

Dimitrios Tsagdis, Stilianos Alexiadis\*

**EU27 leading regions in labour productivity growth in agriculture, industry, and services: A methodology and a research agenda**

*Address for correspondence:* Dr Dimitrios Tsagdis, University of Hull, Business School, Filey Road, Scarborough, YO11 3AZ, UK; e-mail: [d.tsagdis@hull.ac.uk](mailto:d.tsagdis@hull.ac.uk)

\*Ministry of Rural Development and Foods, Department of Agricultural Policy and Documentation, Room 501, 5 Acharnon Street, 101 76, Athens, Greece; e-mail: [ax5u010@minagric.gr](mailto:ax5u010@minagric.gr). The findings, interpretations and conclusions are those entirely of the authors and do not necessarily represent the official position, policies or views of the Ministry of Rural Development and Foods and/or the Greek Government.

## **Abstract**

Based on the premise that, labour productivity growth is the only way to sustainable wealth creation, a methodology is proposed for identifying leading (/lagging) regions. Leading (/lagging) is operationalised in this context as convergence above (/below) the EU27-average-labour-productivity-growth in agriculture, industry, and services. The methodology unfolds over a sequence of six steps. The first two steps utilise regressions; first to offer a rough indication that leading regions are not to be found outside the EU12, and second to delineate the EU12 regions leading in one or two of the above three sectors. It is to be made explicit that there is no leading region in all three sectors. The third step utilises Venn diagrams to provide an overview of the sectoral-convergence-clubs of the regions. The fourth step transforms the Venn diagram of the leading regions into a geographical depiction, so that during the fifth step spatial econometrics can be used to identify autonomous and spillover-leaders. As a final step some finer filtering takes place, e.g. flagging capital leading regions. The methodology allows the delineation of valuable samples of leading (/lagging) regions for testing hypotheses on the (endogenous) factors of such growth (e.g. technology diffusion, infrastructure, education, economic activity mix, policy); some of which are tested as examples in the paper. Finally, the paper aims to stimulate interest in this research agenda for the further study (e.g. comparative case based on primary data) of such factors in the delineated sample of EU27 leading and lagging regions.

## **I. Introduction**

There is a growing body of empirical studies investigating leading/lagging regions in terms of a number of indicators (e.g. un/employment rates, wages, innovation, productivity, GDP growth, foreign direct investment) in a variety of industries and territories. Such studies, although insightful in their own terms, have not been particularly helpful in delineating a set of common factors underpinning the emergence of leading regions in general and in Europe in particular. Besides such an agenda lying outside the scope of most such studies, their focus on a small set of indicators, industries, regions, years, etc. often results in one region appearing as leading in some set of indicators, sectors, time periods, etc. but as lagging in others (see for example TERLUIN and POST, 2000, p. 12).

This paper aims to rectify the above by developing a methodology and demonstrating its use in the EU27 regions as a proof of concept. Ideally the proposed methodology would utilise total factor productivity growth as the indicator *par excellence* for identifying leading regions. Due to data limitations however, in the proof of concept labour productivity growth is used instead as a proxy. Nonetheless, this still allows most indicators encountered in the aforementioned studies to be construed as testable hypotheses of the factors underpinning the emergence of such leading regions. This is often neglected by other studies whose end point is the identification of leading/lagging regions in a given territory in terms of a set of indicators. Whereas for the purposes of this paper this is only a starting point; i.e. we wish to identify leading regions so that a subsequent series of steps with respective sets of analyses can be performed to identify any common underlying factors.

Moreover, most of the aforementioned studies, regardless of their set of indicators, treat leadership in absolute terms and not as *stochastic convergence*. This is not the case with the proposed methodology; which thus does not merely identify leading/lagging regions but regions that converge above (*leading*), below (*lagging*) as well as towards a territory's average. This allows the drawing of sufficiently differentiated samples so to test some of the aforementioned hypotheses.

Finally, the methodology proposed in this paper does not accept such groups of converging regions at face value, but tries to further distinguish between those whose convergence may be due to spillovers from adjacent regions.

