

Are institutions a crucial determinant of cross country economic efficiency? A two-stage double bootstrap data envelopment analysis

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Abstract. *This paper analyses the role of institutions in enhancing the economic efficiencies across countries in a two stage Double Bootstrap DEA framework based on nonparametric frontier analysis as proposed by Simar and Wilson (2007). In the first stage, cross country workers' efficiency is estimated using a bootstrapped DEA approach over the period of 1990-2000 for 78 countries. In the second stage, the impact of institutions on these efficiency estimates is analyzed in a truncated bootstrapped regression. Twenty-nine institutional indicators from the same period have been utilized to extract three orthogonal factors based on principal component analysis. These factors namely institutional and policy rents, political rents and risk reducing technologies, along with their aggregated index are used as institutional variables. Findings suggest that inefficiencies in the economy are less where institutions are stronger. This study also shows that institutions that curb corruption, bureaucratic inefficiencies, lax regulations and unfriendly business policies, tend to have a larger effect on workers efficiency than other two indices that curb political rents and those that reduce transactional risks. Furthermore, when they are aggregated, the combined impact is more than the individual impact.*

Keywords: institutions; DEA; efficiency; bootstrap.

JEL Classification: C23, D24, Q22, O 43, Z13.

Economic growth does not depend only on the number of inputs in the production process but also on the better allocation of resources and introduction of productivity-enhancing innovations. (Olson, 1982; Baumol, 1990; North, 1990; Restuccia, 2004 and Landon-Lane and Robertson, 2005) attribute lower productivity and efficiency to the barriers for technological adoption as well as inefficient use of existing technology due to weak institutions. Siddiqui and Ahmed (2013) empirically explained how institutions influence economic growth in a theoretical framework proposed by North (1981)⁽¹⁾. The present study takes this work a step further to explore if the growth is caused mainly by increase in efficiency of production and how this efficiency is affected by the quality of institutions. To accomplish this task, the present study follows a two-stage procedure.⁽²⁾ In the first stage, efficiency indices of 78 countries are constructed covering a period of 1990-2000 based on a non-parametric method developed by Fare et al. (1985, 1994) using the data envelopment analysis (DEA). In the second stage, these efficiency indices as dependent variable are regressed against other determinants of efficiencies including institutions⁽³⁾.

Most of the contemporary empirical literature relies on the traditional growth accounting approach to estimate efficiency and productivity (Solow, 1957; Denison, 1972; Griliches and Jorengson, 1967, etc.). This approach implicitly assumes that all countries are efficient and the relative efficiency is interpreted as distance from the frontier line. However later studies like (Kumar and Russell, 2002; Los and Timmer, 2005; Henderson and Russell, 2005) decompose productivity growth into technological change, changes in efficiency, and capital deepening.

Growth accounting approach also assumes that factor markets are perfectly competitive which is not true in practice. Another issue arises that it imposes a functional form restriction, i.e. TFP computed as a residual value (Solow residual) from the Cobb-Douglas production function. This seems to be unrealistic (see Hulten, 2000) hence, it will bias the estimates of the relative contributions of factors and productivity. Even relaxing the Cobb-Douglas assumption and dealing with different functional forms may face functional misspecification problems (Basu and Weil, 1998; Caselli and Coleman, 2006). Furthermore, there is evidence that the share of capital's income is not equal across countries and also varies time wise especially in poor countries (Gollin, 2002; Caselli and Feyrer, 2007; Aiyar and Dalgaard, 2005). Hence, treating all countries as a single homogeneous group, for which the same variables have the same effect on economic growth, seems increasingly questionable and would lead to overestimation of the role of total factor productivity (TFP) (Caselli, 2005; Jerzmanowski, 2007; Brock and Durlauf, 2001).

An alternative parametric frontier methodology to measure efficiencies is the Stochastic Frontier model developed by Sealey and Lindley (1977)⁽⁴⁾. The stochastic frontier approach (SFA) allows disentangling the inefficiency component and a purely random component. Studies such as (Fare et al., 1994; Moroney and Lovell, 1997; Méon and Weill, 2006; Kuhey and Weill, 2007; Koop et al. 1999, 2000; Limam and Miller, 2004; Mastromarco, 2002; Kneller and Stevens, 2003; and Henry et al., 2003) applied this approach to aggregate production functions to estimate efficiency. However, its disadvantage is that it is a parametric approach and needs to impose a functional form. But the mis-specification of the functional form often results in bias in efficiency scores. For Instance Giannakas et al. (2003) estimated this bias up to 10-30% of output.

The nonparametric approach eliminates most of the above mentioned problems. DEA is considered a standard non-parametric methodology that is applied to firms, industries⁽⁵⁾ and aggregate production functions (Fare et al., 1994; Chang and Luh, 1999; Kumar and Russell, 2002; Henderson and Russell, 2005; Arestis et al., 2006; Growiec, 2008; Maudos et al., 2000; Taskin and Zaim, 1997; Mathur, 2007; Milner and Weyman-Jones, 2003; Jerzmanowski, 2007; Dimelis and Dimopoulou, 2002; Deliktas and Balcilar, 2002). Efficiency frontier is formed from the most efficient countries on the frontier, and relative efficiency of the countries is calculated from their distance from this frontier. The smaller the distance (from the frontier), the higher the efficiency level as compared to others. In such a case, efficiency is defined as the ratio of the weighted sum of outputs to the weighted sum of inputs.

The main advantage of the method is that no subjective weights are used to combine the different measures of performance involved into a single composite measure. DEA resolves that problem by arguing that countries may have their own particular value system and therefore may legitimately define their own peculiar set of weights. Hence each country is 'free' to choose weights for the criteria that maximize its own composite performance measure and derive the frontier values directly from the data. However, this property can be viewed also as a disadvantage of the method since this can lead to some countries being assessed only on a small subset of their performance. In addition, DEA neither requires specification of any particular functional form of the aggregate production function nor it assumes a perfectly competitive factor market. It is also free from distribution assumptions made in SFA and it does not assume a constant factor share in income. However, it does require an assumption concerning the returns to scale of the technology⁽⁶⁾.

Nevertheless, the biggest drawback in this approach is that it is sensitive to noise and a measurement error as it attributes all the variation from the frontier to inefficiency. Hence, the estimation of inefficiency may show an upward bias. Simar and Wilson (1998, 2000) pointed out owing to measurement error, a frontier constructed by DEA methods should be treated as an estimate of the frontier based on a single sample drawn from some unknown population. Second, the estimator is biased, since the technological frontier is only defined relative to the best practice observations in the sample not the "true" frontier. What it uncovers is not absolute efficiency, but efficiency relative to the best practice country in the sample. An associated complication with inference is that since the true efficiency scores are not observed directly but are empirically estimated, they are serially correlated in an unknown way. Thus, the usual estimation procedures that assume independently distributed error terms are not valid (Simar and Wilson (1998, 2000)).

Additional issue can arise if these efficiency estimates are used in the 2 stage procedure, like in our case. Since the two-stage procedure also depends upon other explanatory variables that are not taken into account in the first-stage efficiency estimation, these variables might be correlated with inputs and outputs of efficiency estimates. This implies that the error term must be correlated with the second-stage explanatory variables. In order to overcome these deficiencies, Simar and Wilson (1998, 2000, and 2007) introduced a bootstrapping method that provides the means of incorporating a stochastic element into DEA to obtain unbiased beta coefficients and valid confidence intervals. In this way, it

allows one to benefit from the advantages of DEA, while performing statistical hypothesis testing on the DEA efficiency scores. The bootstrap is a computer-based method that re-samples the original data in order to assign statistical properties. We follow the double bootstrap procedure of Simar and Wilson (2007) in which DEA scores are bootstrapped in the first stage to obtain bias corrected efficiency scores, and then in second step, regressing them on potential covariates with the use of a bootstrapped truncated regression. The bootstrap method is asymptotically efficient since the approximation error due to the bootstrap re-sampling tends to zero.

