HUMAN CAPITAL AND THE EVALUATION OF UNIVERSITY EFFICIENCY

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Foreword

Policies for Education and Training form an important part of the EU’s Lisbon strategy. Governments see the contribution of education and training systems as vital for the achievement of the broader goals of growth, employment, social cohesion and individual well-being. As their contribution to the Lisbon Strategy, Ministers for Education adopted common objectives for the improvement of education and training systems and a work program to achieve these objectives. The program, known as the Education & Training 2010 program, ¹ is implemented through the open method of coordination, and indicators and benchmarks play an important monitoring role and provide support to the exchange of experiences and good practices.

As recognized in the Council Conclusions “the establishment of the ‘research unit on lifelong learning’ at the Joint Research Centre in Ispra can significantly increase the Commission’s research capacity in terms of the development of new indicators.” ² The establishment of the Centre for Research on Lifelong Learning (CRELL) at the Joint Research Centre (JRC) in Ispra has therefore emerged from the need better analyze and monitor the education and training systems in Europe and their contribution to the achievement of the Lisbon goals. CRELL has started its operation at the beginning of 2005 in Ispra within the Institute for the Protection and Security of the Citizen (IPSC), Unit of Applied Statistics and Econometrics.

CRELL research develops along two main streamlines:

- Skills for the Knowledge Society and Greater Social Cohesion
- Education and training for human capital formation

The latter research strand focuses on the fact that education and training produce subsequent private benefits in terms of earnings and employment prospects. Human capital accumulation is also valuable for the society as a whole. In particular, education has sizable market benefits through its contribution to economic growth as well as non market externalities. Despite these benefits, the performance of educational and training systems varies greatly across EU countries. The evaluation of the consequences associated with current choices and designs of education and training systems is thus necessary. The research activities aim to investigate the labor market outcomes associated with human capital accumulation and to further study the internal and external efficiency of educational systems with the purpose to contribute to the current debate on how to improve the effectiveness of expenditures in education.

Within this research area, the JRC-CRELL organized an international symposium “Methodological Tools for Accountability Systems in Education”, Ispra, 6-9 February, 2006. The symposium attracted eminent speakers from the US, Australia, UK, Hong Kong, Europe, the Commission, JRC, OECD and IEA and provided a high-level forum for a methodological and technical debate on the characteristics of accountability systems for education. The conclusions of the work indicate that knowledge of the social and individual factors that influence student achievement, availability of longitudinal data, existence of large scale international projects, and reliable measures of student achievement are some of the essential ingredients for producing tools for observing and sustaining the progress of European educational systems. Moreover, Multilevel modelling and Rasch analysis are the two statistical methodologies that provide most insights with respect to the foresaid mix.

The following paper, by Pier Giorgio Lovaglio and Giorgio Vittadini, is one of the contributions to the workshop and focuses on the process of evaluation of the external efficiency of higher education, defined as the effect of university education on the long-term income of graduates; in particular the authors propose the use of human capital as the outcome of interest and a proper methodology to estimate it as the latent variable in the presence of reflective, formative and concomitant indicators. Finally, in the application of the methodology a comparison is made between human capital in Italy and the USA, estimated using the most recent national sample surveys on income and wealth.

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JRC-CRELL

² Council Conclusions of May 2005 (2005/C 141/04)
1. Human capital, the outcome of university efficiency evaluation

A strong consensus emerges in accountability studies regarding the necessity of overcoming the problem of “selection bias” (Garen, 1984), due to the non-randomisation of individuals between treatments (different universities or university degrees); this concerns the “coeteris paribus” evaluation process (effectiveness and efficiency of higher education), and the adjustment of “outcome” for the effects of individual characteristics, school or university resources and context variables linked to the local market or geographical area (Fitz-Gibbon, 1997; Scheerens & Bosker, 1997; Hanushek, 1997).

In order to resolve this problem, a series of studies (Bryk and Weisberg, 1977; Rogosa et al., 1982; Rogosa & Willett, 1985; Rogosa, 1995) use growth modelling to understand individual change, while many other authors propose multilevel models (Goldstein, 1995). Multilevel models are used with repeated measures data, being observations ‘nested’ within individuals, in order to accommodate the fixed effects of treatment and time and the covariation between observations on the same subject at different times.

