le Roux 2017). In  
187 addition, it can be used to diminish the negative impact of CO<sub>2</sub> emissions on development.  
188 Furthermore, better health outcomes may be considered as an indicator of social development  
189 (Chib et al. 2008; Dutta et al. 2019). To put it another way, Lee et al. (2016) contend that ICT  
190 diffusion is linked to an increase in life span and a decrease in infant mortality.

191 Another facet of social progress is the use of ICT to enhance quality of education and alleviate  
192 social inequalities. While higher penetration of mobile and the internet improves the standard of  
193 education, increase in internet usage has a negative net effect on education quality in countries  
194 with above-average educational quality (Asongu and Odhiambo 2019). Adams and Akobeng  
195 (2021) argue that ICT reduces inequality, and a well-designed governance system enhances this  
196 link. However, the effect of ICT diffusion on inequality varies significantly depending on the  
197 kind of ICT and the inequality indicator selected.

#### 198 *ICT diffusion and economic development*

199 The final body of research looks at the impact of ICT on economic development. ICT has  
200 become an integral part of the manufacturing process and technical advancement, since it serves  
201 as both “an intermediate input and an investment good” (Hwang and Shin 2017). Furthermore,  
202 ICT contributes to output through both neutral and non-neutral effects by altering the production  
203 function and lowering capital output elasticity as it promotes capital-intensive technology  
204 upgrades (Zhang and Sun 2019). Additionally, productivity improvements and economic growth  
205 enable emerging economies to benefit from improved living standard as a result ICT sector

206 expansion (Erumban and Das 2016). Global investment in the ICT industry may have been  
 207 boosted due to the proliferation of mobile phone technology (Lam and Shiu 2010). Indeed,  
 208 mobile devices have become ingrained in our daily lives and are altering the way businesses and  
 209 markets operate, opening up new revenue streams (Cardona et al. 2013). As a result, empirical  
 210 researches have constantly demonstrated that ICTs have a favorable and significant impact on  
 211 economic growth (Lam and Shiu 2010; Verma and Giri 2020; Arvin et al. 2021). However, some  
 212 research indicate that as an economy develops, the influence of mobile phones gradually  
 213 diminishes due to marginal returns and the emergence of the Internet (Ward and Zheng  
 214 2016)(Ward & Zheng, 2016). Also, ICT may actually be detrimental to development, in the  
 215 destitute of economic reform (Albiman and Sulong 2017).

## 216 **Data and model**

217 This study intends to examine the impact of ICT diffusion on sustainable human development by  
 218 incorporating the role of globalization in the SAARC economies for the time period 2005-2020.  
 219 The periodicity of the variables is restricted by the available data at the time of this research. The  
 220 dependent, independent, and control variables were selected based on existing literature (Asongu  
 221 et al. 2017; Verma and Giri 2020; Nchofoung and Asongu 2022). The data source includes  
 222 World Bank, International Telecommunication Union (ITU), and Hickel (2020).

223 SHD index, based on Hickel (2020), is the dependent variable in our study. The index is  
 224 calculated as a quotient of two indices, namely, the index of human development (HDI) and the  
 225 index of environmental impact (EII). While HDI is constructed as the geometric mean of indices  
 226 of education, life expectancy, and modified income, EII considers the extent to which material  
 227 footprint and CO2 emissions from consumption-based activities, exceeds per capita shares of  
 228 planetary boundaries. The computations are presented in Equations (1), (2), and (3) for the SDH,  
 229 HDI, and EII, respectively.

$$230 \quad SDH_{it} = \frac{\text{Human Development Index}_{it}}{\text{Ecological Impact Index}_{it}} \quad (1)$$

$$231 \quad HDI_{it} = (\text{Life Expectancy Index} * \text{Education Index} * \text{Income Index})^{\frac{1}{3}} \quad (2)$$

$$232 \quad EII_{it} = 1 + \frac{e^{AO} - e^1}{e^4 - e^1} \quad (3)$$

233 Where AO denotes the average overshoot, which is defined as the proportion of the material  
234 footprint and each emission value to their corresponding per capita planetary boundaries.