Studies such as (Enflo and Hjertstrand, 2008; Badunenko et al., 2008) used this bootstrapping approach to obtain bias-corrected efficiency scores. Jeon and Sickles (2004) used this approach to test Malmquist-Luenberger productivity indices calculated through directional distance function method. There were attempts made to analyze the factors that influence macroeconomic efficiency in a 2 stage approach. However, large number of studies attributed this role to institutions. For example, (Hall and Jones, 1999; Olson et al., 1998; Bjørnskov and Foss, 2010; Chanda and Dalgaard, 2008) explained institution's influence in TFP growth through growth accounting approach. (Méon and Weill, 2005, 2006; Adkins et al., 2002; Klein and Luu, 2003; Doucouliagos and Ulubasoglu, 2005; Dang, 2009) used SFA to measure the impact of institutions on technical efficiency level, whereas Lambsdorff (2003) used the similar approach to measure institutional impact on productivity. Institution productivity relationship was also being tested using DEA based nonparametric Malmquist productivity index approach (Baris Yoruk, 2007; Krüger, 2003; and M del Mar and Javier, 2007), while (M del Mar and Javier, 2011; Lall et al., 2002; Cherchye and Moesen, 2003) tested institutional impact on efficiency estimates calculated through DEA. Nearly all of the above mentioned studies found a strong and positive influence of institutions including those that inhibit corruption, on countries macroeconomic productivity and in terms of efficiency level.

There could be other determinants of efficiency. Yves and Laurent (2010), using SFA, identified financial development as a major factor while Milner and Thomas (2003) applying DEA approach, found trade openness playing this role. Using Traditional growth accounting approach, (Easterly and Levine, 2003; Alcála and Ciccone, 2004) focused on the impact of other determinants like trade openness and geography on TFP growth.

However, efficiency estimates in all of these studies could be biased due to limitation in their approaches as discussed above. Furthermore, the institutional proxies used in these studies might not be fully representative nor do they identify the channels through which these institutions could influence efficiencies.

2. Efficiency estimates methodology

Concept of efficiency analysis and measurement was developed by Farrell (1957), inspired by the earlier work of Debreu (1951) and Koopmans (1951). He defined efficiency as the ratio of the observed values to the optimal values of output and input relative to a given technology. Efficiency frontier is made up of these optimal values and acts as a benchmark. Country's relative efficiency (E^{it}) is calculated as a ratio of radial distance between their

inputs-outputs (y^{it}, x^{it}) and potential optimum inputs-outputs that lies on the frontier (y^{*t}, x^{*t}) . This efficiency could have an output orientation or input orientation. An output oriented efficiency (E_o) would then be the increase in output produced with given inputs and technology as compared to the output produced with similar inputs but with a reference technology $(E^{ot} = \frac{y^{*t}, x^{*t}}{y^{it}, x^{it}})$. An alternative input oriented efficiency (E_i) change would be the reduction in inputs to produce the same output under given technology as compared to the possible reduced inputs without reducing outputs under a reference technology $(E^{it} = \frac{y^{it}, x^{it}}{y^{*t}, x^{*t}})$. Those countries that lie on efficiency frontier would have $E = 1$, comparatively less efficient countries would have scores less than one (in case of input orientation) or more than one (in case of output orientation).

Radial distance functions used to measure efficiency are calculated in this study through DEA linear programming (LP) methodology. This nonparametric deterministic approach pioneered by Farrell (1957), used input and output quantities data points of countries in our sample to solve a series of LP problems one for each country. To estimate input distance functions, Variable Return to Scale (VRS) models (Banker et al., 1984) assume convexity whereas Constant Return to Scale (CRS) (Charnes et al., 1978) assumes proportionality between inputs and outputs i.e. a proportionate increase in inputs results in the same proportionate increase in outputs. In that case, CRS measures the overall efficiency for each unit, aggregating pure technical efficiency and scale efficiency into one value whereas VRS measures pure technical efficiency alone (Gollani and Roll, 1989). The scale efficiency score is obtained by dividing the aggregate CRS score by the pure technical efficient VRS score (Fare et al., 1994). A unit is considered scale efficient when its size of operation is optimal, whereas for reduced or increased sizes its efficiency will drop. In the real world, however, this optimal behavior is often precluded by a variety of circumstances such as types of market power, constraints on finances, externalities, imperfect competition, regulatory and financial environment, and protectionist policies.

Since DEA approach has serious shortcomings, we apply the double bootstrap procedure of Simar and Wilson (2007). This method is the only practical avenue to estimate confidence intervals, as well as to correct for the above mentioned bias. Details of the estimation algorithm can be found in Simar and Wilson (2007). More specifically, this consists of the following steps:

- First, standard DEA efficiency point estimates are calculated.
- Then we carry out a truncated normal regression with the maximum likelihood method, regressing estimated efficiency scores that are larger than one on the environmental variables.
- We then perform a bootstrap, drawing 10000 samples from the truncated empirical normal distribution of the estimated efficiency scores.
- Bias-corrected efficiency scores are then calculated with the bootstrap results.
- Bias-corrected efficiency estimates are then used in the second (double) parametric bootstrap based on the truncated maximum likelihood to re-estimate the marginal effects of the environmental variables in the second stage. We obtain 1,600 replications for

each parameter estimate of the marginal effect of environmental variables. Standard errors are thus created for the parameters of the regression.

- Confidence intervals are then constructed for the regression parameters as well as for the efficiency scores.

Practically, to obtain the DEA efficiency scores, we utilized FEAR 2 software (Wilson, 2008) which is freely available online, and then truncated regression models were performed in STATA⁽⁷⁾.

3. Input/output specification and data description in efficiency analysis

In productivity analysis, output per worker is used as output, whereas Physical capital per worker and human capital per worker are taken as inputs. We took these values from the data set developed by Baier et al. (2006). They used a perpetual inventory method of calculating the stock of physical and human capital, human capital stock made up of enrolment rates, years of schooling and experience. This data set covers 145 countries and spans for about hundred years for few countries.

Regions	Countries included
Africa	9
East Asia and Australia	11
Eastern Europe	12
Latin America	18
Middle East and North Africa	8
North America	2
South Asia	4
Western Europe	14

This data set is divided into a 10 year interval. The time span is long enough to neutralize the impact of business cycle fluctuations in the data. Table 1 reports the summary statistics of input and output variable used in this analysis.

We included 78 countries from this data set in our analysis and used the last two observations for each country covering the period of 1990 and 2000. In Growth accounting literature Summers and Heston (1988) database is widely used to estimate the production function. However, the information on human capital is not included in that database and is taken separately from other databases like Barro and Lee (1993).

Table 1. Summary statistics of input and output variables

	Input Variables				Output variable	
	Human Capital per Worker		Physical Capital per Worker		Income per Worker	
	2000	1990	2000	1990	2000	1990
Mean	5.505933	4.959734	29955.59	26161.26	15931.57	13531.3
Median	5.624855	5.227323	21327.7	17807.79	10637.72	9507.424
Maximum	7.620805	7.299808	83329.67	77606	47047.83	38854.14
Minimum	2.411952	2.219233	656.1504	128.0718	743.4831	1001.961
Std. Dev.	1.332949	1.254658	25019.51	22726.33	13278.2	10648.75
Skewness	-0.433125	-0.288717	0.737446	0.786006	0.772058	0.808043
Kurtosis	2.377278	2.129405	2.21345	2.226252	2.212441	2.31949
Observations	82	82	82	82	82	82

