

# How Education does at all Levels Influence Total Factors Productivity Growth?

**Rasha Qutb**

*Lecturer Assistant at Faculty of Commerce  
Economics Department, Damanhur University, Egypt  
PhD Candidate at faculty of commerce  
Alexandria University, Egypt  
E-mail: rasha\_qutb@yahoo.com  
Tel: +201222362591.*

## Abstract

The issue of improving productivity growth is well stressed in developing and less developing countries that confront a severe economic and social deterioration owing to the misuse of the available human and physical resources. Education, as a main component of human capital, plays a leading role beyond that of physical capital in prompting Total Factor Productivity growth through its potential spillover effects on the technical change and efficiency improvement. Hence, considering education quality embedded in human capital attributable to the rising educational attainment of the labor force is a priority. On this ground, the aim of the paper is to examine the long run impact of education quality on TFP growth in Egypt during the period (1980-2014). In a two-step approach, the Gauss-Newton algorithm method is used in estimating the nonlinear Cobb-Douglas production function to calculate TFP series. In the second step, the TFP determinants have been estimated by paying special attention to education indicators besides other control variables through applying the Autoregressive Distributed Lag Bounds test approach of cointegration. Results revealed that TFP growth appears to be significantly slightly enhanced by quality improvements in higher education only. Some reforms must be done on the basis of analysis and research.

**Keywords:** Human capital, Education quality, ARDL model, Total Factor Productivity Growth.

**JEL Classification:** J21, J24, O47

## 1. Introduction

Productivity growth is vital for economic and social development in any country hence constitutes the prime engine of economic growth (Maurel and Seghir 2013); where high productivity levels trigger higher individuals' income and higher producers' profits which are reflected in more savings and additional investments which, in turn, create more jobs and achieve economic progress coupled with social welfare. The issue of improving productivity growth is well stressed in developing and less developing countries that face up to a severe economic and social deterioration owing to the misuse of the available human and physical resources (El Feil, 2006). Since the Second World War, it has been noticed that the average annual growth in output per capita is getting higher in the developed countries, while it is constant or increasing slowly in the developing ones. This difference in the level of development among countries is due to TFP differences and that pose question "Why some countries

are so developed while others so poor? There are some factors that contribute to these vast TFP differentials. One important key factor of total productivity growth is human capital.

The important role of human capital in promoting total factor productivity (TFP) growth is widely introduced since the seminal contributions of Schultz (1961), Becker (1964), Welch (1970) and Mincer (1974), and has been strongly supported by many economic theories and economists in our time.

Broadly speaking, human capital is defined in the Oxford English Dictionary as “the skills the labor force possesses and is regarded as “a resource” or “an asset.” It encompasses the notion that there are investments in individuals (e.g., education, training, health) and that these investments increase an individual’s productivity. The flow of individuals’ skills is forthcoming when the return to investment exceeds the cost. Returns to these skills are private in a sense that an individual’s productive capacity increases (Goldin, 2014). Externalities of human capital development emerged when the productive capacity of others increased and enhance TFP components by being an agent of technological innovation, diffusion and catch-up processes (shahzad, 2014, 110). Also, there is a supportive empirical evidence that links human capital closely to education as it plays a leading role beyond that of physical capital in prompting TFP growth through its potential spillover effects on the technical change and efficiency improvement and thus allowing developing countries to catch up with advanced ones (Saquis and Arbache, 2002; Hua, 2005) [1]. On this ground, the paper narrows the focus on examining the impact of education quality on TFP growth, which is one of the hot-debated topics in recent studies, in Egypt during the period (1980-2014) [2]. Here education is measured from the output – based approach and the education attainment by the workforce is used as a proxy for education quality and labor skills [3]. In order to test the argument “upgrading the quality of education will positively affect TFP growth of the economy”, the Egyptian employments’ education levels split them into 3 levels: illiterate labor, labor with intermediate education degree and below, and labor with high education.

After examining the relation between education and TFP growth, the empirical methodology adopted include applying the Bounds Testing Approach to Co-integration constructed by Pesaran et al., (2001), followed by the Autoregressive Distributed Lag (ARDL) bounds test approach of co-integration suggested by Pesaran and Shin (1999). In estimating TFP series [4], the present study used the Gauss-Newton algorithm method in estimating the nonlinear Cobb-Douglas production function to calculate TFP series as the residual of the production function. Hence, in the first place, the Cobb-Douglas production function will be estimated (in its nonlinear form) for reaching TFP series. In the second step, the determinants of TFP have been estimated by paying special attention to education because it is our central argument that education affects economic growth via TFP.

The findings confirmed the positive impact of high education expansion on economic growth via enhancing TFP growth but with lower coefficient. Also the impact of intermediate education expansion on TFP growth is ended to be statistically negative, and the impact of illiterate workforce on TFP growth is negative and insignificant. Some reforms in the education system must be done on the basis of analysis and research.

The rest of the paper is organized as follows; Section 2 demonstrated the relation between education, as a key component of human capital, and TFP in economic thought. Section 3 summarizes a the quality of education in Egypt. Section 4 deals with the literature review, Section 5 begins with Data and Research Methodology, Section 6 describes the Results, and Section 7 reports the concluding remarks and policy recommendations.

## **Human Capital as a Key Source of Total Factor Productivity Growth**

Total factor productivity growth, also known as “Solow residual”, is the part of output growth not explained by growth in traditional inputs like capital accumulation, labor or land [5]. During much of the twentieth century, the size of the residual relative to economic growth in per capita or per worker terms revealed that physical capital accumulation did not explain much of growth and that something else did; which in fact was the human capital growth; that is knowledge creation and the augmentation

of the labor input through education and training and gaining experience. Therefore, one key source of total factor productivity growth is the qualified human capital stock that is embedded in upgrading the quality of the workforce, credited to education and experience accumulation; the learning-by-doing effect (Lee, 2007).

In economic literature, the crucial role of human capital in promoting total factor productivity (TFP) growth is widely introduced since the seminal contributions of Schultz (1961), Becker (1964), Welch (1970) and Mincer (1974), and has been strongly supported by many economic theories. Nelson and Phelps (1966) argued that the role of education is beyond that of physical capital, also human capital development through education promotes total factors productivity through facilitating the technological transfer (Hao and Wei, 2009; Aggrey et al, 2010).

According to the human capital theory, human capital contributes to output just like other factors of production, and via technological change by driving both innovation and imitation. Likewise, education, as a main component of human capital, contributes to productivity improvement through its potential spillover effects on the technical change and efficiency improvement; as it allows workers to use the existing physical capital more efficiently, increase the capacity to upgrade the available technology and imitate the advanced techniques which previously used by developed countries (Saquis, and Arbache, 2002). Corvers (1975) explored that human capital is vital for firm productivity and is accrued in two ways: experience and education. He discussed four effects of human capital on productivity; the worker effect, the allocative effect, the diffusion effect, and the research effect.

The worker effect; refers to the positive marginal labor productivity as a result of education. The allocative effect; relates the ability of educated workers to more efficiently allocate input factors of production to the production process. The diffusion effect and the research effect; stressed that educated workers are better at implementing new ideas and have more ability to adapt to technological change and will introduce new production techniques more quickly, and eventually enhance TFP growth.

