

Exploring the Nexus between Migrant Remittances and Economic Growth: A Study of Senegal

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Abstract

In this study, we assess the relationship between migrant remittances and economic growth in Senegal. The analysis utilized on an econometric approach using the ARDL bound testing method as an estimation technique. The estimation period is from 1980 to 2018. Overall, the estimates show a negative relationship between remittances and economic growth and an insignificant effect in the long run, while the nexus between economic growth and investment is positive in the long term. This provides the prospect of a study on the analysis of the impact on the economic growth of reallocation of remittances from consumption needs to savings-investment purposes.

Index terms— migrant remittances; economic growth; ARDL.

1 Introduction

The increase in remittances over the past two decades to developing countries is generating growing interest among local authorities in migrants' countries of origin, as well as international organizations, such as: UN, World Bank, IMF, among others. Not only are the amounts involved very large in absolute and relative terms, but migrants have also proved to be real "development actors" through the financing of individual and collective projects through their regular remittances. Unrecorded flows through formal and informal channels are considered significantly important (Gammeltoft, 2002).

According to cross country comparative analyses and household survey data, migration and the resulting remittances improve household wellbeing in migrants' countries of origin. In other words, remittances contribute to a rise in investment in the health, education and small business sectors. In particular, they have a positive impact on the balance of payments in many developing countries, as well as on economic growth, through their direct implications for savings and investment in human and physical capital, as well as indirect effects through consumption (Adams and Page, 2005). These funds could have substantial multiplier effects when they increase household consumption levels, in this case rural households, as they are more likely to be spent on domestically produced goods (Ratha, 2003). Their positive development effects generally relate to the development of financial institutions that manage payments (Aggarwal et al., 2010), the use of remittances (Ratha, 2005) and the role of remittances as an alternative to debt that helps to ease individual credit constraints in countries where the financial system is less developed and microfinance is not widely available (Giuliano and Ruiz-Arranz, 2009). By increasing the amount of remittances flowing through the banking system, remittances are likely to lead to improved financial development and thus higher economic growth through one or both of the two channels: (1) increased economies of scale in financial intermediation, and/or (2) an effect on the political economy whereby a larger constituency (depositors) is able to pressure the government to carry out beneficial financial reform (Barajas et al., 2009).

However, attention should be paid to the positive impact of remittances in recipient economies because most of the remittances are sent through remittance agencies (Orozco et al., 2010). They are not considered financial intermediaries and do not necessarily participate in the development of the financial sector in the sense that they are not intended to provide credit. Also, remittances, like capital flows, can assess the real exchange rate

45 and therefore generate an allocation of resources from the non-marketable sector. The overvaluation of the
46 real exchange rate undermines long term economic growth, particularly for developing countries, in that they
47 suffer from disproportionate tradeable goods production, weak institutions and market failures (Rodrik, 2007).
48 Similarly, remittances, like capital flows, make it possible to assess the real exchange rate in recipient economies
49 and, consequently, they generate an allocation of resources from the non-marketable sector they generate an
50 allocation of resources from the non-marketable sector (Amuedo-Dorantes and Pozo, 2004; Mussolo et al.,
51 2007). They can affect growth because of the appreciation of the real exchange rate and the associated negative
52 impact on the marketable sector, otherwise known as Dutch disease, (Acosta et al., 2009). Remittances can
53 also undermine productivity and growth in low income countries because they are easily

54 2 Exploring the Nexus between Migrant Remittances and Economic Growth: 55

56 A Study of Senegal Summary-In this study, we assess the relationship between migrant remittances and economic
57 growth in Senegal. The analysis utilized on an econometric approach using the ARDL bound testing method as
58 an estimation technique. The estimation period is from 1980 to 2018. Overall, the estimates show a negative
59 relationship between remittances and economic growth and an insignificant effect in the long run, while the nexus
60 between economic growth and investment is positive in the long term. This provides the prospect of a study
61 on the analysis of the impact on the economic growth of reallocation of remittances from consumption needs to
62 savings-investment purposes.

63 spent on consumption that is likely to be dominated by foreign goods rather than productive investment
64 (Lipton, 1980).

