

Human Capital, Innovation, and Productivity Growth: Tales from Latin America and Caribbean

Yoruk, Baris Boston College

15. May 2007

Online at http://mpra.ub.uni-muenchen.de/3667/ MPRA Paper No. 3667, posted 07. November 2007 / 03:23 Human Capital, Innovation, and Productivity Growth: Tales

from Latin America and Caribbean

Barış K. Yörük*

Boston College, Department of Economics

June 21, 2007

Abstract

Why have Latin American and Caribbean countries (LAC countries) not replicated Western

economic success? We investigate the reasons behind the economic stagnation of LAC countries

for the past four decades. We utilize a nonparametric Malmquist productivity index for relevant

cross-country and over time productivity growth, technological change, and technical efficiency

change comparisons. We document that productivity growth differences between LAC countries

and Western countries can only partially be attributed to human capital differences. We argue

that along with inefficient production, differences in civil, political, and economic policies and

institutions are promising factors in explaining the long-run economic performance of LAC

countries.

Keywords: Caribbean, Latin America, Institutions, Malmquist productivity index

JEL codes: N26, O40, P52

*Boston College, Department of Economics, 140 Commonwealth Ave., Chestnut Hill, MA 02467. Tel: 617-552

6134. Fax: 617-552 2308. E-mail: yoruk@bc.edu.

1

1 Introduction

Over the past several decades, Latin American and Caribbean countries (hereafter, LAC countries) have faced significant development challenges including contracting productivity growth rates, high inflation, unemployment, skewed income distribution, and poverty. Along with the effects of various short-run crises, recent empirical research focuses on the long-standing economic stagnation of the region without giving much attention to comparative analysis of productivity growth trends and reasons behind the under-development of LAC countries. In this paper, we present a comparative analysis of LAC countries' growth trends for 1966-2000 period and investigate the effect of various factors on the long-run growth performance of the region.

We first compare long-run productivity growth performance of LAC countries with that of a peer group of European and North American countries¹ to provide a benchmark for what LAC countries could have possibly achieved over the last four decades of the century. Such a comparison makes sense since almost all of the LAC countries are populated by individuals of European descent who established the Western culture and economic success². We show that almost all of the LAC countries perform unfavorably compared to North American and European countries in terms of their productivity growth rates. In light of this fact, we further investigate the reasons those could explain the poor economic growth performance of LAC countries.

Taking the United States as a benchmark country, we first document that human capital difference is not the primary factor in explaining the productivity growth differences between LAC countries and Western countries. This is because while LAC countries' relative human capital is

¹Peer group of North American and European countries are as follows: United States, Canada, Austria, Belgium, Denmark, Finland, France, Greece, Iceland, Ireland, Italy, Netherlands, Norway, Portugal, Spain, Sweden, Switzerland, and United Kingdom.

²Our idea here follows that of Cole et al. (2005). Using a neoclassical growth framework, they compare long-run Latin American macroeconomic trends with a similar set of peer group of European and North American countries.

increasing over time, their relative labor productivity measured by GDP per worker is falling³.

Recent literature in explaining the long-run growth dynamics gives a particular importance to institutions and provides well-established evidence that differences in institutional development among countries lead to sustained differences in economic outcomes. In a seminal paper, Hall and Jones (1999) argue that differences in capital accumulation and output per worker among countries are driven by differences in institutions and government policies, which they refer to as social infrastructure. Later, Acemoglu, Johnson, and Robinson (2001, 2002) and Easterly and Levine (2003) have all reached a consensus that the political institutions are the fundamental cause of economic growth. Lall et al. (2002) have also reached the same conclusion using a Malmquist productivity growth index, yet they fail to recognize that the institutional quality endogenously affect the productivity growth rates of different countries. Using various institutional quality measures, we investigate whether institutions can explain the poor economic performance of LAC countries compared to that of European and North American countries. After controlling for the endogeneity, we find strong evidence that civil, political and economic policies and institutions have significant and positive relationship with the productivity growth and also positively affect the technological change (innovation) within the sample countries. However, they have no significant effect on the technical efficiency change (adaptation of existing technologies) component of the productivity growth.

We utilize a Malmquist productivity index⁴ computed by nonparametric linear programming methods for relevant cross-country and over-time comparisons. This index of total productivity growth and the method to compute it, data envelopment analysis, has several desirable features

³For comparison purposes, our approach for taking United States as a benchmark country in relevant comparisons follows Cole et al. (2005). They also conclude that human capital differences are not the primary factor in explaining Latin American TFP gap.

⁴Malmquist productivity index is first introduced by Caves et al. (1982). Later, Färe et al. (1994) show how this index can be computed using non-parametric linear programming methods.

compared to those of traditional growth accounting techniques. Most importantly, this index can be decomposed into two useful components, namely technological change and technical efficiency change. We report that innovation measured by the technological change component is the main source of productivity growth in European and North American countries. On the other hand, through international diffusion of knowledge, LAC countries use the opportunity to adopt the new technologies of Western countries and hence grow mostly due to the technical efficiency change.

The rest of this paper is organized as follows. A discussion of the main economic trends of LAC countries over the past several years is presented next to provide a background for our empirical analysis. In section three, we provide a discussion of the analytic framework and the construction of the Malmquist productivity growth index. In section four, we summarize the data and present our main findings. Section five is dedicated for the empirical investigation of the intuitional factors those could possibly explain the productivity differences between LAC and Western countries. Finally, section six concludes.

2 Relative macroeconomic trends in LAC countries

Most of the LAC countries are founded and populated by the individuals of European descent. Table 1 shows that most of the LAC countries widely adopted European culture, religion, and language. Spanish and English are among the native languages in both Latin America and the Caribbean. Almost 81% of Latin Americans are white or mixed-white along with 39% of Caribbeanians. In addition, 92% of Latin Americans and 66% of Caribbeanians are affiliated with a Western religion. These facts are consistent with those of Hoogvelt (2001). He argues that LAC countries experienced substantial European colonozation and immigration, and Western culture has had considerable impact on LAC countries. In most of the countries, European settlers nearly wiped out

native cultures of the region. Therefore, following Cole et al. (2005), our basic assumption is that individuals of LAC countries share similar preferences compared with those of European and North American countries and have the same innate ability to innovate new technologies or to replicate existing technologies. Hence, a comparison of LAC countries to those of European and North American countries would provide a benchmark for what LAC countries could have possibly achieved over the last four decades of the century.

Table 2 presents the long-run trends for various macroeconomic indicators for the sample LAC countries and European and North American countries taking United States as a benchmark country. The mean GDP per capita in Latin America was 27% of the U.S level in 1966 and it fell from 23% of the U.S level in 1980 to 18% by 2000. Similarly, GDP per worker in Latin America fell from 34% of the U.S level in 1966 to 23% by 2000. Caribbean countries also lost substantial ground relative to the U.S during this period. The mean GDP per capita in Caribbean countries fell from 24% of the U.S level in 1966 to 21% by 2000. However, European countries increased their GDP per capita from 66% of the U.S level to 70% during the same period. In addition, mean GDP per worker in Europe increased from 65% of the U.S level in 1966 to 76% by 2000, although capital per worker decreased from 106% of the U.S level to 82% during the same period.

The comparison is even more striking if we consider individual countries. Argentina's GDP per capita was 53% of the U.S level in 1966 which was higher than Greece, Ireland, Portugal, and Spain. It fell to 35% of the U.S level from 1966 to 2000. During this time, Greece, Ireland, Portugal, and Spain all gained substantial ground and increased their GDP per capita above Argentinean level. Therefore, Table 2 shows the long-standing economic stagnation of LAC countries and their divergence from the rest of the Western countries.