235 ICT diffusion (ICT) is the independent variable of interest which is measured through an index  
236 constructed using PCA to avoid the problem of multicollinearity. The index is based on five  
237 indicators which include fixed telephone subscriptions, mobile cellular subscriptions, fixed  
238 broadband subscriptions, individuals using the internet, and internet bandwidth (Arvin et al.  
239 2021; Cheng et al. 2021; Khan et al. 2020). PCA is a technique (with a solid statistical  
240 foundation) for reducing the dimensionality of a dataset, increasing its interpretability, and  
241 minimizing information loss. PCA is based on the presumption of standardized data and linear  
242 correlations among the variables and has been frequently used in previous ICT research (Verma  
243 and Giri 2020; Arvin et al. 2021). The index was further screened for sampling adequacy using  
244 the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) test (Kaiser 1974). The overall KMO score for the dataset is  
245 0.80, indicating that our PCA produces accurate and reliable results.

246 The control variables are selected in light of existing literature on the factors affecting inclusive  
247 and SHD. Financial development (FD) proxied by domestic credit to the private sector is the first  
248 control variable which is expected to have a favorable impact on SHD. ICT may have an impact  
249 on the environment through the growth of financial markets (Chien et al. 2021). Besides,  
250 globalization has a beneficial effect on SHD in the socio-economic, and the political domains  
251 (Nchofoung and Asongu 2022). Therefore, globalization is proxied by trade openness (TRD) and  
252 foreign direct investment (FDI) which is likely to have a positive impact on SHD. Another  
253 variable that must be taken into consideration is good governance which is a prerequisite to  
254 SHD. It is anticipated that the governance proxy of government effectiveness (GOV) will have a  
255 favorable impact in this study. Finally, the study also includes economic growth (GDP) proxied  
256 through per capita GDP. Indeed, no economic development is possible without growth. While  
257 growth is a proxy for development, it is also critical to social and environmental sustainability  
258 (Nchofoung and Asongu 2022). This variable may have a beneficial or detrimental influence.

259 As a result, an ICT-based theoretical model for SHD can be derived as as in Equation (4):

$$260 \ln SHD_{it} = f(\ln ICT_{it}, \ln FD_{it}, \ln TRD_{it}, \ln FDI_{it}, \ln GOV_{it}, \ln GDP_{it}) \quad (4)$$

261 where FD stands for financial development; TRD represents trade openness; FDI is the foreign  
 262 direct investments; GEC and GDP signify the government effectiveness and economic growth,  
 263 respectively. The basic regression model is given as:

$$264 \ln SHD_{it} = \alpha_{it} + \beta_1 \ln ICT_{it} + \beta_2 \ln FD_{it} + \beta_3 \ln TRD_{it} + \beta_4 \ln FDI_{it} + \beta_5 \ln GOV_{it} + \\ 265 \beta_6 \ln GDP_{it} + \theta_{it} + \varepsilon_{it} \quad (5)$$

266 where  $I = 1, 2, \dots, N$  represents the economy in the panel,  $t = 1, 2, \dots, T$  indicates the timeframe,  $\beta_1,$   
 267  $\beta_2, \beta_3, \beta_4, \beta_5,$  and  $\beta_6$  are the parameters indicating long-run elasticity estimates of SHD with  
 268 respect to ICT diffusion and other control variables, and  $\alpha_{it}$  &  $\theta_{it}$  denotes the fixed country  
 269 effects and the deterministic trend, respectively and  $\varepsilon_{it}$  is the error term.

## 270 Methodology

### 271 Cross-sectional dependence

272 Generally, panel data estimation methodologies overlook the issue of CSD, which can result in  
 273 biased and misleading data and unreliable findings (forecasting error). The possibility of a CSD  
 274 arises because of a certain overlooked component, common to all economies and impacting each  
 275 one of them, although potentially in diverse ways. Examples include the advancement of  
 276 technology, the fluctuation of global pricing, such as the price of oil, or risk-free interest (Usman  
 277 et al., 2020). Thus, it is imperative that this critical CSD issue be thoroughly investigated,  
 278 regardless of whether it occurs or not across all cross-sections. As a result, we used second  
 279 generation unit root tests that assume the presence of CSD, namely Pesaran CD (Pesaran, 2004),  
 280 Breusch-Pagan LM (Breusch and Pagan 1980), Pesaran scaled LM (Pesaran, 2004), and Bias-  
 281 corrected scaled LM (Baltagi et al. 2012). The null hypothesis ( $H_0$ ) of the CSD test is presented  
 282 as follows:

$$283 H_0 : \eta_{ij} = \text{corr}(\varepsilon_{it}; \varepsilon_{jt}) = 0 \forall i \neq j$$