65 Considering the case studies and their divergent results, the consensus that emerges is that these relationships
66 vary according to the contexts and areas where generalization is not possible. This could be partly explained by
67 the fact that the multiple channels through which remittances affect growth can lead to negative and/or positive
68 influences of these funds on long term economic activity. But also, by the fact that many countries still do
69 not have the institutions and infrastructure that would allow them to channel remittances into activities that
70 promote economic growth.

71 In the case of Africa, for example, there are still some grey areas. In this case, knowledge about the
72 macroeconomic impacts of migrant remittances is still fragmented. Senegal, with \$1.6 billion in remittances
73 reported in 2015, is the third country after Nigeria and Ghana among the top 10 countries in Sub Saharan Africa
74 that receive remittances from migrants. This makes Senegal a target country in the WAEMU zone. In 2014, the
75 amount of transfers reported represented 10.3 per cent of GDP and stood at 12 per cent of GDP in 2015, (World
76 Bank Factbook, 2016). Yet, looking at its profile, it can be noted that, in the specific case of Senegal, there is
77 a paucity of work to empirically analyze the contribution of migrant remittances to macroeconomic aggregates
78 such as economic growth. Most of the pioneering work has focused on microeconomic impacts such as those on
79 poverty.

80 In addition, in several developing countries, these fund transactions have become an important and stable
81 source of finance, and their amount exceeds that of foreign direct investment (FDI) and even official development
82 assistance (ODA). On the basis of World Bank data (World Bank, 2016), we can note that in Senegal from 2000
83 until today, remittances continue to increase with an average growth rate of 15 per cent over this period with
84 a slight decline noted during the period of the 2008 financial crisis. Remittances from Senegalese migrants thus
85 far exceed FDI and ODA, especially the latter, which have been steadily declining. It shows that remittances
86 from migrants have not only become higher than FDI and ODA, but their growth more than compensates for
87 the decline in the latter.

88 The objective of this article is to analyze the interactions between migrant remittances and economic growth
89 in Senegal. The central assumption underlying this analysis is that the contribution of remittances to economic
90 growth depends on how they are used in the receiving country.

91 The remainder of this article is structured as follows: section 2 presents a synthesis of recent empirical studies
92 on the relationship between migrant remittances and economic growth; section 3 outlines the methodology and
93 data; and section 4 describes and interprets the main findings, before concluding.

94 3 II. Synthesis of Empirical Work in the

95 Light of a Divergence of Visions

96 The existing literature reports two visions depending on the nature of the impacts of remittances on economic
97 growth in countries of origin: an optimistic view of positive impacts and a pessimistic view that takes into account
98 negative impacts.

99 4 a) Positive impacts or optimists' vision

100 There is generally evidence that there is a positive relationship between remittances and economic growth.
101 McCaffrey (2007), studying the impact of migrant remittances on economic growth in developing countries,
102 using a data set containing information on 152 low and middle income countries (according to World Bank

103 classification) from 1990 to 2005, with 1,409 complete observations. By using two main statistical methods,
104 ordinary least squares and Fixed Effects Estimation, he finds results suggesting that remittances have a positive
105 impact on growth. However, he finds that remittances have a more positive impact in countries with certain
106 characteristics such as low domestic credit availability, low capital formation and low inflation. More specifically
107 for African countries, Anyanwu and Erhijakpor (2009), using panel data over the period 1990-2005, find, by
108 using a two-step (IV) efficient generalised method of moments (GMM) estimation method, that remittances have
109 a positive impact on economic growth. Azam and Khan (2011), making statistical analysis through simple log
110 linear regression model and conducting method of least square by using annual time series data from Azerbaijan
111 and Armenia between 1995 and 2010, conclude that migrant workers' remittances have a significant positive
112 impact on economic growth.