Despite the critical role of human capital as a motivating source of economic growth, it wasn't introduced in the growth model as an independent variable until the end of 80s by the works of Lucas (1988), Romer (1990), Stockey (1988), and Mankiw, et al., (1992) [6].

According to new endogenous growth theory, the ability of labor to enhance the overall productivity and achieve a sustainable economic growth depends on human capital accumulation through education, training and experience. Also, the theory assumes a constant return on capital investment; the rate from investing in physical capital diminishes overtime, whereas the investment in human capital through education has its internal effect on labor's productivity, and its external positive effect on total factors productivity. Hence, the increase in productivity of physical capital resulting from these positive spillover effects of human capital accumulation would cancel the effect of "law of diminishing returns", in turn, leaving the rate of return on capital constant overtime, and hence a sustainable economic growth will be achieved.

In Lucas's model (1988), the rate of return on education depends on the time spent on education. Besides, he argues that investment in education is complementary to investment in physical capital, and that explains why physical capital doesn't flow from developed to underdeveloped countries with relatively low stock of human capital (Lucas, 1990). All of Romer (1990a, 1990b) and Aghion & Howitt (1998) asserted that education exercises a crucial impact on the speed of technological catch-up and diffusion; as it facilitates the ability of a nation to adopt, assimilate and implement new technologies from other nations and upgrades its ability to innovate domestically. Grosman and Helpman (1991) asserted that the effect of human capital on total factor productivity growth depends on the openness degree of a country; as it promotes the international competition, enhances the advances in production methods and advanced technology imitation, which in turn increases the demand for skilled labor [7].

Foster and Rosenzweig (1995), Wozniak (1984); Bartel and Lichtenberg (1987); Fleisher and Chen, (1997); Vandenbussche et al., (2006); Fleisher et al., (2008), state that “more educated workers have a comparative advantage in implementing new technologies”, and such a microeconomics proposition has an empirical evidence. Also, Benhabib and Spiegel (1994) have argued that the relationship between human capital and income growth is best viewed in the context of the positive effect that human capital has on total factor productivity, rather than its direct effect as an accumulative factor in the production function. Aiyer and Feyrer, (2002) resolved the debate over whether factor accumulation or TFP increases are more important for economic growth; they ended to the result that TFP differences explain most of the static variation in GDP across countries and human capital accumulation is a crucial determinant of the dynamic path of TFP. Conversely, some studies, such as Hanushek and Kimko (2000); Pritchett, (2001); Bosworth and Collins (2003) have marked the negative impact of education on total factor productivity attributable to using unsuitable measures of human capital that neglect the quality of human capital.

To end this, the qualified human capital stock can drive a sustainable economic growth through three main channels; forward as being an important input in the production process along with physical capital and labor (e.g. Lucas, 1988; Mankiw et al., 1992), or implicitly either through its spillover effects on technical efficiency and technological change (Nelson & Phelps, 1966; Romer, 1986, 1990; Aghion & Howitt, 1998; Mankiw et al., 1992; Benhabib and Spiegel, 1994, Islam, 1995), or by attracting physical capital investment (e.g. Benhabib and Spiegel, 1994; Chi, 2008). And the current paper focuses narrowly on the indirect channel through which education can foster the economic growth; via enhancing TFP growth.

## Literature Review

The economic theory claims that education enhances economic growth by working as an input of production and by being an agent of technological innovation, dissemination, and imitation and by attracting physical capital investment. Previous empirical evidence on the effect of education on growth through total factor productivity growth is mixed. Nelson and Phelps (1966) were first to argue that the adoption and the effective use of new technology depend not only on the availability of technology, but also on the capability of countries to adopt and effectively use these technologies. They suggest that education plays a crucial role in determining the ability of countries to implement new technologies that allows developing countries to catch up with advanced ones. Miller and Upadhyay (2000) found a negative effect of human capital on TFP in high-income countries and a positive effect in middle-income countries. The effect of human capital on TFP in low-income countries moved from negative to positive as the country moved from a low to a higher level of openness and hence export enhances productivity growth. The study made by Pritchett (2001) showed a large and significant negative impact of human capital on TFP growth in Nepal; as it is still an agro-based economy and hi-tech industrial activities are in low level, thereby education is a less influential factor in growth. And similar to the findings of Miller and Upadhyay (2000), trade openness (measured as real export's share in real GDP) has positive and statistically significant effect on growth (Bonelli, 1992; Haddad, de Melo & Horton, 1996; Weinhold and Rauch, 1999; Yean 1997; Sjoeholm, 1999). (Aiyer and Feyrer, 2002) analyze the causal links between human capital accumulation and growth in total factor productivity (TFP). In particular, they test the Nelson-Phelps hypothesis that human capital is crucial in enabling the imitation of technologies developed at the frontier. TFP was calculated for a sample of 86 heterogeneous countries over the period (1960-1990), and thus they investigated whether there has been (conditional) convergence in TFP. By using a variety of GMM estimators in a dynamic panel framework with fixed effects, human capital is found to have a positive and significant effect on the long run growth path of TFP. Countries are found to be converging to these growth paths at a rate of about 3% a year. Akinlo (2005) explores the effects of macroeconomic factors on total factor productivity (TFP) in 34 sub-Saharan African countries for the period 1980-2002. The “neo-classical growth accounting” approach is used to estimate TFP. The panel data model results show that human capital (measured by

enrollment rates in secondary education) has a positive significant impact on TFP growth and hence confirms that human capital investment via education promotes TFP, besides other control variables such as export–GDP ratio, credit to private sector as percentage of GDP, foreign direct investment as percentage of GDP, manufacturing value-added as a share of GDP, and liquid liabilities as percentage of GDP have significant positive effect on TFP. However, Other factors that have significant negative effect include inflation rate, agricultural value added as a percentage of GDP, lending rate, and local price deviation from purchasing power parity. In China, Hua (2005) investigates the different impacts that primary, secondary and university education exert on total factor productivity growth and its two components. TFP growth is measured as a ratio between the value added and weighting sum of production factors and the TFP components; efficiency growth and technical progress, are calculating using DEA Malmquist indices for twenty nine Chinese provinces over the period (1993-2001). Using panel econometric model for TFP growth, findings revealed a positive significant impact of university education on the two TFP components, such a favorable impact of university education on efficiency change is via the reallocation of university-educated workers into the more efficient non-state sector. On the other side, both primary and secondary education has negative effect on efficiency growth. El Khatib (2008) aims at estimating the main determinants of TFP in the non -Oil Saudi Economic Sector in order to specify its sources of growth depending on annual data in constant prices covers the period (1970-2007). Following “the endogenous growth model” and by applying Johansen co-integration test, both investment return on education and years of education are used as a proxy for human capital. Findings revealed that human capital investment has an insignificant impact on TFP growth in non-oil sectors public expenditure on education. Hao and Wei (2009) study the role of human capital in China’s provincial total factor productivity growth over 1985-2004. They adopt the stochastic frontier approach to measure productivity growth of Chinese provinces in terms of the Malmaquist TFP index, and assess the relationship between productivity growth and human capital. When measuring human capital, they particularly focus on the composition of human capital, represented by enrollment rates at various levels of schooling, as well as education quality. After controlling for endogeneity, they find that human capital has significant and positive effects on total factor productivity growth of Chinese provinces. However, when education quality is incorporated, productivity growth appears to be significantly enhanced by quality improvements in primary education only. They also find that regional impacts of human capital differ at various levels of schooling. In the eastern region of China, productivity growth is significantly attributed to secondary education. TFP growth in the central region is mainly promoted by primary and university education. Yet in the western region, primary education plays the most prominent role. (Sanderson and Striessnig, 2009) presented a new data on total factor productivity for eight world regions over the period 1970 to 2001. The regions are North America, Western Europe, Japan/Oceania, the China Region, South Asia, Other Pacific Asia, Latin America and the Caribbean, and Sub-Saharan Africa and the paper is based on the new IIASA/VID database on education. The study estimated a new model of the determinants of total factor productivity based on the framework of conditional convergence. The model distinguishes between factors that influence the level of the conditional productivity frontier and the speed of catching up to that frontier. They show that productivity stagnation in Latin America, the Caribbean and in Sub-Saharan Africa are not because they are trapped far below their potential, but rather that they are fully utilizing the low potential that they have. Also, they found that education and age structure have independent and joint effects on productivity. The rate of capital formation, the quality of institutions, openness, and corruption also affect total factor productivity. The effects of specific variables on total productivity differ by context. They can be different depending on whether a country is catching up to its conditional productivity frontier or not. This provides the possibility of resolving some of the puzzles with respect to the effects of age structure and education. (Kumer and Chen, 2013) examine the Nelson-Phelps hypothesis and study the dynamics of the total factor productivity (TFP) and the impact of education and health on the growth rate of TFP in a sample of 97 countries for the period (1960-2005). TFP is estimated by using the augmented Solow model in which health capital is a factor of production. The results cleared that