As it may be surmised from the above, the methodology is structured as a series of steps. The first step utilises regressions to delineate regions that converge above, below and towards a territory's average in any sector and/or combination thereof. The second step utilises Venn diagrams to provide an overview of the sectoral overlaps of such convergence clubs. The third step transforms the Venn diagram of the leading regions into a geographical depiction, so that during a fourth step spatial correlations can be used in an attempt to identify spillover-effects among the groups of leading regions and thus spillover vs. autonomous leaders. As a final step some finer filtering can take place, e.g. flagging capital leading regions, or border lagging ones. The proof of concept follows the same sequence of steps utilising a EU27 NUTS2 EUROSTAT data set for the 1995-2005 period.

The presentation of the above in the remainder of the paper is structured in the following manner. The next section provides the theoretical underpinning of the

methodology in the areas of converge and spatial econometrics; whereas the penultimate one presents the empirical findings from its application in the EU27. The paper concludes with respective recommendations and areas for further research.

## **II. The Case for Convergence**

The seeds of the notion can be found in the so called convergence-hypothesis; i.e. that all economies will converge in the long run, traced to classical economists such as Ricardo, Marx, and Malthus.<sup>1</sup> Moreover, several economic historians (e.g. GERSCHENKRON, 1952; GOMULKA, 1971) argued that backward economies tend to grow faster than rich ones, advocating a process of long-run convergence. Contrary to the above, there has been an equally impressive body of literature (e.g. MYRDAL, 1957; KALDOR, 1970) supporting an alternative hypothesis; viz. that divergence occurs, and in particular that rich economies grow at the expense of poor ones, perpetuating a centre-periphery pattern.

This question of convergence or divergence has been one of the most debated topics in economics during the last twenty years (for a review see DE LA FUENTE, 1997; ISLAM 2003). However, the contributions to this debate, much like the phenomena studied, have not followed a uniform path.

The first empirical test of the convergence-hypothesis can be found in BAUMOL (1986), who placed emphasis on the dictum that convergence is identical with a negative relation between initial level and growth rate of per-capita output. A central tenet of Baumol's thesis is that convergence is feasible if 'poor' economies exhibit a tendency to grow faster than 'rich' economies.

A substantial, and continuously growing, empirical literature (e.g. BUTTON and PENTECOST, 1995; NEVEN and GOUYETTE, 1995; FAGERBERG and VERSPAGEN, 1996; SALA-I-MARTIN, 1996) has developed that examined regional convergence during the various EU facets (e.g. EEC, EU12, EU14). These studies assessed convergence mainly in terms of per-capita income, while fewer studies concerned particular sectors (e.g. for manufacturing see PASCUAL and WESTERMANN, 2002; GUGLER and PFAFFERMAYR, 2004). Both kinds of studies however suggested that European regions either diverge or exhibit a slow rate of convergence (less than 2% annually). Several criticisms have been raised against such conclusions, due to their underpinnings in several simplifying assumptions (MCCOMBIE and THIRLWALL, 1994). This has led to the development of a new

concept of convergence, that of *club-convergence*, which acknowledges the possibility of a variety of convergence patterns due to differences in initial conditions. For instance, regions starting from a low position may get locked-in low evolutionary-paths, whereas high evolutionary-paths may be the result of high initial positions. Such possibilities are also suggestive of *cumulative* mechanisms that perpetuate initial differences. The club-convergence notion carries the implication that it is legitimate to assume that convergence across *all* regions is difficult to occur, at least in the short-medium run. It is more reasonable to assume that overall convergence is followed by an initial stage of club-convergence, i.e. a restriction of the property of convergence within a given set of regions. Treating all regions as a single set might mask this process, resulting to misleading conclusions. The important point to grasp, from a policy perspective, is that detecting groups with common convergence trends helps to reflect on existing policies and to shape future courses of action that may be better suited to each group.