113 On the other hand, one of the issues that has attracted interest is the sense of causality between remittances
114 and economic growth, which does not seem to be unidirectional in all cases. For example, Siddique et al. (2012)
115 studied the causal link between remittances and economic growth in three countries: Bangladesh, India and
116 Sri Lanka. By using time series data over a 25 year period and employing the Granger causality test under a
117 Vector Auto regression (VAR) framework, they find that the growth in remittances led to economic growth in
118 Bangladesh; this result is later reinforced by Kumar and Stauvermann (2014). However, in India, they find that
119 there does not appear to be a causal link between remittance growth and economic growth; but in Sri Lanka, they
120 find a two way causality, in other words, economic growth influences remittance growth and vice versa. However,
121 Paranavithana (2014), employing time series annual data over the 1977-2012 period, was able to demonstrate
122 an empirical evidence based on the vector error correction model that there is no direct or indirect short term
123 causality between remittances and economic growth in Sri Lanka. Imoro et al. (2014), for three of the largest
124 recipients of funds in West Africa, Nigeria, Senegal and Togo, confirm, through a VAR regression associated
125 with Granger's causality and cointegration tests on the time series data made of an annual data from 1980-2012,
126 the existence of a unidirectional causal link in Nigeria and Senegal; in other words, remittances translate into
127 economic growth while economic growth does not result in remittances. However, their results suggest that there
128 is no causal link between remittances and economic growth in Togo.

129 However, even if there is evidence that remittances positively affect growth, it would appear that its impacts
130 are channeled through investment channels that would be responsible for the effect on growth. The role of financial
131 development in this circumstance has been widely explored. Ramirez (2012), using panel unit root and panel
132 cointegration tests and the Fully Modified OLS methodology (FMOLS), estimates the impact of remittances on
133 economic growth in selected higher (middle) and lower income countries in Latin America and the Caribbean over
134 the period 1990-2007. The results show a sign of the term interaction between remittances and credit variables
135 that suggests that remittances are a substitute for these variables. Indeed, the effect of remittances on both sets
136 of countries is stronger when there is a financial variable (credit). Similar results have been found by Nusrate
137 et al. (2015), who conclude, by using a system GMM and the fixed effects estimators for panel data analysis for
138 72 countries over the 1980-2009 period, that workers' remittances through financial development significantly
139 accelerate economic growth. They also find that, in the face of financial liberalization and trade openness, the
140 payment of workers significantly promotes economic growth. The empirical results of Luqman and Haq (2016)
141 obtained by using a autoregressive distributed lag (ARDL) bound testing approach of cointegration, which is
142 based on time series data over the period from 1972 to 2011, validate the hypothesis that the development of the
143 local financial sector improves the contribution of remittances to economic growth in Pakistan.

144 5 b) Negative impacts or pessimistic views

145 In contrast to the above mentioned empirical findings, some studies have shown that remittances do not have a
146 significant positive impact on economic growth. Karagoz (2009), using data from Turkey over the period 1970
147 to 2005 to identify the relationship between worker transfers and long term economic growth, finds, through
148 cointegration tests, results that suggest that the relationship between workers' remittances and economic growth
149 is negative and significant. Adouka et al. (2014) find similar results in the case of Algeria where they were able
150 to show, using a vector error correction model (VECM) on data over the period (1970-2010), that remittances
151 have a negative impact on the Algerian economy in the short and long term, since a 1 per cent increase in
152 remittances would lead to a decrease of 0.02 per cent in GDP per capita in the short term and 0.006 percent
153 in the long term. Similarly in Ethiopia, Rao and Tolcha (2016) studied the impact of remittances on economic
154 growth using time series from 1981 to 2012 from the World Bank and the National Bank of Ethiopia. The results
155 of estimates using an ARDL model show a negative impact on long term growth.

156 Moreover, it would even appear that remittances may even harm the long term growth of recipient economies
157 due to a decline in labour supply and labour market participation rates. Indeed, various studies have shown
158 that the receipt of remittances can determine the reduction in the effort that the person is willing to make in
159 order to achieve a certain income, by replacing the income obtained by work. It affects the economic activity of
160 many countries. For example, Acosta (2007), analysing the impact of remittances on labour availability in Latin
161 America and the Caribbean by using a fixed effects probit on a 4 year rural panel survey, showed that men in
162 rural areas who receive remittances are 4.6 per cent more likely to leave the labour market (9.9% for women) and
163 those in urban areas by 5.7 per cent more likely to leave their work (10.7% for women). The higher percentage
164 in urban areas is due to higher opportunities compared to rural areas; Also, men in rural areas from families

8 THE STATIONARY PROPERTIES OF TIME SERIES VARIABLES ARE EXAMINED BY PHILLIP PERRON UNIT ROOT TESTS (PP) AND DICKEY FULLER AUGMENTED UNIT ROOT TESTS (ADF).