both health and education have a positive and significant effect on TFP growth and hence, support the Nelson-Phelps (1966) hypothesis that education plays an important role in technology diffusion. However, results also suggest that in designing policies which facilitate technology diffusion, there is a need to broaden the concept of human capital to include health. Dahal (2013) stated that education contributes to growth through its direct benefits to the individual and positive externality to the society. He empirically examines the effect of higher education on total factor productivity in the aggregate level of the economy of Nepal employing time series data of the period (1975-2011) applying the ARDL method of co-integration. The findings are not encouraging on the issue, as they revealed that the effect of higher education on TFP is almost ambiguous. Quantity of higher education measured by enrollment per capita in higher education in entirety or categorized as general or technical higher education appears with positive and negative sign as well in the ARDL method of co-integration. The log run (i.e., the level value) estimates showed positive effect of overall higher education (EDUH), general category of higher education (HGEN) and technical type of higher education (HTEC) but in the error correction model (ECM) estimates the coefficient of all measures of higher education variable turned to be negative and significant also. This casts serious doubt on the effect of higher education in enhancing productivity in Nepal. By using a rich amount of firms' information in the Senegalese database, Maurel and Seghir (2013) examine the role played by low, intermediate skilled and high-skilled labor in explaining differences in total factor productivity (TFP) dynamics for the different sectors of the Senegalese manufacturing sector during the period (1998-2013). The results indicate that the contribution to TFP of education is significant and robust, noticeably for technical education. This finding corroborates the conclusion of a recent report (ADB, 2012) suggesting the importance of primary and vocational education. Shahzad Alvi (2013) examines the impact of health and education on total factor productivity by using panel data for the period (1990-2010) of thirty seven developed and developing countries. In a two-step approach, the Cobb-Douglas production function is estimated in the first step for calculating TFP. In the second step the determinants of TFP have been estimated by paying special attention to indicators of health and education. The study uses information on life expectancy as indicator of health and average year of schooling as indicator of education. Findings revealed that the indicator of health has positive, robust and significant impact on TFP whereas the impact of education has been found to be positive and significant. These findings reconfirm the need for improving health and education of the general public to ensure sustainable growth and economic development.

To sum up, most of studies that examines either the impact of human capital through education on TFP growth or explore the main determinants of TFP applied "the neo-classical growth accounting" approach in their way to estimate TFP series, and those who are interested in splitting TFP components; efficiency growth and technical progress, use the DEA Malmquist indices for productivity growth. On the other hand, different education levels of workers, enrollment rates, investment return on education and years of education are commonly used as proxies for education. Also, regarding the impact of education quality on TFP growth, using time series data, (ARDL- ECM) model is run on or (VECM) model is applied alternatively. Most findings revealed that the contribution of education to TFP is significant and robust in countries with high skilled labor; well-trained and good educated workforce. In most cases, the effect tends to be lower and negative for lower education level, also in developing countries with extreme dependence on imported manufactured goods, with highly dependence on unskilled labor in its labor market, and hence with lower opportunity to "catch-up" with developed nations. Moreover the impact depends, even in developed countries, not only on the availability of technology but also on the capability of using, imitating, developing, and improving such a technology.

## **Background**

While Egypt is a human capital rich country; 91 million people in 2015 half of whom are under the age of 25, it has regularly underinvested in human capital. On education, especially, it has fallen behind

other developing countries– both in terms of spending and outcomes. According to (Qutb, 2015a, 2016b), there is a reasonable degree of internal inefficiency in allocating the public education spending in Egypt; where for the past 40 years, minor part of it has been devoted to investment expenditures. Also, the share of wages and compensations of workers in the balanced budget is high and constitutes 86% where it doesn't reflect a high wages of education academic staff rather it reflects the high share of nonacademic ones to the total workers compared to the accepted global rate. Besides, Pupil-teacher ratio is high and reached on average around 28 pupils per teacher in primary education, and 19 pupils per teacher in secondary education. All those factors affect negatively the quality of educational services received by pupils.

**Table 1:** The enrollment rates and GPI in Egypt over the period(1976-2015)

item	1976	1986	1996	2003	2006	2010	2015
Primary Enrollment rate(Gross)	65.4	81.9	102.3	104.9	107.17	112.3	115
Primary Enrollment rate(net)	63	68	92	96.1	95.7	97.9	95
GPI (primary) gross%	66	79.8	75.6	94.9	94.2	95.9	98
Secondary Enrollment rate	38.9	58.2	72.16	87.7	--	75.8	89
GPI (secondary)	55.6	69.1	87	93.6	--	96.4	97.4

Source: world development indicators

Also, although Egypt has made a considerable progress in closing a woeful gender gap and increasing the enrollment rates in primary and secondary education, as indicated by table (1), it still suffers from a relatively weak efficient finance devoted to its education sector; where there are high intensity of classrooms, adult illiteracy is high (about 40%), and also the unemployment of educated individuals remains persistently high (13.6%) due to the mismatch between the outcomes of the education system and the needs of the job market.