Table 2. *Output oriented efficiency indices*

S. No.	Country	2000			1990		
		Pure Efficiency (P) VRS	Efficiency (E) CRS	Scale Efficiency (E / P)	Pure Efficiency (P) VRS	Efficiency (E) CRS	Scale Efficiency (E / P)
1	ALGERIA	1.788	1.826	1.021	1.498	1.621	1.082
2	ARGENTINA	1.135	1.148	1.011	1.792	1.819	1.015
3	AUSTRALIA	1.282	1.306	1.018	1.083	1.094	1.010
4	AUSTRIA	1.147	1.170	1.020	1.242	1.260	1.014
5	BANGLADESH	1.111	2.085	1.877	1.000	1.000	1.000
6	BELGIUM	1.000	1.020	1.020	1.000	1.006	1.006
7	BOLIVIA	2.117	2.259	1.067	2.101	2.189	1.042
8	BOTSWANA	1.039	1.107	1.066	1.527	1.618	1.059
9	BRAZIL	1.450	1.503	1.037	1.449	1.489	1.028
10	BULGARIA	3.037	3.085	1.016	2.083	2.103	1.010
11	CANADA	1.253	1.303	1.040	1.122	1.124	1.002
12	CHILE	1.424	1.428	1.003	1.244	1.307	1.051
13	CHINA	2.222	2.384	1.073	3.440	3.777	1.098
14	COLOMBIA	1.443	1.505	1.043	1.540	1.541	1.001
15	COSTA RICA	1.172	1.211	1.034	1.547	1.557	1.007
16	CZECH REP.	1.410	1.425	1.010	1.705	1.946	1.142
17	DENMARK	1.260	1.295	1.028	1.350	1.373	1.017
18	DOMINICAN REP.	1.370	1.422	1.038	1.687	1.716	1.017
19	ECUADOR	2.333	2.397	1.028	1.578	1.657	1.050
20	EGYPT	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.196	1.247	1.042
21	EL SALVADOR	1.220	1.346	1.103	1.941	1.948	1.004
22	ESTONIA	2.067	2.104	1.018	1.770	1.966	1.111
23	FINLAND	1.361	1.420	1.043	1.226	1.227	1.001
24	FRANCE	1.208	1.247	1.032	1.000	1.000	1.000
25	GERMANY	1.280	1.318	1.029	1.158	1.163	1.005
26	GREECE	1.167	1.180	1.011	1.374	1.392	1.013
27	GUATEMALA	1.000	1.140	1.140	1.000	1.141	1.141
28	HONDURAS	2.119	2.314	1.092	1.699	1.731	1.018
29	HUNGARY	1.547	1.550	1.002	1.464	1.674	1.144
30	INDIA	2.019	2.249	1.114	2.635	2.722	1.033
31	INDONESIA	2.482	2.650	1.068	1.951	1.961	1.005
32	IRELAND	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.203	1.245	1.035
33	ISRAEL	1.111	1.111	1.000	1.112	1.158	1.041
34	ITALY	1.223	1.250	1.022	1.045	1.059	1.013
35	JAMAICA	2.895	2.927	1.011	1.836	2.099	1.143
36	JAPAN	1.329	1.354	1.019	1.274	1.275	1.001
37	JORDAN	1.823	1.927	1.057	1.122	1.176	1.048
38	KENYA	3.094	4.130	1.335	3.632	3.818	1.051
39	KOREA, SOUTH	1.459	1.470	1.007	1.226	1.290	1.052
40	LATVIA	1.967	1.975	1.004	1.671	1.778	1.064
41	LITHUANIA	2.154	2.189	1.016	1.825	2.055	1.126
42	MALAWI	2.278	4.833	2.122	2.182	3.786	1.735
43	MALAYSIA	1.795	1.880	1.047	1.209	1.404	1.161
44	MEXICO	1.575	1.594	1.013	1.067	1.197	1.122
45	MOROCCO	1.000	1.197	1.197	1.000	1.000	1.000
46	NAMIBIA	1.140	1.203	1.055	1.000	1.387	1.387
47	NETHERLANDS	1.214	1.280	1.055	1.218	1.220	1.002
48	NEW ZEALAND	1.477	1.515	1.026	1.321	1.325	1.003
49	NICARAGUA	1.831	2.087	1.140	2.170	2.235	1.030
50	NIGERIA	2.777	4.167	1.500	2.038	2.651	1.301
51	NORWAY	1.106	1.127	1.019	1.190	1.205	1.012

S. No.	Country	2000			1990		
		Pure Efficiency (P) VRS	Efficiency (E) CRS	Scale Efficiency (E / P)	Pure Efficiency (P) VRS	Efficiency (E) CRS	Scale Efficiency (E / P)
52	PAKISTAN	1.268	1.989	1.569	1.000	1.497	1.497
53	PANAMA	1.816	1.838	1.012	1.754	1.855	1.058
54	PARAGUAY	1.465	1.569	1.071	2.245	2.263	1.008
55	PERU	1.599	1.622	1.014	2.161	2.336	1.081
56	PHILIPPINES	1.697	1.701	1.003	2.274	2.692	1.184
57	POLAND	1.567	1.604	1.024	1.855	2.016	1.087
58	PORTUGAL	1.364	1.366	1.001	1.358	1.372	1.010
59	ROMANIA	1.423	1.423	1.000	2.478	2.876	1.161
60	RUSSIA	2.851	2.926	1.026	1.623	1.701	1.048
61	SINGAPORE	1.000	1.030	1.030	1.209	1.274	1.053
62	SLOVAKIA	1.456	1.459	1.002	1.834	2.161	1.179
63	SOUTH AFRICA	1.059	1.080	1.020	1.678	1.853	1.105
64	SPAIN	1.366	1.366	1.000	1.100	1.153	1.048
65	SRI LANKA	2.094	2.133	1.019	1.868	2.237	1.198
66	SWEDEN	1.350	1.364	1.010	1.143	1.168	1.022
67	SWITZERLAND	1.059	1.062	1.003	1.108	1.185	1.069
68	TAIWAN	1.209	1.217	1.006	1.026	1.026	1.000
69	TANZANIA	1.000	3.273	3.273	1.000	2.871	2.871
70	THAILAND	2.225	2.317	1.042	1.771	1.790	1.011
71	TUNISIA	1.000	1.036	1.036	1.095	1.116	1.019
72	TURKEY	1.485	1.547	1.042	1.380	1.399	1.014
73	UKRAINE	3.725	3.818	1.025	1.840	2.155	1.171
74	UNITED KINGDOM	1.215	1.235	1.016	1.111	1.141	1.027
75	UNITED STATES	1.000	1.049	1.049	1.000	1.000	1.000
76	VENEZUELA	2.233	2.296	1.028	1.331	1.513	1.137
77	ZAMBIA	3.395	4.865	1.433	3.686	3.893	1.056
78	ZIMBABWE	2.164	2.317	1.070	2.767	3.092	1.118
	Mean	1.626	1.809	1.110	1.583	1.736	1.099

Table 3. Bias corrected efficiency indices and their confidence intervals

	Country	2000						1990					
		Pure Efficiency (P) VRS	95% confidence Interval		Efficiency (E) CRS	95% confidence Interval		Pure Efficiency (P) VRS	95% confidence Interval		Efficiency (E) CRS	95% confidence Interval	
			Low	High		Low	High		Low	High		Low	High
1	ALGERIA	1.866	1.803	1.959	1.879	1.831	1.975	1.579	1.518	1.655	1.695	1.628	1.792
2	ARGENTINA	1.180	1.143	1.238	1.178	1.151	1.229	1.896	1.805	2.001	1.884	1.825	1.977
3	AUSTRALIA	1.385	1.299	1.492	1.396	1.311	1.532	1.185	1.093	1.289	1.189	1.106	1.298
4	AUSTRIA	1.226	1.158	1.327	1.239	1.174	1.360	1.320	1.256	1.422	1.332	1.269	1.443
5	BANGLADESH	1.253	1.128	1.419	2.410	2.104	2.843	1.315	1.016	1.706	1.186	1.021	1.376
6	BELGIUM	1.070	1.012	1.157	1.082	1.024	1.187	1.063	1.009	1.150	1.059	1.011	1.145
7	BOLIVIA	2.299	2.142	2.520	2.374	2.270	2.571	2.240	2.117	2.441	2.305	2.200	2.490
8	BOTSWANA	1.082	1.049	1.127	1.134	1.110	1.180	1.644	1.549	1.748	1.660	1.622	1.736
9	BRAZIL	1.504	1.461	1.567	1.539	1.507	1.602	1.520	1.466	1.595	1.532	1.494	1.597
10	BULGARIA	3.158	3.056	3.315	3.159	3.093	3.288	2.241	2.106	2.377	2.198	2.112	2.324
11	CANADA	1.346	1.264	1.461	1.388	1.309	1.515	1.210	1.137	1.320	1.182	1.130	1.275
12	CHILE	1.485	1.439	1.550	1.465	1.432	1.529	1.294	1.252	1.355	1.343	1.312	1.399
13	CHINA	2.321	2.244	2.427	2.453	2.391	2.572	3.790	3.466	4.346	4.210	3.807	4.756
14	COLOMBIA	1.498	1.455	1.558	1.541	1.509	1.605	1.639	1.562	1.748	1.585	1.546	1.664
15	COSTA RICA	1.217	1.181	1.271	1.241	1.214	1.293	1.632	1.565	1.710	1.603	1.562	1.672
16	CZECH REP.	1.467	1.420	1.538	1.461	1.428	1.526	1.756	1.710	1.837	2.001	1.951	2.099
17	DENMARK	1.343	1.275	1.454	1.372	1.299	1.493	1.470	1.367	1.582	1.467	1.387	1.564
18	DOMIN. REP.	1.424	1.382	1.483	1.457	1.425	1.518	1.770	1.704	1.854	1.761	1.722	1.836
19	ECUADOR	2.444	2.356	2.576	2.463	2.404	2.577	1.638	1.587	1.713	1.701	1.662	1.774
20	EGYPT	1.300	1.019	1.560	1.179	1.013	1.395	1.408	1.208	1.652	1.433	1.269	1.645
21	EL SALVADOR	1.288	1.236	1.350	1.392	1.351	1.472	2.117	1.969	2.300	2.039	1.956	2.191
22	ESTONIA	2.146	2.079	2.253	2.159	2.110	2.255	1.832	1.777	1.925	2.018	1.972	2.103
23	FINLAND	1.473	1.376	1.600	1.524	1.428	1.666	1.325	1.242	1.445	1.295	1.235	1.401
24	FRANCE	1.299	1.224	1.402	1.333	1.252	1.462	1.124	1.019	1.220	1.102	1.020	1.203
25	GERMANY	1.391	1.304	1.499	1.425	1.327	1.560	1.233	1.169	1.339	1.225	1.170	1.326
26	GREECE	1.220	1.174	1.292	1.225	1.184	1.305	1.471	1.384	1.560	1.451	1.397	1.531
27	GUATEMALA	1.086	1.018	1.139	1.168	1.143	1.218	1.164	1.018	1.284	1.171	1.143	1.225
28	HONDURAS	2.243	2.146	2.349	2.368	2.320	2.461	1.817	1.721	1.951	1.787	1.736	1.886
29	HUNGARY	1.619	1.564	1.698	1.597	1.554	1.682	1.509	1.469	1.578	1.720	1.679	1.802
30	INDIA	2.161	2.049	2.311	2.353	2.259	2.535	2.937	2.663	3.309	2.960	2.737	3.310