Table 2 also implies that the economic stagnation of LAC countries cannot be attributed pri-

marily to human capital differences between LAC countries and European and North American countries. The table reports that human capital in all LAC countries are catching up to the U.S level. Specifically, Latin America's relative human capital increased by 41% between 1966 and 2000, and Caribbean's increased by 47% compared to those of Europe's relative human capital, which increased by 11% and Canada's relative human capital, which increased by 6% during the same period. In line with Cole et al. (2005), we conclude that human capital differences between LAC countries and European and North American countries do not play the primary role in explaining the long-run economic performance of LAC countries. This is because while LAC countries' relative human capital is increasing over time, their relative labor productivity measured by GDP per worker is falling. We will later consider alternative factors retarding LAC countries' development process, in light of the conclusions of Hall and Jones (1999), Lall et al. (2002), Hendricks (2002), and Cole et al. (2005). That is, we will analyze the effect of inefficient production, institutions, and civil, economic, and political liberty on the long-run economic growth performance of LAC countries.

3 Malmquist index of productivity growth

Current literature offers two distinct methods to measure total factor productivity growth (TFP). The first method, also known as growth accounting, relies on the estimation of various production functions and is the standard measurement tool since Solow (1957). Growth accounting methodology relies on accounting for the contribution of the growth of the input factors of a country to the growth of its output. The residual part of the growth of output that cannot be accounted for measures TFP growth. Mankiw, Romer, and Weil (1992) and Islam (1995) are two recent and widely cited examples of cross-country studies using growth accounting techniques.

On the other hand, TFP growth can also be measured using methods that estimate frontier production functions. This methodology relies on constructing a best practice frontier using the data on inputs and outputs, then measuring distances of countries to the frontier constructed. In these methods, production frontier function can be estimated either parametrically or nonparametrically. Parametric method or so-called stochastic frontier analysis (SFA) requires the specification of the functional form of the production function and also relies on certain distributional assumptions. Gong and Sickles (1992) demonstrates that SFA yields biased results in small to medium sized samples.

In sharp contrast, using linear programming methods, the nonparametric approach and the method of data envelopment analysis (DEA) does not require any specific functional or distributional assumptions. However, independent of the methodology employed to calculate the distances of the sample countries from the best practice frontier constructed over the whole sample, TFP growth can be computed using the Malmquist productivity growth index.

Among many others, recent country studies employing the Malmquist productivity growth index include Färe et al. (1994), Krüger (2003), and Yörük and Zaim (2005). Färe et al. (1994) compute the TFP growth for 17 OECD countries from 1979 to 1988. They conclude that the main determinant of productivity growth in OECD countries is the technological change. Krüger (2003) apply this methodology to a sample of 87 countries for 1960-90 period. Employing hazardous byproducts of production as undesirable outputs, Yörük and Zaim (2005) measure the TFP growth of OECD countries from 1983 to 1998.

The Malmquist productivity index has two main advantages when compared to those of growth accounting. First, this index can be decomposed into a technological change and technical efficiency change components accounting for innovation and catching-up respectively. Second, no price infor-

mation on either inputs or outputs is necessary to compute this index. In this paper, we employed the DEA methodology and nonparametric approach to compute the Malmquist index, primarily because it relies on much weaker assumptions compared to SFA. Färe, Grosskopf, and Russell (1998) give a very complete survey on both the theory and the empirics of Malmquist indices; hence we will here provide a brief account of the essentials of the Malmquist index.

The theoretical foundation of Malmquist productivity growth index is based on the output distance function $D_o^t(x^t, y^t) = \inf\{x^t, (y^t/\theta) \in S^t\}$, which is defined with respect to the production technology such that $\{S^t = (x^t, y^t) : x^t \text{ can produce } y^t\}^5$. Here, $y^t \in R_+^M$ refers to the vector of outputs produced at time t and $x^t \in R_+^N$ refers to the vector of inputs used in the production of outputs at time t. Given inputs, the output distance function measures the reciprocal of the maximal ray expansion of the observed outputs such that outputs are still feasible using the production technology S^t .

If the observed production is on the production frontier at time t, such as at point (x^t, y^t) , then production is said to be technically efficient and $D_o^t(x^t, y^t) = 1$. On the other hand, if observed production is interior to the production frontier, production is said to be technically inefficient, and $D_o^t(x^t, y^t) < 1$. Hence, the output distance functions are the complete characterization of technology and the point $D_o^t(x^t, y^t) = 1$ represents the maximum production or the "best practice" as defined by Farrell (1957).

Caves et al. (1982) defines the Malmquist index as the ratio of two output distance functions, both of which are functional representations of a multiple-output and multiple-input technology that requires information on input and output quantities. Formally, the Malmquist index is defined as

$$M_o^t(x^t, y^t, x^{t+1}, y^{t+1}) = \frac{D_o^t(x^{t+1}, y^{t+1})}{D_o^t(x^t, y^t)}.$$
 (1)

⁵This production technology is defined in Shephard (1970).

It is also possible to break down the Malmquist index into technical efficiency change (catching-up) and technological change (innovation) components. Following Färe et al. (1994), the Malmquist index can be redefined as

$$M_o^{t+1}(x^t, y^t, x^{t+1}, y^{t+1}) = \frac{D_o^{t+1}(x^{t+1}, y^{t+1})}{D_o^t(x^t, y^t)} \left[\frac{D_o^t(x^{t+1}, y^{t+1})}{D_o^{t+1}(x^{t+1}, y^{t+1})} \frac{D_o^t(x^t, y^t)}{D_o^{t+1}(x^t, y^t)} \right]^{1/2}$$
(2)

where superscripts index two adjacent time periods. The ratio outside the brackets captures the change in technical efficiency between t and t+1, while the ratio inside the brackets captures the geometric mean of technological change relative to t and technological change relative to t+1.

In equation (2), $M_o^{t+1} > 1$ implies a productivity growth, whereas $M_o^{t+1} < 1$ implies deterioration in productivity over time. Similarly, technical efficiency change and technological change indices greater than one represent improvement in the respective measures, whereas values less than one represent deterioration in performance.

The Malmquist index can be constructed by solving following linear programming problem for any observation k':

$$(D_o^{t''}(x_{k'}^{t'}, y_{k'}^{t'}))^{-1} = \max \theta$$

$$s.t.$$

$$\sum_{k=1}^{K} z_k y_{km}^{t'} \ge \theta y_{k'm}^{t'} \quad m = 1, ..., M$$

$$\sum_{k=1}^{K} z_k x_{kn}^{t'} \le x_{k'n}^{t'} \quad n = 1, ..., N$$

$$z_k \ge 0 \quad k = 1, ..., K$$

$$(3)$$

where K indexes the number of cross-section units for each time period within the panel data, N represets the inputs, M indexes the outputs, and z_k is an intensity variable, which measures the weight of each cross-section unit within the sample group. The weight is then compared with any particular observation to determine the distance to the efficient frontier. This linear programming problem measures the output-based Farrell technical efficiency of observation k' relative to the

reference technology at period t', i.e. $D_o^{t''}(x^{t'}, y^{t'})$, for all $(t', t'') \in \{(t, t), (t, t + 1), (t + 1, t), (t + 1, t), (t + 1)\}$.