The quite ample literature regarding mixed effects models, multilevel models and models for longitudinal data offers solutions for treating data with complex hierarchical structures, considering both individual and aggregate levels of analysis (Goldstein, 1995; Goldstein & Spiegelhalter, 1996; Verbeke & Molenberghs, 2000). Particular features in the applications make the field of education a fertile ground for applications based on suitable mixed-effects regression models applied to observational studies (Copas & Eguchi, 2001; Rosenbaum, 2002; Fitz-Gibbon, 1997; Scheerens & Booker, 1997).
In the evaluation of accountability systems, a list of the most important methodological issues would surely comprise: inference in non-linear models and mixed effects models (McCulloch & Searle, 2000); efficiency and robustness of fixed and random effects estimators (Neuhaus & Kalbfleisch, 1998); treatment of endogenous regressors and omitted variable problems (Frees, 2001; Heagerty & Kurland, 2001); treatment of data with hierarchical and/or cross-classified structures (Goldstein, 1995); modelling of latent variables and outcome variables with presence of zeros (Tooze et al., 2002); generalised linear models with endogeneity and selection bias (Johnson et al., 2003).

Concerning university accreditation processes, while in the last twenty years numerous studies have analysed relative effectiveness between different agents based on outcomes in different universities (Bryk et al., 1998; Biggeri et al., 2001; Chiandotto, 2005), there are very few that provide an analysis of external efficiency.

The extension of external efficiency analysis is not limited by methodological problems. In effect, it is possible to use the multilevel model in a longitudinal version with random effects to evaluate relative impact and external efficiency in universities (Lovaglio & Vittadini, 2006), defined as the effect of higher education on the income of university graduates. However, as education and economics literature suggests (World Bank, 1992; OECD, 1986; Dagum & Slottje, 2000; United Nations, 2002; Wößmann, 2003), income does not represent the appropriate outcome for the measurement of the long-term monetary effects of higher education. The evaluation of external efficiency should more properly be based on human capital (HC), defined as an individual’s expected earned income relative to the skills and abilities acquired through education (Becker, 1964), or, more precisely, that part of earned income related to skills and abilities acquired through education. The present paper aims to furnish an initial contribution towards this aim.
2. Human capital

As a concept, human capital (HC) has existed for some time, having been discussed by William Petty in the 17th century and later by Richard Cantillon and Adam Smith. In the last 50 years it has attracted great attention from economists, particularly the Chicago school (Becker, 1964). Human capital has been measured by both the retrospective (Kendrick, 1976; Eisner, 1985) and the prospective methods (Farr, 1853; Dublin & Lotka, 1930; Jorgenson & Fraumeni, 1989). The first method deals only with the cost of production and ignores social costs, such as public investment in education, home conditions, community environment, health conditions, and other variables related to personal abilities (Dagum & Vittadini, 1996). Nevertheless, it is extremely difficult to measure the cost of individual and family investment in HC; in fact, general costs of education, housing, food, clothing, health care and transportation are indistinguishable from the costs of investment in HC (Dagum & Slottje, 2000). Moreover, family investment in HC is not only financial: parental investment of time is essential to the creation of HC (OECD, 1998).

The prospective method, on the other hand, measures HC as a function of a hypothetical flow of earned income, ignoring the amount of investment in education, job training and other variables. It has the limitation of estimating only an individual HC based on an unreliable flow of future incomes.

HC as a macroeconomic measure has been measured by means of many different indicators connected with: the quality and length of schooling (i.e. educational infrastructures, student-teacher ratios, teaching methods, aggregate ability test scores); public and private investment in education and in research and development; health systems (quality and accessibility of health systems, advancement of medical knowledge, public policy decisions affecting public health, environmental determinants of health, individual life styles); equal opportunity, legislation on behaviour, social institutions systems (social security systems, social welfare, income redistribution policies, public transfers, labour and entrepreneur trade unions, etc.); economic environment; and the social-cultural environment of place of residence (World Bank, 1992; OECD, 1986; United Nations, 2002; Wößmann, 2003).