Detecting such different groupings has led to a fast growing literature that applies time-series techniques (for an introduction see BERNARD and DURLAUF, 1995). However, most such empirical studies are concerned with national economies (e.g. BEN-DAVID, 1996; OXLEY and GREASLEY, 1999) with fewer focused on regions (e.g. MCGUINNESS and SHEEHAN, 1998; ALEXIADIS and TOMKINS, 2004). Regardless of their varied territorial extensions, their central question remains the same, viz. whether the long-run forecasts of labour productivity for two regions are equal at a fixed time. Although two kinds of tests for time-series convergence can be identified in this literature, viz. the Augmented Dickey-Fuller (ADF) and the one developed by NAHAR and INDER (2002)<sup>2</sup> only the latter is suitable to this study.<sup>3</sup> That is, because it identifies groups that move towards a common level of labour productivity, approximated by the *average* productivity of all economies included in the set. The intuition behind this argument should be relatively easy to discern, viz. convergence occurs when a region's deviation from the average productivity ( $y_i - \bar{y}$ ) approaches zero in the long-run, i.e.  $(y_i - \bar{y})_t \rightarrow 0$ , as  $t \rightarrow \infty$ . Expressing this in terms of a regression equation yields:

$$w_{i,t} = \theta_0 + \theta_1 r + \theta_2 r^2 + \dots + \theta_{k-1} r^{k-1} + \theta_k r^k + u_{i,t} \quad (1)$$

where  $w_{i,t} = (y_i - \bar{y})^2$ ,  $r$  is a time trend, and  $\theta_i$  are parameters. For a given set of regions, equation (1) can be written in a matrix form as follows:

$$\mathbf{W}_{i,t} = \boldsymbol{\theta}_i \mathbf{r} + \mathbf{u} \quad (2)$$

Convergence towards the average is thus signified if  $\boldsymbol{\theta}_i < 0$  while  $\boldsymbol{\theta}_i \geq 0$  indicates deviation from the average. In the latter case two possibilities can be identified: positive deviation (i.e. above the average) and negative deviation (i.e. below the average). Having introduced the type of convergence at stake, in the following section its econometric application is discussed.

### **III. Empirical Application, Analysis, and Discussion**

As introduced in the previous section regional growth may be convergent or divergent, while convergence/divergence may also be an exclusive property of a specific set of regional economies. An assessment is thus made in this section, whether convergence is apparent across the EU27 267 NUTS2 regions<sup>4</sup> or whether it only applies to a select club. The exercise covers the 1995-2005 period, due to the unavailability of data for all EU27 territorial units outside the boundary years.

Although most of the empirical literature in regional convergence<sup>5</sup> is confined to the use of total labour productivity, in this paper convergence is examined for each sector separately, viz. agriculture, industry, and services. The reason for this sectoral delineation of labour productivity is that different growth characteristics are attached to each sector of an economy, which thus affect the developmental trajectory of a region.

Running a regression of equation (2) for each EU27 NUTS2 region and for each of the three sectors produces some interesting patterns. In particular, regions might converge (diverge) towards (above/below) the average labour productivity either in terms of a single sector or in a more than one sectors, e.g. in the case of two sectors exhibiting dual-sector convergence. Therefore, based on the statistical significance of the results<sup>6</sup>, three Venn diagrams are constructed so to capture all patterns of convergence towards, above, and below the average labour productivity of each sector in Figures 1a-c respectively; whereas Table 1 summarises these results.

A number of observations become apparent from the above:

- 1) The EU27 NUTS2 regions follow substantially differentiated convergence patterns and there are a small number of regions (13%) that follows no statistically significant pattern.
- 2) The number of regions converging towards (36%) and above the average (39%) is almost evenly split. Regions converging below the average are a minority (13%). These observations could be interpreted as rather good news as leading regions occupy the lion's share.
- 3) Dual-sector convergence is prominent across the regions converging above (29%) the average. Single-sector convergence is more pronounced in regions converging towards (19%) and below the average (12%) with the largest single-sector for both clubs being agriculture (at 8.6% each). For the dual-sectors leaders the most frequently encountered sectors are industry and services (21%). This could be interpreted as suggesting that this combination constitutes a rather stable regional leadership rule and that regions with other profiles are less likely to be leading; especially as only 4% of the regions with industry-services stable convergence characteristics are not in the leaders' club. The bulk of the subsequent analysis will therefore focus on this industry-services leaders' club.
- 4) It is worthy reporting, finally, that there is no region with similar convergence patterns across all of its three sectors.

