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Innovative Applications of O.R.

Service level provision in municipalities: A flexible directional distance composite indicator[☆]

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ABSTRACT

With increasing decentralization of public activities to the municipalities, it has become imperative to deploy an enhanced service provision analysis at the local level. This paper suggests the innovative use of a composite indicator to measure the multidimensional aspects of the local public provision comprising of several commonly administered municipal tasks. We propose a robust conditional version of a directional distance composite indicator with weight restrictions based on the municipal expenditure composition. Specifically, we deal with the presence of “undesirable” municipal service indicators and with the heterogeneity among the municipalities in their political preferences, priority public activities and operating environment characteristics. To illustrate the applicability of the suggested method, we show the construction of the municipal service provision composite indicator for 307 Flemish municipalities over the year 2006–2011.

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1. Introduction

Conforming to the subsidiarity principle and the New Public Management theories, a gradual decentralization of the key activities from the national level to the municipal level has enabled the public sector service providers in developing a closer relationship with its citizens and provide services customized to citizens' needs. Accordingly, the pressure on the provision of public goods necessitates a more enhanced service level analysis at the local level and calls for suitable tools to measure and monitor local municipal service provision aimed at effective, innovative and sustainable public sector management.

This paper proposes the innovative use of a fully non-parametric approach to assess the local service provision in a dynamic framework. Specifically, this innovative application shows

policy makers the potential of operational research for evaluating multidimensional performances of municipalities thereby accounting for several sensitive issues in practice. As the municipal tasks are composed of various multifaceted activities, the used operational research method relies on the construction of a composite indicator. However, there are five issues that are needed to be addressed in the model specification. First, it is necessary to acknowledge that municipalities differ in the activities they develop and do not develop. This decision is often driven by political preferences and depending on the competencies of different municipalities. This variety is reflected both in terms of local government priorities and their peculiar specializations. The municipal budget allocation keeps track of this kind of information as it presents the areas that should be prioritized and allocated more resources. On one hand, budget shares are the result of historical choices made by previous local public administrations. New municipal boards might have to deal with decisions taken in the past. This is to some extent reflected in the budget constraints. In this perspective, the budget shares cannot change very quickly when a new municipal administration takes place. On the contrary, a large part of the budget is constrained due to the choices made in the past, and therefore, are to some extent exogenous to the municipal administration. On the other hand, they reflect the current government preferences over different areas that require municipal intervention depending on municipal characteristics, voter preferences and perceived local needs. Reasonably, the political preferences of

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the population do not change dramatically such that services that are offered in the past (e.g. police services, health care or nursery) are still needed in the future. Second, the municipalities differ not only in what they are willing to do, but also in what they are able to achieve and the service they can provide. To deal with this kind of variety among the municipalities under assessment, we propose the use of a flexible 'Benefit-of-the-Doubt' (BoD) composite indicator that endogenously determines the weights for each municipal service. In particular, the weights in the composite indicator are assigned in such a way that the municipality under analysis is evaluated with its most favourable weighting. To avoid meaningless weights, the approach is combined with the weight restrictions based on the municipal expenditure composition. In this way we can provide objectively determined and endogenously flexible weights, but at the same time we directly constrain them according to the information contained in the municipal balance sheets. Given the limited leeway of municipal administrations to change the budget allocation dramatically and rapidly when they come to office, there might be some path dependency in the municipal performance. In other words, the current performance evaluation of a municipal board might be negatively affected due to budget allocation decisions taken in the past. Third, "more" is not always "better" along the dimensions we evaluate the municipal service. For instance, the municipalities have the duty to prevent criminality and it is apparent that higher the level of criminality, poorer the level of quality of service that the municipality provides to its citizens in terms of public safety. We deal with this kind of indicators considering them as undesirable features. For this reason, we tailor the suggested BoD approach to a directional distance function as proposed by Zanella, Camanho, and Dias (2015b). Fourth, the characteristics of municipal operating environment have a role to play in the public activities delivery as they influence the selection and the importance of the different municipal areas. To avoid the assumption of "separability condition", we perform a conditional analysis of the emerging model, combined with its robust version, to handle the bias stemming from the atypical observations that can be possibly present in the units under analysis. Finally, as time matters, a dynamic component is added in the conditional model (Mastromarco and Simar, 2015) to exploit intertemporal variations in public service provision (Cordero, Pedraja-Chaparro, Pisaflores, and Polo, 2017a).

Taking into account the listed issues, we propose an innovative way to evaluate local municipal service provision. More precisely, we advocate a composite indicator built on a directional distance BoD model, including undesirable features and weight restrictions based on the expenditure composition, performing the robust and conditional analysis, within a dynamic framework. The composite indicator is applied to Flemish municipalities to measure municipal service provision of 307 Flemish municipalities over the years 2006–2011.

Despite the fact that in the Operational Research literature there are a large amount of studies focusing on local governments and various aspects related to their efficiency (for an extensive review see Narbón-Perpiñá & De Witte, 2018a; 2018b), the present paper constitutes a step forward in several directions in this area. First, there are no studies that measure the overall municipal service provision comprehensively (see, e.g., Fusco, Vidoli, & Sahoo, 2018; Karagiannis, 2017). There are studies that have either proposed this approach only for specific municipal functions, such as the waste collection service (Fusco, Vidoli, and Rogge, 2019; Rogge, De Jaeger, and Lavigne, 2017), or have focused only on the global output assessment and have not included undesirable features in their evaluation (Afonso and Fernandes, 2008; Yusuf, 2015). With regard to the inclusion of undesirable features in the construction of the composite indicator, we consider alternative specifications relying on state-of-the-art model formulations of Färe, Karagian-

nis, Hasannasab, and Margaritis (2019) and a variant of the Zanella et al. (2015b) specification. For these recent models, we provide a comparison of their performance. To the best of our knowledge, this is the first paper comparing these recent models. Second, when constructing the composite indicator we incorporate the information on the expenditure composition share for each municipal area in the weight restriction specification and not only as a direct weighting scheme to aggregate the municipal tasks (Bosch, Espasa, and Mora, 2012; D'Inverno, Carosi, and Ravagli, 2018; Helland and Sørensen, 2015). Finally, considering the huge amount of municipal efficiency papers, it was observed that just few of them included the robust and conditional analysis (Asatryan and De Witte, 2015; Cordero et al., 2017a), even if local public services depend on the characteristics of the municipalities and a fair analysis should account for these differences directly in the main model specification. The proposed innovative use of the tool can be easily adapted to other settings and countries. Additionally, one can benefit from using it to look at specific services, such as water services, waste management, social services and public order to name a few. The code is available on request from the authors to facilitate further research and to foster policy applications for overall municipal service measurement in alternative countries and/or for specific areas.

The remainder of this paper is structured as follows. Section 2 discusses the different municipal tasks and it explains the data. In Section 3 the methodological steps leading to the advocated 'robust conditional directional distance BoD with weight restrictions' composite indicator for the municipal service provision assessment are discussed. Section 4 presents the main findings obtained from the empirical application on Flemish municipalities. Lastly, Section 5 presents some final remarks and conclusions.

2. Municipal service level

As suggested by the OECD (2008), when constructing a composite indicator, its theoretical framework should be defined first, to clarify which phenomenon is intended to be measured and what are its subcomponents that represent it as a whole. Accordingly, it is essential to clarify on what dimensions the proposed municipal service composite indicator has been built upon. The services provided by the municipalities vary from country to country depending on several factors, such as for example the location, the geography, the history and the tradition. However, there are several commonly acknowledged functions that represent the main tasks of a municipality (for a general overview, Narbón-Perpiñá & De Witte, 2018a; 2018b; OECD/UCLG, 2016). Although there might be some differences across countries (see CEMR, 2016), these include general administration, culture, education and care services, housing and public safety, road maintenance and environmental management. For the sake of clarity, we refer to Fig. 1 which consists of an example list of services grouped by various municipal functions. These different intervention areas can be seen as the broad categories along which municipal services' composite indicator should be assessed.