Concerning the employment in the Egyptian labor market, as indicated by table(2), we notice that:

- a) In Egypt, the demand for unskilled labor was dominating the Egyptian labor market during the period of study till year 1997, then it starts to decline but still the contribution of illiterate workers is higher than that of skilled workers in the labor market till now.
- b) The workforce with an intermediate education has enjoyed a dominant share in the Egyptian workforce since 1998; where their share has been amplified over the period of study from 30% during the 80s, reached 34.7% throughout the 90s, and has gone to 45% during the last three years.
- c) Concerning those with university education certificate; their contribution out of workforce has enlarged on average from 8.7% during 80s, reached 21.2% in the 90s, and gone to 24% throughout the last three years.
- d) With reference to illiterate workers category; their share out of the Egyptian workforce has declined over the period of study, on average, from 61% during the 80s to 44% throughout the 90s and to 31% during the last three years. Although these figures reflect upgrading in the construction of workforce, it needs more attention and extra cutback efforts; because illiteracy represents a direct threat to both social and economic stability in any country; as it restrains achieving a sustainable economic growth which denotes a hindrance to poverty rates reduction, also it reflects deterioration in the stock of human capital (Qutb, 2016, 169).

**Table 2:** The evolution of enrollment rates and employment in Egypt Over the period(1980-2015)

item	1980	1986	1990	1996	1997	1998	2003	2006	2010	2015
Employment (million)	8	11.9806	13.5	15.4	15.8	16.2	18.1	20.4	23.8	24.8
Illiterate workers (%)	63.0%	62.1%	59.3%	43.4%	40.8%	37.4%	32.1%	33.3%	29.5%	29%
Workers with secondary education (%)	26.8%	32.7%	25.8%	34.7%	37.2%	40.4%	41.7%	43.8%	47.0%	48.4%
Workers with tertiary education (%)	10.2%	5.2%	14.9%	22.0%	22%	22.2%	26.2%	22.9%	23.5%	22.6%

Source: CAMPAS, statistical book year

In Egypt, the planned high quality education system that yields well-trained and qualified labor force that matches labor market requirements is essential to reduce the unemployment rate. Also, education indicators in Egypt call for the need of more concentration on education sector reform through rising the percent of GDP that is devoted to the education sector (Qutb, 2015; Alaraby, 2010) In this regard, Egypt has got a step forward in reforming its education system to increase the quality of the educational services; as the new constitution commits the government to assign 7% of its GDP to the education sector with a promise to increase such a ratio gradually till reach the accepted global rate, hoping that the new spending quotas might help Egypt catch up to other emerging markets. But In fact, quality issues are not addressed by simply throwing more money at the problems; reforms must be done both on the basis of analysis and research.

## 5. Data and Research Methodology

In this section, after displaying data sources, we focus on the measurement of total factor productivity (TFP), autoregressive distributive lag (ARDL) approach of co-integration and data used in the study.

### 5.1 Measurement of Total Factor Productivity in Analyzing the Impact of Education on Total Factors Productivity in the Egyptian Economy during the Period (1980-2014), TFP Series has to be Estimated on the First Place

Total factor productivity (TFP) is attributed to a combination of not –so- easy-to- measure factors like technological advances, economic restructuring and upgrading, social and political stability, and upgrading the quality of labor force (Lee, 2011,2). It measures a combination of changes in the efficiency of using the production inputs and changes in technology. Solow (1957) proposed a residual component in growth accounting method as a measure of the contribution of productivity change to economic growth [8].

In the present study and relying on previous studies such as (El Naka, 2015), the Gauss-Newton algorithm method is used in estimating the nonlinear production function to approximate the time series of the dependent variable TFP as a residual of the function. We will start by the Cobb-Douglas production function in the neoclassical Solow-Swan tradition, where output ( $Y_t$ ) can be properly estimated overtime by two factors, capital stock ( $K_t$ ) and labour force ( $L_t$ ). This function takes the form of:

$$y_t = f(L_t, K_t) = AL_t^\alpha K_t^\beta$$

where  $y_t$  is real GDP in the year (t), A is the efficiency index, a measure of TFP (the Solow residual),  $K_t$  is the aggregate stock of capital in the year (t),  $L_t$  is the aggregate labor force in the year(t), and  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$ , are the output elasticity with respect to labor and capital respectively [9].

By estimating the value of the “ $\alpha$ ” and “ $\beta$ ” coefficients, and by placing the time series of  $y_t$ ,  $k_t$ , and  $L_t$ , we can get the time series of TFP, where the geometric index version of TFP is calculated as follows:

$$TFP = Y_t / L_t^\alpha \cdot K_t^\beta$$



where  $Y$  is an index of output;  $K$  is an index of capital input;  $L$  is an index of labor input;  $\alpha$  is labor's share of output, and  $\beta$  is capital's share of output (with  $\alpha+\beta=1$ ). Hence, by estimating both  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$ , we can get TFP. By applying Gauss-Newton algorithm method, the nonlinear production function of the Egyptian economy will be estimated over the period (1980-2014) as indicated by table (3):

**Table 3:** Estimating the nonlinear production function of the Egyptian economy using Gauss-Newton algorithm method over the period (1980-2014)

Dependent Variable: Y				
Method: Least Squares				
Date: 01/08/17 Time: 18:19				
Sample: 1980 2014				
Included observations: 35				
Convergence achieved after 50 iterations				
HAC standard errors & covariance (Bartlett kernel, Newey-West fixed bandwidth = 4.0000)				
Y= C(1)*L^C(2)*K^C(3)				
	<b>Coefficient</b>	<b>Std. Error</b>	<b>t-Statistic</b>	<b>Prob.</b>
C(1)	3.459453	1.367783	2.529241	0.0166
C(2)	1.657277	0.170167	9.739144	0
C(3)	0.109544	0.127648	0.858173	0.3972
R-squared	0.960443	Mean dependent var		656.241
Adjusted R-squared	0.957971	S.D. dependent var		315.467
S.E. of regression	64.67399	Akaike info criterion		11.25841
Sum squared resid	133847.2	Schwarz criterion		11.39173
Log likelihood	-194.022	Hannan-Quinn criter.		11.30443
Durbin-Watson stat	0.694714			

Source: computed using E-Views package

The estimated nonlinear production function can be written as follows [10]:

$$y_t = f(L_t, K_t) + \varepsilon = aL_t^{\beta_1}K_t^{\beta_2} + \varepsilon_t = 3.46L^{1.66}K^{0.11} + \varepsilon_t$$

Hence,

$$TFP=A=Y/(L^{1.7}*K^{0.08}) \quad (1)$$

The LS estimate of production function related to equation (1) using the time series data of the period 1980-2014 produced the share of capital ( $\alpha$ ) to be 0.11 and labor's share ( $\beta$ ) is estimated to be 1.66(i.e. the production function in the Egyptian economy exhibits increasing returns to scale in the long run ) Then we inserted these values in equation (1) along with the actual values of  $Y_t$ ,  $K_t$  and  $L_t$  to obtain the series of TFP.

## 5.2 Unit Roots Test

We first test the nature of the time series of the variables to determine whether they are stationary or non-stationary and also specify their order of integration which assist indetermining the subsequent long-run relationship among the variables. The augmented Dickey- Fuller (ADF) unit root test is conducted for unit roots to avoid spurious regression. The general equation for the ADF test is:

$$\Delta Y_t = \alpha + \beta t + \gamma \Delta Y_{t-1} + \delta_1 \Delta Y_{t-1} + \dots + \delta_p \Delta Y_{t-p} + \varepsilon_t$$

where  $Y$  is a time series variable,  $\alpha$  is a constant,  $\beta$  the coefficient on a time trend ( $t$ ),  $p$  the lag order of the autoregressive process and  $\varepsilon_t$  is a pure white noise error term. The ADF test for a unit root tests the null hypothesis ( $H_0: \gamma=0$ ; series contains a unit root), against the one-sided alternative ( $H_1: 1 < \gamma$ ; series is stationary). If the computed Dickey-Fuller statistic is more negative than the test critical (theoretical) values, the null hypothesis is rejected.