The geographical distribution of the leading club of regions is mapped in Figure 2. It is interesting to note that the majority of the regions in this group belong to EU12 countries with fewer regions from EU15 countries and none from the new EU27 member states. In actual fact most regions from the new member states follow unstable convergence patterns or at best converge towards the EU27 average. It could thus be argued, that the notion of stochastic convergence above the average is constrained exclusively within the EU12 context.

In order to further corroborate this argument the empirical analysis is extended by applying equation (2) using data only for the EU12 NUTS2 regions. Given that for the EU12 regions there is a more extensive data set, i.e. covering a longer time-period (1977-2005), thus the application of time-series techniques can be used to provide more robust results. In this case convergence is redefined in terms of the EU12 average and the empirical application reveals a similar geographical pattern, as shown in Figure 3. It is also worthy to highlight here that the vast majority of industry-

services leading regions are located in EU12 central; i.e. in an area that includes regions from Belgium, Luxemburg, and western Germany.

In this context it is reasonable to assume that the regions which follow a similar pattern in their sectoral convergence are located in close proximity. Table 2a details single and dual-sector leading regions located in close proximity.

Table 2a, in conjunction with the previous maps and tables, suggests that there are only few cases (less than 2% of the EU27 regions and about 10% of the leading ones) of neighbouring leading regions across national borders. For example, regions es43 and pt18, located in Spain and Portugal, respectively, follow a pattern of single-sector convergence above the average in agriculture. Austrian region at31 bordering the German region de21, both converge above the average in industry and services. Moreover, two French regions converging above the average in agriculture and industry fr22 and fr21 are bordering with the Belgian regions be34 and be35, which converge above the average in services and industry. This could be interpreted as an indication that a leading performance is concentrated within the borders of national economies, while it could be argued that spillover-effects are weaker across national borders, when compared to regional ones.

In an attempt to provide an approximation of the spillover-effects the annual labour productivity growth rate of a leading region, adjusted by the distance from its surrounding leading regions, is correlated with the level of labour productivity of its surrounding leading regions. The correlations for 72 neighbouring<sup>7</sup>-leading-regions are reported in Tables 3a-c. A positive correlation coefficient can be taken as an indication of spillovers between regions; a condition that characterises 41 of these neighbouring-leading-regions. There are though some 23 neighbouring leading regions in which the correlation coefficient is negative, indicating an absence of spillovers from their neighbouring-leading-regions. If to these 23 autonomous leading regions the 39 isolated ones (that are leading but are not neighbouring with other leading regions, see Table 2b) are added, then it could be argued that the vast majority of leading regions (60%) is not due to spillovers.

An obvious implication of the analysis insofar is that not all European regions are converging towards a common equilibrium and that in addition they are not always doing so on their own right. This suggests multiple equilibria in the labour-productivity-growth-performance of EU27 regions, e.g. different ones for leaders in agriculture, industry, services, their combinations (qua dual leaders), autonomous vs.

spillover leaders, for regions converging towards or below the average and so on. Such an outcome seems to ‘fragment’ the predictions of Endogenous Growth Theory (EGT) and New Economic Geography (NEG) models.<sup>8</sup>

It may thus be instructive to examine how some of the externalities (e.g. technological and spatial) popularised by the above literatures measure up against such findings. To accomplish this, i.e. approximate these externalities, three proxies are chosen: i) patents per-capita, ii) employment in high technology sectors, and iii) population density (inhabitants per square kilometre). The first two proxies are used to reflect technological externalities, while the third one is a standard measure of externalities due to agglomeration effects. These proxies refer to the initial year of the analysis (1995) and are obtained from EUROSTAT.