	Country	2000						1990					
		Pure Efficiency (P) VRS	95% confidence Interval		Efficiency (E) CRS	95% confidence Interval		Pure Efficiency (P) VRS	95% confidence Interval		Efficiency (E) CRS	95% confidence Interval	
			Low	High		Low	High		Low	High		Low	High
31	INDONESIA	2.585	2.505	2.696	2.720	2.658	2.841	2.101	1.978	2.264	2.033	1.968	2.156
32	IRELAND	1.118	1.013	1.208	1.085	1.011	1.188	1.265	1.215	1.351	1.310	1.252	1.412
33	ISRAEL	1.203	1.122	1.293	1.176	1.115	1.279	1.173	1.124	1.242	1.232	1.166	1.311
34	ITALY	1.318	1.238	1.420	1.336	1.256	1.466	1.120	1.056	1.213	1.130	1.067	1.230
35	JAMAICA	3.061	2.924	3.256	3.006	2.935	3.144	1.896	1.844	1.985	2.170	2.105	2.296
36	JAPAN	1.416	1.338	1.534	1.430	1.357	1.571	1.376	1.292	1.504	1.342	1.282	1.451
37	JORDAN	1.960	1.854	2.090	1.982	1.932	2.080	1.185	1.140	1.240	1.213	1.180	1.266
38	KENYA	3.577	3.149	4.135	4.654	4.156	5.401	4.176	3.667	4.808	4.354	3.861	4.931
39	KOREA, SOUTH	1.537	1.470	1.637	1.534	1.474	1.650	1.284	1.232	1.354	1.330	1.294	1.389
40	LATVIA	2.070	1.988	2.180	2.020	1.980	2.100	1.744	1.678	1.837	1.831	1.784	1.910
41	LITHUANIA	2.246	2.167	2.361	2.239	2.194	2.328	1.885	1.831	1.976	2.108	2.061	2.200
42	MALAWI	2.589	2.312	2.949	5.696	4.892	6.743	2.634	2.221	3.078	4.370	3.857	4.994
43	MALAYSIA	1.982	1.816	2.145	1.956	1.884	2.096	1.301	1.226	1.398	1.481	1.412	1.570
44	MEXICO	1.647	1.587	1.733	1.646	1.599	1.739	1.126	1.080	1.194	1.279	1.208	1.362
45	MOROCCO	1.085	1.017	1.142	1.251	1.202	1.345	1.228	1.018	1.404	1.178	1.022	1.330
46	NAMIBIA	1.184	1.150	1.233	1.231	1.206	1.279	1.274	1.017	1.500	1.452	1.394	1.536
47	NETHERLANDS	1.323	1.228	1.439	1.382	1.289	1.515	1.318	1.236	1.434	1.286	1.229	1.382
48	NEW ZEALAND	1.555	1.485	1.670	1.584	1.520	1.703	1.416	1.337	1.541	1.398	1.334	1.514
49	NICARAGUA	2.021	1.864	2.236	2.227	2.097	2.464	2.270	2.186	2.394	2.298	2.241	2.412
50	NIGERIA	3.038	2.826	3.244	4.441	4.185	4.909	2.339	2.073	2.611	2.876	2.663	3.211
51	NORWAY	1.179	1.114	1.277	1.191	1.130	1.307	1.295	1.200	1.409	1.304	1.216	1.423
52	PAKISTAN	1.423	1.289	1.555	2.047	1.995	2.149	1.294	1.017	1.570	1.551	1.502	1.645
53	PANAMA	1.887	1.832	1.965	1.880	1.842	1.955	1.820	1.763	1.905	1.904	1.860	1.984
54	PARAGUAY	1.534	1.481	1.603	1.605	1.572	1.668	2.378	2.267	2.539	2.327	2.269	2.442
55	PERU	1.673	1.614	1.759	1.661	1.626	1.731	2.235	2.171	2.333	2.398	2.343	2.507
56	PHILIPPINES	1.843	1.719	1.993	1.760	1.708	1.861	2.355	2.285	2.478	2.808	2.703	3.002

	Country	2000						1990					
		Pure Efficiency (P) VRS	95% confidence Interval		Efficiency (E) CRS	95% confidence Interval		Pure Efficiency (P) VRS	95% confidence Interval		Efficiency (E) CRS	95% confidence Interval	
			Low	High		Low	High		Low	High		Low	High
57	POLAND	1.635	1.576	1.721	1.641	1.608	1.705	1.929	1.862	2.031	2.072	2.023	2.159
58	PORTUGAL	1.441	1.377	1.530	1.422	1.370	1.524	1.441	1.375	1.517	1.427	1.376	1.503
59	ROMANIA	1.543	1.440	1.664	1.470	1.428	1.550	2.556	2.487	2.674	2.973	2.885	3.142
60	RUSSIA	2.966	2.867	3.138	3.019	2.934	3.188	1.724	1.631	1.829	1.763	1.707	1.853
61	SINGAPORE	1.143	1.019	1.246	1.085	1.032	1.193	1.321	1.226	1.431	1.365	1.285	1.487
62	SLOVAKIA	1.525	1.473	1.597	1.493	1.462	1.553	1.891	1.841	1.977	2.235	2.168	2.364
63	SOUTH AFRICA	1.097	1.069	1.139	1.106	1.083	1.150	1.787	1.703	1.889	1.932	1.860	2.038
64	SPAIN	1.525	1.380	1.649	1.480	1.379	1.621	1.154	1.110	1.229	1.216	1.161	1.306
65	SRI LANKA	2.250	2.120	2.431	2.210	2.141	2.344	1.946	1.877	2.070	2.361	2.248	2.557
66	SWEDEN	1.450	1.362	1.561	1.450	1.369	1.582	1.204	1.154	1.289	1.231	1.176	1.323
67	SWITZERLAND	1.163	1.071	1.268	1.119	1.064	1.231	1.212	1.124	1.316	1.304	1.198	1.425
68	TAIWAN	1.287	1.219	1.372	1.270	1.221	1.365	1.093	1.040	1.150	1.064	1.030	1.117
69	TANZANIA	1.322	1.016	1.693	3.784	3.299	4.533	1.318	1.020	1.711	3.336	2.921	3.872
70	THAILAND	2.318	2.246	2.427	2.374	2.323	2.473	1.869	1.787	1.990	1.838	1.795	1.924
71	TUNISIA	1.038	1.009	1.080	1.061	1.039	1.105	1.149	1.106	1.213	1.146	1.119	1.193
72	TURKEY	1.540	1.495	1.606	1.583	1.550	1.646	1.454	1.392	1.546	1.436	1.403	1.501
73	UKRAINE	3.891	3.748	4.100	3.906	3.827	4.060	1.900	1.847	1.991	2.212	2.160	2.314
74	UNT D KINGDOM	1.286	1.223	1.382	1.300	1.239	1.408	1.183	1.123	1.267	1.215	1.151	1.296
75	UNITED STATES	1.097	1.018	1.191	1.135	1.056	1.242	1.129	1.017	1.217	1.071	1.011	1.141
76	VENEZUELA	2.355	2.258	2.492	2.368	2.302	2.500	1.469	1.351	1.593	1.592	1.522	1.717
77	ZAMBIA	3.688	3.446	3.980	5.266	4.896	5.889	4.129	3.749	4.471	4.088	3.909	4.404
78	ZIMBABWE	2.436	2.197	2.744	2.474	2.328	2.741	3.007	2.784	3.430	3.419	3.112	3.858
	Mean	1.742			1.907			1.711			1.838		