165 receiving remittances tend to work 4.5 fewer hours per week (in the case of women 13.3 hours) and those in urban
166 areas 5.5 fewer hours (women 8.6 hours). In summary, the impact of remittances on economic growth can be
167 direct, or indirect, positive or negative depending on the cases studied. are coefficients that capture the effects
168 of associated variables (K, KH and L) on production. The parameter vector captures the growth effects driven
169 by the variables included in . The term is a random disturbance that captures the aggregate effect of all other
170 unobservable factors.

171 (2)

172 Where, is the production per unit of labour force, is the physical capital per unit of labour force and the
173 human capital per unit of labour force.

174 By proceeding by a logarithmic transformation, equation (2) becomes:

175 (3)

176 It can be assumed that the effect of the fallout of the control variables on economic growth is achieved
177 through technological progress A.

178 The empirical model below is derived from equation (??) by generalizing and incorporating at the aggregate
179 level the control variables included in X: (4) All the variables in the model are presented in Table 3. The choice
180 of these variables was guided by the theoretical and empirical literature and data availability.

6 b) Data and Estimation technique ? Data and description of variables

183 The period covered by the study runs from 1980 to 2018 and the data are mainly from the World Bank (WB)
184 database updated in 2017.

185 The dependent variable in this study is the real GDP per capita growth rate (GDP). The main variable of
186 interest (explanatory) is the ratio of remittances to GDP (TR). Remittances are expressed as a percentage of
187 GDP, because as in McCaffrey (2007) the research question focuses on the interactions of the flow of remittances
188 with economic growth rather than on the impact of marginal changes in this flow on growth. The coefficient and
189 direction of interaction of remittances on growth is complex, depending on whether remittances are consumed
190 or invested but also on the channels through which they impact on growth. Other independent variables include
191 the traditional determinants of growth. The lagged real GDP per capita growth rate (GDPT-1) is used as a proxy
192 for the initial real GDP growth rate. The impact of this first on GDP growth at time t is assumed to be positive.
193 The physical capital stock or investment rate, defined here as the ratio of gross fixed capital formation to GDP
194 (GFCF), is expected to have a positive effect on per capita growth, but the sign is more dependent on the type of
195 scale returns that may be present. Since the work of Mankiw et al (1992), Barro (1991) and Barro (2000), there
196 has been a general consensus on the positive role played by human capital in long term economic growth. Also,
197 endogenous growth theory predicts that human capital accumulation should stimulate growth (Romer, 1986).
198 Human capital (KH) is measured by the higher education enrolment rate (Barro, 2000). Openness is captured
199 by capital flows measured by the ratio of FDI to GDP (FDI). In the theoretical literature, the FDI received
200 is supposed to stimulate the growth of the host economy at several levels. However, empirical evidence on the
201 effects of FDI on economic growth remains mixed. As in developing countries, government plays an important
202 role in the allocation and allocation of resources. Thus, the ratio of public expenditure to GDP (G) is used to
203 capture fiscal policy that is expected to have a positive impact on growth.

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7 Source: Authors

205 ? Estimation technique The model to be estimated, as specified above, is a long term dynamic linear model.
206 One of the simplest techniques is for OLS to estimate the coefficients of each explanatory variable to assess their
207 long term effects on economic growth. However, applying such a technique directly is likely to lead to fallacious
208 results because the validity of this model requires the validation of a number of assumptions. One of the frequent
209 constraints to the use of OLS is the stationary nature of the variables. The stationarity of the series guarantees
210 better estimates.
211

8 The stationary properties of time series variables are examined by Phillip Perron unit root tests (PP) and Dickey Fuller augmented unit root tests (ADF).