Focusing such an analysis on the industry-services-leaders club (N=55) and as can be seen from Table 3, in 1995 the technological externalities of most of these regions were above the club’s average.<sup>9</sup> However, this is reversed for population density; i.e. agglomeration externalities. The large numbers of regions at either end suggest that their present leadership positions cannot be accounted for by such characteristics/externalities, or in other words, that it may be still possible for regions lacking in such characteristics to enter leadership convergence paths. It is thus particularly noteworthy that there are twelve (indicated with bold in Table 3) of these 55 regions exhibiting all three characteristics above the average, and five (indicated with bold underline) below the average. Most encouragingly, three of these five regions (viz. itd1, itd2, itf1) are autonomous leaders (indicated in square brackets). Looking at the other end of the spectrum four of the aforementioned twelve regions (viz. ukf1, ukj3, ukj2, ukd3) are autonomous leaders (indicated by square brackets). Suggesting that extensive presence or absence of all three such characteristics does not seem related to autonomous leadership.

Further inspection of these proxies shows that they are all positively correlated (during the 1995-2005 period) with the levels of labour productivity (as listed in Table 4). However, upon closer inspection of Table 4, there appears to be two particular sets of observations worthy of discussion:

- a) according to the EGT/NEG kind of models, one would expect increasingly stronger correlations between the externalities as one ascends labour-productivity-growth paths; i.e. for regions converging below, towards, and above the average. Although the externalities/correlations follow such a

pattern in general, there are some noteworthy exceptions for employment in high technology sectors, and population density (grey shaded cells in Table 4). Both of which follow a different pattern in regions with services, and agriculture-industry sectoral convergence; in addition population density externalities also follow a different pattern in regions with agricultural-sector convergence.

- b) The strongest correlations (i.e. in the vicinity of 0.7 or above, bold-underlined cells in Table 4) are to be found mainly in services and industry (and their combinations) leading regions and especially so for patents per capita where the strongest correlations are only to be found in leading regions.

The above observations are suggestive of some further variation in the patterns of regional labour productivity growth and convergence due to these structural characteristics. Examining this hypothesis more formally, a standard spatial version of the cross-section test for  $\beta$ -convergence is applied. This test is enhanced by introducing as explanatory variable the three aforementioned structural characteristics. Thus, the test takes the following form:

$$g_i = a + b_1 y_{i,0} + b_2 PT_{i,0} + b_3 HT_{i,0} + b_4 PD_{i,0} + (\mathbf{I} - \zeta \mathbf{W})^{-1} u_i \quad (3)$$

where  $PT_{i,0}$  measures the patents per-capita,  $HT_{i,0}$  refers to the employment in high technology sectors,  $PD_{i,0}$  is the population density and  $\mathbf{W}$  is the a spatial matrix with

its elements defined as  $w_{ij} = \frac{1/d_{ij}}{\sum_j 1/d_{ij}}$ , where  $d_{ij}$  denotes the distance between two

regions  $i$  and  $j$ , as measured by the distance between the major urban centres where the majority of economic activities are located. The denominator is the sum of the (inverse) distances from all regions surrounding region  $i$ . Following BARRO and SALA-I-MARTIN (1992) the convergence coefficient  $b$  may be expressed as  $b = -(1 - e^{-\beta T})$  where  $T$  is the number of years included in the period of analysis.

The term for  $\beta = -\frac{\ln(b+1)}{T}$  indicates the speed at which economies approach the steady-state value of output per worker over the given time period, i.e. the average rate of convergence.

Applying equation (3) for all EU27 regions produces the results reported in Table 5. It is important to note that the estimated coefficients of the structural variables, i.e.

$PT_{i,0}$ ,  $HT_{i,0}$  and  $PD_{i,0}$ , are positive. This is an indication that the structural characteristics have positive effects on the labour productivity growth rate of a region regardless of its convergence characteristics (e.g. leaders and laggards alike). Still, the estimated coefficient on  $PT_{i,0}$  is statistically insignificant for the EU27 and the leading regions, despite the fact that the remaining estimations are not. One plausible interpretation, at least according to ALEXIADIS and TSAGDIS (2009), may be that it is the adoption—rather than the intentional creation—of technology that is the key in shaping EU27 regional levels of technology and thus patterns of convergence. The results though suggest that technology creation is significant for regions converging below or towards the EU27 average (at 90% confidence) although its impact is rather negligible (i.e. a 1% increase, inducing a 1% increase in labour productivity levels).