These values obtained from 10,000 bootstrap replications.

4. Efficiency results and discussion

Tables 2 and 3 report the efficiency scores of the sample countries at 1990 and 2000 intervals. Efficiency score starts from one; the lower the efficiency score, the higher the countries' efficiency. Belgium, United States and Tunisia are considered as the most efficient countries since they have lower scores under constant and variable return to scale assumption in both the tables. Countries that ranked high in pure efficiency were Belgium, Tunisia, United States, Guatemala, Morocco and Switzerland. Out of the top eleven countries, five belong to the western European region. These countries are considered to be frontier countries under variable return to scale as they scored unity in both periods. Whereas least efficient countries under VRS were Zambia, Kenya, China, Ukraine, and Zimbabwe. Average pure efficiency of all the countries in both periods is about 1.73. This implies that on average all countries could achieve the desired output even after cutting their inputs by 43%. North America seems to be the most efficient region with 83% efficiency followed by Western Europe with 79%, whereas least efficient regions seem to be South Asia and Africa with about 56% and 42% efficiency respectively. Overall efficiency witnessed a marginal increase of about 2% and 4% with CRS and VRS assumption respectively, from period 1990 to 2000. Moreover, efficient regions like North America and Western Europe, witnessed a decline in efficiency over the period, whereas Africa and South Asia witnessed an increase, demonstrating some signs of convergence. However, average efficiency of all countries in both periods measured under CRS assumption is lower than similar efficiency under VRS assumption. This decrease is due to countries operating at inefficient scale; the scale efficiency refers to size of production and working at economies of scale. As depicted in table 2, United States and Belgium were operating at most efficient scale closest to CRS frontier and capturing economies of scale more than others. There was a marginal increase of about 1% in scale inefficiencies during the period. This could be due to technological innovation causing major structural changes in the economies that might have moved them away from optimal scale of production.

Tables 2 and 3 show that bias corrected inefficiency scores for every country are more than its corresponding uncorrected biased figure. This is in line with other empirical evidence that the 'true' frontier lies somewhat above the estimated frontier. However, the ranking of regions according to efficiency remains relatively stable even after the bias-correction.

One of the objectives of the paper is to see the impact of institutional quality on workers' efficiency. This requires the construction of a comprehensive index that can measure the quality of institutions across countries and encompass various facets to institutions. A brief methodology and description of Institutional index is elaborated below.

5. Methodology and rationale for the index

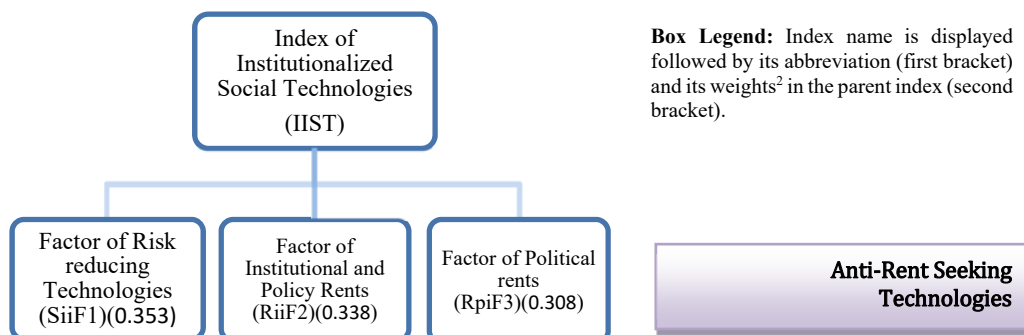
Following Siddiqui and Ahmed (2013), this study tried to collect twenty-nine indicators for 84 countries. Total observations of the data set are 2314 with 122 missing observations less than 5% in 7 indicators. These missing observations were replaced by using the expectation maximization (EM) method⁽⁸⁾ and some other indicators measuring the same

concept were also utilized as predictor variables for missing values. For each country one observation was made by taking the average of all available observations for the period from 1990 to 2000. We performed exploratory factor analysis⁽⁹⁾ in which the data set was first standardized, then factors were extracted using Principal Components Analysis (PCA) following the criteria of Kaiser (1974) retaining the factors followed by Orthogonal rotation using Equamax Method. Factors retained explained about 75 per cent of the total variance of the dataset distributed almost evenly among three factors (Table 4). They were then combined into an index using the similar weights. Table 4 also shows each factor loadings along with a relative weight of each variable in each factor in proportion to its loadings. Three orthogonal factors were identified as the factor of Institutional and Policy Rents (RiiF1), the factor of Political Rents (RpiF2) and, the factor of Risk reducing Technologies (SiiF3) respectively. Indicators were also found suitable for factor analysis following Bartlett and KMO test. Factor scores were estimated using multiple regressions and later the scores were rescaled from 0 to 1 with higher values denoting stronger institutions.

Theoretical and economic intuitions of the indices and their principal components can be found in Siddiqui and Ahmed (2013). The Index of Institutional Social Technologies (IIST) is made up of three factors identified above with almost equal weights according to Factor analysis. This First factor of the IIST named *Risk-reducing Technologies (SiiF1)* refers to institutions that reduce the cost of protecting property rights and strengthen contract enforcement. These services include provision of public goods such as rule of law and justice. Indicators that are strongly related to this factor include the rule of law, Non-discriminatory Judiciary, Political Stability, torture, extrajudicial killings, and political imprisonment. However, the 'Property rights' index of Heritage foundation are also conceptually related to this factor.

The Second factor named as Factor of Institutional and Policy Rents (RiiF2), focuses on technologies that help to eliminate or minimize two kinds of rent – institutional and policy rents which include Bureaucracy efficiency and Effectiveness, control of corruption, freedom to start and operate business, market structure, informal economies, and price controls. Third factor named Factor of Political Rent (RpiF2) measures the extent of power granted by institutions to political authorities. This factor focuses on political competitiveness, as well as voice and accountability, political rights, civil liberties, executive recruitment and constraints.

Countries' scores of these indices are reported in Table 5. Apart from absolute values, their relative rankings are also shown. According to the results, New Zealand, Netherlands and Denmark bagged first three positions respectively, while Nigeria, Cameroon and Algeria were the worst performers. Western European region captured eight out of top eleven positions whereas six out of bottom eleven went to African region. These scores seem to be highly correlated with the level of human development and economic progress. This index along with the two sub-indices was later used as explanatory variable in second stage regression.