Once the sub-indicators are identified with the municipal functions, the representative variables need to be selected consequently, in compliance with the data availability and the output choice in the related local governments efficiency literature (for an extensive review, see Narbón-Perpiñá & De Witte, 2018a). We focus on the Flemish region of Belgium for which we are in possession of exceptionally good data at municipal level (see Appendix A for a discussion). Moreover, in their review of local competences, CEMR (2016) indicates that the categories indicated in Fig. 1 also hold for Flanders. The data cover all 307 Flemish municipalities over the period 2006–2011, mostly coinciding with the term of local author-

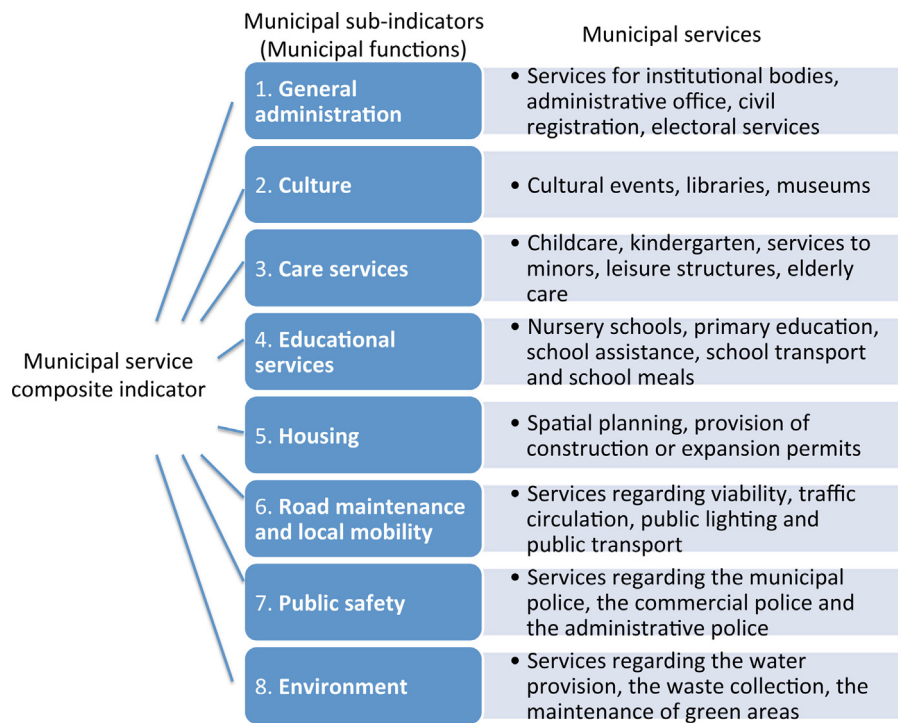


Fig. 1. Example of services for each municipal function.

Table 1
Descriptive statistics for the municipal service level.

Municipal service (per 1000 inhabitants)	Obs	Mean	St. dev.	Min	Max
1. Robust BOD CI for general administration	1842	0.85	0.11	0.73	2.92
Net foreigners	1842	7.44	6.31	0.04	120.8
Households	1842	404.5	23.76	351.33	560.83
2. Cultural events	1842	6.53	5.51	0.3	36.05
3. Robust BOD CI for care service	1842	0.8	0.11	0.56	1.54
Children in kindergarten	1842	37.35	7.37	8.38	96.64
Residents over 80	1842	46.26	9.65	20.19	88.28
4. Students in primary school	1842	63.51	13.47	9.81	145.58
5. Built-up area (Km ²)	1842	64.33	21.2	22.34	251.01
6. Accidents	1842	4.44	1.57	0.39	13.37
7. Robust BOD CI for Crime	1842	0.5	0.21	0.11	1.62
Thefts	1842	21.77	12.42	3.44	92.79
Physical crimes	1842	4.91	2.44	0.9	19.56
Property crimes	1842	8.43	3.56	0	34.01
8. Robust BOD CI for environment services	1842	0.61	0.12	0.41	1.46
Waste (Tonnes)	1842	141.08	39.51	56.83	362.63
Energy consumption	1842	7.9	1.8	4.68	22.68

Note: Panel for 307 Flemish municipalities over 2006–2011.

ities elected in 2006.¹ Table 1 shows the descriptive statistics of the variables expressed in per capita values. We proxy the general administration by the number of net foreigners and households. The first component, measured as the number of incoming minus leaving migrants, captures the administrative workload related to immigration offices. The variable was also used before by D'Inverno et al. (2018) to proxy the need for welfare institutions. The number of households captures the general administrative, statistical and permit services needed in a municipality. The measure has been used since the pioneering work of Eeckaut, Tulkens, and Jamar (1993), and became more standard since the work of De Borger and Kerstens (1996a,b). Although the combination of the two variables underestimates the full general adminis-

tration required in a municipality, it is reasonable to assume that other general administrative services are strongly correlated with the number of net foreigners and households. The cultural events measure the cultural activities promoted by the local government and they can be seen as the cultural engagement boosted by a local administration. The number of cultural events in the municipality are measured as all registered events in a national and popular database for cultural events (UIT-databank). Measuring the events by using a count indicator might hide some heterogeneity in the size of the events. Although similar information is not available in Flanders, Narbón-Perpiñá and De Witte (2018a) list four earlier papers that use the expenses for theatres, cinemas, municipal museums and galleries as a proxy for cultural facilities in municipalities. Except for Prieto and Zofio (2001), the literature does not account for quality differences in the facilities. The recipient of the education and care services are respectively the students in primary school and the children in kindergarten together with the

¹ There are 308 municipalities in Flanders, but one municipality is excluded because of lack of data.

Table 2
Descriptive statistics for the municipal background conditions.

Background conditions	Obs	Mean	St. dev.	Min	Max
<i>Economic-financial components</i>					
Fiscal income (€ per capita)	1842	16330.52	1924.97	11055.29	24278.23
Financial debt (€ per capita)	1842	1014.43	581.88	– 1497.33	5402.22
Unemployment	1842	5.52	1.8	2.11	15.19
<i>Socio-demographic components</i>					
Residents over 65 (% of total)	1842	0.18	0.02	0.11	0.3
Foreigners (% of total)	1842	0.05	0.06	0	0.48
Population growth	1842	0.64	0.62	– 4.51	3.59
<i>Political component</i>					
Ideological Complexion of the local Government (ICG)	1842	5.04	0.71	2.5	6.3

Note: Panel for 307 Flemish municipalities over 2006–2011.

residents over 80. Despite the fact that they are not direct measures of the actual services as much as the number of meals per pupil or residential aged care might be, it is reasonable to assume that the chosen groups well represent the recipient of this kind of services. Similar assumptions have also been made in earlier literature. For example, [Nikolov and Hrovatin \(2013\)](#) and [D'Inverno et al. \(2018\)](#) consider the population until 5 years old as a proxy for kindergarten services. [Asatryan and De Witte \(2015\)](#) use the ratio of the number of children at kindergartens to population. The elderly patient population has been used before by [Loikkanen and Susiluoto \(2005\)](#) and [Asatryan and De Witte \(2015\)](#) to measure the supply for social services to elderly, such as geriatric and retirement homes, or the general municipal assistance for the elder. The built-up area is considered for the housing and country planning area, as a variable capturing the effort of a municipality in fostering its urban development. It is closely related to municipal service provision as municipalities with a larger built-up area might have a different cost structure. Earlier papers using this proxy include [Lo Storto \(2016\)](#) and [Arcelus, Arocena, Cabasés, and Pascual \(2015\)](#). However, as it serves only as an indirect proxy due to the difficulty to quantify the supply of public services, other papers have used the number of households in the local area as a proxy for the demand of the urban services. For the road mobility, we consider the number of accidents as a proxy of the traffic circulation interventions when an accident occurs and the related necessary local road maintenance. This is an innovative way as earlier research typically uses the length of municipal roads ([Narbón-Perpiñá and De Witte, 2018a](#)). However, specifically in Flanders, accidents captures better the quality of the public provision. For the police function, we keep track of the local police intervention and prevention activities by means of police records. Specifically, the crime level includes the number of thefts, physical and property crimes. This variable has been used before by [Eeckaut et al. \(1993\)](#) and [Moore, Nolan, and Segal \(2005\)](#). It serves as a better proxy for the quality of service provision than the expenditures for police or a dummy variable for municipal policy also used before. Finally, one of the main tasks of a local government is to promote local strategies to develop a sustainable environmental attitude among the citizens ([Global Taskforce of Local and Regional Governments, 2016](#)). In this perspective, the energy consumption and the waste production can be good indicators of the local effort in the field of energy efficiency and waste reduction. These are the variables collected for the present application. Nevertheless, the proposed approach is flexible to encompass different performance indicators, as long as they are representative of the municipal service provision, adapting to the data availability and country-specific local competences.