The estimated coefficient of the  $HT_{i,0}$  variable indicates that its effects are pretty strong, but much stronger for the regions converging towards the average were a 1% increase in high technology employment will induce a 4.4% increase in a region's labour productivity growth rate. Finally, Population Density seems to be most important for the industry-services leading regions, since the implied impact is 5.5%, while for all EU27 regions is only 1.3% and far less so for those converging below the average. In the light of the above, it could be argued that patents and employment in high technology sectors are of less importance for the industry-services leading regions, since they are already at their peak and that the only of the three factor that has some impact is agglomeration so as to increase their capabilities.

It could also be argued, that regions converging either below or towards the EU27 average would need to improve the aforementioned characteristics in order to move towards a convergence path above the average.

Finally, the implied rate of convergence for all EU27 regions is about 3% while for the selected leading regions is almost four times high (8.8%). As expected the regions converging towards the average exhibit a smaller rate (2.6%) while, the regions converging below the average an even smaller one (0.7%). This difference in the rates of convergence adds further corroboration to the earlier multiple-equilibria arguments as they indicate that the EU27 regions follow multiple and sufficiently differentiated patterns of convergence.

#### **IV. Conclusions, policy implications, and areas of further research**

In this paper an attempt was made to develop and demonstrate a superior methodology for creating samples of regional groups (based on their convergence characteristics) for testing a range of hypotheses (e.g. spillover, externality, capital-city effects). In that sense the paper fills an important gap as, although an increasing number of empirical studies have paid attention to issues of economic convergence, the empirical assessment of stochastic convergence has not so far received due attention. The methodology should thus prove useful for policy makers and economists alike interested in managing, evaluating, or producing differentiated policies and instruments that are appropriate for regions with different convergence characteristics.

Moreover, its proof of concept application produced several findings that should also prove interesting from a policy perspective.

Firstly, the convergence characteristics of the EU27 regions were identified which should help focus attention to those converging below and towards the average as well as those not following a statistically significant convergence pattern. This should help the overarching EU goals of regional cohesion, development policies, and administrations of respective funds.

Secondly, the paper identified particular sectoral convergence characteristics indicating that there are possibilities for regions with any combination of sectors, even solely based on agriculture, to be leaders in labour productivity growth. This should inform Common Agricultural Policy reforms and other EU, national, etc. sector-specific policies, help in policy learning from the leading to the lagging regions and the diffusion of best practices.

Thirdly, the paper highlighted the lack of cross-national-border spillover effects identifying the importance of another major EU policy area, viz. of cross-border collaboration, for achieving convergence and disseminating best practices in labour productivity improvements.

Fourthly, the analysis investigated three structural characteristics related to labour productivity growth; suggesting that not all are equally relevant to regions belonging in different convergence clubs. This is highly instructive for policy purposes as one-cure-for-all policies are only too often promoted (e.g. attract/create high technology employment); when they may be suboptimal for a particular region. Obviously, more characteristics could be included by introducing more conditional variables in the

model, e.g. sectoral composition/economic activity mix, intra- and inter-regional firm linkages, education/presence of HEIs, the role of clusters and their governance (BORRÁS and TSAGDIS, 2009), the presence/relevance of policy (MCDONALD ET AL, 2007) and so forth.

Thus, the paper offers a complementary set of methodological and policy lessons as well as a number of serious empirical results. However, its main contribution should be seen as opening up a research agenda, developing a language for talking about regional leadership (e.g. dual-sector, autonomous, isolated leaders), and attracting interest for further research in this area; especially collaboration for the development of comparative case studies and the collection of primary data for the study of region-specific mechanisms and in depth hypotheses testing.