4 Data and results

In constructing the Malmquist productivity index, the resource constraint (inputs) consists of the net fixed standardized capital stock, labor force measured by the number of workers, and human capital stock accounted by the average years of schooling of adult population aged 25 and over. As an output, we take real GDP measured by purchasing parity adjusted in 1996 prices. Data on the capital stock, labor, and real GDP are drawn from a recent data set in Marquetti (2004). Barro and Lee (2001) is the source for human capital stock data⁶. The annual panel data set includes 20 Latin American and Caribbean countries and 18 European and North American countries. Time period considered is 35 years, from 1966 to 2000.

In the first three columns of Table 3, we report the mean annual changes in productivity growth, efficiency change, and technological change from 1966 to 2000. Except for United Kingdom and Portugal, all European and North American countries improved their productivity during the time period considered. On average, Italy, Finland, and Norway are the best performers. The main source of the productivity growth in European and North American countries is the technological change component, which increased annually by almost 0.6% in North America and 0.8% in Europe, while the technical efficiency change component actually decreased annually by 0.1% in North America but increased 0.5% in Europe.

In contrast, main source of the productivity growth in LAC countries is the efficiency change.

On average, it increased annually by 0.1% in Latin American countries and 0.2% in Caribbean

Barro and Lee (2001) provide this datum for every five years. Following Maudos, Pastor, and Serrano (1999) intermediate years have been estimated by interpolation.

countries, while technological change component decreased by 0.2% in Latin American countries but increased by 0.2% in Caribbean countries. Jamaica, Venezuela, Paraguay, Nicaragua, Mexico, Honduras, El Salvador, and Costa Rica are the LAC countries, in which productivity deterioration is observed. Ecuador is the best performer among LAC countries averaging 1.3% productivity growth per year.

In Table 3, we also report the cumulative Malmquist index and its components from 1966 to 2000 by sequential multiplication of improvements in each year. In terms of ranking and the productivity performance of the countries the results are virtually the same compared with the mean Malmquist index. The main component of long-run productivity growth in LAC countries appears to be the efficiency change while for European and North American countries, technological change remains to be the main component of the productivity growth. On average, for the time period considered, European countries improved their productivity by 55% while North American countries improved by 19.6%. On the other hand, Latin America's low TFP growth performance is clearly indicated by the 4.2% deterioration of the Malmquist index. However, Caribbean countries on average improved their productivity by 12%.

Figure 1 provides a clear exposition of long-run productivity performance of North American, European, Latin American and Caribbean countries. For expositional purposes, we normalize the Malmquist productivity growth index of all countries to unity for 1966. European productivity exhibits an upward trend from 1966 to 2000 with the exception of the periods 1974 to 1975, 1980 to 1983, and 1990 to 1993. North American productivity growth fluctuates over the time period considered. However, it trends upwards after 1983 with an exception of the period 1989 to 1991. Similarly, Caribbean TFP growth fluctuates over time but boosts after 1986. Recent stagnation periods in Caribbean region include 1991 to 1994 and 1996 to 1997. Finally, for Latin America,

productivity growth declines until 1983 and then rises until 1994. However, a rapid decline after 1994 results an over all negative productivity growth performance for the region.

Hence, our main conclusion from our analysis in this section is that innovation is the main source of productivity growth in European and North American countries. On the other hand, LAC countries suffer from inefficient production and lack of innovation. However, through international diffusion of knowledge, they use the opportunity to replicate the new technologies produced and hence grow mostly due to adaptation, i.e., through technical efficiency change. In addition, human capital stock is an important factor in explaining the productivity growth⁷, but it is not the key factor in understanding the long standing TFP growth gap between LAC countries and the rest of the Western region.

5 Policies, institutions, and growth

Since both LAC countries and European and North American countries share the same best practice frontier constructed over the whole sample, they have equal access to available technology and knowledge. Yet, considerable variation in the technological change, efficiency change, and productivity growth still exist among these countries. In this section, we will discuss how much of this variation can be accounted for by differences in country-level policies and institutions.

Following the earlier studies of the institutions and economic growth literature, we use two different proxies to account for the institutional quality, namely ICRG composite country risk ratings and the equally weighted average of political and civil liberty indices. Data for ICRG composite risk are taken from World Development Indicators (World Bank, 2004). This index was originally constructed by Political Risk Service Group based on 22 components of risk with three subcate-

⁷The inclusion of the human capital as an input to the DEA model is tested following Banker (1996). This test indicates that inclusion of human capital to the model is statistically significant at 1% level.

gories of risk namely political, financial and economic. In computing the index, political risk has the highest weight and includes many components accounting for government stability, socioeconomic conditions, corruption, law and order, democratic accountability, bureaucracy quality, internal and external conflicts, and military in politics.

On the other hand, Freedom House (2005) is the source for the civil and political liberty indices. Scores of individual countries in civil liberty index depend on various determinants of civil liberty including but not limited to freedom of expression and belief, associational and organizational rights, rule of law, and personal autonomy and individual rights. Political liberty index, on the other hand, is the proxy for political rights including right to vote, compete for public office, and elect representatives, who have a decisive impact on public policies.

In Table 4, we present mean ICRG composite risk ratings and the weighted average of civil and political liberty indices for our sample countries⁸. It is evident that European and North American countries have achieved a lot more in terms of civil and political liberty and political institutions compared to that of LAC countries with an exception of Greece and Spain. Costa Rica appears to be the best performer among LAC countries. Note that Costa Rica is a Central American success story. Although it is largely an agricultural country, it has recently expanded its economy to include technology and tourism sectors. The standard of living is relatively high and land ownership is widespread. In a similar manner, Trinidad Tobago is the best performer of the Caribbean region. It is one of the wealthiest countries in the Caribbean thanks to petroleum and natural gas production and processing. Its economy benefits from low inflation and a growing trade

⁸Our data for ICRG composite risk ratings cover the period from 1984 to 2000 while civil liberty index is available from 1972 to 2000. For a complete discussion of the construction of ICRG composite risk rating, see http://www.ICRGonline.com. For a complete discussion of the construction of the civil and political liberty index, see http://www.freedomhouse.org. Civil and political liberty indices were originally constructed with the values ranged from 1 to 7 with 1 being the most liberated. Values were transformed such that 7 became the most liberated and 1 the least liberated.

surplus⁹. In the light of the simple tabulations of Table 4, our hypothesis is that civil and political liberties, country-level policies, and institutional quality are positively associated with long-run productivity growth and the economic success of countries.

We start investigating the relationship between institutions and productivity growth using a panel regression framework. This methodology has an advantage of controlling the unobserved hetereogeity that is generated by country level differences and time. However, it yields biased estimates if instutional quality measures are still correlated with the error term after the heterogeity of time and country effects are controlled for. Our dependent variables are the Malmquist indices accounting for productivity growth, technological change, and efficiency change, respectively. Apart from the proxies for instutional quality, we use a set of control variables, such as GDP per worker, capital stock per worker, human capital, share of agriculture and manufacturing industries in GDP, population density, and inflation rate¹⁰. The estimation results for relying on fixed and random effects are reported in Table 5. Hausman test indicates that random effects is the appropriate estimation strategy when the dependent variable is the productivity growth measured by the Malmquist index. However, fixed effects are preferred when dependent variables are technological change and efficiency change. The most striking result is that the coefficient on human capital is insignificant in all regressions. This result is in line with our previous findings that human capital is not primary factor in LAC countries long-run economic stagnation. Furthermore, GDP per worker and share of manufacturing in GDP are positively, inflation rate is negatively associated not only with long-run productivity growth but also innovation and adaptation components of the Malmquist productivity growth index. The institutional quality measures do not have a significant effect on the productivity

⁹A detailed discussion of Costa Rica's and Trinidad Tobago's economic success is presented in CIA World Factbook (2005).