A few additional considerations deserve to be mentioned. A recurrent issue in the non-parametric analysis is the curse of dimensionality, which is likely to occur when the model consists of numerous variables. To exploit the data availability and to gather to-

gether several aspects of the same phenomenon, the literature proposes a few solutions such as aggregating first in sub-indicators ([Afonso, Schuknecht, and Tanzi, 2005](#)) or specifying the weight restrictions on a more aggregate level ([Morais and Camanho, 2011](#)). In this line, an overall composite indicator could be considered imposing both weight restrictions at the level of the dimensions and at the level of the underlying tasks for relatively low dimensional analysis. However, given the increasing attention at transparent administration together with the need of monitoring and evaluating the local services, there will be more and more data available that can be used in the proposed municipal composite indicator. Accordingly, to avoid the curse of dimensionality and to keep separated each area, we suggest aggregating first the sub-indicators and then aggregating at the overall level as a reasonable alternative way to approach the multidimensional municipal service provision assessment. Specifically, for some municipal sub-indicators with data covering multiple underlying tasks, a 'robust Benefit-of-Doubt' composite indicator has been constructed aggregating variables belonging to the same municipal function (for the methodological details, please refer to [Section 3](#)).² This has been done for the following functions: the general administration (composite indicator from Net foreigners and Households), the care services (composite indicator from Children in kindergarten and Residents over 80), the public safety by a crime index (composite indicator from number of Thefts, Physical and Property crimes³), the environmental management (composite indicator from Waste and Energy consumption).

Second, not all the variables included in the analysis are strictly direct measures of the services provided to the citizens, but are rather proxies. This procedure is widely accepted both in the composite indicator and in the local governments' efficiency literature to the extent that the selected variables are clearly representative of the intended composite indicator ([Narbón-Perpiñá and De Witte, 2018a](#); [OECD, 2008](#)). Moreover, to the best of our knowledge, there are no available data on the quality of the services and on the role of citizens in co production, even though this type of information would add a very interesting dimension to the overall analysis, as pointed out for example by [De Witte and Geys \(2011, 2013\)](#).

² To aggregate variables belonging to the same municipal function we use the robust BoD-model, and not the robust and conditional BoD-model (as we do in the macro-aggregation). Although the operating environment influences directly the macro-aggregation across different municipal functions, reflecting different preferences over different municipal functions and therefore different budget allocation, this does not necessarily hold within the dimension. For example, if municipalities provide care services, they have to do it in the best way irrespective of the age and structure of the population. On the contrary, the heterogeneity coming from the operating context must be dealt with to grasp possible synergies and trade-offs across the different dimensions.

³ Providing a BoD index for crime rather than just adding numbers captures more information: it takes into account the heterogeneity among the different kinds of crime across the municipalities that would be otherwise wiped out.

Finally, it is worth pointing out that “more is better” is not true for all the municipal sub-indicators, as not all of them represent desirable features. In fact, the municipalities are not merely required to offer the greatest amount of services that they can, but, in some cases, the ‘service’ that they are supposed to deliver have to be aimed at alleviation of the production of undesirable features, such as the number of accidents, the level of criminality and the level of environmental pollution to the maximum extent possible. To keep the production of these undesirable indicators as low as possible, municipalities have to spend resources that would have otherwise spent in producing other services. In a similar vein, a local government has to spend resources to keep the roads safe so to minimize the number of accidents and they have to pay the public officers for protection and assistance offered by them to the citizens. The introduced “undesirable” outcomes might reflect to some extent the quality of services (e.g., accidents might partly reflect poor-quality roads). In the current analysis we consider three undesirable and five desirable indicators, with the former referring to public safety, road mobility and environmental management functions and the latter referring to general administration, education and care services, culture and housing functions.

In addition to the considerations acknowledged so far, it is necessary to recognize that the operating conditions are also of relevance when constructing a municipal service composite indicator. In fact, the characteristics of the municipalities (e.g., size, income, age composition) affect local public activities and, as a consequence, they also affect the overall assessment of the aggregate indicator. For this reason, in compliance with the variables used in the related literature (for an extensive review, see [Narbón-Perpiñá & De Witte, 2018b](#)), three groups of background variables need to be included in the analysis: economic-financial characteristics, socio-demographic structure and the political dimension. We distinguish between variables that can be considered as exogenous only in a relatively short term and variables that can be considered exogenous both in a short and longer term ([Rogge et al., 2017](#)). In the former category we include *fiscal income*, *financial debt* and *unemployment* as representative variables of economic-financial characteristics: specifically, they are also informative of the institutional setting in which municipalities have to operate and to some extent influence through policies over time. The fiscal income is defined as the income per capita and it represents citizens’ economic level estimated for each municipality. Even if local authorities cannot have direct control over their citizens wealth, they might affect it by fiscal policies in the long run. Financial debt is measured as the excess of expenditures over revenues per capita and it reflects three interconnected aspects: namely the extent of granted loans, the return on investment and the fiscal revenue capacity. As stock of deficit, it might be due to decisions rooted in the past, but still it might influence the current service provision. Accordingly, this variable can be seen as exogenous in the short term, as well as subject to political influence in a longer period. The unemployment variable is defined as the percentage of unemployed residents between 15 and 64 years over the total working population and it can be seen not only as a cost for the municipality in terms of social and housing benefits, but also as a signal of the living conditions in which municipalities have to operate. In this perspective, there is not much leeway for the local authorities other than promoting policies that can somehow lead to a change over the years.

In the latter category, we include characteristics that can be considered exogenous irrespective of the time span, namely the socio-demographic structure and the political aspect. It is reasonable to look at the population composition as given and not under the discretion of the local authorities. Likewise, the political ideology can be seen as rather exogenous (especially if we keep in mind that the period under analysis falls within an electoral cy-

cle). To frame the socio-demographic structure, we consider the *residents over 65*, the *foreigners* and the *population growth*. The residents over 65 years of age represents a share of retired people over the total population and it represents the age composition. To capture the ways in which a municipality is attractive for foreigners and to present its ethnic composition, the share of immigrants has been considered. Population growth is the variation of residents in a municipality over the years. The local governments should adjust their service level in compliance with the growth of its population in order to avoid disruption or excess provision, and ultimately waste of resources. Finally, concerning the political aspect, the “*Ideological Complexion of the local Government*” (ICG) measures the ideological stance of the local government on a Left-Right scale (from 0 to 10): a higher ICG score represents a more right-wing government. We refer to [Table 2](#) for the descriptive statistics of the presented background variables and [Appendix A](#) for additional information on data source and description.⁴

3. Methodology

This paper proposes an innovative way to measure the local municipal service provision by the construction of a composite indicator. Considering the issues that are required to be addressed while specifying the model, the methodological steps leading to the proposed ‘robust conditional directional distance BoD model with weight restrictions’ are presented in the subsections underneath.

