Balkan Countries: Catching Up and their Integration in the European Financial System

Summary: This paper aims to illustrate the impact of financial variables on the process of convergence between selected European Union countries and the Balkan countries. Following a delay in the realization of structural changes resulting from the historical legacy and circumstances in which the transition process took place, Balkan countries began essential reforms in their financial systems at the end of 1990s. This included the adoption of concrete measures directed towards the growth and increase of the financial sector efficiency. Given this we use panel data over the period 1999-2007 for a sample of 21 countries, to test the convergence’s hypothesis by the Bayesian iterative estimation method. Here two financial variables are introduced to control the differences in steady-state. Our empirical results sustain the importance of the domestic credit and the market capitalization in the catching-up process by a significant increase in the speed of convergence.

Key words: Balkan countries, European Union, Financial systems, Convergence, Empirical analysis, Finance-growth model estimations.

JEL: C51, G10, N2, O16, 047, P34.

The aim of this paper is to determine if Balkan countries are in fact converging with the European Union (EU) countries, where according to Evzen Kočenda (2001), a certain degree of convergence in macroeconomic fundamentals has been achieved among advanced Central and Eastern European countries. But contrary to studies which are exclusively focused on the convergence of real measures of economic activity of the transition economies with those of the EU countries (Ikka Korhonen and Jan Fidrmuc 2001), our empirical analysis introduces variables relating to the financial system (the domestic credit provided by banking sector in percentage of GDP and the market capitalization of listed companies in percentage of GDP). This approach works off several prior studies that test convergence of financial variables in the EU or among transition economies (Josef C. Brada and Ali M. Kutan 2001; Brada, Kutan, and Su Zhou 2005; Victor Murinde, Juda Agung, and Andrew W. Mullineux 2004).

In addition, the relationship between financial system and economic growth is subject to academic discussion (Magda Bianco, Andrea Gerali, and Riccardo Massaro 1997; Thorsten Beck, Asli Demirguc-Kunt, Ross Levine, and Vojislav Maksimovic 2001; Paul Wachtel 2001). In some endogeneous models, a positive link exists between financial development and long-run growth rate
(Marco Pagano 1993) so that the financial system would be a growth-factor: “countries with larger banks and more active stock markets grow faster over subsequent decades even after controlling for many other factors underlying economic growth” (Levine 1997). The financial system affects economic growth by reducing some of informational asymmetries (Fabio Schiantarelli 1995), by influencing the capital accumulation of endogenous growth factors (Paul M. Romer 1986; Robert E. Lucas 1988; Sergio Rebelo 1991) and by altering the rate of technological innovation (Romer 1990; Gene M. Grossman and Elhanan Helpman 1991; Philippe Aghion and Peter Howitt 1992).

Many empirical studies support the assumption that the financial system is an important determinant for growth and economic development (Robert G. King and Levine 1993a, 1993b, 1993c; Alexander Galetovic 1994; Raghuram G. Rajan and Luidgi Zingales 1998; Beck, Levine, and Norman Loayza 2000; Nicola Cetorelli and Michele Gambera 2001; Wendy Carlin and Colin Mayer 2003). In addition, the insufficiency of financial development can become a barrier to growth and blocks the economy in a poverty trap (Jean-Claude Berthelemy and Aristonème Varoudakis 1996). Empirical evidence also suggests that the positive relationship between financial development and economic growth is associated with large differences across the structure of financial systems of countries (World Bank 1989; John H. Boyd and Bruce D. Smith 1996). According to Rajan and Zingales (2000, 2001) or Bengt Holmström and Steven N. Kaplan (2001), by improving the allocation of resources, the market-based system is better for economic growth. However, it's difficult to draw conclusions about the dominance of one financial structure over another (Levine 1997), where both stock market liquidity (measured by stock trading relative to GDP and market capitalization) and the level of banking development (measured by bank credits to private firms divided by GDP) influence economic growth (Levine and Sara Zervos 1996, 1998). In the same way, Peter Rousseau and Wachtel (2000) find a positive influence of both stock market activity (per capita value traded) and banking sector development (per capita liquid liabilities [M3]) on growth. Thus, “the debate should not focus on bank-based versus market-based systems because these two components of the financial system enter the growth regression significantly and predict future economic growth” (Levine 1997). In practice, the two types of financial system coexist in the same country (Werner Hölzl 2003) so that the financial systems are a configuration of complementary elements.