### 5.3 Co-integration: ARDL Bounds Test

In order to establish a long run-relationship between the variables, the Bounds Testing Approach to Co-integration constructed by Pesaran et al., (2001) is employed, followed by the Autoregressive Distributed Lag (ARDL) bounds test approach of co-integration suggested by Pesaran and Shin (1999). The general form of ARDL model can be written as:

$$\Delta Y_t = \alpha + \delta t + \rho Y_{t-1} + \gamma_1 \Delta Y_{t-1} + \dots + \gamma_{p-1} \Delta Y_{t-p+1} + \theta X_t + \omega_1 \Delta X_t + \dots + \omega_q \Delta X_{t-q+1} + e_t$$

as a Co-integration method, the ARDL has economic merits over other bivariate co-integration test introduced by Engle and Granger (1987) and multivariate co-integration technique proposed by Stock and Watson (1988), Johansen (1988, 1991) and Johansen and Juselius (1990); unlike bivariate and multivariate co-integration methods which are applicable mostly for large sample size and are not reliable for small sample sizes, the ARDL model applicable for small sample size. Another advantage of applying the ARDL co-integration technique is that it allows tests for the existence of relationships between variables in levels irrespective of whether the time series being considered are integrated of order one,  $I(1)$ , and/or order zero,  $I(0)$  or mutually co-integrated.

Referring to the economic literature and the previous studies that estimate the impact of education quality, measured by different education levels, on TFP, the functional form of the proposed model can be written as follow:

$$TFPg = F(\ln H1, HE, \ln PREH, TRADE)$$

Hence, the form of ARDL model can be expressed as:

$$\begin{aligned} \Delta TFPG_t = & \alpha_0 + \alpha_1 TFPG_{t-1} + \alpha_2 \ln H1_{t-1} + \alpha_3 HE_{t-1} + \alpha_4 \ln PREH_{t-1} + \alpha_5 Trade_{t-1} \\ & + \beta_0 \Delta TFPG_{t-1} + \beta_1 \Delta \ln H1_{t-1} + \beta_2 \Delta HE_{t-1} + \beta_3 \Delta \ln PREH_{t-1} + \beta_4 \Delta Trade_{t-1} \\ & + \beta_5 \Delta HE_t + \beta_6 \Delta \ln PREH_t + \beta_7 \Delta \ln H1_t + \beta_8 \Delta TRADE_t + U \end{aligned}$$

Where, the dependent variable,  $\Delta TFPG_t$ , represents total factor productivity growth. While, The independent variables:  $\ln H1_t$ ; is the part of labor that is illiterate.  $\ln PREH_t$ ; is the natural logarithm of labor with university education degree and above.  $\ln HE_t$ ; is the part of labor with intermediate education degree and below and  $TRADE_t$  (The trade openness degree); and calculated as the summation of exports and imports as a percent of GDP. Open economies can grow more rapidly through greater access to cheap imported intermediate goods, larger markets, and advanced technologies that can be imitated and then contribute to TFP

Here in our model, we divide the labor force into three groups; those who are illiterates, those with education level up to an intermediate degree, and those with university certificate and above. And then estimate the impact of different education levels on TFP in Egypt during the period (1980-2014).

The ARDL procedure of co-integration involves two stages. The first stage requires testing the existence of a long-run relationship between the variables under investigation (testing the significance of the lagged levels of the variables) by comparing the "F-statistic" of "Wald - bound test" with Pesaran critical value at  $\alpha=5\%$  and  $k$  = the number of independent variables in the ARDL model. The second stage involves the estimation of the long run and short run relation between the variables.

And the following main hypothesis is established:

Ho: There is no significant long run relationship between educational quality and TFP growth.

H1: There is a significant long run relationship between educational quality and TFP growth.

### 5.4 Data Sources

The empirical investigation has been carried out in the case on Egyptian economy with a dataset of the period 1980 to 2014. The present study uses data which have been collected from the National Accounts Statistics, ministry of high education, and CAMPAS, (<http://www.CAMPAS.gov.eg>). The reliability of the data for empirical research can be attributed to the fact that all the data sources used in this study are government sources, and thus data is very much reliable for policy research. The data variables used in the present study are classification of workers by education level (proxies for education) and gross domestic product at fixed prices ( $y_t$ ), the size of labor force ( $L_t$ ), and size of

physical capital ( $K_t$ ), openness ( $Trade_t$ ). All data used are expressed in constant prices in order to avoid the inflation effect. Statistical description of the relationship is described in the following sub-section.

## 6. Empirical Results

### 6.1 Unit Root Test

The stationary test results presented in Table 4 revealed that some of the variables under study are stationary at level,  $d(0)$ , such as ( $Trade_t$  and  $TFPG_t$ ), while other are stationary at the first difference or non-stationary or integrated of order one in its level and stationary  $d(1)$ , or integrated of order zero at its first difference at least at 5% level). Once the series are made stationary, they can be used in regression analysis. But the drawback of this method is the possibility of losing long-run information about the variables. This problem can be overcome by applying the cointegration technique, which shows the long-run equilibrium relationship between two or more non-stationary series.

**Table 4:** The augmented Dickey- Fuller (ADF) unit root test results

variables	ADF (t- statistic)	Critical value (1%)	(5%) level	(10%) level	Probability*	Degree of co-integration (at level)
TFPG	-3.9	-3.67	-2.95	-2.6	0.0045	I(0)
Ln H1	-4.41	-2.6	-1.9	-1.6	0.0001	I(1)
Ln PREH	-1.7	-2.6	-1.9	-1.6	0.07	I(1)
HE	-3.45	-3.6	-2.95	-2.61	0.0159	I(1)
TRADE	-3.7	-2.6	-1.9	-1.6	0.0091	I(0)

\*MacKinnon (1996) one-sided p-values

### 6.2 Co-integration: ARDL Bounds Test

After determine the optimal lag interval according to Schwarz and Akaike criteria (which is found to be 2 optimal lags), the ARDL co-integration bounds test (Wald test) is conducted to test for the long-run equilibrium relationship between the variables.

**Table 5:** the ARDL co-integration bounds test: Wald test

Wald Test:			
Equation: Untitled			
Test Statistic	Value	df	Probability
F-statistic	4.412310	(5, 12)	0.0164
Chi-square	22.06155	5	0.0005

Source: computed using E-views packages,  $k=4$  the  $n$  of independent variables in the ARDL model.

\*The critical values are extracted from Pesaran et al., 1999: table

(3): Case V with unrestricted Intercept and Unrestricted Trend.

The table (5) above shows the results of "Wald bound" test statistics for testing the significance of the lagged values of our variables under investigation. The first stage test result indicates the existence of a co-integrating relation of the dependent variable 'TFPG' with its regressors because the computed F-statistic of Wald bound test of value (4.4) is greater than the upper bound test critical value, the Pesaran critical value, (4.01) at  $\alpha=5\%$  and  $k=4$ . The existence of co-integration implies that the variables of the model have a tendency of moving together over the period of time. After finding that there is a co-integration in the model, we run the ARDL model.