¹⁰The source of this data is World Bank Development Indicators (2004). Natural logarithm of inflation rate and GDP per worker is used in the estimations.

growth. Civil and political liberties, however, positively affect the technological change.

In Table 6, we investigate the relationship between institutional quality measures and productivity growth using an alternative methodology, which relies on identifying instruments. Our hypothesis in this analysis is that institutional quality is the only fundamental determinant of the long-run economic growth and technological change does not mean to omit the other determinants of growth such as inflation rate, share of manufacture and agriculture in GDP, and other characteristics of the economy. Following Hall and Jones (1999), we suggest that these variables are the outcomes, which are determined by the institutions, rather than being the determinants of the economic growth.

We use a set of instruments employed by Hall and Jones (1999) and Acemoglu, Johnson, and Robinson (2001, 2002). These are the extent to which the primary languages of Western Europe as spoken as first languages today and indigenous population density and settler mortality rate in 1500. Acemoglu, Johnson, and Robinson (2001, 2002) argues that the extent of settler mortality caused by the disease environment in colonies resulted in settler populations of differing sizes. Settler populations of smaller size tended to be more exploitative, and this was reflected in the institutions they created. Hence, indigenous population density and settler mortality rate are correlated with the Western influence on the countries that they conquered and colonized at the fifteenth century and proved to affect productivity growth only through intuitional quality measures¹¹. Hall and Jones (1999) argues that Western countries adapted their own languages to the countries they colonized during the same period. Hence, this measure is also correlated with instutions and political liberty. We formally test the validity of these instruments using over identification tests¹².

¹¹We use the log of settler mortality rate and population density in 1500 as in Acemoglu, Johnson, and Robinson (2001, 2002). See, Hall and Jones (1999) and Acemoglu, Johnson, and Robinson (2001, 2002) for a detailed discussion of the instruments.

¹²Note that since proposed instruments do not vary over time, we cannot account for the panel structure of the data. Hence, we estimate pooled OLS with appropriate instruments. This is the standart practice in the literature.

In Table 6, simple pooled OLS regressions show that intuitions as measured by two distinct proxy measures of institutions not only affect the productivity growth of the countries positively, but also positively and significantly affect the technological change component of the Malmquist index. On the other hand, they have no significant effect on the efficiency change component. This finding is consistent with our earlier findings that European and North American countries, thanks to their strong institutional quality, grow mostly due to the innovation of the new technologies. Alternative IV estimation also yields virtually the same results, but with some exceptions. Although the coefficient estimate of ICRG country risk ratings is still positive, it does not significantly affect the technological change. First stage F-tests and over identification tests imply that our instruments are valid in all cases except the 2SLS regression of ICRG ratings on the efficiency change component.

The elasticity parameters presented in Table 7 suggests that a one percentage point increase in the institutional quality as measured by the civil and political liberty index increases the productivity growth as measured by the Malmquist index by around 0.03 percentage points¹³. Similar results prevail if we instead consider the ICRG risk ratings as our preferred institutional quality measure. A one percentage point increase in this variable increases the productivity growth by around 0.04 percentage points. In addition, we report that a one percentage point increase in the institutional quality increases the technological change component by approximately 0.02 percentage points. These results imply that institutions and political liberty have a considerable impact on LAC countries' productivity growth trends through technological change.

 $^{^{13}}$ Note that, a one unit increase in the civil and political liberty index refers approximately to 14% increase in this index. Hence, a one unit increase in the civil and political liberty index increases the productivity growth by around $0.03 \times 14 = 0.42$ percentage points.

6 Conclusion

Using a nonparametric Malmquist productivity growth index, this study first measures productivity growth for LAC countries during the 1966-2000 period. Then it compares the results to those of a peer group of European and North American countries to provide a benchmark for what LAC countries could have possibly achieved over the last four decades of the century. We argue that our comparisons are relevant since almost all of the LAC countries are colonized and populated by individuals of European descent, who established the Western culture and economic success.

Our results indicate, on average, 55% productivity growth for Europe and 20% productivity growth for North America compared with that of 12% productivity growth of Caribbean and 4.2% productivity deterioration of Latin America for the time period considered. We report that LAC countries suffer from inefficient production and lack of innovation. However, through international diffusion of knowledge, they use the opportunity to replicate the new technologies produced and hence grow mostly due to adaptation. Hence, their productivity growth mostly comes from technical efficiency change rather than the technological change component of the Malmquist productivity growth index.

In a policy viewpoint, our study is the first that investigated the effect of institutions on economic growth and technological change, using a non-parametric measure of economic growth. We also explicitly recognize the endogeneity and measurement error of the institutional quality measures on the economic outcomes. We show that human capital difference is not the key factor in explaining poor productivity growth performance of LAC countries. However, our results suggest that institutional quality is an important determinant of long-run productivity growth.

In particular, we conclude that the policies related to improving economic freedom, civil rights, institutions, law and order, and other components of civil, economic, and political liberty positively

contribute not only to the productivity growth, but also to the technological improvement of the countries.

References

- [1] Acemoglu, D., Johnson S., and Robinson J., 2001. 'The colonial origins of comparative development: An empirical investigation', *American Economic Review*, 91, 1369-401.
- [2] Acemoglu, D., Johnson S., and Robinson J., 2002. 'Reversal of fortune: Geography and development in the making of the modern world income distribution', Quarterly Journal of Economics, 117, 1231-1294.
- [3] Banker, R.D., 1996. 'Maximum likelihood, consistency and data envelopment analysis: A statistical foundation', *Journal of Productivity Analysis*, 7, 139-59.
- [4] Barro, R.J. and Lee J.-W., 2001. 'International data on educational attainment: Updates and implications', Oxford Economic Papers, 53, 541-63.
- [5] Caves, D.W., Christensen, L.R., and Diewert, W.E., 1982. 'The economic theory of index numbers and the measurement of input, output, and productivity', *Econometrica*, 50, 1393-1414.
- [6] CIA (2005). The World Factbook, Washington, DC.
- [7] Cole, H.L., Ohanian, L.E., Riascos, A., and Schmitz, J.A., 2005. 'Latin America in the rearview window', Journal of Monetary Economics, 52, 69-107.
- [8] Easterly, W. and Levine R., 2003. 'Tropics, germs, and crops: How endowments influence economic development', *Journal of Monetary Economics*, 50, 3-39.

- [9] Färe, R., Grosskopf, S., Norris, M., and Zhongyang Z., 1994. 'Productivity growth, technical progress and efficiency change in industrialized countries', American Economic Review, 84, 66-83.
- [10] Färe, R., Grosskopf, S., and Lovell, C.A.K., 1994. Production Frontiers, Cambridge University Press, Cambridge, MA.
- [11] Färe, R., Grosskopf, S., and Roos, P., 1998. Malmquist productivity indexes: A survey of theory and practice. In: Russell, Robert R., Färe, Rolf, Grosskopf, Shawna (Eds.), Index Number Theory: Essays in Honor of Sten Malmquist, Kluwer Academic Publishers, Boston, pp. 127-190.
- [12] Farrell, M.J., 1957. 'The measurement of productive efficiency', Journal of Royal Statistics Society, Series A, 125, 252-67.
- [13] Freedom House, 2005. Freedom in the World Country Ratings, dataset, available at http://www.freedomhouse.org/ratings/index.htm.
- [14] Gong, B.H. and Sickles, R.C., 1992. 'Finite sample evidence on the performance of stochastic frontiers and data envelopment analysis using panel data', *Journal of Econometrics*, 51, 259-84.
- [15] Hall, R.E. and Jones, C.I., 1999. 'Why do some countries produce so much more output per worker than others?', Quarterly Journal of Economics, 114, 83-116.
- [16] Hendricks, L., 2002. 'How important is human capital for development? Evidence from immigrant earnings', *American Economic Review*, 92, 198-219.
- [17] Hoogvelt, A., 2001. Globalization and the Postcolonial World: The New Political Economy of Development, Johns Hopkins University Press, Baltimore, MD.