215 The results of the unit root tests (Table 3) show that the variable LGDP is integrated in order I(1). But given
216 that the first difference of the logarithm of GDP (D(LGDP)) gives the GDP growth rate, we consider the latter
217 (taken as the dependent variable) to be stationary. The variable LG is stationary. Unlike these variables, the
218 rest of the explanatory variables LGFCF, LKH, LGFCF and the main variable of interest LTR, are integrated in
219 order I(1). Given that not all series are stationary, the validity of OLS techniques is questioned. Consequently,
220 cointegration by the ARDL (AutoRegressive Decaled Lag) method, which is a special case of autoregressive
221 models with stepped delays, developed by Pesaran and Shin (1995) and Pesaran et al (2001), is required in this

study for several reasons: On the one hand, the ARDL approach allows cointegration tests to be applied to time series with different levels of integration, which makes it less constraining; on the other hand, it provides better statistical properties compared to the Engle-Granger cointegration test with more flexibility, as it uses the error correction model without constraint; and finally, it also gives more reliable results compared to the Engle-Granger and Johansen cointegration tests when the sample size is small. The ARDL model in its general formulation is written:

(5)

The empirical model, as specified in equation (5), is estimated by the ARDL method using an autoregressive distributed offset. The error correction model (ECM) can be expressed as follows: (6) With the error correction term.

(7)

The ARDL (m, q) model that captures the short term and long term relationships from equation (7) and equation (8) of the error correction model can be specified as follows: (8) After determining the existence of cointegration between the variables, the following equation determines the long term relationship: (9) With q the number of delays for each variable.

In addition, we can obtain a standardised equation that reflects the long term relationship using the method recommended by Bardsen (1989). By this approach, the long term coefficient (or long-term elasticities) of each explanatory variable in the ARDL model is obtained by assigning a negative sign to the ratio of the coefficient of each explanatory variable to the coefficient of the dependent variable lagged one period minus 1. The long term relationship is then written: Furthermore, according to Pesaran and Pesaran (1997), short term dynamics are essential to test the stability of long term coefficients. Pesaran's (1997) test is equivalent to estimating the error correction models (ECMs) and applying the CUSUM and CUSUMSQ tests: (11) With TCE the error correction term calculated from the cointegration vector.

9 IV. Empirical Results and Discussions a) Determination of the number of lag and cointegration

test.

? Determination of the number of lag in the representation ARDL (m,q). Based on the Akaike Information Criteria, we can determine the optimal lag for each variable. The ARDL model performs regressions to obtain the optimal delay for each variable with p the maximum delay and k the number of variables in the equation. The ARDL (1, 3, 0, 3, 2, 4) model is selected because it offers the lowest Akaike Information Criteria value and therefore is the best model (figure 2). The order of variables is: LGDP; LGFCF; LKH; LTR; IDE and LG Source: Authors' (estimations) Figure ??: Determination of the optimal lag By the robustness tests that help to diagnose the estimated ARDL model (1, 3, 0, 3, 2, 4), all post estimation tests validate the model: there is normality of errors, there is no autocorrelation of errors, there is no heteroskedasticity and model is well specified (see table 4). Note: from the P-Value, the null hypothesis cannot be rejected for all postestimation tests.

10 ? Cointegration test

The cointegration test makes it possible to determine the existence of a long term equilibrium using statistical procedures such as the Wald test. The null hypothesis tested is as follows:

It will be said that there is no long term relationship between the variables if the null hypothesis is rejected. On the other hand, if the null hypothesis is accepted, it means that there is a long term relationship between the variables. From the Wald test, the value of the F statistic (F-statistic) can be obtained and the null hypothesis test is thus implemented by comparing its value with the critical values provided by Pesaran et al (2001). If the F-statistic calculated from the Wald test is greater than the upper limit value, the null hypothesis is rejected, but if the calculated F-Statistic is less than the lower limit value, the null hypothesis is accepted.