284 The mathematical expression of the CSD test (Pesaran, 2004) is as follows:

$$285 CD_P = \sqrt{\frac{2T}{N(N-1)}} \left( \sum_{i=1}^{N-1} \sum_{j=i+1}^N \hat{p}_{ij} \right) \rightarrow N(0,1) \quad i, j$$

$$R = \sqrt{\frac{2T}{N(N-1)}} \left( \sum_{i=1}^{N-1} \sum_{j=i+1}^N \hat{\rho}_{ij} \right) \frac{(T-k) \hat{\rho}_{ij}^2 - E(T-k) \hat{\rho}_{ij}^2}{\text{Var}(T-k) \hat{\rho}_{ij}^2}$$

where  $i$  is the specific cross section,  $t$  depicts the time dimensions and the term  $\hat{\rho}_{ij}$  signifies the projected multivariate correlation of the error-term across all cross-sections  $i$  and  $j$ .

### Panel unit root tests

After examining the CSD, the subsequent step is to determine the order of integration and level of stationarity for all the variables. The key drawback of first-generation unit root tests is their inability to account for the CSD issue in the dataset. Therefore, the study employs the second-generation unit root tests, which account for CSD across all cross-sections in the heterogeneous panels. Pesaran (2007) suggested two second-generation panel unit root tests: cross-sectional augmented Dickey Fuller (CADF) and cross-sectional augmented Im Pesaran and Shin (CIPS) which are incorporated in this study.

As per Pesaran (2007), the unit-root test can be depicted as:

$$x_i = \alpha_{it} + \beta_i x_{it-1} + \rho_i t + \sum_{j=1}^n \theta_{ij} \Delta x_{i,t-j} + \varepsilon_{it}$$

Where,  $\alpha_{it}$  refers to the intercept,  $t$  denotes the time,  $\Delta$  is the difference operator,  $x_{it}$  represents the variables under study and  $\varepsilon_{it}$  is the error term. The null hypothesis asserts that the series under study are non-stationary.

### Cointegration tests

After validating the unit root properties, the next stage in panel data analysis is to check for long-run cointegration between series. The study included first- and second-generation co-integration techniques, such as Kao (1999), Pedroni (2004), and Westerlund (2007). Pedroni (2004) presents a distinct set of statistics, one based on panel statistics within dimensions and the other on statistics between dimensions. In addition, the Kao residual-based test has been used in the study to validate the results of the Pedroni test. However, we also use the Westerlund (2007) technique to address the issue of CSD and heterogeneity, which gives more reliable and accurate

310 information regarding long run cointegration relationships among the variables. The test focuses  
 311 on two types of group ( $G\tau$  and  $G\alpha$ ) and panel ( $P\tau$  and  $Pa$ ) statistics. The presence of long run  
 312 relationship is established by rejecting the null hypothesis of 'No Cointegrating'. The error  
 313 correction system of Westerlund test is as follows:

$$314 \quad \Delta Y_{it} = \delta'_i d_t + \alpha_i(Y_{it-1} - \beta'_i x_{it-1}) + \sum_{j=1}^{p_i} \alpha_{ij} \Delta y_{it-j} + \sum_{j=-p_i}^{p_i} \gamma_{ij} \Delta x_{i,t-j} + \mu_{it}$$

### 315 **Model estimation**

316 After confirming the long-run cointegration between the variables, the study employs a fully  
 317 modified ordinary least squares (FMOLS) technique to estimate the magnitude of long-run  
 318 elasticity (Pedroni 2004). FMOLS solves the issues of serial correlations, simultaneity biases,  
 319 and endogeneity in the panel datasets. Moreover, it generates robust results when small sample  
 320 size is used (micro-numerosity), demonstrating the non-parametric approach of this regression  
 321 estimation.