This paper is organized as follows. Section 1 describes the financial system of Balkan countries and gives us some ideas about the progress steps of European Union financial market integration. Section 2 introduces the empirical methodology of test of (absolute and conditional) convergence (the Bayesian iterative estimation method) and presents results for a panel of 21 countries over the period 1999-2007. The economies considered are selected European Union and Balkan countries: Austria, Belgium, Bulgaria, Croatia, Denmark, Finland, France, Germany, Greece, Ireland, Italy, Luxembourg, Macedonia, Netherlands, Portugal, Romania, Serbia, Slovenia, Spain, Sweden and United Kingdom.
1. Financial System of Balkan Countries

In spite of the world-wide crisis produced recently, the financial institutions of the South-East of Europe in general hold out. In 2007, the stock exchange places increased by 30% in the area of the Balkan, and continued to rise the first months of 2008. Until now, the banks of the Balkans region were protected from the world-wide crisis as a result of the relative insulation. However, as their activity of credit increases to stimulate the economic growth, the question is asked if they will be able to remain with the variation of the total tendencies?

As described in many research papers in the economic literature (Srdjan Golubović and Natasa Golubović 2005), we could distinguish three main factors which underline the importance of the financial sector reform and its contribution to the macroeconomic stability and growth/catch-up of the transition economies:

- Positive relationship between the growth and the financial sector development measured by its depth and level of financial “intermediation”, showing that while the causality may run in both directions, the presence of a sound and deep financial sector stimulates output growth.
- Preservation and establishment of macroeconomic stability depends on the stability of this sector.
- Growth and efficiency of financial sector “intermediation” is very important for the outcome of other reform measures including growth of private sector, privatization, development etc.

The financial sector in the Balkan countries has significantly improved in recent years, especially from the beginning of 2000 and on. This improvement is largely due to comprehensive reforms by governments and the support of international financial institutions like the IMF, the World Bank, and the EBRD, where much of the turbulence associated with banking crises, hyperinflation, and pyramid savings schemes have eased. Some of the major changes include the modernization of Regulatory frameworks and the strengthening of financial supervision. The share of bad loans has also reduced dramatically. Privatization has helped to reduce state ownership in banking down to less than 20 percent in most countries and has attracted foreign banks into the market. In the majority of Balkan countries, financial-sector restructuring (but also bank privatization) has brought the market share of the EU banks up to 50-80 percent of banking assets.

The Balkan banking environment recorded strong growth throughout 2008, in spite of the financial crisis, which continues to shake Wall Street, the UE and the stock markets of Asia. The rather low level of exposure to the international financial institutions, weak integration at the international markets and the strong capitalization of the international banks operating in the Balkan area are some of the factors presumed to explain its immunity to the current financial disappointments. Nevertheless, the financial experts of Balkans and the large bankers warn against any kindness. They estimate that serious risks still exist, which could inflict serious damage on the financial system.

The area remains moreover heterogeneous from the economic point of view, similar to the terms of European integration. Slovenia joined the UE in 2004, Roma-
nia and Bulgaria in 2007. As for Croatia, it will be undoubtedly the next one to join the club, having started into 2006 the negotiations for its adhesion. Macedonia for its part signed the Agreement of stabilization and association (the first step towards adhesion) in 2001 and obtained the statute of applicant country to the EU in 2005. But, contrary to Croatia, the talks for its adhesion supplements did not start yet. Albania, Serbia, Montenegro and Bosnia-Herzegovina are even less advanced. These States signed only the Agreement of stabilization and association, without to have obtained the statute of applicant country. The reorganization of the financial sector, the banking environment and privatizations have taken giant leaps throughout the Balkan countries over the last years and are nearly complete, but not fully. We find that the privatization of the public credits had a decisive impact on “the improvement of the banking services and the stimulation of competition”.