In particular, the educational attainment approach recommends the measurement of HC through such indicators as the percentage of the population which have successfully
completed various levels of formal education, adult literacy rates, school enrolment ratios, average years of schooling or number of person school-years embodied in the labour force (OECD, 1998; Wößmann, 2003). Nevertheless, the most used proxies of macroeconomic differences in the equality of educational systems (i.e. educational infrastructure, student-teacher ratios, ratio of public spending on education to GDP, educational expenditure per student, teachers’ salaries) are not strongly and consistently linked to acquired cognitive skills (Hanushek, 1996; Wößmann, 2003). Instead, it has been claimed that not only is the quantity of education important but also the quality of years of schooling, i.e. “the cognitive skills learned during each one of these years” (Wößmann, 2003). In this sense the quality ranking of schools and universities attended, or the degree of centralisation of examinations, as well as the level of a school’s autonomy are all strongly connected to the quality of an educational institution, and can therefore also be used as proxies of HC. Moreover, different skills or abilities (problem solving, self-discipline, numeracy) tested at the end of school or university attendance are directly connected with investment in HC and could therefore belong to formative indicators for estimating HC (Hanushek & Kimko, 2000; Wößmann, 2003). For this reason international agencies propose tests in general literature (IALS, OECD) or mathematics and science (for a list see OECD, 1998; Hanushek & Kimko, 2000; Wößmann 2003). Clearly this information is extremely useful for estimating the macroeconomic aggregate HC.
3. Estimation of human capital

The personal (household) HC is defined as the present value of a flow of earned income, throughout an individual’s life span, generated by his/her ability, home and social environments, and investments in education, i.e. the set of working attributes of a person that generate a steady flow of income.

From a methodological point of view, HC is a latent variable linked by a set of formative indicators (that define it as combination) and a set of reflective indicators (that represent its effects).

Therefore, individual or household HC–indicators such as years of schooling must be taken into account in order to measure HC as a latent variable (LV), even if these indicators are not sufficient to quantify the stock of HC.

The aggregate prospective method suggests quantifying the HC stock of an individual or a household by measuring earning power (Le et al., 2003); indeed, the rate of earnings of university graduates compared to that of non-graduate workers does provide a measure of the former’s HC (OECD, 1998). Thus, as the prospective method suggests, the rate of return of earned income must be taken into account in order to measure the effects of HC investment. In this way, the household lifelong income based on personal income (higher post-tax earnings, extra tax earnings, capital income derived by investment in HC (OECD, 1998) actualised by means of an adequate actuarial method (United Nations, 2002) can be considered as proxies of the effects of investment in HC and thus used as reflective indicators.

The method we now present for the estimation of household human capital takes information from national surveys on household income and wealth which combine reflective indicators (information about household income) and formative indicators, linked to schooling, work experience, parents’ conditions (head and spouse of the household).

Hence, let $F$ be the nxp full rank matrix of p mean zero formative indicators and $Y$ the nxq matrix of q reflective indicators, substituting the measurement equation for HC ($h$) from its formative indicators (1) in the reflective equation (2), describing the effect of $h$, (nx1) vector, on reflective variables $Y$: 
\[ h = Fg + u \]
\[ E(u'u) = \sigma_h^2 \]  \hspace{1cm} (1)

\[ Y = hk' + W \]
\[ E(W'W) = \text{diag}(\Theta) \]  \hspace{1cm} (2)

the reduced form (RF) becomes

\[ Y = FA + E \]
\[ E(e') = 0 \]
\[ E(e'e) = \Omega = \sigma_h^2 kk' + \Theta \]  \hspace{1cm} (3)

where \( \Lambda = gk' \) is the regression parameters matrix of the reduced form (\( g \) is a px1 vector, and \( k \) a qx1 vector) \( e \) are columns of \( E \), where \( E = (uk' + W) \) embeds the errors of both equations (\( u \) is a nx1 vector of errors in variables and \( W \) a nxq matrix of errors in equations), where \( \Omega \) is the RF matrix of errors covariance.

Equation (3) reveals two forms of over-identification: one typical of econometric models regarding the reduced rank of \( \Lambda \) (the non-redundant elements of \( \Lambda \) are expressible in a smaller number of parameters that are function of \( k, g \)) and the second, regarding the elements of \( \Omega \) (the non-redundant elements of \( \Omega \) are expressible in a smaller number of parameters that are function of \( \sigma_h^2, \Theta, k \)), is typical of factor models where the role of loadings, common and unique factors are played by \( k, u \) and \( W \) respectively.