322 However, traditional methodologies, such as random effect, fixed effect, FMOLS, DOLS, and  
 323 GMM methodology, presumes homogeneity and only enables modification of intercepts of the  
 324 cross-sections, when in the real sense, the panel members are heterogeneous. Thus, considering  
 325 the sensitive nature of CSD, the present study employs DCCE-MG estimator developed by  
 326 Chudik and Pesaran (2015). It is based on the ideas of PMG (Pesaran et al. 1999), MG (Pesaran  
 327 and Smith 1995), and CCE estimation (Pesaran 2006). According to Chudik and Pesaran (2015),  
 328 the CSD effects, also known as common correlated effects (CCE), maybe mitigated using a  
 329 cross-section average,

$$330 \quad \ln U_{it} = \sum_{i=0}^p \alpha_{it} U_{it-1} + \sum_{i=0}^p \delta_{it} V_{it-1} + \sum_{i=0}^p \gamma_{it} \bar{W}_{it-1} + \varepsilon_{it}$$

331 where,  $\bar{W}_{t-1} = (\bar{U}_{it-1}, \bar{V}_{it-1})$

332  $U_{it}$  is used for SHD as a dependent variable whereas  $V_{it-1}$  indicates all independent variables,  
 333 i.e., ICT, FD, TRD, FDI, GOV and GDP. The average of both dependent and independent  
 334 variables is indicated as  $\bar{W}_{t-1}$  to ease the CSD problem (t-1). While p represents the lag of each

335 variable. One of the key advantages of this technique is its robustness in the presence of  
 336 structural breakdowns. Furthermore, by applying the jackknife correction strategy, this approach  
 337 is equally relevant in cases of a small sample size. Also, the DCCE-MG model works well when  
 338 the panel data is unbalanced.

339 Finally, in order to check the robustness of these tests, the study also incorporates the DK  
 340 standard error approach proposed by Driscoll and Kraay (1998) in addition to DCCE-MG. This  
 341 strategy offers long run estimates and can counter CSD, heteroscedasticity, as well as  
 342 spatial/serial correlation in the data. This non-parametric regression is extra efficient with large  
 343 time frames because it is flexible and does not require any assumptions. In addition, the DK  
 344 approach may provide estimates in both unbalanced as well as balanced panel and is more  
 345 efficient if the data set contains missing values (Park et al. 2018).

### 346 **Causality test**

347 The final stage in the empirical analysis is to determine if any causal relationship exists among  
 348 the variables under the study. As a corollary, the present study used Dumitrescu and Hurlin (DH)  
 349 causality test proposed by Dumitrescu and Hurlin (2012), which addresses the concern of CSD in  
 350 the dataset and is subjected on individual wald statistic of average non causal relationship across  
 351 all individual units (Usman et al. 2020). All coefficients are assumed to vary among cross-  
 352 sections in this test. The following is the baseline regression equation given by Dumitrescu and  
 353 Hurlin (2012):

$$354 \quad y_{it} = \alpha_i + \sum_{k=1}^K \beta_{ik} y_{it-k} + \sum_{k=1}^K \gamma_{ik} x_{it-k} + \varepsilon_{it}$$

355 Where, the lag order of K is assumed to be the equivalent for all panel members, and the panel  
 356 must be balanced. The null hypothesis asserts that there is no causal relationship among the  
 357 variables.

### 358 **Empirical results and discussion**

359 Table 1 summarizes the statistical information for the sample variables. Variance inflation factor  
 360 (VIF) tests are used to test for the presence of multicollinearity among the variables. The results

361 indicate that the VIF spans between 1.47 and 4.35 and that the mean VIF score is 2.76, which is  
362 less than 5, indicating that our models are not susceptible to multicollinearity (Khan et al., 2020;  
363 Salahuddin & Gow, 2016).

364 \*Insert Table 1 here\*

365 Subsequently, the study tests for CSD using Pesaran CD (Pesaran, 2004), Breusch-Pagan LM  
366 (Breusch and Pagan 1980), Pesaran scaled LM (Pesaran, 2004), and Bias-corrected scaled LM  
367 (Baltagi et al. 2012) for the SAARC economies. Table 2 shows the outcomes of the CSD test,  
368 which strongly reject the null hypothesis stating absence of CSD in the dataset. This indicates  
369 that our panel data exhibit CSD in the data. Thus, it is necessary to address the CSD problem to  
370 produce robust estimation findings.