**Table 4. Factor analysis**

Variance explained by Retained Factors			
Factors	Initial Eigenvalues	After Rotation	% of Variance
RiiF1	17.51183	7.74371	26.7025
RpiF2	2.88673	7.41850	25.5810
SiiF3	1.50571	6.74206	23.2485
Cumulative % of variance by all retained Factors.			75.5320

Variables			Factor loadings after Rotation ¹					
Mean	St. Dev.	Name	(Weights and correlations between each variable and the factor.)					
6.304	1.275	Bureaucracy costs	0.3582	27%	0.6971	53%	0.2610	20%
0.399	0.979	Government Effectiveness-WGI	0.6097	37%	0.6559	40%	0.3739	23%
0.611	0.205	Government Effectiveness-ICRG	0.5334	34%	0.6286	40%	0.3981	26%
0.578	0.186	Control of Corruption-ICRG	0.5839	41%	0.3994	28%	0.4384	31%
0.300	1.071	Control of Corruption-WGI	0.6144	37%	0.6465	39%	0.3801	23%
68.866	11.696	Business Freedom-HI	0.1692	15%	0.7189	62%	0.2765	24%
5.480	1.379	Starting a business-EFW	0.3379	32%	0.7521	70%	-0.0214	-2%
10.578	4.270	regulation of entry-The number of procedures	-0.3507	35%	-0.6357	63%	-0.0198	2%
0.606	0.654	regulation of entry-cost+time as share of per capita GDP	-0.0624	7%	-0.5699	63%	-0.2698	30%
0.468	0.698	Type of Economic Organization	0.5271	33%	0.6325	39%	0.4524	28%
6.992	0.692	Administrative requirements-EFW	0.2762	31%	0.5693	63%	0.0525	6%
3.465	1.231	Economic Organization closer to capitalist	-0.0779	15%	0.4112	78%	0.0386	7%
4.845	2.327	Price controls	0.3026	24%	0.5584	44%	0.4165	33%
31.444	13.990	shadow economy as % of GDP-Schnider	-0.4183	33%	-0.5994	48%	-0.2380	19%
6.967	1.750	Executive Recruitment	0.0146	1%	0.0702	7%	0.9088	91%
7.804	2.455	Political Competition	0.2435	20%	0.0792	6%	0.8979	74%
2.695	1.649	Political Rights-FH	-0.3880	27%	-0.1415	10%	-0.8889	63%
3.059	1.395	Civil Liberties-FH	-0.5441	36%	-0.2106	14%	-0.7666	50%
0.335	0.823	Voice and Accountability-WGI	0.5818	36%	0.3172	20%	0.7229	45%
5.592	1.617	Executive Constraints	0.2072	16%	0.1601	13%	0.9051	71%
7.119	2.267	Military interference in rule of law and the political process	0.8301	57%	0.2952	20%	0.3201	22%
4.879	1.913	Protection of property rights –EFW	0.5518	37%	0.6962	46%	0.2524	17%
62.238	18.739	Property Rights-HF	0.4346	30%	0.6723	46%	0.3493	24%
0.290	0.973	Rule of Law-WGI	0.6402	38%	0.6080	37%	0.4170	25%
6.000	1.775	Impartial courts-EFW	0.5563	39%	0.6146	43%	0.2708	19%

Variables			Factor loadings after Rotation ¹					
Mean	St. Dev.	Name	(Weights and correlations between each variable and the factor.)					
4.235	3.142	Equality of Citizens Under the Law and Access of Citizens to a Non-discriminatory Judiciary	0.6659	45%	0.3040	21%	0.4952	34%
5.146	2.094	Physical Integrity Rights Index –CIIRII	0.8158	63%	0.1031	8%	0.3740	29%
0.765	0.096	Political Stability & Absence of Violence/Terrorism- ICRG	0.8593	76%	0.1172	10%	0.1531	14%
0.080	0.867	Political Stability & Absence of Violence/Terrorism - WGI	0.8412	57%	0.2530	17%	0.3928	26%

¹ Factors are extraction using Principal Component Analysis method, and Rotation is performed using Equamax method with Kaiser Normalization.

² Weight of factors are based on the amount of variance explained by each factor in proportion to of total variance explained by all retained factors.

Test Statistics for the suitability of data for common factor analysis			
Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		0.922	
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Chi-Square	3458.321	
	Df	406	
	Sig.	0.000	

Table 5. Index of institutionalized social technology and its sub indices

Rank	Countries	Institutionalized Social Technologies (IST)	Index of Institutionalized Social Technologies (IIST)					
			Factor of Risk reducing Technologies (SiF1)	Rank	Factor of Institutional and Policy Rents (RiiF2)	Rank	Factor of Political rents (RpiF3)	Rank
1	NEW ZEALAND	0.8116	0.7635	20	0.8169	5	0.8610	23
2	NETHERLANDS	0.8074	0.9189	3	0.6669	15	0.8341	39
3	DENMARK	0.8063	0.8317	9	0.7249	10	0.8665	21
4	FINLAND	0.8033	1.0000	1	0.6073	21	0.7929	49
5	SWITZERLAND	0.7952	0.8731	6	0.6714	13	0.8420	33
6	UNITED STATES	0.7891	0.6788	35	0.8525	4	0.8459	32
7	CANADA	0.7880	0.8200	10	0.6829	11	0.8670	20
8	U.K.	0.7848	0.6471	39	0.8636	3	0.8563	29
9	SWEDEN	0.7829	0.9152	4	0.5663	27	0.8694	18
10	NORWAY	0.7826	0.8922	5	0.5906	23	0.8679	19
11	GERMANY	0.7712	0.8044	12	0.6580	17	0.8576	27
12	AUSTRALIA	0.7705	0.7885	15	0.6713	14	0.8591	25
13	IRELAND	0.7658	0.7955	13	0.6734	12	0.8333	41
14	AUSTRIA	0.7588	0.8340	8	0.5544	32	0.8973	12
15	BELGIUM	0.7231	0.7308	27	0.5694	25	0.8833	13
16	JAPAN	0.7149	0.7387	24	0.5396	34	0.8805	14
17	FRANCE	0.7109	0.6867	31	0.5605	30	0.9043	11
18	PORTUGAL	0.7072	0.8559	7	0.3640	57	0.9139	10
19	SPAIN	0.6945	0.6864	32	0.4877	39	0.9315	9
20	HUNGARY	0.6944	0.7736	18	0.4609	43	0.8602	24
21	CHILE	0.6883	0.4797	61	0.7619	7	0.8468	31
22	SLOVENIA	0.6874	0.7744	17	0.4264	49	0.8748	17
23	SINGAPORE	0.6810	0.7710	19	1.0000	1	0.2267	78
24	ESTONIA	0.6736	0.6856	33	0.6377	19	0.6992	60
25	CZECH REPUBLIC	0.6693	0.6488	38	0.5006	38	0.8786	15