- [18] Islam, N., 1995. 'Growth empirics: A panel data approach', Quarterly Journal of Economics, 110, 1127-70.
- [19] Krüger, J.J., 2003. 'The global trends of total factor productivity: Evidence from the non-parametric Malmquist index approach', Oxford Economic Papers, 55, 265-86.
- [20] Lall, P., Featherstone, A.M., and Norman, D.W., 2002. 'Productivity growth in the western hemisphere (1978-94): The Caribbean perspective', *Journal of Productivity Analysis*, 17, 213-31.
- [21] Lant, P., 1996. 'Population growth, factor accumulation, and productivity', World Bank Policy Research Working Paper, No.1567.
- [22] Maudos, J., Pastor, J.M., and Serrano, L., 1999. 'Total factor productivity measurement and human capital in OECD countries', *Economics Letters*, 63, 39-44.
- [23] Mankiw, N.G., Romer, D., and Weil, D.N., 1992. 'A contribution to the empirics of economic growth', Quarterly Journal of Economics, 107, 407-37.
- [24] Marquetti, A., 2004. Extended Penn World Tables 2.1, Data set, available at http://homepage.newschool.edu/~foleyd/epwt.
- [25] Shephard, R. W., 1970. Theory of Cost and Production Frontiers, Princeton University Press, Princeton, NJ.
- [26] Solow, R.M., 1957. 'Technical change and the aggregate production function', Review of Economics and Statistics, 39, 312-20.
- [27] World Bank, 2004. World Development Indicators, World Bank, Washington, DC.

[28] Yörük, B.K. and Zaim, O., 2005. 'Productivity growth in OECD countries: A comparison with Malmquist indices', *Journal of Comparative Economics*, 33, 401-20.

Tables

Table 1. Cultural, religious, and language characteristics of LAC countries

| Country | Descent | Religion | Language |
|-----------------|---------|----------|---|
| Latin America | | | |
| | 0-0/ | | |
| Argentina | 97% | 96% | Spanish, English, Italian, German, French |
| Bolivia | 45% | 95% | Spanish, Quechua, Aymara |
| Brazil | 93% | 80% | Portuguese, Spanish, English, French |
| Chile | 95% | 100% | Spanish |
| Colombia | 92% | 94% | Spanish |
| Costa Rica | 94% | 92% | Spanish, English |
| Ecuador | 65% | 92% | Spanish, Quecha |
| El Salvador | 99% | 83% | Spanish, Nahua |
| Guatemala | 57% | 90% | Spanish, Amerindian Languages |
| Honduras | 91% | 100% | Spanish, Amerindian Languages |
| Mexico | 69% | 95% | Spanish, Amerindian Languages |
| Nicaragua | 84% | 100% | Spanish, English, Indigeneous Languages |
| Panama | 80% | 100% | Spanish, English |
| Paraguay | 95% | 90% | Spanish, Guarani |
| Peru | 52% | 90% | Spanish, Quechua |
| Uruguay | 88% | 67% | Spanish, Portunol or Brazilero (Portuguese-Spanish mix) |
| Venezuela | 89% | 98% | Spanish, Indigeneous Languages |
| Mean | 81% | 92% | |
| Caribbean | | | |
| Dominican Rep. | 89% | 95% | Spanish |
| Jamaica . | 8% | 65% | English |
| Trinidad&Tobago | 20% | 39% | English, Hindi, French, Spanish |
| Mean | 39% | 66% | |

Source: CIA World Factbook (2005).

Notes:

i) Descent is the fraction of total population that is white or mixed-white.

ii) Religion is the fraction of total population affiliated with Western religions such as Christianity and Judaism.

Table 2. Main macroeconomic indicators of LAC, European and North American countries relative to ${\rm U.S}$