3.1. The BoD model

As presented in the previous section, the local municipal service provision covers several areas. Accordingly, we look for an aggregating method to group several dimensions into one single composite indicator (CI). As we do not have any prior knowledge of the functional form and understanding of the importance of the different municipal services, we adopt a fully non-parametric way to avoid any kind of specification bias. In particular, we choose a Benefit-of-the-Doubt (BoD) weighting technique, inspired by the Data Envelopment Analysis (DEA) methodology ([Charnes, Cooper, and Rhodes, 1978](#)) and labelled as such after [Melyn and Moesen \(1991\)](#). The peculiarity of the BoD model is that it assigns the weights for each municipal service endogenously ([Van Puyenbroeck, 2018](#)). More specifically, the service provision level of the municipality under analysis is compared in a relative perspective to the service level of all the municipalities in the sample: a higher weight is assigned to a municipal area where the municipality under analysis provides relatively high service level and a lower weight where it provides relatively low service level. The optimal weights are determined in such a way that the composite indicator for the overall level of service provision of the municipality j_0 under analysis is maximized. The weights are obtained by solving for each municipality j_0 the following problem:

$$\begin{aligned} CI_{j_0} &= \max \sum_{r=1}^s y_{rj_0} w_{rj_0} \\ \text{s.t.} \quad &\sum_{r=1}^s y_{rj} w_{rj_0} \leq 1, \quad \text{for } j = 1, \dots, j_0, \dots, n \\ &w_{rj_0} \geq 0, \quad \text{for } r = 1, \dots, s \end{aligned} \quad (1)$$

where CI_{j_0} refers to the composite indicator optimal value for the evaluated municipality j_0 ; y_{rj_0} denotes the observed service level

⁴ Some of the background variables are categorized for methodological reasons (for more technical details, see [Rogge et al., 2017](#), & the references therein).

for the municipal area r of the evaluated municipality j_0 ; w_{rj_0} represents the most favourable weight to the municipal area r for the evaluated municipality j_0 ; y_{rj} denotes the observed service level for the municipal area r of every municipality j in the dataset; n is the number of municipalities under analysis ($n=307$) and s signifies the number of municipal functions considered in this application ($s=8$).

The first constraint in the model formulation is referred to as the “normalization” constraint: the overall municipal composite indicator Cl_{j_0} is maximized subject to an upper bound equal to one. Therefore, the Cl_{j_0} value ranges between zero and one where the higher the value, the higher is the overall service provision level for the evaluated municipality. If $Cl_{j_0} < 1$, it means that, even if evaluating the municipality under analysis by employing its most favourable weighting system, there is at least another municipality providing a higher overall level of service. Hence, it would mean that there is still room for improvement in the service provision, given the observed overall level of provided services across the whole sample. If $Cl_{j_0} = 1$, then it denotes that the municipality under analysis is not outperformed in terms of the overall service provision and it is considered as its own benchmark while using its most favourable weight system. The second constraint imposes the weights’ non-negativity.

The advantage of using this approach is twofold: first, it allows to group together several aspects into one single indicator. Second, it ensures the fairness of the comparison, weighting more the municipal areas where higher priority is devoted and, vice versa, weighting less the ones with lower priority. In this way, each evaluated municipality is granted the “Benefit-of-the-Doubt” in the assessment and the fairness of the comparison is ensured (for more details on the BoD approach, see e.g. [Cherchye, Moesen, Rogge, & Van Puyenbroeck, 2007](#); [Rogge et al., 2017](#); [Verschelde & Rogge, 2012](#)).

3.2. The directional distance BoD model

In the depicted BoD framework, a higher indicator level in a certain municipal area denotes a better overall service provision assessment, i.e. the extent to which the indicator can be labelled as “desirable”. However, it must be acknowledged that this might not be the case among all the local services. In fact, municipalities might also provide services in areas where the best they can do is to limit the production of the indicator rather than to expand it and for this reason the label “undesirable” is assigned.

The inclusion of undesirable features in the construction of composite indicators is quite recent and it is associated with the performance measurement literature (for an extensive review, see [Dakpo, Jeanneaux, & Latruffe, 2016](#); [Zanella et al., 2015b](#)). In this study, we propose the model introduced by [Zanella et al. \(2015b\)](#) and advocated by [Rogge et al. \(2017\)](#), namely a directional distance BoD model. This model combines the earlier listed advantages of the BoD approach together with the ones of the directional distance function, introduced by [Chung, Färe, and Grosskopf \(1997\)](#). In fact, the directional distance model allows to simultaneously contract the undesirable indicators and expand the desirable ones along a specified direction vector $g = (-g_b, g_y)$, as shown in its primal formulation ([Zanella et al., 2015b, model \(7\), p.523](#)). However, the multiplier formulation of the directional distance BoD model ([Zanella et al., 2015b, model \(8\), p.523](#)) is preferred as it provides for the inclusion of weight restrictions in the municipal service level assessment and it has to be solved for each j_0 municipality under analysis as follows:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{s.t.} \quad & \sum_{r=1}^s g_y u_{rj_0} + \sum_{k=1}^l g_b p_{kj_0} = 1 \\ & - \sum_{r=1}^s y_{rj} u_{rj_0} + \sum_{k=1}^l b_{kj} p_{kj_0} + v_{j_0} \geq 0 \quad \text{for } j = 1, \dots, j_0, \dots, n \\ & u_{rj_0} \geq 0 \quad \text{for } r = 1, \dots, s \\ & p_{kj_0} \geq 0 \quad \text{for } k = 1, \dots, l \\ & v_{j_0} \in \mathbb{R} \end{aligned} \quad (2)$$

where β_{j_0} denotes the optimal value for the evaluated municipality j_0 ; y_{rj_0} and b_{kj_0} respectively refer to the observed r desirable and k undesirable indicator of the evaluated municipality j_0 ; u_{rj_0} and p_{kj_0} respectively represent the most favourable BoD-weights for the r desirable and k undesirable indicator for the evaluated municipality j_0 ; y_{rj} and b_{kj} respectively refer to the r desirable and k undesirable indicator of every municipality j in the dataset; n is the number of municipalities under analysis ($n=307$); s and l respectively signify the number of municipal functions linked to desirable and undesirable indicators considered in this application ($s=5$ and $l=3$); v_{j_0} comes from the equality constraint in the primal formulation and should not be associated with a variable returns to scale model, but rather to the presence of performance indicators expressed as ratios ([Zanella et al., 2015b](#)).

The direction vector choice is important as it might impact the results. Several solutions have been proposed in the literature depending on the objectives pursued (see for example [Rogge et al., 2017](#), for a discussion on different direction values and formats). For the proposed municipal service provision composite indicator we choose $g = (-b_{kj_0}, y_{rj_0})$. In other words, we deploy the municipal service indicators of the evaluated municipality as the direction vector. By specifying this direction, each municipality follows its own specific path for improvements. This ensures a high level of flexibility and a proportional interpretation of the improvements, in addition to preserving directional distance model units invariance ([Rogge et al., 2017](#); [Zanella, Camanho, and Dias, 2015a](#)). The composite indicator for the municipal service provision is obtained as

$$Cl_{j_0} = 1 / (1 + \beta_{j_0})$$

and it ranges between zero and one, where one denotes the greatest level of service provision in line with the basic BoD model.⁵

3.3. The directional distance BoD model including weight restrictions

In the local service provision assessment, there is another aspect that cannot be ignored, i.e. the political preferences over the different municipal intervention areas. There are two interconnected explanations for this kind of heterogeneity among the municipalities. First, certain municipal functions require higher priorities than others. This phenomenon is not only quite evident looking at the average expenditure composition across the municipalities, but it is also clearly stated in certain national legislative systems (for example in Italy there is the distinction between “fundamental” and other functions). Second, every municipality has its own peculiar vocation which means that, for instance, a municipality might be more aligned towards the tourism sector, another one on cultural activities, or on some other economic specialization. In this case, the budget allocation reflects this variety across the municipalities under evaluation.

By including weight restrictions in our model formulation, apart from the inclusion of these value judgments, we can also address

⁵ Unlike model (1), the optimal value of model (2) does not range between 0 and 1.

$$\beta_{j_0} = \min - \sum_{r=1}^s y_{rj_0} u_{rj_0} + \sum_{k=1}^l b_{kj_0} p_{kj_0} + v_{j_0}$$

one common concern related to greater flexibility in the weighting system associated to the BoD approach. In the DEA/BoD literature several types of weight restrictions have been considered (for a review, see for all Cherchye et al., 2007; Sarrico & Dyson, 2004; Zanella et al., 2015b, & references therein). In this context, we suggest the assurance region type I (ARI) weight restrictions as suggested by Zanella et al. (2015b) and advocated by Calabria, Camanho, and Zanella (2018).⁶ By adding this kind of restrictions to the model specification, we can constrain the relative importance of each municipal function indicator within a certain range and express it in percentage terms, as follows:

$$\begin{cases} \phi_r \leq \frac{u_{rj_0} \bar{y}_r}{\sum_{r=1}^s u_{rj_0} \bar{y}_r + \sum_{k=1}^l p_{kj_0} \bar{b}_k} \leq \psi_r & \text{for } r = 1, \dots, s \\ \phi_k \leq \frac{p_{kj_0} \bar{b}_k}{\sum_{r=1}^s u_{rj_0} \bar{y}_r + \sum_{k=1}^l p_{kj_0} \bar{b}_k} \leq \psi_k & \text{for } k = 1, \dots, l \end{cases} \quad (3)$$

where s and l constraints are used respectively for each observed r desirable and k undesirable municipal indicator.