Rank	Countries	Institutionalized Social Technologies (IIST)	Index of Institutionalized Social Technologies (IIST)					
			Factor of Risk reducing Technologies (SiiF1)	Rank	Factor of Institutional and Policy Rents (RiiF2)	Rank	Factor of Political rents (RpiF3)	Rank
26	ISRAEL	0.6662	0.1699	80	0.9354	2	0.9400	8
27	COSTA RICA	0.6652	0.7910	14	0.2838	68	0.9404	7
28	TAIWAN	0.6631	0.6653	36	0.6531	18	0.6715	63
29	ITALY	0.6612	0.7253	28	0.3344	63	0.9470	6
30	POLAND	0.6507	0.7355	26	0.3892	53	0.8411	35
31	BOTSWANA	0.6459	0.7515	23	0.3897	52	0.8066	46
32	GREECE	0.6373	0.6429	41	0.3345	62	0.9640	2
33	LITHUANIA	0.6187	0.5870	46	0.3479	60	0.9529	3
34	SOUTH AFRICA	0.6137	0.3556	71	0.6624	16	0.8565	28
35	KOREA, SOUTH	0.6120	0.5740	47	0.4526	44	0.8312	44
36	SLOVAKIA	0.6100	0.7372	25	0.3149	66	0.7885	50
37	NAMIBIA	0.6045	0.7625	21	0.3653	55	0.6862	61
38	ARGENTINA	0.5997	0.4299	66	0.5573	31	0.8414	34
39	JAMAICA	0.5962	0.5029	57	0.4483	46	0.8660	22
40	LATVIA	0.5944	0.6254	43	0.3414	61	0.8373	38
41	MALAYSIA	0.5815	0.5416	52	0.7295	9	0.4643	68
42	THAILAND	0.5669	0.4828	60	0.4823	40	0.7568	55
43	PANAMA	0.5509	0.5368	53	0.3091	67	0.8333	40
44	BULGARIA	0.5509	0.6260	42	0.1932	77	0.8581	26
45	PHILIPPINES	0.5485	0.4129	68	0.4330	48	0.8314	42
46	BRAZIL	0.5482	0.3365	74	0.5119	36	0.8313	43
47	EL SALVADOR	0.5459	0.4530	63	0.4456	47	0.7631	53
48	INDIA	0.5417	0.2503	79	0.5633	29	0.8526	30
49	TURKEY	0.5380	0.0815	82	0.7420	8	0.8379	37
50	JORDAN	0.5364	0.7798	16	0.5008	37	0.2960	73
51	ROMANIA	0.5328	0.6434	40	0.2193	73	0.7508	56
52	DOMINICAN REP.	0.5011	0.6211	44	0.1515	79	0.7481	57
53	SRI LANKA	0.5002	0.0462	83	0.7619	6	0.7335	59
54	VENEZUELA	0.4988	0.3037	76	0.3589	59	0.8768	16
55	TUNISIA	0.4980	0.6924	30	0.5658	28	0.2002	80
56	MADAGASCAR	0.4942	0.4969	58	0.2019	76	0.8127	45
57	MEXICO	0.4923	0.4877	59	0.3642	56	0.6386	65
58	BOLIVIA	0.4919	0.5207	55	0.0000	84	1.0000	1
59	CROATIA	0.4891	0.8104	11	0.2720	69	0.3590	71
60	ECUADOR	0.4882	0.4494	65	0.1082	80	0.9509	4
61	MALI	0.4881	0.5295	54	0.2126	75	0.7436	58
62	PERU	0.4880	0.3600	70	0.5189	35	0.6009	66
63	COLOMBIA	0.4865	0.0000	84	0.5746	24	0.9482	5
64	MALAWI	0.4820	0.6067	45	0.3248	65	0.5117	67
65	NICARAGUA	0.4805	0.5069	56	0.1630	78	0.7997	48
66	PARAGUAY	0.4703	0.4009	69	0.2376	72	0.8059	47
67	HONDURAS	0.4677	0.5438	49	0.0516	83	0.8381	36
68	MOROCCO	0.4676	0.7610	22	0.4502	45	0.1499	82
69	ZAMBIA	0.4675	0.6792	34	0.2565	71	0.4565	69
70	GUATEMALA	0.4660	0.3018	77	0.3667	54	0.7639	52
71	UKRAINE	0.4635	0.5519	48	0.0884	81	0.7746	51
72	PAKISTAN	0.4564	0.2860	78	0.4631	42	0.6448	64
73	RUSSIA	0.4440	0.3396	73	0.2672	70	0.7587	54
74	BANGLADESH	0.4405	0.4522	64	0.2170	74	0.6730	62
75	UGANDA	0.4303	0.3540	72	0.6122	20	0.3179	72
76	CHINA	0.4229	0.6527	37	0.5675	26	0.0000	84
77	EGYPT	0.4225	0.7085	29	0.4180	50	0.0990	83

Rank	Countries	Institutionalized Social Technologies (IIST)	Index of Institutionalized Social Technologies (IIST)					
			Factor of Risk reducing Technologies (SiiF1)	Rank	Factor of Institutional and Policy Rents (RiiF2)	Rank	Factor of Political rents (RpiF3)	Rank
78	TANZANIA	0.4191	0.9382	2	0.0651	82	0.2123	79
79	ZIMBABWE	0.4091	0.5419	51	0.4056	51	0.2605	76
80	INDONESIA	0.4070	0.3273	75	0.5919	22	0.2952	75
81	KENYA	0.4033	0.4255	67	0.4784	41	0.2952	74
82	ALGERIA	0.3629	0.1559	81	0.5453	33	0.4001	70
83	CAMEROON	0.3594	0.4533	62	0.3610	58	0.2500	77
84	NIGERIA	0.3559	0.5422	50	0.3301	64	0.1704	81

Table 6. Descriptive statistics

	Mean	Max	Min	Std. Dev.	Skewness	Kurtosis	Obs.
E9000CRS	1.772	4.379	1.013	0.733	1.718	6.018	78
BCE9000CRS	1.872	5.033	1.070	0.818	1.982	7.107	78
E9000VRS	1.604	3.541	1.000	0.552	1.305	4.632	78
BCE9000VRS	1.727	3.908	1.066	0.599	1.581	5.674	78
IIST	0.585	0.812	0.356	0.129	0.206	1.893	84
SiiF1	0.589	1.000	0.000	0.216	-0.574	2.926	84
RpiF2	0.467	1.000	0.000	0.209	0.078	2.730	84
RiiF3	0.712	1.000	0.000	0.248	-1.299	3.407	84
TRADEBAL	-0.0269	0.139	-0.244	0.069	-0.527	4.017	83
GOVBAL	-0.756	15.729	-6.537	4.018	2.612	10.978	61
INFLATION	53.439	770.072	1.037	147.198	4.187	20.022	81

Table 7. Correlation coefficient matrix

	BCE9000 VRS	E9000 VRS	BCE9000 CRS	E9000 CRS	GOV-BAL	TRADE-BAL	INFLATION	SiiF1	RiiF2	RpiF3	IIST
BCE9000VRS	1										
E9000VRS	0.993	1									
BCE9000CRS	0.889	0.847	1								
E9000CRS	0.917	0.883	0.995	1							
GOVBAL	-0.206	-0.207	-0.215	-0.220	1						
TRADEBAL	-0.173	-0.153	-0.266	-0.264	0.530	1					
INFLATION	0.216	0.248	0.147	0.177	-0.100	0.003	1				
SiiF1	-0.287	-0.305	-0.187	-0.217	0.293	0.138	-0.180	1			
RiiF2	-0.386	-0.382	-0.424	-0.442	0.286	0.425	-0.177	0.000	1		
RpiF3	-0.297	-0.237	-0.405	-0.379	-0.092	0.152	0.012	0.000	0.000	1	
IIST	-0.561	-0.535	-0.585	-0.598	0.271	0.404	-0.195	0.590	0.550	0.591	1

6. Regression results and analysis

Before analysing regression results, Table 7 provided information about their correlations coefficient. There is a strong and positive correlation of 0.92 among inefficiency indices. As expected, the Institutional indices observed a negative correlation with inefficiency indices. This effect is stronger in IIST as compared to its sub-indices. This shows there is a considerable impact of the quality of institutions on workers' efficiencies. Inefficiency indices are also negatively correlated with government balance and trade balance but positively with inflation.

Institutions are also positively correlated with government and trade balances and negatively correlated with inflation. Government balance is positively correlated with trade balance, and negatively linked with inflation. Institutional sub-indices are uncorrelated with one another. This is because factors extracted through Principal Component Analysis provide orthogonal factor solution. Therefore, our indices allow for a clear sense of the dimensionality that is lacking in other established indices particularly WGI.

Regression results reported in Table 8 show the truncated regression of average efficiency estimates of 1990 and 2000 in level form on institutional indices and other explanatory variables. Both pure efficiency (P) through VRS assumption and simple efficiency applying CRS assumption are used as dependent variables.

The regressions provide a reasonably good fit and the estimation results clearly indicate a robust positive (negative) impact of institutional variables on workers' efficiency (inefficiency) levels under both CRS and VRS assumptions as their coefficients are significant and positive. Their impact on efficiency under CRS assumption is comparatively higher as compared to efficiency under VRS assumptions as they have considerably higher coefficients.

Among the three types of institutions, Factor of institutional and policy rents (RiiF2) seems to have a more significant impact on efficiency as compared to others. However their combined coefficient (IIST) is much larger than any of its sub-indices, showing some degree of complementarities among institutions. Among other variables, inflation has expected positive sign, implying that an increase in inflation will result in higher inefficiency. In other words, macroeconomic instability has a negative effect on efficiency as the increased variability of the inflation rate is likely to involve social cost that concerns inefficiency in production. Friedman (1977) mentioned "*The growing volatility of inflation and growing departure of relative prices from the values alone shall set combine to render the economic system less efficient*".

Negative coefficient of government and trade balance indicated that countries with either budget deficit or trade deficit or both, are inefficient which may happen directly or the inflation may increase the trade deficit and hence increase inefficiency. For instance, Bussière et al. (2005) showed that budget deficit may produce an adverse impact on current account and efficiency. Similarly, trade surplus may directly contribute to efficiency as it leads to reallocation of resources from less to more efficient sectors (Melitz, 2002; Bernard et al., 2003). It also improves efficiency by raising the skill levels of the labor force, generating economies of scale, and cutting costs due to international competition (Egan and Mody, 1992; Clerides et al., 1998). Furthermore, it also serves as a conduit for technology and knowledge spillover (Grossman and Helpman, 1991). These coefficients retain their relationship in all forms of regression meaning they are robust to biasness of efficiency estimates as well as in regression with environmental variables.