New legal and institutional, obligatory reforms under the terms of the process of European integration, should also have durable positive effects on the regional economies and the banking structure. As a result the volume of loans grew a record 42% in 2007, pulled by a boom of the national economies, which reached almost 4% of the GDP in 2007. Many economists expect that the growth of the GDP hits 5% in 2009 throughout the South-East Europe region. As a result of the contraction of the credit available on the international markets, the companies of the area turn more and more to the local banks to secure loans. In a number growing of countries of Balkans, the mortgage loans have become one of the most dynamic products in the sector of the detail. The financial institutions have become better able to support the strong growth of the deposits over the last years, as confidence has increased throughout the banking environment. In addition, the completion of the privatization of the banks, various institutional reforms in financial systems and the rise of the levels of incomes have all assisted in raising confidence. Slovenia enjoys the strongest base of saving of all Balkan countries, with approximately 108% of the GDP in 2007. This significant increase followed the inclusion of the country in the euro zone. With increasingly solid confidence in the banking environment of Balkan countries (and their financial system), stimulated by privatizations and the arrival of foreign banks during last years, a continuous increase in the saving expressed as a percentage of the GDP has been confirmed. The opinion of the most of Balkan countries citizens is: “One always thought as the banks of the West were sure and that the banks of the East were risky”, but it is confirmed in their economies that the banks (presented there) portray a very responsible attitude in businesses in this part of the world – region of the Balkan!

2. Test of Convergence: Empirical Data, Methodology and Results

In this article, the data comes from the source “World Development Indicators” (World Bank Group 2007). The variables analyzed by authors are based on the following data:

- GDP per capita, PPP (constant 2005 international $): GDP per capita based on purchasing power parity (PPP). PPP GDP is gross domestic product converted to international dollars using purchasing power parity rates;
- Domestic credit provided by banking sector (% of GDP) includes all credit to various sectors on a gross basis, with the exception of credit to the central government, which is net. The banking sector includes monetary authorities and deposit money banks;
- Market capitalization of listed companies (% of GDP): also known as market value, the market capitalization is the share price times the number of shares outstanding. Listed domestic companies are the domestically incorporated companies listed on the country's stock exchanges at the end of the year.

In our panel, we’ve focused on the period of 1999 through 2007, for 21 countries. Tables and figures use the following abbreviations: Austria (AUT), Belgium (BEL), Bulgaria (BLG), Croatia (HRV), Denmark (DNK), Finland (FIN), France (FRA), Germany (DEU), Greece (GRC), Ireland (IRL), Italy (ITA), Luxembourg (LUX), Macedonia (MKD), Netherlands (NLD), Portugal (PRT), Romania (ROM), Serbia (SRB), Slovenia (SVN), Spain (ESP), Sweden (SWE), United Kingdom (GBR).

2.1. Methodology

The empirical iterative Bayes’ estimators belong to the family of the shrinkage estimators (Anna Tykhonenko 2007). In the framework of the random-coefficients model, a single equation model in its matrix notation for the \( i \)th individual can be written as:

\[
y_i = X_i \gamma_i + u_i \quad \text{with} \quad i = 1, \ldots, N
\]

where \( y_i \) is a vector \((T,1)\), \( X_i \) is a matrix with \((T,k)\) observations and \( \gamma_i \) is a vector of \((k,1)\) parameters.

The model is assumed to be dynamic: \( X_i \) contains lagged values of \( y_i \). If all the parameters are treated as fixed and different for cross-sectional units and time periods, there are \( NTk \) parameters to estimate with only \( NT \) observations. Obviously, we cannot obtain any meaningful estimates of vector \( \gamma_i \). Alternatively, each regression coefficient can be viewed as a random variable with a probability distribution. The random-coefficients specification substantially reduces the number of parameters to be estimated, while still allowing the coefficients to differ from unit to unit and/or from time to time.