371 \* Insert Table 2 here\*

372 The non-stationary nature of economic variables often leads to biased results. Therefore, to  
373 obtain valid and unbiased results, the study uses second-generation CIPS and CADF test to  
374 examine the stationarity properties. Both these tests are designed to address the issue of  
375 homogeneity in panel unit root testing. Additionally, these tests are unaffected by CSD or  
376 heterogeneity in the data. According to the results in Table 3, the variables fulfil the precondition  
377 of cointegration tests i.e., the variables at stationarity at first difference  $I(1)$ .

378 \* Insert Table 3 here\*

379 Consequently, it is crucial to confirm the existence of cointegration among the variables prior to  
380 regression analysis. Table 4 presents the results of Kao (1999) and Pedroni (2004) cointegration  
381 tests, which confirms the existence of cointegration relationship among the variables.  
382 However, because of CSD and heterogeneity in the data, the study favors the Westerlund (2007)  
383 test of cointegration, which assists in offsetting the CSD in the dataset. Table 5 displays the  
384 results of the Westerlund (2007) cointegration.

385 \* Insert Table 4 here\*

386 \* Insert Table 5 here\*

387 Table 6 shows the empirical findings of regression using FMOLS and DCCE-MG. To ensure the  
388 results are robust, we additionally employ DK standard error approach. The empirical evidence  
389 in Table 6 demonstrates that ICT has a considerable positive influence on SHD, regardless of the  
390 estimating methodology used. The finding of DK standard error approach shows that a 1%  
391 growth in ICT diffusion induces a 0.34% increase in the SHD index. ICTs have the potential to  
392 promote inclusive human capital development (Asongu and Le Roux 2017), accelerate economic  
393 growth (Verma and Giri 2020), reduce environmental impacts (Arshad et al. 2020), and alleviate  
394 inequality (Ruhyana and Essa 2020). ICT contributes to SHD by enhancing the environmental,  
395 socio-economical components of sustainability. ICTs, such as the internet and telephone,  
396 provides the ideal medium for disseminating knowledge of the impact of achieving long-term  
397 development goals. It makes trading and investing easier, boost economic activity, and allows for  
398 larger economies of scale. Consequently, the level of income in the economy rises, which may  
399 then be utilized to fund the SDGs outlined by the UN.

400 \* Insert Table 6 here\*

401 Additionally, the control variables like GDP, government effectiveness, FDI, and trade openness  
402 all demonstrate a favorable and significant impact on SHD in the long run. It is now imperative  
403 for SAARC countries to become more open to global commerce and integration. Increased  
404 economic progress may contribute to improvements in health, education, and life expectancy.  
405 Health and education are more accessible to persons who have a higher income since they have  
406 more money to spend. SHD and globalization are intertwined as trade and commerce can  
407 improve standard of living, increase business possibilities, ensure sustainability as well as boost  
408 production, all of which have an impact on human capital in one way or another. Mukherjee and  
409 Chakraborty (2010) demonstrate that trade openness and a decent standard of life are causally  
410 related. Financial development, on the other hand, has a detrimental effect on SHD.

411 Table 7 presents the results of the DH causality test which shows unidirectional causal  
412 relationship running from ICT diffusion to SHD, implying that an increase in ICT boosts SHD in  
413 an economy. The study also found the unidirectional causality running from TRD to SHD, which  
414 implies that an increase in trade will increase SHD in these countries. Furthermore, it is seen that  
415 there is an existence of a bidirectional causal relationship between GDP and SHD suggesting that

416 both the economic growth and SHD influence each other in the SAARC countries. Likewise,  
417 bidirectional causality was observed between government effectiveness and SHD.