### 6.3 The ARDL Model Results

The results of the ARDL method of co-integration for impact of education quality on TFPgrowth in Egypt are given in Table(6) in which dependent variable is TFPg with 34 observations used for estimation from 1980 to 2014. Test includes intercept(C) and order of the ARDL is set to two. We computed the long run coefficients of the ARDL model ( in the difference form) [11], which are given in the equation below:

$$D(TFPG)_t = 0.026 + 0.03 HE_t - 0.079 LnPREH_t + e_t$$

(0.045) (0.020) (0.062)

Following (Tang, 2001, 10) and after omitting the most insignificant variables one by one, findings revealed that the estimated long run coefficients of higher education ( $HE_t$ ) and pre-higher education ( $PREH_t$ ) variables are statistically significant with different signs (according to t -statistics test and standard error test).

Similarly the long run coefficients of the openness degree (trade) and illiterate workers ( $Ln H1_t$ ) variables are insignificant statistically. Results indicates that in long run total factor Productivity growth appears to be significantly enhanced by quality improvements in higher education but with a lower coefficient; where an increase of number of workers with higher education by 1 million worker will add to TFP growth by 0.03% which gives a sign of the possibility of promoting the economic growth through its positive spillover effect on TFP growth as it drives both innovation and imitation. Whereas, in long run the intermediate education variable will have a negative effect on TFG growth; where an increase of number of workers with higher education by 10 % worker will lessen TFP growth by 0.79% and that may hinder achieving a sustainable economic growth. That witnesses a problem in the education quality.

The minor positive long run impact of higher education expansion on TFP growth can be justified in the context of the general weakness of the education sector featured by lacking the educational institutions of qualified staff, equipment, and an appropriate infrastructure needed in the educational process. Besides the negative impact of intermediate education on TFP growth in Egypt is reasonable, but we should notice here that this category dominates the labor market demand; hence some reforms in the education system must be done on the basis of analysis and research.

**Table 6:** Autoregressive Distributed Lag Estimates

Model:  $TFPg = f(LnH1, LnPREH, HE, Trade, C)$

Dependent Variable: D(TFPG)				
Method: Least Squares				
Date: 01/10/17 Time: 18:10				
Sample (adjusted): 1983 2014				
Included observations: 32 after adjustments				
Variable	Coefficient	Std. Error	t-Statistic	Prob.
C	0.069328	0.045166	1.534984	0.1384
TFPG(-1)	-2.67027	0.28608	-9.33398	0
HE(-1)	0.090915	0.020464	4.44264	0.0002
LNPRES(-1)	-0.21149	0.062369	-3.39091	0.0025
D(TRADE)	-0.00682	0.001182	-5.76471	0
D(TFPG(-1))	0.845581	0.173469	4.874523	0.0001
D(TRADE(-1))	-0.00351	0.001347	-2.60508	0.0158
D(LNH1(-1))	-0.32631	0.117761	-2.77092	0.0109
D(TRADE(-2))	-0.00532	0.00124	-4.29303	0.0003
R-squared	0.892902	Mean dependent var		-0.00504
Adjusted R-squared	0.855651	S.D. dependent var		0.091075
S.E. of regression	0.034602	Akaike info criterion		-3.65753
Sum squared resid	0.027539	Schwarz criterion		-3.24529
Log likelihood	67.52046	Hannan-Quinn criter.		-3.52088
F-statistic	23.96958	Durbin-Watson stat		2.335304
Prob(F-statistic)	0			

Source: computed using E-views packages

While the lagged TFP growth variable has a positive effect on TFP growth and statistically significant at  $\alpha=5\%$ , the short run coefficients of both openness degree (trade) and illiterate workers (LN H1<sub>t</sub>) variables are negative and statistically significant at  $\alpha=5\%$  up to 2 lags and one lag period respectively. Such a negative association of openness of trade with TFP growth reflects the deficiency of economy in adopting or imitating the technology that trickles through trade. There could also be the reason of maximum dependence of domestic economy on foreign manufactured goods. The short run dynamic model is good as indicated by the significant F-statistic and R<sup>2</sup> (goodness of fit).

#### 6.4 Diagnostic Tests of the ARDL Model

The diagnostic test indicates that the model adequately passes the econometric pathology for residual serial correlation (Lagrange Multiplier test), functional form (Ramsey's RESET test), normality of residuals (Histogram: normality test Jarque-Bera) and heteroscedasticity. This is indicated by the *p*-value given within the square brackets. The result of the diagnostic test of the ARDL model is given in Table 7 below:

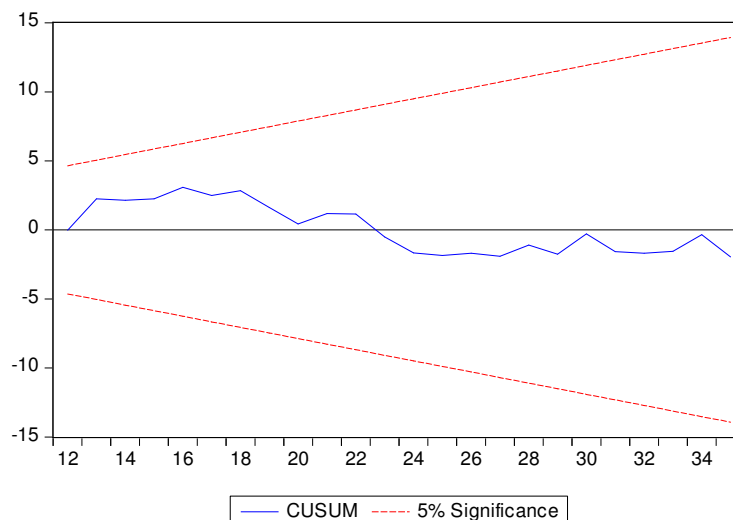
**Table 7:** Diagnostic Test of the ARDL Model :  $TFPg = f(LnH1, LnPREH, HE, Trade, C)$

Breusch-Godfrey serial correlation Lagrange Multiplier test	f-statistics (1.22) prob (0.31) Chi-square prob (0.18)
Heteroscedasticity test : Breusch- pagan-Godfrey	Chi-square prob (0.66) f-stat. prob (0.32)
Ramsey (RESET) test	f-statistics prob (0.46)
Histogram: normality test Jarque-Bera	Prob (0.512)

Source: computed using E-views packages

We further searched the stability of the ARDL model by plotting the cumulative sum of recursive residuals (CUSUM) as given in the figure (1) below. For stability of the short run dynamics and the long run equilibrium parameter of the TFP growth model, it is important that the recursive residuals and CUSUM of squares stay within the 5% critical bound (represented by two straight lines) as shown in figure (1), the CUSUM of squares plots cross the 5 percent critical lines, therefore, the paper concludes that the estimated parameters for the short run dynamics and long run equilibrium of the model are relatively stable. In other words, a stable TFP growth model exists over the entire sample period.

**Figure 1:** plot of the Cumulative Sum of Recursive Residual (CUSUM)



Other stability tests such as the Jarque-Bera normality in table(7) also supports the stability of the parameters in the TFP growth model. The results of the various tests suggest that the model is fairly well specified and robust for policy analysis.