The following table provides the critical values tabulated by Pesaran (2001) and Narayan (2005). Narayan tabulated critical values for small samples. According to the author, when the sample size is less than 100, the critical values provided by Pesaran and Pesaran (1997) and Pesaran et al (2001) may not be correct. The results provide evidence of a long term relationship between the variables in the model. Indeed, the value calculated of the F-Statistic by the Wald test (8.11) is higher than the limits above the 5 per cent threshold. Since a long term relationship has been established, we can assume that there is a common long term trend between the variables. Thus, the long term coefficients of the variables are considered statistically significant. b) Estimation of the model ARDL (1,3, ??,3,2,4) and Interpretations of results

11 ? Long term relationship (LT)

The results of the estimation of the long term relationship (table 6) show that the relationship between growth and the main interest variable, remittances, is not significant in the long run. In the absence of significance, no economic interpretation can be provided concerning the relationship between these two aggregates. However, we can be noted that the long term relationship between investment and economic growth is positive and significant at the 1 per cent threshold with a coefficient of 1.17 per cent. Investment is an important component of growth

12 CONCLUSION

280 which, in the long terms influences demand through multiplier effects but also influences supply by increasing
281 production capacities. Also, the results show a significant but negative long term relationship between foreign
282 direct investment and growth at the threshold of 1 per cent with a coefficient of 0.16 percentage points. The
283 negative sign refers to the fact that most of the capital invested is repatriated. The other control variables
284 involved are not significant in the long term.

285 Volume XX Issue IV Version I ? Short term dynamics (ST)

286 The estimation results presented in Table ?? indicate a negative and significant coefficient of the error correction
287 term (TCE). This coefficient indicates how quickly equilibrium is restored during the same period when the model
288 is out of equilibrium following a shock; which guarantees an error-correction mechanism, and thus the existence
289 of a long term relationship (cointegration) between variables.

290 We can also note that migrant remittances are negatively correlated with real GDP growth in the short term.
291 These results may corroborate several previous studies. Chami, Fullenkamp and Jahjah (2005) have shown that
292 remittances can be correlated with poor economic performance in the recipient country. This would tend to show
293 that the objective of compensating for income losses following a deteriorated economic situation is one of the
294 main reasons for income transfers. Indeed, they have developed a model that differentiates between transfers
295 that serve as compensation and those that function as capital flows. They explain that remittances are not profit
296 driven but compensatory transfers and should have a negative correlation with economic growth in contrast to
297 profit driven capital flows that are positively correlated with economic growth.

298 In addition, the negative effect of remittances on real GDP per capita could be due to the increase in household
299 purchasing power, which leads to an increase in final consumption demand. To thi s end, transfers are mainly
300 intended for final consumption purposes (generally dominated by imported goods to the detriment of domestic
301 production and sometimes even ostentatious), and not for productive investment and value added creation. In
302 the case of Senegal, for example, a high proportion (69.8%) of remittances are for current consumption ??BCEAO
303 Survey, 2011).

304 With regard to the other explanatory variables, we can note that investment has a negative effect on economic
305 growth in the short term. In c ontrast , for foreign direct investment, the negative relationship observed in the
306 long term can only be ob served for lagging 0; with lags 1, 2 and 3, the effect on growth remains positive and
307 significant. On the other hand, public expenditure has a positive effect on economic growth in the short term.

308 12 Conclusion

309 In this article, we have tried to study the long term and short term effects of migrant remittances on economic
310 growth for a target country: Senegal. Other variables were also considered, such as g overnment expenditure,
311 foreign direct investment flows, which act as control variables, and the stock of human and physical capital, which
312 are use variables of the Solow (1956) basic theoretical model. The study period is from 1980 to 2018.

313 The « ARDL Bound Testing » approach of Pesaran and Shin (1999) was applied and the results indicate the
314 existence of a cointegration relationship between the variables, which refers to a long term relationship between
315 them.