Bollen & Davis (1994) furnish extremely restrictive rules for examining the identification of similar models, which, even if perfectly identified, are based on highly restrictive assumptions regarding the unitary rank of the matrix \( \Lambda \), on the strong structure of \( \Omega \) (assumed to be diagonal), and the multivariate normality assumed for \( Y \) (Joreskog & Goldberger, 1975).

Finally, in situations of a lack of relevant observed variables for the measurement of a LV, it is not reasonable to suppose a zero correlation between the error disturbances (specified in the diagonal matrix \( \Theta \)) and thus between multiple indicators of the same latent variable. Hence, abandoning the hypothesis of independence between columns of \( W \), a new specification for \( \Theta \) (unstructured) reveals that the correlations of \( e \) are no longer modelled in a factorial way; in other words, ignoring the hypothesis of indicators with mutually independent errors, once the disturbances between indicators are allowed to be correlated, “nothing is gained by retaining a disturbance in the causal equation error” (Hauser & Goldberger, 1971: 100), because it is impossible to distinguish empirically whether the residual correlation was attributable to common disturbance \( u \)
or inherent to correlations among the disturbances $W$.

Thus, assuming $\Theta$ to be unstructured and not diagonal, equation (1) changes so that the latent variable $HC$ is measured without error, where its disturbance $u$, is absorbed into the $e$ term of the RF.

In the case of one reflective indicator ($y$) for $HC$, typically household earned income, the method becomes much simpler: the RF, where $h$ (HC) is measured without error, becomes:

$$
y = Fg\hat{\lambda} + e = Fk + e \quad E(e)=0, \quad E(e'e') = \Omega$$

(4)

where $k = g\lambda$, $y$ and $e$ are nx1 vectors, $F$ full rank nxp matrix or formative indicators, $g$ px1 vector of weight parameter to define HC ($h=Fg$) and $\lambda$ scalar defining the regression parameter between $y$ and $h$.

In the first step we estimate $k$ by a Generalised Least Squares (GLS) regression of $Ty = y^*$ on $TF = F^*$, where matrix $T$, is a nxn known matrix containing some form of correction for the non-sphericity, (heteroskedasticity and or autocorrelation) of errors. For identification purposes we constrain the HC scores to zero mean and unit variance ($g'F'*F*g=1$) as a standardized variable.

The estimated $k$ vector ($\hat{k}$) contains the effects of the formative indicators $F^*$ on earned income $y^*$. Pre-multiplying $\hat{k}$ by $F^*$ and taking the variance of $F^*\hat{k}$, expressed in term of $k$ and $g$ we obtain:

$$
\text{Var}(F^*\hat{k}) = \hat{k}'F^*F^*\hat{k} = \lambda'g'F^*F^*g\lambda = \lambda^2$$

(5)

which allows the estimation of $\lambda$, the effect of HC on earned income $y$, in the following way:

$$
\hat{\lambda} = (y'P_{F^*}y)^{1/2}
$$

(6)

where $P_{F^*} = F^*(F'^*F^*)^{-1}F'^*$ is the projector matrix on the space spanned by $F^*$.

Finally, we obtain $\hat{g} = \hat{k} / \hat{\lambda}$, the effect of the formative indicators $F$ on $h$ and the estimation of HC scores ($\hat{h} = T^1F\hat{g}$).
The case of mixed indicators can be resolved choosing an approach which transforms the qualitative indicators following some optimality criteria; one of them is the methodology of optimal scaling algorithms (ALSOS, Gifi 1981) which generalise classical multivariate techniques, such as principal components, multiple regression, and canonical correlation, sequentially estimating the parameter vector $g$ and the quantifications of categorical indicators $f_{cj}$ (contained in the qualitative block $F_c$ of $F$) by means of a unique algorithm, maximizing the same criteria of the statistical model. Therefore, from the statistical point of view, the estimated value of $h$ is that linear combination of mixed formative indicators $F$ that best fits the reflective indicator $y$. Its estimation is consistent with well-established economic theory.

The case of a LV linked with a set of many reflective indicators is described in section 3.1 where the situation of concomitant indicators is also considered.