418 \* Insert Table 7 here\*

## 419 **Conclusion**

420 The primary objective of this study is to assess the dynamics between ICT diffusion and SHD in  
421 the SAARC economies for the period from 2005 to 2020, the most extensive data obtained. To  
422 address the issue of CSD in the data, the second-generation stationarity tests were utilized. The  
423 DCCE-MG and DK standard error approach was used for empirical estimation, which yields  
424 robust results in the presence of CSD. Empirical findings suggest favorable and significant  
425 impact of ICT diffusion on SHD. Moreover, economic growth, and globalization through trade  
426 and FDI contribute significantly to the SHD in SAARC economies. Furthermore, a unidirectional  
427 causal link running from ICT diffusion and globalization via trade has been detected towards  
428 SHD. Moreover, economic growth and SHD have a bidirectional causal relationship.

429 In the light of the above, in the globalization era, in order to resolve the undesirable  
430 consequences of environmental degradation on human development in the globalized era, it is  
431 essential for SAARC economies to tackle challenges for adequate ICT infrastructure,  
432 particularly: access and affordability. By eliminating these significant barriers to ICT access,  
433 CO<sub>2</sub> emissions can be reduced, and human development can be sustained simultaneously. As a  
434 result, ICT is an ideal instrument for developing SHD projects. It is quite unlikely that many of  
435 the current global advantages would have been realized without the use of ICT. To this extent,  
436 developing economies can leverage ICT to their advantages. ICT can help businesses attain cost  
437 competitiveness by mitigating extenuating factors. Remote locations would have been unable to  
438 afford modern technologies without the use of ICT. Consequently, achieving SHD through ICT  
439 initiatives is a reality that only those who really desire more equitable societies need to embrace.

440 The policy implications of this study necessitate that policymakers include ICT diffusion in their  
441 pursuit of attaining the sustainable development goals. It is recommended that policymakers in  
442 the SAARC countries consider the following: It is imperative that (i) ICTs are accessible to all;  
443 (ii) greater investment is made in the promotion of ICT (iii) introduction of e-culture to promote

444 education, health, and standard of living; (iv) better connectivity is provided to all; and (v) lower  
445 prices for ICT equipment are made available so that the masses can benefit from technology.

446 However, the study has significant limitations. Future research in this field should incorporate  
447 additional mediators, such as institutional governance. In addition, individual country specific  
448 research might be conducted to provide policymakers with more detailed guidance. As a result,  
449 future research should investigate more inclusive and sustainable metrics in addition to the ones  
450 used in this study, which are not exhaustive.

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457 preparation, data collection, analysis, writing original draft were performed by Anushka Verma.  
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459 All authors read and approved the final manuscript.

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465 **Consent to Publish** We give our consent for the article to be published in ESPR. We declare that  
466 this manuscript is original, has not been published before and is not currently being considered  
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468

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673 **Tables**

Table 1 Descriptive statistics and pairwise correlation							
	SHD	ICT	GDP	FD	GOV	FDI	TRD
Mean	4.943	0.001	2464.775	35.974	-0.45	4.88E+09	37884.93
Median	2.990	-0.349	1351.672	36.736	-0.456	4.57E+08	3657.272
Maximum	16.300	3.729	10207.490	78.945	0.632	5.06E+10	324778.4
Minimum	0.990	-0.962	359.899	3.229	-1.496	995123.9	161.6000
Std. dev.	4.135	1.000	2601.870	17.144	0.553	1.16E+10	83809.27
Skewness	1.245	1.843	1.827	-0.213	-0.041	2.640788	2.585039
Kurtosis	3.108	5.981	5.069	2.584	2.156	8.569	8.242
Jarque-Bera	31.092	112.384	88.240	1.770	3.595	294.553	271.072
Probability	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.041	0.016	0.000	0.000
SHD	1						
ICT	0.168	1					
GDP	0.059	-0.153	1				
FD	0.300	0.249	-0.032	1			
GOV	0.612	0.405	0.107	0.470	1		
FDI	-0.078	-0.012	0.103	0.277	0.306	1	
TRD	0.243	0.285	0.121	-0.077	0.565	-0.246	1
*, **, and *** indicates levels of significance at 1%, 5%, and 10%, respectively.							