The question remains on how to specify the importance of each municipal indicator and accordingly the bounds ϕ and ψ . The innovative way we propose in this paper is to get this kind of information directly from the municipal expenditure allocation across the different services. To the best of our knowledge, in municipal performance assessment the expenditure composition has been included directly in the aggregation process, but not in the weight restrictions (see for example Bosch et al., 2012; D'Inverno et al., 2018; Helland & Sørensen, 2015). In this regard, the expenditure composition of each municipality resembles to a certain extent the rationale of the “budget allocation” approach, as described by Cherchye et al. (2007). In Cherchye et al. (2007) the budget allocation procedure directly asks stakeholders/experts/policy makers to indicate their viewpoint on the task/dimension importance by distributing 100 points and reflects therefore their preferences. In this sense, this is similar to our approach, as the budget constraints provide an indication of the political and local preferences while accounting for some path dependencies.

The proposed method has the advantage to reflect the heterogeneity across municipalities, granting some leeway but, at the same time, leaving an objective order of importance among the municipal services without imposing any kind of external judgement. Specifically, we propose three sets of restrictions, which vary according to the different specified bounds.

The first one considers the minimum and the maximum share of expenditure in each municipal area across all the municipalities (“MinMax restrictions”). In this way, the municipality under evaluation cannot assign lower or greater importance to each municipal indicator than the one recognized among all the municipalities.

In a second way of specifying the restrictions, for each municipal indicator, the average spending share is considered, identifying a lower and an upper bound value equal to its $\pm 50\%$ (“Average restrictions”). This kind of restrictions circumscribes the average importance of each municipal area according to the priorities acknowledged among all the municipalities: local governments are given some leeway in deciding their own weights, but at the same time a certain order of importance among the functions is respected.

Finally, rather than confining a municipality within the overall average choice, the third specification of restrictions allows each municipality to set its own weight based on its current spend-

ing allocation (“Municipal-specific restrictions”). In other words, the lower and the upper bound value of the constraints associated to each municipal indicator is equal to $\pm 50\%$ of each municipal-specific expenditure share. In this third scenario, given the municipal-specific lower and upper bound, each unit is evaluated against a DMU-specific frontier, as it occurs in the virtual weight restrictions case. Specifically, in the virtual weight restrictions the DMU-specific feature enters because of the unit-specific observations, while in the weight restrictions we proposed in the bounds. Even if this system prevents the units to be evaluated against a unique frontier, it is still informative to give the municipalities some more leeway in deciding their own weights while assessing the extent of their possible performance improvement, keeping though as an ultimate reference the two scenarios with the ARI restrictions. Furthermore, as pointed out in Oliveira, Zanella, and Camanho (2019), as long as the weights are DMU-specific, the DMUs are ultimately not evaluated on a common ground to rank all the units from a global perspective, even if this still allows a distinction between the best-performing units from the ones that are not. For this reason they propose a goal-programming model to identify a common set of weights that can be used to rank the units (the firms) at a more aggregated level (the industry). Following these lines, we suggest as scope for further extension the identification of a common set of weights to properly allow a ranking of the municipalities at a higher government level (e.g. regional or national level).

By construction, the three sets exhibit increasingly binding restrictions. Table 3 presents summary information about the weights for each municipal area.

Interestingly, the optimally chosen weights not only reflect the importance that each municipal indicator has in the overall assessment of service level provision, but they can also be interpreted as normalized shadow prices (Coelli, Rao, O'Donnell, and Battese, 2005). In our application, a shadow price can present the way a municipal indicator is affected whenever another indicator varies, or alternatively, the impact of different political choices on the composition of overall service provision (for more technical details, see Fusco, 2015; Grupp & Schubert, 2010). The shadow prices are useful to determine the “budget shares” (Van Puyenbroeck and Rogge, 2017).

3.4. The robust and conditional directional distance BoD model

All the steps discussed so far are imperative for ensuring an increasing level of fairness in the local service provision assessment. However, there is a last aspect that should not be overlooked, namely, the role of the operating context under which the municipalities are required to function. First of all, the background conditions can affect both the supply and the demand side of the service provision level. For example, concerning the supply aspect, a wealthier municipality with a higher level of local revenues should be endowed with more resources to spend. On the other hand, considering the demand side, a municipality experiencing a higher level of unemployment might be required to provide a substantial number of subsidies which would lead to a diversion of resources from the provision of additional services. Moreover, background conditions can also have a significant impact on the political preferences over the municipal functions, influencing the components of the composite indicator to different extents and the way they enter in the synthetic index. Consequently, the composite indicator CI_{j_0} outlined so far has to be adjusted in a manner that it accounts for the differences in the municipal environmental variables. These can be grouped into three categories with respect to the differences in variables, namely, economic-financial characteristics, socio-demographic structure and political dimension.

⁶ As suggested by Sarrico and Dyson (2004), this kind of choice might penalize the units with small or large values. However, as emphasized by Zanella et al. (2015b, p. 526), among other weight restriction alternatives the ARI type is “the best option to construct composite indicators and ranks”, so to ensure a fair comparison among the units under evaluation.

Table 3

Summary of the weights obtained from the municipal expenditure composition.

	Administration	Culture	Care services	Education	Housing	Local mobility	Security	Environment
MIN	0.08	0.02	0.01	0	0.01	0.03	0.04	0.03
LOWER BOUND	0.09	0.07	0.06	0.05	0.03	0.07	0.05	0.05
AVERAGE	0.18	0.14	0.12	0.10	0.05	0.15	0.11	0.10
UPPER BOUND	0.27	0.21	0.17	0.14	0.08	0.22	0.16	0.15
MAX	0.49	0.31	0.23	0.39	0.16	0.33	0.23	0.22

Despite the fact that the operating factors are exogenous with respect to the service provision level and they are not under the control of local policy-makers, they do not merely affect the distribution of the composite indicator scores but also their attainable set. For these reasons, the “separability condition” cannot be assumed and one-stage procedure is needed to compute the municipal service provision composite indicator taking environmental factors into consideration simultaneously. In the literature, this approach is referred to as the “conditional” measurement procedure. Moreover, the conditional analysis is performed in adjunction with its robust version to mitigate the influence of outlying observations, arising from, e.g., measurement errors and atypical observations, using the insights from the “order- m ” approach. For the sake of brevity, we refer for a more formal and extensive explanation of the procedures to [Cazals, Florens, and Simar \(2002\)](#); [Cordero, Salinas-Jiménez, and Salinas-Jiménez \(2017b\)](#); [Daraio and Simar \(2005, 2007\)](#); [De Witte and Kortelainen \(2013\)](#), among others.

For the computation of the robust municipal service composite indicator, we execute a Monte-Carlo algorithm performing B computation rounds (where B is large) to lessen the impact of the outlying observations. In each b round ($b = 1, \dots, B$), first m municipalities are drawn with replacement from the original sample of n units and then the m -sample ‘directional distance BoD with ARI restrictions’ composite indicator $CI_{j_0}^{b,m}$ is computed. Finally, the robust composite indicator $CI_{j_0}^m$ is obtained as the arithmetic average of the B $CI_{j_0}^{b,m}$, as follows:

$$CI_{j_0}^m = \frac{1}{B} \sum_{b=1}^B CI_{j_0}^{b,m}$$

Due to the subsampling, the municipality under evaluation might not be included in its own reference set and be accounted as super-performing unit ([De Witte and Schiltz, 2018](#)). Accordingly, $CI_{j_0}^{m,b}$ and possibly $CI_{j_0}^m$ might be larger than one. This can be construed as the municipality j_0 under evaluation is providing a higher service level than the average m municipalities it has been compared with as its reference sample.