In the Bayesian framework, the prior distribution of \( \gamma_i \) is given by: \( \gamma_i \sim N(\mu, \Sigma) \). Since the parameters \( \mu \) (average of \( \gamma_i \)), \( \Sigma \) (variance of \( \gamma_i \) alluded as a measurement of heterogeneity) and \( \sigma_i^2 \) (residual variance) are unknown, we must make some assumptions on the prior specification of these parameters. Then, we can obtain the posterior distribution of \( \gamma_i \). If \( \mu \), \( \Sigma \) and \( \sigma_i^2 \) were known, then the posterior distribution of \( \gamma_i \) will be given by:
\[ \gamma_i^* = \left[ \frac{1}{\sigma_i^*} X_i \right]' \left( X_i + \Sigma^{-1} \right)^{-1} \left[ \frac{1}{\sigma_i^*} X_i \right]' \left( X_i \gamma_i + \Sigma^{-1} \mu^* \right) \]  

(1)

where \( \hat{\gamma}_i \) is the OLS estimator of \( \gamma_i^* \). The posterior distribution means of \( \gamma_i \) and its variance are defined by:

\[ \mu^* = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \gamma_i^* \]  

(2)

\[ V[\gamma_i^*] = \left[ \frac{1}{\sigma_i^*} X_i \right]' \left( X_i + \Sigma^{-1} \right)^{-1} \]  

(3)

But, in general, \( \Sigma \) and \( \sigma_i^2 \) are unknown parameters, so we have to make some prior assumptions about them. Adrian Smith (1973) proposed for \( \Sigma^{-1} \) the conjugate Wishart distribution and independent inverse \( \chi^2 \) distributions for \( \sigma_i^2 \) (Dennis Lindley and Adrian F.M. Smith 1972). The author used the mode of the joint posterior distribution:

\[ \sigma_i^* = \frac{1}{T + \zeta_i + 2} \left[ \zeta_i \lambda_i + (y_i - X_i \hat{\gamma}_i^*)' (y_i - X_i \hat{\gamma}_i^*) \right] \]  

(4)

and \( \Sigma^* = \frac{1}{T - k - 2 + \delta} \left[ R + \sum_{i=1}^{N} (\gamma_i^* - \mu^*) (\gamma_i^* - \mu^*)' \right] \)  

(5)

where \( \zeta_i \), \( \lambda_i \), \( \delta \) and \( R \) are parameters arising in the prior distributions. Smith (1973) proposed to approximate these parameters by using \( \zeta_i = 0 \), \( \delta = 1 \) and \( R \) is a diagonal matrix with small positive entries (for example, equal to 0.001).

The estimators are:

\[ \sigma_i^* = \frac{1}{T + 2} \left[ (y_i - X_i \hat{\gamma}_i^*)' (y_i - X_i \hat{\gamma}_i^*) \right] \]  

(6)

\[ \Sigma^* = \frac{1}{T - k - 1} \left[ R + \sum_{i=1}^{N} (\gamma_i^* - \mu^*) (\gamma_i^* - \mu^*)' \right] \]  

(7)
The equations (6) to (9) have to be estimated by iterative procedure. The initial iteration uses the OLS estimates of $\gamma_i$ to calculate $\mu^*$, $\Sigma^*$ and $\sigma_i^2$. The second iteration is based on the empirical iterative Bayes’ estimator $\gamma_i^*$. The third iteration and the following ones are identical to the second.

The empirical Bayes’ estimator has been proposed by Gangadharrao S. Maddala et al. (1997). The only difference with Smith’s estimator is the computation of the parameters $\sigma_i^2$ and $\Sigma^*$:

$$\sigma_i^{**2}=\frac{1}{T-k}(v_i-X_i\gamma_i^*)' (v_i-X_i\gamma_i^*)$$

$$\Sigma^*=-\frac{1}{N-1}\left[R+\sum_{i=1}^{N}(\gamma_i^*-\mu^*)(\gamma_i^*-\mu^*)'\right]$$

Maddala and Wuyang Hu (1996) have shown, by Monte Carlo study, those iterative processes for estimating $\Sigma^*$ and $\mu^*$ tend to more efficient estimates for dynamic models than the two-step procedures. Cheng C. Hsiao, Hashem M. Pesaran, and Kamil A. Tahmiscioglu (1999) have also confirmed that, in the case of dynamic panel data model with coefficient heterogeneity, the Bayesian approach performs fairly well even if the time dimension is small.