## 8. Concluding Remarks and Policy Implications

A country that only pays attention to the physical capital and not human capital investment could be subjected to a serious distortion in its development (Michaelowa, 2000; Messbah, 2006). As Heckman (2005) argues, the trend in investing more in physical capital than in human capital by the Chinese government could retard the economic development of that country in the future (Rao, and Jani, 2009).

As being a key element of human capital formation, education considers one device for fostering economic growth and speeding up social development (Lee, (1989), pp 71-94); as it improves labor skills, efficiency, and enhances productivity which, in turn, put a stop to poverty and reduce the social and financial differentials among individuals within a nation (Saleh El Omr, 2012, 79-80). In addition, education stimulates economic development and improves people's lives quality through many channels, namely: by increasing the efficiency of the labor force and thus increasing an individual's earning potential, by fostering democracy and thus creating better conditions for good governance, by improving health, reducing fertility, boosting life expectancy, and enhancing equality ((Barro, 1998; Aghion et al. 1999). But we should be noticed that the positive spillover effects of education depends actually on the quality of education and on the extent of its matching with society needs (mussabeh, 2006; Michaelowa, 2000). The issue of improving productivity growth is well stressed in developing and less developing countries that confront a severe economic and social deterioration owing to the misuse of the available human and physical resources. Supported by many economic theories, education plays a role beyond that of physical capital in promoting TFP growth through facilitating the technological transfer; educated workers are better at implementing new ideas and have more ability to adapt to technological change and will introduce new production techniques more quickly (Nelson and Phelps, 1966; covers, 1975; Hao and Wei, 2009; Aggrey et al, 2010).

Egypt is a human capital rich country hence; paying attention to its education sector will enhance growth rates. But the impact of channels through which education promotes productivity growth is not restricted to the amount of resources devoted to the education sector, but includes the quality of education system as a matter of fact; as it transforms this money investment into qualified human capital stock capable of promoting productivity growth and hence economic growth rates. Hence, it's an important to give an attention to the output of education process. And since TFP growth issue is one of the hot-debated topics in recent studies, the focus in this paper on analyzing the impact of education quality, measured by different levels of education, on TFP growth during the period (1980-2014) of the Egyptian economy. The empirical study will be run by applying the Bounds Testing Approach to Co-integration constructed by Pesaran et al., (2001), followed by the Autoregressive Distributed Lag (ARDL) bounds test approach of co-integration suggested by Pesaran and Shin (1999). Also, the Gauss-Newton algorithm method is used in estimating the nonlinear production function to get the time series of the dependent variable TFP. In our study, the labor force is split into three groups; those who are illiterate, those with education level up to an intermediate degree, and those with university degree and above. And in estimating the impact of different education levels on TFP in Egypt during the period (1980-2014), the results turn out to reflect the prevailing status of the Egyptian educational system.

With reference to illiterate workers category; their share out of the Egyptian workforce has declined over the period of study, on average, from 61% during 80s to 44% during 90s and to 31% during the last three years. Findings show the negative and statistical insignificant impact of that sort of workforce on TFP growth and, in turn, slow down the long run economic growth rate. Actually, such a result is soundness; as illiterate workers lack neither the ability to recognize and apply the standing technology nor duplicating the more radical techniques.

Vis-à-vis the workforce with intermediate education category; their share out of the Egyptian workforce has amplified over the period of study from 30% during 80s, reached 34.7% during 90s, and gone to 45% during the last three years. Despite having adominant share in the Egyptian workforce, this education sort of workers has witnessed a negative meager impact on TFP growth and may impede the economic growth in long run owing to facing the difficulty of getting use of current know-how and imitating the advanced technology which requires high level of training with giving more attention to scientific research. Concerning those with university education degree; the contribution out of workforce has enlarged on average from 8.7% during 80s, reached 21.2% during 90s, and gone to 24% during the last three years. Suchan improvement in workforce construction showed a modest positive impact on TFPgrowth in Egypt and consequently on economic growth in long run. The paper also concludes that the estimated parameters for the short run dynamics and long run equilibrium of the model are relatively stable. In order words, a stable TFP growth model exists over the entire sample period. The results of the other Diagnostic tests suggest that the model is fairly well specified and robust for policy analysis.

To sum up, in the long run TFP gains in Egypt is driven only by high education, but with lower positive impact, whereasthe intermediate education expansion has a negative impact on TFP growth and this could be owed to a weak external and internal efficiency of public subsidization of education which is cleared in lacking the educational institutions of qualified staff, equipment, and an appropriate infrastructure needed in the educational process. In addition to high intensity of classrooms, a high youth's illiteracy rate, high dropout rates from the secondary education, the increased unemployed educated people as a percent of total unemployed individuals, and the lower education years of adult on average. All of these are reflected negatively on the quality of labor force, and eventually weak the impact of education as a leading factors to promote the economic growth despite over the past 3 decades Egypt has got a considerable progress in raising the net enrollment rate in all education stages. we should notice here that semi-skilled labor dominates the labor market demand; hence there should be more attention be given to this category and some reforms in the Egyptian education system must be done on the basis of analysis and research; as the real wealth for any society is its ability to make a better use of and develop its available human resources, with a notice that the reform outcomes will be appeared in the future not in the current time. To this end and based on our findings, the study recommends some reforms in the education system:

1. Egypt over the past forty years has underinvested in education and has few resources other than its abundant human capital. Hence, government should increase its budgetary productive public allocation to the education sector in order to meet up with the recommended UNDP requirement. also, government should be careful in managing the public spending on education in a way to increase the labor skills, and by guiding against mismanagement, misappropriation and diversion.
2. A rating performance indicator should be established for the educational sector to help to monitor progress in the sector. Also, vocational and technical education should be given more attention.
3. Distortion in wages should be handled in a way to reduce the current brain drain and that will help improve productivity of the national economy as a whole.
4. Government should create programs to train potential labor in gaining work based on learning experience and current workers and thus improve the quality of the workforce supply
5. There should be a link between firms requirements and academic educational programs in order for the skills required in the labor market to be matched with those developed in the education system.

## Endnotes

- [1] In his study,( Dension,1962 ) through applying “growth accounting approach”, found that the contribution of human capital to economic growth in USA is beyond that of natural resources, physical capital and labor. Besides education as a main component of human capital, is responsible for around 10% 15% of the economic growth rate in U.S.A.
- [2] In this paper I extend my work (Qutb, 2016) that examined the direct impact of education on the economic growth as being an input in the production function and focus on indirect channel through which human capital enhances economic growth.
- [3] Education attainment level is thought to be effective in enhancing the skills and knowledge and earnings potential of workers.
- [4] There are different methods applied by empirical works, look: Isaksson, (2008, 2009); Del Gatto, Di Liberto&Petraglia, (2011).
- [5] Islam (1995), Hall and Jones (1999), Kumar and Kober (2012) suggest in their studies that cross-country per-capita income differentials are largely accounted for by the differences in the total factor productivity (TFP) rather than by the differences in the use of factors of production.
- [6] The rationale for including human capital as an independent variable in the growth model is that the quality of human capital is a vital input along with physical capital and labor.
- [7] On the other hand, some economists such as Miller and Upadhyay (2000) viewed the trade policies that aim at protecting the domestic industries work as an obstacle for improving the level of human capital stock.
- [8] The regression residual method of estimating TFP is used in empirical works by several researchers (Thomas &Wang, 1993; Coe, Helpman&Hoffmaister, 1997; Miller &Upadhyay, 2000; Senhadji, 2000; Khatiwada& Sharma,2002; Vandenbussche, Aghion&Meghir, 2006, Dahal ,M., (2013 ; ShahzadAlvi,2013, Maurel and Seghir,2013; Saha,2013) including others.
- [9] We have not included any measure of the education-centered human capital variable in the production function to estimate TFP because empirical results have shown both positive and negative effect of the education variable in growth regressions.
- [10] The insignificance of K variable may be due to the multicollinearity between the variabkes.
- [11] The long run coefficients of the ARDL model in the difference form for any explanatory variable is calculated by dividing the coefficient of lagged value of explanatory variable (multiplied by a negative sign) by the coefficient of lagged value of dependent variable, while the short run coefficient is expressed by the coefficient of the first difference of the variables.