| | | DD nor con | to. | | 7D nor mrl | | | aital narvia | draw | Schooling | | |
|-----------------|-------|---------------------|-------|-------|-------------|-------|-------|--------------|-------|-----------|-------|-------|
| Country . | 1966 | DP per capi 1983 | 2000 | 1966 | DP per work | 2000 | 1966 | oital per wo | 2000 | 1966 | 1983 | 2000 |
| Country | 1900 | 1963 | 2000 | 1900 | 1983 | 2000 | 1900 | 1983 | 2000 | 1900 | 1963 | 2000 |
| Latin America | 0.505 | 0.405 | 0.040 | 0.550 | 0.570 | 0.000 | 0.070 | 0.074 | 0.000 | 0.574 | 0.500 | 0.000 |
| Argentina | 0.525 | 0.425 | 0.349 | 0.559 | 0.576 | 0.398 | 0.672 | 0.671 | 0.300 | 0.571 | 0.568 | 0.693 |
| Bolivia | 0.182 | 0.125 | 0.083 | 0.227 | 0.195 | 0.106 | 0.185 | 0.106 | 0.051 | 0.409 | 0.349 | 0.452 |
| Brazil | 0.187 | 0.263 | 0.222 | 0.239 | 0.351 | 0.298 | 0.308 | 0.445 | 0.240 | 0.300 | 0.265 | 0.372 |
| Chile | 0.297 | 0.214 | 0.305 | 0.387 | 0.301 | 0.389 | 0.488 | 0.202 | 0.350 | 0.525 | 0.510 | 0.644 |
| Colombia | 0.183 | 0.196 | 0.166 | 0.252 | 0.303 | 0.178 | 0.194 | 0.181 | 0.104 | 0.297 | 0.345 | 0.409 |
| Costa Rica | 0.248 | 0.211 | 0.181 | 0.336 | 0.297 | 0.230 | 0.234 | 0.238 | 0.164 | 0.405 | 0.424 | 0.491 |
| Ecuador | 0.136 | 0.183 | 0.109 | 0.178 | 0.295 | 0.169 | 0.290 | 0.340 | 0.135 | 0.324 | 0.464 | 0.532 |
| ∃ Salvador | 0.262 | 0.165 | 0.138 | 0.332 | 0.244 | 0.210 | 0.132 | 0.112 | 0.081 | 0.201 | 0.287 | 0.367 |
| Guatemala | 0.172 | 0.174 | 0.120 | 0.234 | 0.298 | 0.206 | 0.126 | 0.139 | 0.075 | 0.154 | 0.204 | 0.255 |
| Honduras | 0.118 | 0.106 | 0.063 | 0.160 | 0.175 | 0.099 | 0.101 | 0.097 | 0.080 | 0.179 | 0.260 | 0.333 |
| Mexico | 0.306 | 0.343 | 0.267 | 0.459 | 0.525 | 0.381 | 0.501 | 0.498 | 0.331 | 0.287 | 0.365 | 0.549 |
| Nicaragua | 0.247 | 0.148 | 0.054 | 0.336 | 0.240 | 0.084 | 0.192 | 0.144 | 0.058 | 0.250 | 0.259 | 0.361 |
| Panama | 0.207 | 0.260 | 0.187 | 0.257 | 0.370 | 0.246 | 0.263 | 0.358 | 0.268 | 0.452 | 0.517 | 0.645 |
| Paraguay | 0.165 | 0.209 | 0.150 | 0.210 | 0.308 | 0.162 | 0.087 | 0.201 | 0.098 | 0.357 | 0.404 | 0.469 |
| Peru | 0.282 | 0.203 | 0.140 | 0.387 | 0.317 | 0.156 | 0.773 | 0.335 | 0.141 | 0.348 | 0.470 | 0.598 |
| Uruguay | 0.374 | 0.296 | 0.297 | 0.389 | 0.371 | 0.328 | 0.359 | 0.359 | 0.180 | 0.520 | 0.527 | 0.592 |
| Venezuela | 0.620 | 0.336 | 0.197 | 0.867 | 0.487 | 0.275 | 0.932 | 0.597 | 0.198 | 0.274 | 0.437 | 0.458 |
| Mean | 0.265 | 0.227 | 0.178 | 0.342 | 0.333 | 0.230 | 0.343 | 0.295 | 0.168 | 0.344 | 0.391 | 0.484 |
| | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Caribbean | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Dominican Rep. | 0.116 | 0.146 | 0.162 | 0.174 | 0.247 | 0.251 | 0.098 | 0.164 | 0.134 | 0.255 | 0.307 | 0.422 |
| Jamaica | 0.216 | 0.158 | 0.116 | 0.230 | 0.170 | 0.113 | 0.359 | 0.180 | 0.109 | 0.280 | 0.332 | 0.426 |
| Trinidad&Tobago | 0.380 | 0.479 | 0.347 | 0.476 | 0.626 | 0.419 | 0.275 | 0.390 | 0.179 | 0.465 | 0.549 | 0.622 |
| Mean | 0.237 | 0.261 | 0.208 | 0.293 | 0.347 | 0.261 | 0.244 | 0.245 | 0.141 | 0.334 | 0.396 | 0.490 |
| _ | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Europe | 0.004 | . ==0 | 0.707 | 0.505 | 0.000 | 0.704 | 0.000 | 4.450 | 0.000 | 0.740 | 0.700 | 0.740 |
| Austria | 0.604 | 0.759 | 0.737 | 0.567 | 0.806 | 0.784 | 0.889 | 1.150 | 0.960 | 0.740 | 0.706 | 0.718 |
| Belgium | 0.654 | 0.752 | 0.728 | 0.721 | 0.900 | 0.879 | 1.238 | 1.154 | 0.992 | 0.835 | 0.682 | 0.713 |
| Denmark | 0.914 | 0.868 | 0.818 | 0.806 | 0.788 | 0.787 | 1.244 | 1.024 | 0.850 | 0.945 | 0.790 | 0.824 |
| Finland | 0.610 | 0.765 | 0.732 | 0.541 | 0.740 | 0.755 | 1.003 | 1.068 | 0.782 | 0.633 | 0.687 | 0.828 |
| France | 0.685 | 0.804 | 0.705 | 0.651 | 0.857 | 0.761 | 0.962 | 1.131 | 0.888 | 0.626 | 0.602 | 0.683 |
| Greece | 0.416 | 0.516 | 0.448 | 0.438 | 0.659 | 0.546 | 0.695 | 1.027 | 0.548 | 0.534 | 0.576 | 0.695 |
| loeland | 0.740 | 0.838 | 0.766 | 0.737 | 0.785 | 0.698 | 1.295 | 1.129 | 0.776 | 0.636 | 0.625 | 0.714 |
| Ireland | 0.393 | 0.476 | 0.806 | 0.424 | 0.619 | 1.008 | 0.388 | 0.611 | 0.766 | 0.691 | 0.658 | 0.736 |
| Italy | 0.584 | 0.719 | 0.670 | 0.608 | 0.895 | 0.836 | 1.160 | 1.186 | 0.902 | 0.519 | 0.474 | 0.571 |
| Netherlands | 0.720 | 0.737 | 0.749 | 0.838 | 0.908 | 0.809 | 1.398 | 1.221 | 0.850 | 0.639 | 0.694 | 0.754 |
| Norway | 0.656 | 0.807 | 0.832 | 0.673 | 0.809 | 0.837 | 1.498 | 1.451 | 1.095 | 0.686 | 0.708 | 0.968 |
| Portugal | 0.297 | 0.428 | 0.485 | 0.329 | 0.470 | 0.542 | 0.390 | 0.503 | 0.620 | 0.244 | 0.293 | 0.401 |
| Spain | 0.489 | 0.539 | 0.547 | 0.556 | 0.748 | 0.684 | 0.763 | 1.007 | 0.783 | 0.421 | 0.445 | 0.592 |
| Sweden | 0.832 | 0.811 | 0.727 | 0.764 | 0.784 | 0.704 | 1.251 | 0.938 | 0.693 | 0.814 | 0.791 | 0.927 |
| Switzerland | 1.166 | 1.028 | 0.813 | 1.029 | 1.009 | 0.735 | 2.047 | 1.516 | 1.003 | 0.803 | 0.845 | 0.848 |
| United Kingdom | 0.717 | 0.694 | 0.692 | 0.647 | 0.699 | 0.692 | 0.799 | 0.664 | 0.638 | 0.777 | 0.707 | 0.763 |
| Mean | 0.655 | 0.721 | 0.703 | 0.646 | 0.780 | 0.754 | 1.064 | 1.049 | 0.822 | 0.659 | 0.643 | 0.734 |
| North Arreston | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| North America | 0.040 | 0.000 | 0.000 | 0.000 | 0.050 | 0.010 | 4.440 | 0.070 | 0.004 | 0.070 | 0.070 | 0.000 |
| Canada | 0.849 | 0.869 | 0.826 | 0.898 | 0.858 | 0.810 | 1.110 | 0.976 | 0.931 | 0.878 | 0.876 | 0.933 |
| USA | 1.000 | 1.000 | 1.000 | 1.000 | 1.000 | 1.000 | 1.000 | 1.000 | 1.000 | 1.000 | 1.000 | 1.000 |

Notes: i) USA=1 for all figures. ii) Schooling: Average years of schooling for a dult population aged 25 and greater.