2.2 Absolute Convergence Testing

The test of absolute (unconditional) convergence consists in identifying the correlation between the growth rate ($\log(y_{i,t}/y_{i,t-1})$) and the initial income per capita. Robert J. Barro and Xavier Sala-i-Martin (1995) specified the model of absolute convergence (rewritten in dynamics for panel data):

$$\log(y_{it}/y_{it-1})=a-(1-e^{-\beta})\log(y_{it-1})+\epsilon_{it}$$

with $a$ indicating the constant term, and $-(1-e^{-\beta})$ the slope coefficient. Note that, if $\beta$ is a positive value, the annual growth rate, $\log(y_{i,t}/y_{i,t-1})$, is negatively correlated with $\log(y_{i,t-1})$. In this case, the poor economies tend to grow faster than the rich ones, which implies the absolute convergence.
Table 1. Empirical Iterative Bayes’ Estimators of the Rates of Convergence ($\hat{\beta}_t$).
Hypothesis: Absolute Convergence.

“Beta-shrinkage” country by country:

Number of iterations 8

<table>
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<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Half-life</th>
<th>Beta</th>
<th>StdErrors</th>
<th>T-Stat</th>
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</table>

Source: the authors’ calculations.

Table 1 contains the results of estimates: empirical iterative Bayes’ estimators for rates of convergence and the computed “half-life”, or the number of time periods necessary for the per capita income gap to be halved. The criterion to end the procedure being fixed at 0.005, there are eight iterations. The coefficients are significantly different from zero and have theoretically correct signs (positive for the constant and negative for $\log y_{t-1}$). Note that the less economically advanced countries like Bulgaria, Croatia, Macedonia, Romania and Serbia have higher rates of convergence than the richest countries of the Union. This is in conformity with the theoretical lesson: the rate of convergence decrease with increasing in the per capita income level. According to predictions of the convergence theory, the “half-life” is longer for the countries of the EU’s “core” than for the Balkans countries. Therefore, according to these results, Luxembourg and Finland would need more than 13 years to catch-up to half of the distance, which separates their economies from the path of steady state growth. On the other hand, the “latecomers” of the sample, Bulgaria, Croatia, Macedonia, Romania and Serbia, need about 11 years.
The countries’ distribution according to their rates of convergence (Figure 1) seems to be consistent with the indicators of economic growth performance, where “poor” countries have rates of convergence systematically higher than that of their “rich” neighbors of the sample. However, the dynamic convergence model is limited to only one explanatory variable, log\(y_{it-1}\). The augmenting of the model by the market capitalization and the ratio domestic credit on GDP lets to test the conditional convergence hypothesis.

2.3 Conditional Convergence Testing

Nezrul Islam (1995, 2000) proposes to test the following specification for the model of conditional convergence in panel data:

\[
\log\left(\frac{y_{it}}{y_{it-1}}\right) = a - (1-e^{-\beta})\log(y_{it-1}) + \gamma x_{it-1} + \epsilon_{it}
\]

with \(x_{it-1} = \log(\text{Capitalization}_{it-1}/y_{it-1}) - \log(\text{Credit}_{it-1}/y_{it-1})\)

The specification introduces in the catching-up relation some “control” variables of the process of growth over the considered period (Tykhonenko 2005; Fabienne Bonetto 2007). The model of conditional convergence contains thus three
explanatory variables: initial GDP per capita \( \log(y_{t-1}) \), market capitalization of listed companies (% of GDP) and domestic credit provided by the banking sector (% of GDP). The theoretically expected signs are positive for the market capitalization and the domestic credit. Table 2 contains the empirical iterative Bayes’ estimators of the rates of convergence obtained for 21 countries on the period 1999-2007.