The second step of our approach proposes passing from standardised HC scores ($h^\delta$) to monetary value ($h^\$\delta$) in such a way that HC sample distribution has the HC monetary mean $\mu_h$ of the population estimated by an actuarial approach, as the average of the series $h(x)$ of expected earned income for the household heads of age $x$ ($y_x$), actualised at a given discount rate, capitalised by a specified rate of productivity $r_x$ and weighted by the survival probability. The future incomes are estimated (Dagum & Slottje, 2000) upon the idea that the expected mean income at age $x+t$ ($y_{x+t}$) of a person of age $x$ should be equal to the average earned income of individuals being at present $x+t$ years old, increased by the average productivity rate $r_{x+j}$. Hence, $\mu_h$ is the mean of the series $h(x)$:

$$h(x) = y_x + \sum_{t=1}^{\omega-x} y_{x+t} p_{x,x+t}(1+i)^{t} \prod_{j=1}^{t} (1+r_{x+j})$$

(7)

averaged over age $x$, where $\omega-x$ is the age at which the earned income flow stops, $y_{x+t} (y_x)$ is the average income of the household heads of age $x+t$ ($x$), $p_{x,x+t}$ is the probability of survival at age $x+t$ of a person of age $x$, $i$ is the discount rate and $r_x$ is the rate of productivity at age $x$. 
3.1. The Multidimensional case and Concomitant Indicators

A recurrent case in the applications arises when a block of observed exogenous variables (Z) are directly linked with reflective indicators (Y) of a LV (h), without being embedded in its formative block (F). In this situation, HC scores (h) have to be estimating isolating the contribution of the concomitant indicators Z. The structural model coherent with the supposed situation is specified in equations (8)-(9)

\[
Y = ZC + hk' + E \quad \text{Vec}(E) \sim (0, I_n \otimes \Omega) \tag{8}
\]

\[
h = Fg \tag{9}
\]

where Y, F and Z are (nxq), (nxp) and (nxs) matrices containing q, p and s column vectors of reflective, formative and concomitant indicators, C a (sxq) matrix of regression coefficients between Y and Z, E an (nxq) matrix of random errors in equation for Y. All random variables have zero mean and finite variance, with (h, E) independently. Under the hypothesis of no independence between the elements of errors in equations for Y, the RF, substituting equation (9) into equation (8), becomes:

\[
Y = ZC + Fgk' + E \quad \text{Vec}(E) \sim (0, I_n \otimes \Omega) \quad g'Fg = 1 \tag{10}
\]

with \( \Omega \) full rank matrix. RF reveals that h (assumed to be of rank one, under the constraint of unit variance for identification purposes) must be estimated controlling for the direct effect of Z on Y. In order to estimate the parameters C, and g, k, \( \Omega \) of equation (10) separately in each block, we must transform model (10) into a new model with orthogonal regressors matrices (Z and \( F^o \)):

\[
Y = ZC + Fgk' + E = ZC^o + F^o\Lambda + E \quad \text{Vec}(E) \sim (0, I_n \otimes \Omega) \tag{11}
\]

with

\[
\Lambda = gk' \quad C^o = C + Z^+F\Lambda \quad F^o = F - Z^+ZF \tag{12}
\]

where \( Z^+ \) is the Moore-Penrose generalised inverse of Z, obtained by the SVD decomposition of Z; in this way the parameters can be estimated separately applying to the full rank block Z a Multivariate Regression to estimate \( C^o \) and then C by back
transformation $C = C^\circ - Z^+ FA$, where $\Omega, \Lambda$ and its component $g, k$ can be estimated by Reduced Rank Regression methods (van der Leeden 1990) to the deficient rank block $F^\circ$. In this way we obtain the scores of HC, as the rank-one best linear combination of formative indicators projected in the $Y$ space ($h = F^\circ \hat{g}$), net to the effects of the concomitant indicators $Z$. 
4. Application: human capital in Italy in comparison with the USA

Applying the method proposed to the 2000 Italian Sample Survey (Bank of Italy, 2002) covering 8,001 households (as a representative stratified sample of 16.509 million Italian households), we obtain the HC scores (where household earned income was selected as the only reflective indicator) and their distribution.

For US household HC estimation we use the 2004 Survey of Consumer Finances (Bucks et al., 2006), which contains detailed information about income, wealth and social-demographic information on American households (over 4,500 households, representing more than 110 million American families).