Table 3. Malmquist index and its decomposition

| | | Mean | | | Cumulative | | |
|-----------------|------------|---------------|-------|------------|----------------|-------|--------|
| Country | Efficiency | Technological | Index | Efficiency | Technological | Index | Rank |
| Latin America | Linoidnoy | realmological | шасх | Lindendy | realifological | шасх | rtanit |
| Argentina | 1.008 | 0.994 | 1.002 | 1.304 | 0.814 | 1.063 | 28 |
| Bolivia | 1.007 | 0.999 | 1.002 | 1.266 | 0.965 | 1.228 | 16 |
| Brazil | 1.008 | 0.995 | 1.003 | 1.320 | 0.835 | 1.109 | 24 |
| Chile | 1.008 | 0.998 | 1.005 | 1.297 | 0.923 | 1.194 | 20 |
| Colombia | 1.000 | 1.002 | 1.002 | 1.000 | 1.065 | 1.065 | 27 |
| Costa Rica | 0.997 | 1.002 | 0.999 | 0.896 | 1.089 | 0.974 | 31 |
| Ecuador | 1.013 | 0.999 | 1.013 | 1.557 | 0.981 | 1.529 | 9 |
| El Salvador | 0.999 | 0.996 | 0.995 | 0.964 | 0.883 | 0.851 | 34 |
| Guatemala | 1.001 | 1.004 | 1.004 | 1.018 | 1.129 | 1.149 | 23 |
| Honduras | 0.991 | 0.992 | 0.983 | 0.734 | 0.769 | 0.567 | 36 |
| Mexico | 1.003 | 0.994 | 0.997 | 1.100 | 0.814 | 0.896 | 33 |
| Nicaragua | 0.986 | 0.996 | 0.981 | 0.612 | 0.862 | 0.525 | 37 |
| Panama | 0.998 | 1.004 | 1.002 | 0.927 | 1.147 | 1.065 | 26 |
| Paraguay | 0.990 | 0.991 | 0.980 | 0.701 | 0.726 | 0.509 | 38 |
| Peru | 1.009 | 0.996 | 1.005 | 1.355 | 0.872 | 1.178 | 22 |
| Uruguay | 1.009 | 1.001 | 1.003 | 1.235 | 1.033 | 1.176 | 15 |
| Venezuela | 1.000 | 0.995 | 0.995 | 0.989 | 0.843 | 0.834 | 35 |
| Mean | 1.000 | 0.998 | 0.999 | 1.043 | 0.918 | 0.054 | N/A |
| WEall | 1.001 | 0.990 | 0.555 | 1.043 | 0.910 | 0.930 | IN/A |
| Caribbean | | | | | | | |
| Dominican Rep. | 1.007 | 0.999 | 1.006 | 1.276 | 0.960 | 1.223 | 19 |
| Jamaica | 0.999 | 1.001 | 0.999 | 0.954 | 1.021 | 0.972 | 32 |
| Trinidad&Tobago | 1.000 | 1.005 | 1.005 | 1.000 | 1.183 | 1.183 | 21 |
| Mean | 1.000 | 1.003 | 1.003 | 1.068 | 1.050 | 1.120 | N/A |
| WEall | 1.002 | 1.002 | 1.003 | 1.000 | 1.030 | 1.120 | IN/A |
| North America | | | | | | | |
| Canada | 0.998 | 1.005 | 1.003 | 0.943 | 1.173 | 1.103 | 25 |
| USA | 1.000 | 1.008 | 1.008 | 1.000 | 1.298 | 1.298 | 14 |
| Mean | 0.999 | 1.006 | 1.005 | 0.971 | 1.234 | 1.196 | N/A |
| _ | | | | | | | |
| Europe | 4 00= | 4.040 | 4 000 | 4.000 | 4.507 | 4.050 | |
| Austria | 1.007 | 1.013 | 1.020 | 1.269 | 1.537 | 1.952 | 4 |
| Belgium | 1.006 | 1.013 | 1.019 | 1.225 | 1.566 | 1.918 | 5 |
| Denmark | 1.000 | 1.011 | 1.010 | 0.983 | 1.433 | 1.408 | 12 |
| Finland | 1.011 | 1.011 | 1.022 | 1.468 | 1.436 | 2.104 | 2 |
| France | 1.007 | 1.011 | 1.018 | 1.251 | 1.465 | 1.834 | 6 |
| Greece | 1.010 | 1.004 | 1.015 | 1.429 | 1.165 | 1.658 | 7 |
| Iceland | 0.998 | 1.016 | 1.014 | 0.946 | 1.692 | 1.602 | 8 |
| Ireland | 1.007 | 1.004 | 1.012 | 1.276 | 1.156 | 1.478 | 10 |
| Italy | 1.012 | 1.013 | 1.025 | 1.495 | 1.535 | 2.290 | 1 |
| Netherlands | 1.002 | 1.009 | 1.011 | 1.071 | 1.367 | 1.466 | 11 |
| Norway | 1.007 | 1.015 | 1.022 | 1.250 | 1.670 | 2.083 | 3 |
| Portugal | 1.002 | 0.997 | 0.999 | 1.086 | 0.897 | 0.974 | 30 |
| Spain | 1.005 | 1.001 | 1.006 | 1.182 | 1.039 | 1.226 | 17 |
| Sweden | 1.004 | 1.006 | 1.010 | 1.132 | 1.228 | 1.390 | 13 |
| Switzerland | 0.991 | 1.015 | 1.006 | 0.732 | 1.669 | 1.224 | 18 |
| United Kingdom | 1.007 | 0.992 | 0.999 | 1.271 | 0.773 | 0.982 | 29 |
| Mean | 1.005 | 1.008 | 1.013 | 1.174 | 1.321 | 1.550 | N/A |

Notes:
i) Mean: Mean annual productivity growth, efficiency change, and technological change from 1966 to 2000. Cumulative: Cumulative productivity, efficiency change, and technological change from 1966 to 2000.
ii) Index: Malmquist productivity growth index. Efficiency: Efficiency change index. Technological: Technological change index.
iii) Geometric means are reported.

Table 4. Mean ICRG risk ratings and civil and political liberty index

| | LAC Countries | | European and North American Countries | | | | | |
|-----------------------------|------------------|-----------------------------|---------------------------------------|------------------|-----------------------------|--|--|--|
| | ICRG risk rating | Civil and Political Liberty | | ICRG risk rating | Civil and Political Liberty | | | |
| Latin America Argentina | 60.18 (13.46) | 5.05 (1.39) | Europe Austria | 85.59 (2.21) | 7.00 (0.0) | | | |
| Bolivia | 54.56 (14.80) | 4.86 (1.23) | Belgium | 81.45 (2.28) | 6.89 (0.21) | | | |
| Brazil | 61.07 (5.07) | 4.72 0.85 | Denmark | 84.70 (2.37) | 7.00 (0.0) | | | |
| Chile | 67.68 (11.89) | 4.09 (1.82) | Finland | 84.28 (2.74) | 6.48 (0.49) | | | |
| Colombia | 60.96 (5.34) | 5.05 (0.69) | France | 80.40 (1.60) | 6.52 (0.09) | | | |
| Costa Rica | 67.39 (7.81) | 6.84 (0.24) | Greece | 67.53 (7.61) | 5.86 (1.09) | | | |
| Ecuador | 56.55 (5.12) | 4.93 (1.24) | Iceland | 80.12 (2.58) | 7.00 (0.0) | | | |
| El Salvador | 55.45 (16.06) | 4.71 (0.80) | Ireland | 81.64 (3.94) | 6.90 (0.21) | | | |
| Guatemala | 53.93 (12.04) | 4.07 (0.94) | Italy | 78.21 (2.94) | 6.57 (0.32) | | | |
| Honduras | 52.86 (7.45) | 4.74 (0.86) | Netherlands | 87.43 (1.81) | 7.00 (0.0) | | | |
| Mexico | 66.39 (6.55) | 4.38 (0.39) | Norway | 87.71 (2.26) | 7.00 (0.0) | | | |
| Nicaragua | 43.11 (12.30) | 3.76 (0.95) | Portugal | 77.70 (5.01) | 6.15 (1.27) | | | |
| Panama | 60.58 (9.18) | 3.86 1.68 | Spain | 76.09 (3.34) | 5.86 (1.39) | | | |
| Paraguay | 63.18 (9.03) | 3.62 (0.95) | Sweden | 83.69 (2.29) | 6.98 (0.09) | | | |
| Peru | 52.31 (12.40) | 4.07 (1.26) | Switzerland | 90.81 (2.79) | 7.00 (0.0) | | | |
| Uruguay | 66.78 (5.38) | 4.93 (1.81) | United Kingdom | 82.25 (2.20) | 6.79 (0.25) | | | |
| Venezuela | 64.99 (5.10) | 5.81 (0.82) | | | | | | |
| Caribbean Dominican Rep. | 59.62 (10.63) | 5.52 (0.56) | North America Canada | 83.84 (1.50) | 7.00 (0.0) | | | |
| Jamaica | 64.43 (8.16) | 5.81 (0.36) | United States | 84.01 (1.89) | 7.00 (0.0) | | | |
| Trinidad&Tobago | 65.52 (6.92) | 6.38 (0.49) | | , , | . , | | | |

Notes:
i) Standard deviations are in parenthesis.
ii) ICRG risk rating: ICRG composite risk rating with 0=highest risk to 100=lowest (World Development Indicators, World Bank, 2004).
iii) Civil and political liberty: Computed as the weighted average of political liberty index and civil liberty index with 0=lowest to 7=highest (Freedom House, Freedom in the world, 2005).