**Table 2.** Empirical Iterative Bayes’ Estimators for the Rates of Convergence \( \hat{\beta} \).

**Hypothesis:** Conditional Convergence

Estimated Model:

\[
\log\left(\frac{y_t}{y_{t-1}}\right) = a_0 - \left(1-e^{-a}\right)\log(y_{t-1}) + \alpha x_{t-1} + \epsilon_t
\]

with \( x_{t-1} = \log\left(\frac{\text{Capitalization}_{t-1}}{Y_{t-1}}\right) + \log\left(\frac{\text{Credit}_{t-1}}{Y_{t-1}}\right) \)

“Beta-shrinkage” country by country:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Half-life</th>
<th>Beta</th>
<th>StdErrors</th>
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</table>

Source: the authors’ calculations.

The column on the left of the table contains the rates of convergence estimated for the model of conditional convergence, whose three explanatory variables are the initial GDP per capita, the market capitalization and the share of domestic credit in the GDP. The sign of this “control” variable is theoretically expected and the estimated parameters are statistically significant. The rates of conditional convergence
estimated over the considered period vary from 13.92% (for Luxembourg) to 16.57% per year (for Macedonia). As for the Balkan’s countries, their rates of conditional convergence are higher on average, which implies a “half-life” of two years only.

The results of conditional convergence model’s estimation are significantly different from the preceding results. Indeed, the augmenting the initial growth model by market capitalization and the share of domestic credit in the relation of conditional convergence lets to obtain higher rates of convergence. From this point of view, our paper is in accordance with the main stream of the endogenous growth modern theory. The rates of conditional convergence for countries like Serbia, Bulgaria and Macedonia begun higher (about 1.6% per year), which implies a “half-life” of 1.9 years only. Figure 2 represents the distribution of the rates of conditional convergence estimated for the finance-growth dynamic model with. The Balkan countries’ distribution in term of convergence dynamics leads us to stress the diversity of the growth trajectories borrowed over the “post-Socialist” period.

Figure 2. Distribution of Convergence Rates for 21 European and Balkan countries over the period 1999-2007. Hypothesis: Conditional Convergence

«Control» variables: \[ x_{t-1} = \log\left( \frac{\text{Capitalization}_{t-1}}{Y_{t-1}} \right) + \log\left( \frac{\text{Credit}_{t-1}}{Y_{t-1}} \right) \]
3. Conclusion

In order to reveal the national specificities of catching-up process within 21 European and Balkan countries, we introduce more heterogeneity into the specification of the equations of absolute and conditional $\beta$-convergence. The Bayesian iterative estimation method lets to calculate the rates of convergence for each country. Thus, contrary to the traditionally accepted idea of a common rate of convergence, considered countries don’t converge at the same rate. The distributions of convergence rates (absolute and conditional) revealed the similarity of growth dynamics for certain EU’s countries and their diversity for the others. Their economies could be classified according to theirs catching-up dynamics. In that regard, Luxembourg, Finland and Ireland are the “leaders” of the sample in terms of income per capita growth. These countries having known an economic "takeoff" in the 80’s years for Luxembourg and more recently for Ireland are distinguished from the other EU’s members by a slower rate of convergence. The relative distribution of the “core” in terms of rate of convergence seems relatively concentrated and proclaims a significant homogeneity.

As for the Balkan countries, their distribution is characterized upon the diversity of the growth trajectories borrowed over the period of economic transition. Our empirical results sustain the importance of the domestic credit and the market capitalization in the catching-up process by a significant increase in the speed of convergence. Slovenia and Croatia are “at the head” of the catching-up process compared to other transition countries. The Eastern Balkan Countries (Romania and Bulgaria) can reduce their “half-life” to two years only. Nonetheless, like Macedonia and Serbia (other Western Balkan Countries), they seem to be “latecomers” are of the sample. The empirical results show that it’s necessary to relativize the idea according to the European construction process, leading to the standardization of the economic development’s trajectories. Our results have potential policy implications since an active credit/market capitalization policy seems to help to increase the speed of real convergence. However, market capitalization that is too intensive may destabilize the Balkan economies. This is one reason why the Balkan Countries would stress financial market volatility implied by the catching up dynamics (especially in the context of financial crisis).
References