Also, to consider the heterogeneity among the municipalities captured by the z background variables, the Monte-Carlo simulation procedure is the same with certain changes with respect to the drawing process. The m municipalities are drawn with replacement and with a particular probability based on an estimated kernel density function. The idea is to draw m municipalities with a higher probability of being similar to the municipality j_0 under evaluation (and lower probability of being dissimilar): in this way, the municipal service provision level composite indicator

$$CI_{j_0}^{m,z} = \frac{1}{B} \sum_{b=1}^B CI_{j_0}^{b,m,z}$$

is assessed considering similar background conditions and ensuring a greater level of fairness while comparing different municipalities under analysis. In this case, a $CI_{j_0}^{m,z}$ score larger than one

signifies that the municipality j_0 under evaluation is providing a higher service level than the average m municipalities with similar background characteristics, while $CI_{j_0}^{m,z} = 1$ denotes a similar service provision level.

Finally, as we intend to extend the model to a dynamic framework to exploit intertemporal variations in municipal service provision ([Cordero et al., 2017a](#)), we further adjust the robust conditional composite indicator $CI_{j_0}^{m,z}$ by including the time dimension, according to the insights of the approach proposed by [Mastromarco and Simar \(2015\)](#). Accordingly, the composite indicator $CI_j^{m,z,t}$ is computed over all the combinations of municipality $j = 1, \dots, j_0, \dots, n$ and time period $t = 1, \dots, T$ (where $T = 6$ in our application) and time is also included as an additional conditioning variable together with z .

Furthermore, the computation of the robust unconditional and conditional composite indicators provides two more additional useful insights. Through a non-parametric statistical inference, we can detect whether the environmental variables are on average statistically significant with respect to the composite indicator scores and the direction of the influence of the environmental variables on the service provision level assessment can be determined. More specifically, the ratio of the unconditional CI_j^m and conditional $CI_j^{m,z,t}$ composite indicator scores can be non-parametrically regressed on the external variables ([Rogge et al., 2017](#)). By construction, the unconditional CI score is at most (less than or equal to) the conditional CI score. Accordingly, a positive coefficient denotes a favourable influence of a contextual variable on the service provision level score: when the variable increases, the conditional CI score gets closer to the unconditional one. For a negative coefficient, the opposite holds: the contextual variable has an unfavourable influence on the service provision level assessment, as the conditional CI score increases when the variable increases. In other words, the background condition acts as an unfavourable context if, as the variable increases, its CI score increases only because evaluated among similar municipalities and the service provision level it can afford is lower compared with the one of municipalities facing different background conditions. For the sake of brevity, we omit further technical and theoretical details: we refer the interested reader to [Bădin, Daraio, and Simar \(2012\)](#); [Daraio and Simar \(2007\)](#).

3.5. Alternative model specifications to handle undesirable features

Before moving on to the results, we conclude this methodological section by outlining alternative model specifications to the directional distance BoD model introduced in [Section 3.2](#) as recently suggested by other scholars, to deal with the presence of undesirable features in the construction of a composite indicator.

First, we depart from the directional distance formulation and we move along the lines traced by [Färe et al. \(2019\)](#). Specifically, we consider their model (3) p. 396, so that we can account for the municipal expenditure composition by adding the weight restrictions. We adapt the notation to facilitate the comparison of the

models.

$$\begin{aligned}
 CI_{j_0} &= \max \sum_{r=1}^s y_{rj_0} u_{rj_0} - \sum_{k=1}^l b_{kj_0} p_{kj_0} \\
 \text{s.t. } &\sum_{r=1}^s y_{rj} u_{rj_0} - \sum_{k=1}^l b_{kj} p_{kj_0} \leq 1 \\
 &\text{for } j = 1, \dots, j_0, \dots, n \\
 &u_{rj_0} \geq 0 \quad \text{for } r = 1, \dots, s \\
 &p_{kj_0} \geq 0 \quad \text{for } k = 1, \dots, l
 \end{aligned}$$

where y_{rj_0} and b_{kj_0} , respectively, refer to the observed r forward (desirable) and k reverse (undesirable) indicator of the evaluated municipality j_0 ; u_{rj_0} and p_{kj_0} , respectively, represent the most favourable BoD-weights for the r forward and k reverse indicator for the evaluated municipality j_0 ; y_{rj} and b_{kj} respectively refer to the r forward and k reverse indicator of every municipality j in the dataset; n is the number of municipalities under analysis ($n=307$); s and l respectively signify the number of municipal functions linked to forward and reverse indicators considered in this application ($s=5$ and $l=3$).

Second, we consider a variant of the directional distance formulation. Specifically, we replace the equality constraint $\sum_{j=1}^n \lambda_j = 1$ in the CI model (7, p.523) with an inequality constraint $\sum_{j=1}^n \lambda_j \leq 1$. As a result, v_{j_0} is not free anymore and the multiplier formulation trivially follows. We refer to Appendix E.1 for a more extensive discussion of these two models and the comparison with the directional distance formulation.

4. Results

In this section, we present the results of the estimated robust conditional municipal service composite indicator, for different weight restriction specifications (*MinMax*, *Average* and *Municipal-specific*) as presented in Section 3.3, on a sample of 307 Flemish municipalities over the years 2006–2011. We estimate different conditional models, depending on the group of background variables as introduced in section 2. Model 1 consists of the economic and financial characteristics that might affect the delivery of municipal services, namely the level of fiscal income, the level of financial debt and the unemployment rate. In Model 2, the socio-demographic structure is also added, by the inclusion of the share of elderly people, the share of foreigners and the municipal population growth. The political component is considered in adjunction with the economic and socio-demographic characteristics in Model 3, by using the Ideological Complexion of the local Government (ICG). Moreover, in every model specification, a year dummy is also included to run the analysis in a dynamic framework. For the sake of comparison, the unrestricted unconditional, the unconditional and the robust unconditional models are also estimated.⁷ Table 4 presents the descriptive statistics of the estimated composite indicator results.⁸

The results can be explored along two complementary dimensions. The first one is related to the use of the weight restrictions. It is not surprising that the inclusion of the weight restrictions lowers the values of the composite indicators with respect to

the unrestricted model: every municipality under analysis is forced to choose its own optimal system of weights only within a certain range. Moreover, for each model specification the three different sets of weight restrictions lead to a lower average service provision. As pointed in Section 3.3, they are by construction increasingly binding. The inclusion of the information on the expenditure composition has a role to play in the composite indicator estimation through alternative weight specifications. In addition, further information can be retrieved from the shadow prices, as they are useful to determine the “budget shares” (Van Puyenbroeck and Rogge, 2017). In particular, it may be observed that imposing weight restrictions provides shadow prices that are closer to the current composition. We refer to Appendix C for the shadow price and the budget share results.

Next, we gradually change the assumptions in the model. Without loss of generality, we provide critical discussion of the results of the *MinMax* specification in what follows. If we look at the overall picture by considering the *Unconditional* specification, it seems that there is room for municipal service improvement on average of 22% (i.e. 1–0.7832). However, when considering the outliers and/or some atypical observations by means of the *Robust* specification, then this room for improvement shrinks up to 4% (i.e. 1–0.9618), although this average is boosted because of the influence of outlying observations.⁹ This is even stronger if the *Conditional* specifications are considered, where we compare more ‘like with likes’. Accordingly we can see that, when comparing more similar municipalities, there is no major scope of improvement on average: this leads us to the conclusion that each municipality under analysis is almost producing what other similar municipalities are also providing in terms of services. This evidence shows the methodological importance of such an integrated analysis: the atypical observations and the background variables do affect the composite indicator. Specifically, in the present application when considering the operating environment each municipality has to operate in, it is observed that there is no longer much room for improvement left as the mean scores are almost equal to one in the conditional model results. Especially in the Conditional Model 2 and 3, a comparison of the median, 75-percentile and max values might suggest a low discriminatory power of these two model specifications due to the inclusion of several environmental variables whose interaction was meant to be investigated in the statistical inference part. To account for this, a separate model for socio-demographic background and one for the ideological complexion are also reported below in Table 5. By providing estimates for these restricted models, the results are more sensible.

On one hand, the evidence shows that this set of variables explains largely the service level provision in municipalities; on the other hand, the conditional analysis helps in identifying the correlation between some municipal characteristics and the service provision level.