Table 5. Determinants of Productivity growth, technological change, and efficiency change

| | | Independent Variables | | | | | | | | | | |
|-----------------------------|------------------|-----------------------|------------------|----------------|------------------|-------------------|--|--|--|--|--|--|
| | Productivi | ty Growth | Technologic | al Change | Efficiency | Efficiency Change | | | | | | |
| Independent Variables | Fixed effects | Random effects | Fixed effects | Random effects | Fixed effects | Random effects | | | | | | |
| Constant | 0.591*** | 0.871*** | 0.745*** | 0.907*** | 0.838*** | 0.936*** | | | | | | |
| | (0.181) | (0.049) | (0.127) | (0.033) | (0.176) | (0.046) | | | | | | |
| GDP per worker | 0.131*** | 0.042*** | 0.083*** | 0.019*** | 0.049** | 0.021** | | | | | | |
| | (0.021) | (0.009) | (0.015) | (0.006) | (0.021) | (0.009) | | | | | | |
| Capital stock per worker | -0.092*** | -0.025*** | -0.054*** | -0.009** | -0.038** | -0.015** | | | | | | |
| | (0.017) | (0.007) | (0.012) | (0.005) | (0.017) | (0.006) | | | | | | |
| Human capital | -0.002 | -0.001 | -0.001 | -0.000 | -0.001 | -0.001 | | | | | | |
| | (0.007) | (0.001) | (0.005) | (0.001) | (0.007) | (0.001) | | | | | | |
| Share of manufacturing | 0.002** | 0.001*** | -0.000 | -0.000 | 0.002*** | 0.001*** | | | | | | |
| | (0.001) | (0.000) | (0.001) | (0.000) | (0.001) | (0.000) | | | | | | |
| Share of agriculture | 0.002** | -0.001* | 0.000 | 0.000 | 0.002** | -0.001** | | | | | | |
| | (0.001) | (0.000) | (0.001) | (0.000) | (0.001) | (0.000) | | | | | | |
| Population density×100 | 0.035 | -0.004** | -0.031 | -0.001 | 0.066* | -0.003 | | | | | | |
| | (0.040) | (0.002) | (0.028) | (0.001) | (0.039) | (0.002) | | | | | | |
| Inflation rate | -0.010*** | -0.004*** | 0.003** | -0.000 | -0.010*** | -0.004*** | | | | | | |
| | (0.002) | (0.001) | (0.001) | (0.001) | (0.002) | (0.001) | | | | | | |
| ICRG Risk Rating×100 | -0.035 | -0.031 | 0.002 | -0.021 | -0.036 | -0.010 | | | | | | |
| | (0.036) | (0.026) | (0.025) | (0.018) | (0.034) | (0.024) | | | | | | |
| Civil and Political Liberty | 0.003 | 0.003 | 0.004* | 0.004** | -0.001 | -0.001 | | | | | | |
| | (0.003) | (0.002) | (0.002) | (0.001) | (0.003) | (0.002) | | | | | | |
| Hausman Test (p-value) | 28.42 (0.243) | - | 36.35 (0.066) | - | 46.37 (0.004) | - | | | | | | |
| R^2 | 0.180 | 0.123 | 0.230 | 0.191 | 0.187 | 0.145 | | | | | | |
| Number of Obs. | 535 | 535 | 535 | 535 | 535 | 535 | | | | | | |

Notes:

i) Standard errors are in parenthesis.
ii) The sign *** indicates that the variable is statistically significant at 1% significance level. The sign ** indicates that the variable is statistically significant at 5% significance level. The sign * indicates that the variable is statistically significant at 10% significance level.
iii) Time effects are included in all regressions.

 ${\bf Table~6.~Relationship~between~institutions~and~productivity~growth,~technological~change,} \\$

| | Productivity Growth | | Technolog | Technological Change (Innovation) | | | Effficiency Change (Adaptation) | | |
|-----------------------------|---------------------|---------|-----------|-----------------------------------|----------|--------------|---------------------------------|----------|-----------|
| | | Over I | | Over ID test | | Over ID test | | | |
| | OLS | 2SLS | (p-value) | OLS | 2SLS | (p-value) | OLS | 2SLS | (p-value) |
| Proxy for Instutions | | | | | | | | | |
| Civil and Political Liberty | 0.003*** | 0.005* | 0.290 | 0.004*** | 0.003 | 0.565 | -0.0001 | 0.002 | 0.676 |
| | (0.001) | (0.003) | | (0.001) | (0.002) | | (0.001) | (0.003) | |
| First stage R ² | 0.015 | 0.164 | | 0.038 | 0.165 | | 0.001 | 0.164 | |
| First stage F-test | 16.35 | 41.67 | | 43.34 | 41.67 | | 0.98 | 41.67 | |
| Number of Observations | 1102 | 638 | | 1102 | 638 | | 1102 | 638 | |
| Proxy for Instutions | | | | | | | | | |
| ICRG Country Risk Ratings | 0.0002** | 0.001* | 0.247 | 0.0002** | 0.0002 | 0.837 | 0.00004 | 0.0004 | 0.098 |
| | (0.0001) | (0.000) | | (0.0001) | (0.0002) | | (0.0001) | (0.0003) | |
| First stage R ² | 0.007 | 0.290 | | 0.008 | 0.289 | | 0.0003 | 0.290 | |
| First stage F-test | 4.90 | 50.29 | | 5.61 | 50.29 | | 0.20 | 50.29 | |
| Number of Observations | 646 | 374 | | 646 | 374 | | 646 | 374 | |

Notes:

i) Standard errors are in parenthesis.
ii) The sign *** indicates that the variable is statistically significant at 1% significance level. The sign ** indicates that the variable is statistically significant at 5% significance level. The sign * indicates that the variable is statistically significant at 10% significance level.

iii) All regressions include a constant.

Table 7. Coefficients of Elasticities under different specifications

| | Productivity Growth | | Technologi | ical Change | Efficiency | Efficiency Change | | |
|-----------------------------|---------------------|---------|------------|-------------|------------|-------------------|--|--|
| Proxy for Instutions | OLS | 2SLS | OLS | 2SLS | OLS | 2SLS | | |
| Civil and Political Liberty | 0.019*** | 0.026* | 0.023*** | 0.016 | -0.005 | 0.008 | | |
| | (0.005) | (0.016) | (0.003) | (0.011) | (0.005) | (0.015) | | |
| ICRG Country Risk Ratings | 0.016** | 0.037* | 0.012** | 0.011 | 0.003 | 0.025 | | |
| | (0.007) | (0.021) | (0.005) | (0.014) | (0.007) | (0.019) | | |

Notes:

i) Standard errors are in parenthesis.
ii) The sign *** indicates that the variable is statistically significant at 1% significance level. The sign ** indicates that the variable is statistically significant at 5% significance level. The sign * indicates that the variable is statistically significant at 10% significance

Figure 1. Long-run productivity growth trends