## References

- [1] Aggrey, N., 2007.“Effects of human capital on laour productivity in sub-Saharan Africa manufacturing firms”. paper presented at Globelics Conference, Malaysia
- [2] Aghion, Ph., Eve, C. and Garcia-Penalosa, C. 1999. “Inequality and economic growth: The perspective of the new growth theories”. Journal of Economic Literature, Vol37, pp: 1615-1660.
- [3] Aiyer, S., and Feyrer, J. 2002. “The Contribution To The Empirics of Total Factor Productivity”. Brown Macro Lunch Series, the Brown University Macroeconomics Seminar, the University of Copenhagen.
- [4] Akinlo, A. 2005. “Impact of Macroeconomic Factors on Total Factor Productivity in Sub-Saharan African Countries”. United Nations university, WIDER, WP.39, PP1:39.
- [5] Barro, Robert J. 1998. “Notes on growth accounting”. NBER Working Paper 6654, Cambridge, MA.
- [6] Benhabib, J., and Spiegel, M. 1994. “The Role of Human Capital in Economic Development:Evidence from Aggregate Cross-Country Data." Journal of Monetary Economics, VOL 34, NO(2), pp. 143-74



- [7] Chatzimichael, K, and Tzouvelekas, V. 2013. "Appropriateness of Technology, Human Capital Improvement, Technological Catch-Up and Labor Productivity Decomposition". *Journal of Productivity Analysis*, PP1-32.
- [8] Covers, F. 1997. "The Impact Of human capital on labour productivity in manufacturing sectors of the European union ". *Applied Economics*, vol29, issue8, pp 975-987
- [9] Dahal ,M. 2013. "Does Higher Education Affect Total Factor ProductivityIn Nepal?: An Exploration Through The Lens Of ARDL Bounds Test. *Economic*". *Journal of Development, Issues* Vol. 15 & 16 No. 1-2, PP: 76-102.
- [10] Denison, E.F. 1962. "The Sources of Economic Growth in the United States and the Alternatives before US". *CED Supplementary, Committee for Economic Development, New York*.
- [11] El Fiel, O. (2006), "The relation between wages and productivity in the transformation industries in Egypt: an empirical and analytical study in the context of ERSAP", PhD thesis, faculty of commerce, Alexandria university.
- [12] El Khatib, M. 2008. "Total Factor Productivity in the non -Oil Saudi Economic Sector". The King Saud University, PP: 1-28.
- [13] El Naka, A.2015. "TFP estimation in the Saudi Arabia". The faculty of commerce's scientific research journal, Alexandria University, Egypt.
- [14] Goldin , C. 2014. "Human Capital". *Handbook of Cliometrics*, Claude Diebolt and Michael Hauptert, editors Springer-Verlag,
- [15] Hao, R., and Wei, Z. 2009. "The Role of Human Capital in China's Total Factor Productivity Growth" <http://hwwa.de/Projects/ResProgrammes/RP/DevelopmentProcesses/VfSEL2000Rev.pdf>
- [16] Hua, P. 2005. "How Does Education At All Levels Influences Productivity Growth?".document de travail de la seie, CERDI, Universite de Auvergene, Vol 15, pp
- [17] Kumar, A., and Chen, W. 2013."Education, Health and the Dynamics of Cross-Country Productivity Differences". SSHRC, PP 1-30.
- [18] Lee, S. 1989."Education Manpower and Economic Growth". McGraw-Hill Book, New York, PP71-94.
- [19] Lee, E. 2007. "The role of education upgrading and experience accumulation in driving labor productivity growth in Hong Kong". *Third Quarter Economic Report*.
- [20] Maurel , M., and Seghir ,M. 2013. "The impact of education on TFP, implications for Senegal". Paper submitted at UNU-WIDER's conference held in Helsinki on 24-25 June, pp1-20.
- [21] Mankiw, N., Romer,D., and Weil,D. 1992. "A contribution to the empirics of economic growth".*Quarterly Journal of Economics*, Vol 107, pp407-437.
- [22] Messbah, E.2006. "The role of education and improved technical knowledge in achieving the human development". Working paper presented in workshop entitled "the human development challenges in the Arab world, the role of unions and youth employment chances. Syria.
- [23] Michaelowa, K. 2000." Returns to Education in Low Income Countries: Evidence for Africa". paper presented at the annual meeting of the committee on the developing countries of the German Economic Association, Hamburg,
- [24] Nelson,R., and Pheleps, E. 1966."Investment in Humans, Technological Diffusion and Economic Growth". *American Economic Reviews*, Vol 56, No 2, pp 69: 75.
- [25] Pritchett. L. 2001. "Where has all the education gone?"*World Bank Economic Review*, Volume 15, No (3), pp:367-391. available at: [www.hks.harvard.edu](http://www.hks.harvard.edu)
- [26] Qutb, R. 2016. Analyzing the External and Internal Efficiency Considerations in Public Subsidization of Education in Egypt. *Journal of Economics and Sustainable Development*, Vol 7, no 12, pp 164-172.

- [27] Qutb, R., and El Shennawy, I., 2016. "Exploring the Impact of Public Education Expenditure on the Economic Growth in Egypt". *International Research Journal of Finance and Economics* Issue 146.
- [28] Qutb, R., 2015. "The evaluation of public education financing policy in Egypt". Paper presented at: THEIER 17th International Conference on Economics and Social Sciences (ICESS), London, UK.
- [29] Rao, R., and Jani, R. 2009. "Spurring economic growth through education: The Malaysian approach". *Educational Research and Review*, Vol. 4 (4), pp. 135-140.
- [30] SalehElomr, I. 2012. "The relationship between education and economic growth in Saudi Arabia". *the faculty of commerce's scientific research journal, Alexandria university*, 2, 1-15.
- [31] Sanderson, W.C. and Striessnig, E. 2009. "Demography, Education, and the Future of Total Factor Productivity Growth". *International Institute for Applied Systems Analysis (IIASA) Interim Report*, PP: 1-57.
- [32] Shahzad , A. 2013. "Analyzing the impact of health and education on TFP: A Panel data approach". *Asian – African journal of economics and econometrics*, Vol 13, No 2 , PP:277-292.