The influence of the contextual variables on the municipal service provision level can be detected by looking at the robust unconditional and conditional estimates together, as explained in Section 3.4. Table 6 presents the results of the statistical inference. For the sake of brevity, only the results for the *MinMax* restrictions are presented along the paper: the results are robust across the three weight restriction specifications and we refer to

⁷ After a sensitivity analysis for the choice of m ($m=10, 20, \dots, 100$), we choose $m=40$ for which there is a remarkable decrease of the super-performing municipalities. As for the bootstrap replications, we consider $B=2000$. For the municipal sub-indicators as introduced in Section 2, the robust BoD composite indicator has been computed for every year separately.

⁸ In Appendix B the Spearman's rank correlation coefficients across the different weight restriction specifications and model distributions are reported to further investigate the impact on the ranking and on the best practices among the municipalities under evaluation.

⁹ Although the results point at the importance of using a robust approach and the impact of the robustification, we decided not to remove any ‘outlying observation’. First, there is no broadly accepted strategy to remove particular outliers (see De Witte and Marques (2010) for an extensive discussion). So, any applied approach would potentially result in some (grounded) critique. Second, removing particular observations might have strong impact on the results. It is unclear whether the new results are more reliable than the robust approach where we mitigate the impact of the outliers. Third, the outlying observations might also be the most interesting observations as they succeed in delivering a high service level.

Table 4

Descriptive statistics of the service provision composite indicator scores estimated for 307 municipalities over 2006–2011.

	Mean	St. dev.	Min	Q1	Median	Q3	Max
Unrestricted Unconditional	0.8388	0.0643	0.6357	0.7945	0.8293	0.8751	1.0000
MinMax restrictions	0.7832	0.0670	0.6302	0.7387	0.7719	0.8196	1.0000
Average restrictions	0.7178	0.0649	0.5883	0.6758	0.7031	0.7427	1.0000
Municipal-specific restrictions	0.7067	0.0723	0.5121	0.6607	0.6996	0.7437	1.0000
Robust Unconditional							
MinMax restrictions	0.9618	0.1098	0.8008	0.8985	0.9336	0.9919	2.0990
Average restrictions	0.8752	0.0936	0.7002	0.8163	0.8536	0.9051	1.5770
Municipal-specific restrictions	0.8662	0.1041	0.6652	0.8045	0.8470	0.9030	1.8767
Robust Conditional Model 1							
MinMax restrictions	0.9753	0.0315	0.8007	0.9608	0.9895	0.9992	1.0013
Average restrictions	0.9215	0.0611	0.7034	0.8788	0.9263	0.9776	1.0004
Municipal-specific restrictions	0.9158	0.0672	0.6571	0.8737	0.9230	0.9756	1.0003
Robust Conditional Model 2							
MinMax restrictions	0.9969	0.0093	0.8886	0.9985	1.0000	1.0000	1.0000
Average restrictions	0.9846	0.0275	0.7769	0.9817	0.9967	0.9999	1.0000
Municipal-specific restrictions	0.9831	0.0312	0.7132	0.9815	0.9965	0.9999	1.0000
Robust Conditional Model 3							
MinMax restrictions	0.9985	0.0069	0.9072	1.0000	1.0000	1.0000	1.0000
Average restrictions	0.9905	0.0248	0.7729	0.9973	1.0000	1.0000	1.0000
Municipal-specific restrictions	0.9892	0.0298	0.6848	0.9966	1.0000	1.0000	1.0000

Note: *Unrestricted* indicates the absence of weight restrictions. *MinMax* restrictions refer to the minimum and maximum share of expenditure in each municipal area across all the municipalities. *Average* restrictions consider the average spending share (lower and upper bound equal to its $\pm 50\%$). *Municipal-specific* restrictions are based on the municipal-specific current spending allocation (lower and upper bound equal to the $\pm 50\%$ of each municipal spending share).

Model 1 includes the economic and financial characteristics (Fiscal income, Financial debt and Unemployment). *Model 2* adds to the economic and financial characteristics the socio-demographic structure (Share of elderly people, Share of foreigners and Population growth). *Model 3* adds to the economic-financial and socio-demographic variables the political component (Ideological Complexion of the local Government). In every conditional model specification a year dummy is also included.

Table 5

Descriptive statistics of the service provision composite indicator scores estimated for 307 municipalities over 2006–2011.

	Mean	St. Dev.	Min	Q1	Median	Q3	Max
Robust Conditional Model 2 bis							
MinMax restrictions	0.9737	0.0348	0.7290	0.9548	0.9862	0.9999	1.0651
Average restrictions	0.9196	0.0645	0.6701	0.8716	0.9192	0.9845	1.0345
Municipal-specific restrictions	0.9120	0.0708	0.5827	0.8627	0.9140	0.9785	1.0443
Robust Conditional Model 3 bis							
MinMax restrictions	0.9626	0.0930	0.7796	0.9073	0.9438	0.9941	1.8311
Average restrictions	0.8831	0.0882	0.6964	0.8241	0.8680	0.9213	1.4758
Municipal-specific restrictions	0.8729	0.0972	0.6599	0.8115	0.8578	0.9168	1.7012

Note: *Unrestricted* indicates the absence of weight restrictions. *MinMax* restrictions refer to the minimum and maximum share of expenditure in each municipal area across all the municipalities. *Average* restrictions consider the average spending share (lower and upper bound equal to its $\pm 50\%$). *Municipal-specific* restrictions are based on the municipal-specific current spending allocation (lower and upper bound equal to the $\pm 50\%$ of each municipal spending share).

Model 2 bis includes the socio-demographic structure (Share of elderly people, Share of foreigners and Population growth). *Model 3 bis* considers the political component (Ideological Complexion of the local Government). In every conditional model specification a year dummy is also included.

Appendix D for the complete list of results. The direction of the influence of the environmental variables is in line with the main evidence described in the literature on local government's efficiency (see for all [Narbón-Perpiñá & De Witte, 2018b](#)).

Concerning the economic and financial characteristics, the level of fiscal income is observed to play an unfavourable role in the municipal service provision assessment. When local governments have a greater amount of financial resources, the politicians tend to spend in a less prudent way and the citizens are likely to be less motivated to monitor the expenditures. As a result, the overall level of delivered services seems to reduce ([Ashworth, Geys, Heyndels, and Wille, 2014](#); [D'Inverno et al., 2018](#)). The financial debt shows an unfavourable correlation as well. When the level of local government debt is higher, more resources will be spent on debt interests and amortization payments: therefore less resources will

be available and this will bring to an overall lower level of service provision ([Cordero et al., 2017a](#); [Da Cruz and Marques, 2014](#)). Also, when there is a higher level of unemployment, a lesser amount of resources is available to provide municipal services as higher spending is devoted to social and housing benefits. Hence, in the overall service provision assessment this variable also plays an unfavourable role ([Pérez-López, Prior, and Zafra-Gómez, 2015](#)).

The dataset covers the 2006–2011 period, which by and large coincides with the term of local authorities elected in 2006. As in ([Cordero et al., 2017a](#)), we adopt a dynamic approach to exploit intertemporal variations in public service provision and to observe whether municipalities made some changes during the term in which they were elected. Interestingly, if we consider the time trend looking at the partial plot for the year variable (see [Fig. 2](#)) combined with the economic characteristics, it may be observed

Table 6

Influence of background conditions on municipal service composite indicator.

MinMax weight restrictions											
	Model 1				Model 2				Model 3		
	Influence	p-value			Influence	p-value			Influence	p-value	
<i>Economic-financial</i>											
Fiscal income	Unfavourable	0.000	***		Unfavourable	0.000	***		Unfavourable	0.000	***
Financial debt	Unfavourable	0.000	***		Favourable	0.000	***		Favourable	0.000	***
Unemployment	Unfavourable	0.000	***		Unfavourable	0.170			Unfavourable	0.085	*
<i>Socio-demographic</i>											
Residents over 65					Favourable	0.075	*		Favourable	0.000	***
Foreigners					Favourable	0.045	**		Favourable	0.080	*
Population growth					Unfavourable	0.000	***		Unfavourable	0.000	***
<i>Political</i>											
ICG									Unfavourable	0.000	***

Note: The background variable has an *unfavourable influence* on the service provision assessment when the municipal composite indicator score increases only because the municipality under assessment is evaluated among similar municipalities: the service provision it can afford is lower compared with the one of municipalities facing a different context. The opposite holds when a background variable is found to have a *favourable influence*. * $p < 0.10$, ** $p < 0.05$, *** $p < 0.01$.