Both HC distributions are estimated supposing the same productivity varying over age and rate of interest for the actualisation of future earnings.

Table 1 presents the most significant formative indicators for the definition of Italian household HC scores (where H stands for Household Head, S for Spouse), the F test and its significance (Sign.), because the qq-plot test reveals the normal distribution for residuals at 5% level of significance.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>F Test</th>
<th>Sign.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Region of residence</td>
<td>39.00</td>
<td>&lt;.0001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Household total debt</td>
<td>28.81</td>
<td>&lt;.0001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Years of schooling of H</td>
<td>83.96</td>
<td>&lt;.0001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Years of schooling of S</td>
<td>43.32</td>
<td>&lt;.0001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Years of full-time work of H</td>
<td>78.99</td>
<td>&lt;.0001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Years of full-time work of S</td>
<td>472.49</td>
<td>&lt;.0001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Occupation of H</td>
<td>38.75</td>
<td>&lt;.0001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Industry of H</td>
<td>9.21</td>
<td>&lt;.0001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Occupation of S* Industry of S</td>
<td>13.12</td>
<td>&lt;.0001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parents’ education S * Parent’s occupation S</td>
<td>1.85</td>
<td>&lt;.0001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mother’s educational H *Mother’s occupation H</td>
<td>2.55</td>
<td>&lt;.0001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Household total wealth</td>
<td>99.04</td>
<td>&lt;.0001</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The most important indicator contributing to the levels of HC is years of full-time work of S, which can be considered a proxy for professional training. After this variable, in order of importance, we have the following variables: household total wealth, years of
schooling of H, years of full-time work of H, and years of schooling of S. The significance of region of residence reveals the differences in HC distribution between the different regions of Italy. Moreover, genetic assets in terms of job status and education level of the parents contribute, as interactions, to the formation of HC.

Finally, in accordance with economic theory, the signs of the coefficients defining HC (not reported here) show the important role of the northern area to the formation of household HC, the positive role of real wealth and the negative role of total debt. Thus, on the whole, household HC is determined more by the household head than by the spouse, and even more by the years of full-time work than by years of schooling.

Next, applying the actuarial method with specific hypotheses (the age of entry into the labour market is 24, the income ceases at 85, the interest rate is 8%, the productivity rate takes as its maximum value $r=3\%$ at age 24, with a constant decrement in time until the age of 64, when $r=0$, the survival probability for males is obtained from the 2001 Italian population census), the weighted distribution of HC gives a sample estimate of the distribution of the HC for the entire population of Italian families in 2000 (Figure 1).

![Figure 1](image)

**Figure 1:** HC distribution of the Italian household heads (thousands of Euro), 2000

Table 2 presents more relevant statistics (mean, median and Gini ratio) for observed (estimated) distributions of the household total wealth, net wealth, income, total debt
The Italian (USA) HC average for 2000 is more than ten (sixteen) times as high as the average income and higher than the average total wealth of Italian families; moreover, both Gini ratios show that the inequality of the HC distribution is lower than income inequality and smaller than the total and net wealth inequality, while the inequality of the distribution of Italian debt is higher than inequality in the USA.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Indicator</th>
<th>Human capital</th>
<th>Total income</th>
<th>Total wealth</th>
<th>Net wealth</th>
<th>Total debt</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ITALY</td>
<td>Median</td>
<td>€ 101,556</td>
<td>€ 14,771</td>
<td>€ 99,160</td>
<td>€ 94,770</td>
<td>€ 0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>USA</td>
<td>Median</td>
<td>$ 982,401</td>
<td>$ 34,000</td>
<td>$ 175,150</td>
<td>$ 103,050</td>
<td>$ 24,200</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ITALY</td>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>€ 186,493</td>
<td>€ 17,472</td>
<td>€ 177,207</td>
<td>€ 170,668</td>
<td>€ 6,538</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>USA</td>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>$ 852,533</td>
<td>$ 53,245</td>
<td>$ 577,066</td>
<td>$ 498,237</td>
<td>$ 81,638</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ITALY</td>
<td>Gini Ratio</td>
<td>0.522</td>
<td>0.353</td>
<td>0.628</td>
<td>0.631</td>
<td>0.920</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>USA</td>
<td>Gini Ratio</td>
<td>0.656</td>
<td>0.501</td>
<td>0.760</td>
<td>0.811</td>
<td>0.705</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2 - Statistics of HC, income, wealth and debt for Italy and the USA

The comparison between the mean HC and mean total wealth is of particular importance as an indication of the rate of employment of national HC; for the USA the ratio is nearly 1.5, whereas in Italy the means are almost equal, demonstrating that human capital is employed less in Italy than in the USA.