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Series	Breusch-Pagan LM	Pesaran scaled LM	Bias-corrected scaled LM	Pesaran CD
lnSHD	193.010*	22.050*	21.765*	10.045*
lnICT	378.594*	46.850*	46.564*	19.444*
lnGDP	340.633*	41.777*	41.492*	18.365*
lnFD	190.878*	21.766*	21.480*	0.452
lnGOV	43.539*	2.077*	1.791*	0.427*
lnFDI	111.609*	11.173*	10.887*	1.349
lnTRD	177.065*	19.920*	19.634*	10.960*
* Indicates levels of significance at 1%				

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Variable	CIPS		CADF	
	I(0)	I(1)	I(0)	I(1)
lnSHD	-1.780*	-2.057*	-2.992*	-3.144*
lnICT	-1.599	-1.924**	-0.961	-1.794**
lnGDP	-0.311	-2.572*	-1.163	-3.102*
lnFD	-1.487	-2.374*	-1.904	-2.724*
lnGOV	-2.743**	-3.324*	-2.512**	-3.195*
lnFDI	-2.162*	-3.899*	-2.944	-3.943*
lnTRD	-1.672**	-2.173*	-1.314	-2.354**

\*, \*\*, and \*\*\* indicates levels of significance at 1%, 5%, and 10%, respectively.

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Table 4 Traditional cointegration tests			
<i>Pedroni test</i>			
	NIT	I	IT
Panel v-statistic	-1.638	-0.375	-0.766
Panel rho-statistic	1.754	2.026	3.650
Panel PP-statistic	-2.225*	-4.482*	-4.712*
Panel ADF-statistic	-1.774**	-3.573*	-2.827*
Group rho-statistic	2.829	3.322	4.773
Group PP-statistic	-6.767*	-7.002*	-7.746*
Group ADF-statistic	-3.965*	-3.926*	-3.325*
<i>Kao test</i>	ADF t-stat	-2.775*	
* Indicates levels of significance at 1%			
Abbreviations: NIT, no trend and intercept; IT, both trend and intercept; I, only intercept			

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	Value	Z value	Robust P value
Gt	-1.763	1.839	0.000*
Ga	-0.449	4.546	0.000*
Pt	-4.814	1.004	1.000
Pa	-0.747	2.991	0.000*

\* Indicates levels of significance at 1%

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Variables	FMOLS-MG		DCCE-MG		Driscoll Kraay Regression	
	Coefficient	P value	Coefficient	P value	Coefficient	P value
lnICT	0.281	0.226	0.477*	0.000	0.349**	0.015
lnGDP	0.394*	0.000	0.702**	0.031	0.422*	0.001
lnFD	-0.136*	0.000	-0.112***	0.084	-0.122*	0.002
lnGOV	0.614	0.222	0.556	0.247	0.648	0.198
lnFDI	0.017**	0.050	0.018*	0.004	0.016**	0.014
lnTRD	0.028	0.549	0.035	0.597	0.014***	0.082
R-squared	0.79		0.79		0.77	
Root MSE	-		0.03		0.02	
Prob>f	-		0.00		0.00	
Groups	8		8		8	
Observation	128		128		128	

\*, \*\*, and \*\*\* indicates levels of significance at 1%, 5%, and 10%, respectively.

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Null hypothesis:	W-Stat.	Zbar-Stat.	Prob.	Remarks
$\ln\text{ICT} \not\leftrightarrow \ln\text{SHD}$	6.775	3.066	0.002	ICT→SHD
$\ln\text{SHD} \not\leftrightarrow \ln\text{ICT}$	3.031	0.273	0.784	
$\ln\text{GDP} \not\leftrightarrow \ln\text{SHD}$	3.346	0.510	0.061	GDP↔SHD
$\ln\text{SHD} \not\leftrightarrow \ln\text{GDP}$	2.611	0.041	0.096	
$\ln\text{FD} \not\leftrightarrow \ln\text{SHD}$	4.390	1.293	0.195	FD↔SHD
$\ln\text{SHD} \not\leftrightarrow \ln\text{FD}$	3.685	0.764	0.447	
$\ln\text{GOV} \not\leftrightarrow \ln\text{SHD}$	16.679	10.509	0.000	GOV↔SHD
$\ln\text{SHD} \not\leftrightarrow \ln\text{GOV}$	8.858	4.643	0.000	
$\ln\text{FDI} \not\leftrightarrow \ln\text{SHD}$	4.390	1.293	0.195	FDI↔SHD
$\ln\text{SHD} \not\leftrightarrow \ln\text{FDI}$	3.685	0.764	0.447	
$\ln\text{TRD} \not\leftrightarrow \ln\text{SHD}$	6.890	3.167	0.001	TRD→SHD
$\ln\text{SHD} \not\leftrightarrow \ln\text{TRD}$	4.028	1.021	0.307	