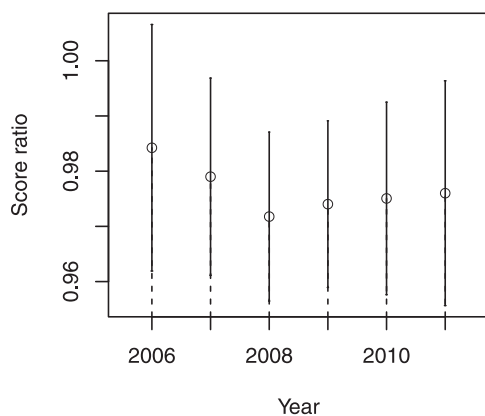


Fig. 2. Intertemporal variation of the service provision when considering economic variables. The plot includes bias-corrected bootstrapped nonparametric confidence intervals..

that 2008, the year of the economic crisis, had been the most unfavourable concerning the municipal service provision (the same was observed in each weight restriction specification). However, from 2009 increases in public service provision have been recorded over time. This phenomenon might be linked to the fact that in 2009 a new legislative era began at national level. During this time, one of the main priorities of the government had been to stimulate public service provision at local level in line with the subsidiarity principle (Sadioglu, 2016). Therefore, the negative influence of the crisis might have been balanced by the renewed attention on local service provision.

When including also the socio-demographic characteristics, the interactions among the variables lead to contradicting evidence related to the direction of the influence of the level of fiscal income and financial debt, playing as counteracting factors. This could be due to the fact that municipalities are more concerned with the management of public resources when they have a higher level of accountability or when they pay more attention on cost saving due to their financial problems. In addition, the results of Model 2 on the socio-demographic structure show that the share of elderly people and of foreigners has a favourable influence on the municipal service provision assessment, whenever it is statistically significant. These population groups are the recipients of several municipal services provided with the aim of satisfying their needs: the higher the number of people in these categories, the greater the level of scale economies exploitation. Vice versa, when the level of population growth is too high, the municipalities might not be able to completely satisfy overall citizens' demand and therefore, keep-

ing other things constant, it will lead to a lower level of provided services.

Finally, Model 3 also includes the information on the political component, namely the Ideological Complexion of the local Government (ICG), that captures the ideological stance of the municipality on a Left-Right scale. We observe that a low level of municipal service provision is associated with a more right-wing government. In fact, as a common hypothesis a more left-wing coalition is more prone to have a larger public sector.

For completeness, we report also the results of the statistical inference for the Conditional Model 2 and 3 (MinMax restrictions) run including respectively only the socio-demographic background and the Ideological Complexion in Table 7. The results are robust, except for 'Foreign', which turns out to be insignificant, suggesting that ignoring the economic and financial conditions of municipalities results in unobserved heterogeneity, and consequent endogeneity issues.

4.1. Robustness tests

To conclude this section, it is worth pointing out that further analysis has been performed to check the robustness of the proposed tool and its empirical application in a twofold manner.

Comparative performance of alternative model formulations

First, we consider alternative state-of-the-art model specifications proposed in the literature to handle undesirable features in composite indicators (CIs) and we provide insights about their comparative performance. Specifically, we consider the CI model formulation proposed by Färe et al. (2019) and a variant of the Zanella et al. (2015b) model specification, both outlined in section 3.5. We replicate the empirical analysis and we compare them with the directional distance formulation advocated in this paper (hereafter referred to as the Zanella et al., 2015b model). To keep the discussion concise, in the following we comment the main findings and we refer to Appendix E.1 for more detailed results, along with the main tables and plots.

The CI scores obtained estimating the Zanella et al. (2015b) model are on average greater than the ones obtained in the Färe et al. (2019) model. If we compare these two model findings by scatter plot of ranks, we get a similar ranking when using the weight restrictions and especially in the average restriction case. We consider also the expenditure budget shares obtained from the shadow prices in both model specifications. Similarly to the scatter plot findings, we observe that even using a different model formulation to deal with undesirable indicators,

Table 7
Influence of background conditions on municipal service composite indicator.

MinMax weight restrictions				
	Model 2 bis		Model 3 bis	
	Influence	p-value	Influence	p-value
<i>Economic-financial</i>				
Fiscal income				
Financial debt				
Unemployment				
<i>Socio-demographic</i>				
Residents over 65	Favourable	0.000	***	
Foreigners	Unfavourable	0.570		
Population growth	Unfavourable	0.000	***	
<i>Political</i>				
ICG			Unfavourable	0.000 ***

Note: The background variable has an *unfavourable influence* on the service provision assessment when the municipal composite indicator score increases only because the municipality under assessment is evaluated among similar municipalities: the service provision it can afford is lower compared with the one of municipalities facing a different context. The opposite holds when a background variable is found to have a *favourable influence*. * $p < 0.10$, ** $p < 0.05$, *** $p < 0.01$.

by imposing the weight restrictions we get increasingly similar optimal expenditure shares.

About the comparison between the Zanella et al. (2015b) model and its variant, both the estimated CI scores and the scatter plot of ranks suggest that the equality constraint seems to play a role merely in the unrestricted model. In all other scenarios, the findings are very similar, showing a picture coherent with the one arising from the advocated composite indicator to measure the service level provision in municipalities, that is the flexible directional distance composite indicator with weight restrictions. As for the budget shares, the same reasoning applies straightforwardly.

Alternative sample specification to control for municipal size effect

Second, we address possible criticisms on the municipal size effect, even if the robust analysis should have taken this issue already into account. Accordingly, we perform the analysis excluding from the sample the largest cities (so-called “Centrumsteden”¹⁰). The main findings are confirmed and the results are presented in Appendix E.2.

5. Conclusion

In this paper we propose an innovative way to measure municipal service provision level. To show the usefulness of the proposed approach, we compute the municipal service provision composite indicator for 307 Flemish municipalities over the year 2006–2011.

The model specification advocated in this paper is fully flexible and has the ability to capture the multifaceted aspects involved in local public goods provision evaluation and, in particular, the heterogeneity among the municipalities in their activities is taken into consideration to provide a fair analysis. Accordingly, local political preferences and municipal characteristics are directly embedded in the model. Overall, the approach ensures an objective way to determine the suitability of each municipal area that is taken for the evaluation, while granting the most favourable aggregating scheme for the units under analysis. In the analysis, we include information on the municipal expenditure composition to determine the weight restrictions. The directional distance function formulation assists with the evaluation even along the undesirable features. The robust conditional version of the model controls for outlying observations, the municipal operating context and the

time dimension. The main analysis is robust to different model specifications recently suggested by other scholars to deal with the undesirable features. Specifically, we provide insights about the comparative performance of the advocated flexible directional distance and two other models, that is the model formulation proposed by Färe et al. (2019) and a model variant of the Zanella et al. (2015b) specification.

The proposed composite indicator not only groups together all these components, going a step forward in the existing literature, but it also allows for further investigation. First of all, it can help exploring how municipal characteristics influence overall service provision through statistical inference, detecting whether the background condition inclusion favours the assessment or not. Broadly, the obtained composite indicator can be used to explore the relationship between the provided municipal services and some other relevant issues in municipal management, such as the government size expressed in terms of the tax burden imposed on citizens, who pay the taxes for the local public goods they receive.

In the empirical application, we find an unfavourable influence of the considered economic variables, i.e. level of fiscal income, financial debt and unemployment on the municipal service provision assessment. With respect to the share of elderly people and foreigners, a favourable influence is found, while for the population growth the opposite holds. Finally, a left-wing government favours municipal activities.

Supplementary material

Supplementary material associated with this article can be found, in the online version, at doi:10.1016/j.ejor.2020.04.012.

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¹⁰ The “Centrumsteden” indicates 13 Flemish city centres, with relatively high numbers of inhabitants, that play a central role in the employment, care, education, culture and recreational activities. <https://nl.wikipedia.org/wiki/Centrumstad>.

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