Even if the statistical significance of HC formative indicators is not reported for US households, below are reported the principal differences between Italian and US short-time multipliers that define the impact of formative indicators on the formation of HC and, on the other hand, the impact of HC on the formation of household income.

In particular:

- in the USA (Italy) a one dollar (euro) increase of total debt increases (decreases) HC by $0.136 (0.09€);
- in the USA (Italy) a one dollar (euro) increase of total wealth increases HC by $0.035 (0.0034€);
- in the USA (Italy) the marginal increase of HC, resulting from the increase of one year of schooling of H and S, are $27092 (512€) and $1262 (450€) respectively;
in the USA (Italy) a one year increase in full-time work of H increases HC by $1673 (190€);

the income generating function (specifying for each economic unit that earned income is a function of its stock of HC and non-human capital or wealth) shows that in the USA (Italy) a one dollar (euro) increase of HC, net of wealth, increases income by 0.162$ (0.05€).

Hence, US education policy seems more important than the labour market for the increase in household HC, whereas in Italy we observe a minor contribution from education – as regards the socio-economic status of the household, the kind of occupation and the years of full-time work – in the accumulation process of HC (where it is estimated that two thirds is due to work experience and only one third to education-related human capital, Lovaglio, 2006). We deduce that the education system remains one of the biggest resources for the economic development of the USA.
5. Conclusion
The present paper aims to furnish an initial contribution towards the evaluation of the external efficiency of an education system, using the criteria of evaluation studies on organisations that distribute services of public utility, and in particular elaborating a statistical methodology for human capital estimation.

Nevertheless some drawbacks remain. Firstly, even if there are many ways of measuring the return to investment in HC (expected years of unemployment over a working lifetime, transition probability towards better occupations or job status, health outcomes of education, lower risk of crimes (OECD, 1998), not only it is difficult to measure these indicators in terms of individual or household effects of investment in HC or in macroeconomic terms, but there is also a lack of general surveys on individuals regarding these characteristics (OECD, 1998).

Secondly, in order to use the estimation of personal or household HC for university evaluation, we need some other information related to various skills or abilities, tested at the end of university attendance, because directly connected with investment in HC. In this context the information must be used as explicative variables in a multilevel model in order to adjust the “outcome” HC in the “coeteris paribus” efficiency evaluation process of the universities. Moreover, for the evaluation of relative efficiency we need information regarding which university has been attended by household components; for the impact evaluation we need information regarding the faculty attended. However, information regarding the university and faculty attended, and test results (ability measurement) collected from samples of students, are not generally linked to other information regarding individuals, single households, other investment in HC and performances in the job market (OECD, 1998, Wößmann, 2003). Therefore, even if it were worthwhile to employ ability measurements, they are not currently available and hence not considered here for the estimation of household HC.

However, there are new databases useful for our aim. The development of SIS (Statistical Information Systems), namely Information Systems built by integrating data coming from different administrative sources – e.g., provincial employment centres, INPS (Italian State Retirement Agency), INAIL (Italian State Workers' Medical Insurance Agency) – provide registry, curriculum, and job information at individual level useful for analysing the overall job marketplace. Information regarding formal
education, job training, unemployment support (e.g. retraining, subsidies), job placement support, job duration, job-type evolution, job duration evolution, contractual improvement and breakdown, professional development and income evolution are available.

This information will be used in future studies of the efficiency of higher education, connecting the estimation of HC with indicators regarding skills, abilities acquired and university and faculty attendance.
References


Abstract
This paper focuses on the process of evaluation of the external efficiency of higher education, defined as the effect of university education on the long-term income of graduates; in particular we propose the use of human capital as the outcome of interest and a proper methodology to estimate it as the latent variable in the presence of reflective, formative and concomitant indicators. Finally, in the application of the methodology a comparison is made between human capital in Italy and the USA, estimated using the most recent national sample surveys on income and wealth.

Keywords: external efficiency, human capital, multilevel models
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