Our model assumes normal distribution of efficiency scores in terms of population. This assumption is statistically verified with high sigma values in all cases (not reported).

Overall, these findings prove robust positive relationship between institutions and efficiencies. Their estimates are large showing that marginal improvement in institutional qualities would produce huge impact on workers' efficiency.

7. Conclusion

This paper analyses the role of institutions in enhancing economic efficiencies across countries in a two stage analysis Double Bootstrap DEA based on nonparametric frontier analysis as proposed by Simar and Wilson (2007). In the first stage, cross country workers' efficiency was estimated using a bootstrapped DEA approach over the period of 1990-2000 for 78 countries. We used the dataset developed by Baier et al. (2006) including physical and human capital as inputs. Output orientated efficiency estimates were then calculated under both CRS and VRS assumptions. The effect of institutions on cross country efficiency level was estimated using truncated regression. These efficiency estimates were improved adding stochastic elements using bootstrap procedure with 10,000 replications. To further improve the results, bias corrected estimates were used in truncated regression to re-estimate the marginal effect of institutions and other environmental variables. And lastly, the second (double) parametric bootstrap was performed on the above regression with 1600 replications, thus producing bias correct regression coefficients and standard errors. Institutions are classified into three distinct dimensions as identified by Siddiqui and Ahmed (2013). Twenty-nine institutional indicators from the same period have been used to extract three orthogonal factors based on principal component analysis. These factors namely institutional and policy rents, political rents and risk reducing technologies, along with their aggregated index are used as institutional variable.

The findings suggest that across countries, efficiency showed a decline during the period of study. North America seems to be the most efficient region, whereas South Asia and Africa are the least efficient regions. The study also found that efficient regions witnessed a decline in efficiency, whereas Africa and South Asia witnessed an increase, showing some signs of convergence.

Findings from second stage of regression analysis suggest that inefficiencies in the Economy were reduced where institutions are strong and the institutions also help to increase the scale of operation and enjoy the economies of scale. Their impact on efficiency under CRS assumption is comparatively high as compared to efficiency under VRS assumptions. This study also shows that among the two types of institutions, institutions that curb corruption, bureaucratic inefficiencies, lax regulations and unfriendly business policies seem to have a larger impact on efficiency as compared to the other two indices that curb political rents and those that reduce transactional risks. Overall, these results suggest that institutional reforms might play a pivotal role in improving efficiency level of workers.

Table 8. *The determinants of inefficiencies (second stage bootstrapped truncated regression)*

1. Constant returns to scale assumption

Dependent Variables: Farrell's Output Oriented (Biased and Bias-corrected) Inefficiency scores														
	E9000CRS (Biased)	BCE9000CRS (Bias-corrected)			BCE9000CRS (Bias-corrected)			E9000CRS (Biased)	BCE9000CRS (Bias-corrected)			BCE9000CRS (Bias-corrected)		
Variables	Coefficients (unadjusted)	Coefficients (unadjusted)	95% confidence interval		Bias- adjusted coefficients	95% Bootstrap confidence interval		Coefficients (unadjusted)	Coefficients (unadjusted)	95% confidence intervals		Bias-adjusted coefficients	95% Bootstrap confidence intervals	
			Low	High		Low	High			Low	High		Low	High
IIST	-9.887606***	-9.606565***	-16.76387	-2.449264	-10.1623***	-17.37829	-4.0936							
SiIF1								-3.400254**	-3.074815**	-6.065814	-.0838155	-3.437128***	-5.749178	-0.6480873
RiIF2								-5.317727 ***	-5.048202**	-9.016133	-1.080272	-5.447193***	-8.899967	-2.047062
RpiF3								-2.216371***	-2.400686**	-4.548812	-.2525608	-2.61387***	-4.320647	-0.5080191
INFLATION	.0008982	0.0007236	-.001293	.0027402	.0008436	-0.0016536	0.0025054	.0002617	.0001961	-.0018469	.002239	.0002902	-0.0021503	0.0018653
TRADEBAL	-4.411812	-4.048425	-12.35	4.253154	-4.324976	-11.12113	3.065394	-4.681686	-3.817005	-12.45789	4.823874	-4.312796	-10.15646	3.635156
GOVBAL	-.0687651	-.0617199	-.2525223	.1290824	0.0505907	-0.2718129	0.0882555	-.0617611	-.0613233	-2.506359	.1279894	-.0626982	-0.2573352	0.0889847

*, **, *** Significance at the 10%, 5%, and 1% level respectively.

Bias-adjusted coefficients and their Confidence intervals obtained from 1600 bootstrapping interactions.

Constants and sigma not reported.

2. Variable returns to scale assumption

Dependent Variables: Farrell's Output Oriented (Biased and Bias-corrected) Inefficiency scores														
	E9000VRS (Biased)	BCE9000VRS (Bias-corrected)			BCE9000VRS (Bias-corrected)			E9000VRS (Biased)	BCE9000VRS (Bias-corrected)			BCE9000VRS (Bias-corrected)		
Variables	Coefficients (unadjusted)	Coefficients (unadjusted)	95% confidence interval		Bias-adjusted coefficients	95% Bootstrap confidence interval		Coefficients (unadjusted)	Coefficients (unadjusted)	95% confidence intervals		Bias-adjusted coefficients	95% Bootstrap confidence intervals	
			Low	High		Low	High			Low	High		Low	High
IIST	-6.935712***	-6.782711***	-11.35932	-2.206107	-7.108316***	-11.76578	-3.074856							
SiIF1								-1.537942**	-1.906032***	-3.293678	-.5183851	-2.001528***	-3.344196	-0.6698034
RiIF2								-2.579436***	-2.502012***	-4.030183	-.9738403	-2.581115***	-4.119636	-1.203033
RpiF3								-1.610319***	-1.600231***	-2.634928	-.5655335	-1.642743***	-2.618622	-0.6507304
INFLATION	.0007304	.0006688	-.0008218	.0021593	.000734	-0.0009879	0.0020053	.0005507	.0006119	-.0006624	.0018862	.0006498	-0.0008421	0.0017643
TRADEBAL	-3.17806	-2.582262	-8.650506	3.485981	-2.736824	-7.85327	2.76581							
GOVBAL	-.0356972	-.0349054	-.1670816	.0972708	-.0319167	-0.1735115	0.0697059							

*, **, *** Significance at the 10%, 5%, and 1% level respectively.

Bias-adjusted coefficients and their Confidence intervals obtained from 1600 bootstrapping interactions.

Constants and sigma not reported.

Notes

- (1) They identified three channels through which institutions influence growth. First kind of Institutions limits rent-seeking opportunities that divert innovation and resources from productive avenues. Second kind that includes justice and law reduces transactional risk through proper enforcement of property rights. Whereas the third kind which includes political competition and participation raises the opportunity cost to monopoly thereby increasing bargaining power of the society in favor of growth.
- (2) The approach offers several advantages as compared to one stage analysis (Coelli et al., 1999; Pastor, 2002).
- (3) See Simar and Wilson (2007) for survey of two-stage procedure for analysis on determinants of DEA scores.
- (4) See Aigner et al. (1977) for efficiency measurement using this technique.
- (5) Especially popular in efficiency analysis of banking industries. See Berger and Humphrey (1997) for a detailed survey.
- (6) DEA was first developed by Charnes, Cooper and Rhodes (1978) with constant returns to scale (CRS) assumptions. However it was later refined by Banker, Charnes and Cooper (1984) accommodating variable returns to scale (VRS) in their analysis.
- (7) STATA codes for bootstrap truncated regression were based on the algorithm used in Wolszczak-Derlacz and Parteka (2011).
- (8) The EM algorithm is an iterative method for finding maximum likelihood estimates of missing values given predictor variables. See (Dempster et al., 1977; McLachlan and Krishnan, 1997) for detailed discussion on EM and its applications.
- (9) See Siddiqui and Ahmed (2013) for details.

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