316 The estimation of the long term relationship shows show that the relationship between real GDP per capita
317 growth in Senegal and remittances is not significant in the long run. The estimation of the error correction
318 model (ECM), which also allows us to capture the short term dynamics, shows a negative relationship with
319 growth at the 1 per cent threshold. This could be explained, on the one hand, by their objective of compensating
320 for income losses following a deteriorated economic situation, thus playing a stabilizing role on the growth of
321 developing economies and a role in mitigating shocks; on the other hand , by the fact that transfers are essentially
322 intended for consumption, which are mostly made in imported goods, and not for investment purposes, which,
323 moreover, through the results obtained, support the empirical evidence that the latter stimulate growth. Indeed,
324 the estimation results show that investments have a positive impact on real GDP growth per capita in the long
325 run. In general, it can be concluded that, although remittances from migrants represent an important sustainable
326 lever for economic growth. The investment channel could be the best way for remittances to boost growth, as
327 long as it is accepted and proven that they have a positive effect on growth. This opens the prospect of a study
328 on the analysis of the impact on economic growth of the reallocation of remittances from consumption needs to
saving s-investment purposes. financial source, their use does not constitute a



Figure 1:

329

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Figure 2:



Figure 3:



Figure 4:



Figure 5: Tableau 7 :



Figure 6: Figure 2 :



Figure 7:

1

Variable	Description	Sources
Economic growth	GDPProxy: Real GDP per capita	World Development Indicators
Physical capital stock	GFCF Proxy: Gross fixed capital formation as a % of GDP	World Development Indicators
Human capital	KHProxy: Enrolment rate in higher education	UNESCO Institute for Statistics (UIS.Stat)
Transfers of funds	TRPersonal migrants' remittances as a % of GDP	World Development Indicators
Public expenditure	G Public expenditure as a % of GDP	World Development Indicators
Foreign Direct Investments	FDFForeign Direct Investment as a % of GDP	World Development Indicators

Source: Authors

Note that all variables have been log transformed according to equation 4 (except for the FDI variable which has negative values). The descriptive statistics of the variables, presented in Table 4, show a relatively low volatility across a relatively low standard deviation for the variables LGDP (0.32), LG FCF and LG (0.17); while the volatility is relatively high for the variables LKH (0.55), LTR (0.71) and LFDI (1.02).

Figure 8: Table 1 :

12 CONCLUSION

2

Variable	Mean	Std.Dev	Min	Max
LGDP	6.80	0.32	6.30	7.33
LGFCF	3.01	0.15	2.61	3.26
LKH	1.50	0.55	0.83	2.55
LTR	1.37	0.71	0.45	2.34
LG	-1.87	0.17	-2.07	-1.40
FDI	1.20	1.02	-0.99	2.98

Figure 9: Table 2 :

3

Variable	Level	ADF Di fference 1st	Level	PP Di fference 1st	Fi nding
LGDP	-0.69	-5.25***	-0.82	-5.25***	I(1)
LGFCF	-2.38	-7.45***	-2.73*	-8.85***	I(1)
LKH	1.05	-5.82***	1.15	-5.85***	I(1)
LTR	-0.63	-4.83***	-0.33	-4.83***	I(1)
LG	-3.48**		-3.22**		I(0)
FDI	-1.14	-11.66***	-2.76*	-11.66***	I(1)

Significance: *** (1%) ** (5%) * (10%)

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Source:
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Figure 10: Table 3 :

4

Hypothesi s tested	Type of Test	Value statistic	Probability
Normality	Jarque-Bera	3.62	0.16
Serial Correlatio n	Breusch-Godfrey	0.44	0.65
Heteroskedasticity	Breusch-Pagan-Godfrey	0.74	0.73
Specification	Ramsey (Fisher)	2.36	0.15

Figure 11: Table 4 :

5

	Narayan	Pesaran	(2001)	
	I(0)	I(1)	I(0)	I(1)
	bound	bound	bound	bound
Critical value limits to 5%	3.03	4.44	2.39	3.38
K=5	F-Statistics calculated: 8.11			

Figure 12: Table 5 :

6

Variable	Long Run Coefficients	
	Coefficient	Std. Error
LGFCF	1.17***	0.32
LKH	0.13	0.09
LTR	-0.09	0.19
IDE	-0.16***	0.07
LG	-0.01	0.04
C	1.63**	0.64

Significance at : *** (1%) ** (5%) * (10%)

Figure 13: Tableau 6 :

12 CONCLUSION

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