\*, \*\*, and \*\*\* indicates levels of significance at 1%, 5%, and 10%, respectively and the symbol →, ↔ and ⇄ indicates unidirectional, bidirectional and no causality relationship, respectively.

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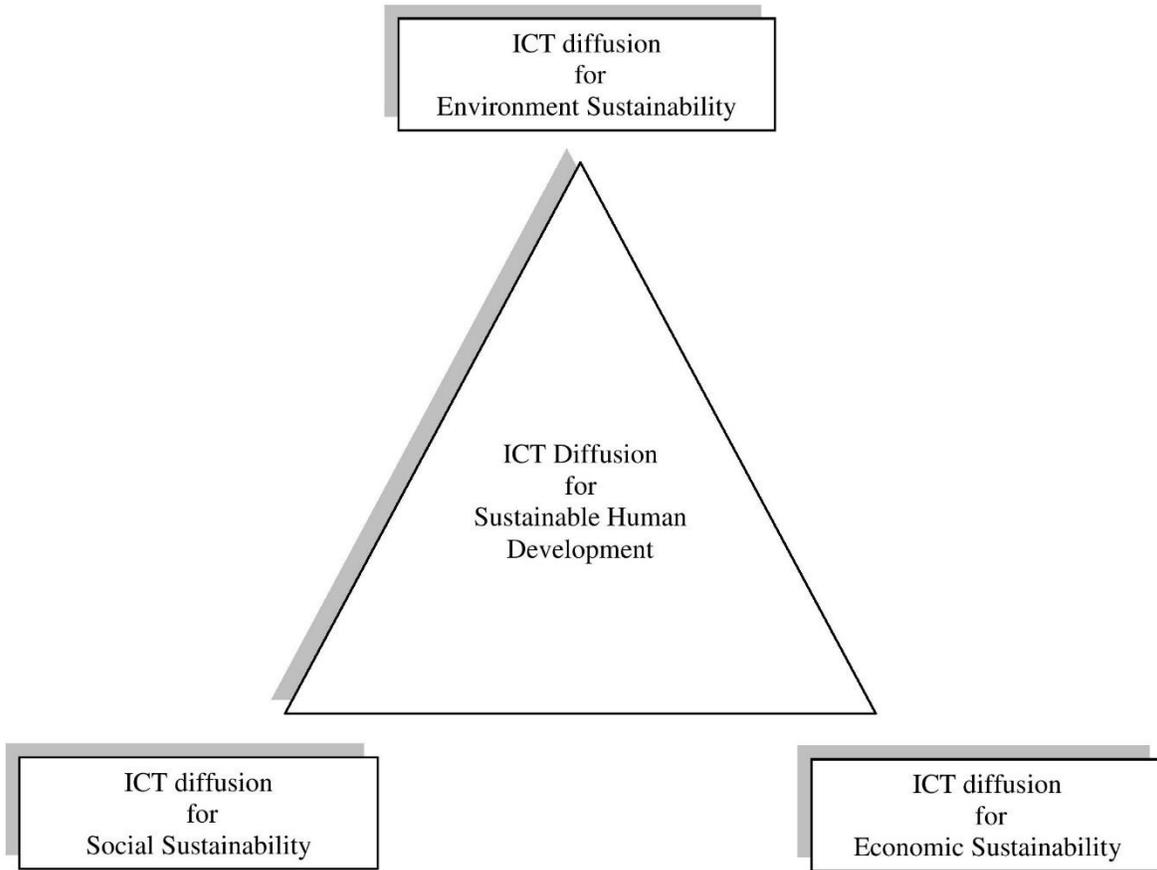
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796 **Figures**



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798 *Figure 1 Virtuous triangle of ICT diffusion for sustainable human development*