## References

- ALEXIADIS, S. and TOMKINS, J. (2004) Convergence-Clubs in the Regions of Greece, *Applied Economics Letters* **11**, 387-391.
- ALEXIADIS, D. and TSAGDIS, D. (2009) Factors affecting the levels of technology in the EU27 regions: A spatial model, *RSA Conference*, 6-8 April, Leuven, Belgium.
- BARRO, R. and SALA-I-MARTIN, X. (1992) Convergence, *Journal of Political Economy* **100**, 223-251.
- BAUMOL, W. (1986) Productivity Growth. Convergence and Welfare: What the Long-Run Data show, *American Economic Review* **76**, 1072-1085.
- BEN-DAVID, D. (1996) Trade and Convergence among Countries, *Journal of International Economics* **40**, 279-298.
- BERGER, S. and DORE, R. (Eds) (1997) *National Diversity and Capitalism*, Ithaca, Cornell University Press.
- BERNARD, A. and DURLAUF, S. (1995) Convergence of International Output, *Journal of Applied Econometrics* **10**, 97-108.
- BORRÁS, S. and TSAGDIS, D. (2008) *Cluster Policies in Europe: Firms, Institutions, and Governance*. Edward Elgar, Cheltenham.
- BOYER R. (1997) The convergence hypothesis revisited: Globalisation but still a century of nations?, in BERGER, S. and DORE, R. (Eds) *National Diversity and Capitalism*, pp. 29-59. Ithaca, Cornell University Press.
- BUTTON, K. and PENTECOST, E. (1995) Testing for Convergence of the EU Regional Economies, *Economic Inquiry* **33**, 664-671.
- DE LA FUENTE, A. (1997) The Empirics of Growth and Convergence: A Selective Review, *Journal of Economic Dynamics and Control* **21**, 23-73.
- FAGERBERG, J. and VERSPAGEN, B. (1996) Heading for Divergence? Regional Growth in Europe Reconsidered, *Journal of Common Market Studies* **34**, 431-447.
- GERSCHENKRON, A. (1962) *Economic Backwardness in Historical Perspective*. Bellknap Press, Cambridge, MA.
- GOMULKA, S. (1971) *Inventive Activity, Diffusion and the Stages of Economic Growth*. Aarhus University.
- ISLAM, N. (2003) What have we learnt from the Convergence Debate?, *Journal of Economic Surveys* **17**, 309-362.

- KALDOR, N. (1970) The Case for Regional Policies, *Scottish Journal of Political Economy* **17**, 337-348.
- MARTIN, R. (1999) The New 'Geographical Turn' in Economics: Some Critical Reflections, *Cambridge Journal of Economics* **23**, 65-91.
- MARTIN, R. and SUNLEY, P. (1998) Slow Convergence? New Endogenous Growth Theory and Regional Development, *Economic Geography* **74**, 201-227.
- MCCOMBIE, J. and THIRLWALL, A. (1994) *Economic Growth and Balance of Payment Constraint*. St. Martin's Press, London.
- MCGUINNESS, S. and SHEEHAN, M. (1998) Regional Convergence in the UK, 1970-1995, *Applied Economics Letters* **5**, 653-658.
- MCDONALD, F., O. HUANG, D. TSAGDIS and H.J. TÜSELMANN (2007) Is there evidence to support Porter-type of cluster policies, *Regional Studies* **41**, 39-49.
- MYRDAL, G. (1957) *Economic Theory and Underdeveloped Regions*. Duckworth, London.
- NAHAR, S. and INDER, B. (2002) Testing Convergence in Economic Growth for OECD Countries, *Applied Economics* **34**, 2011-2022.
- NEVEN, D. and GOUYETTE, C. (1995) Regional Convergence in the European Community, *Journal of common Market Studies*, **33**, 47-65.
- OÖSTERHAVEN J. and BROERSMA L. (2007) Sector structure and cluster economies: a decomposition of regional labour productivity, *Regional Studies* **41**, 639-659.
- OXLEY, L. and GREASLEY, D. (1995) A Time-Series Perspective on Convergence: Australia, UK and USA since 1870, *Economic Record* **71**, 259-269.
- SALA-I-MARTIN, X. (1996) Regional Cohesion: Evidence and Theories of Regional Growth and Convergence, *European Economic Review* **40**, 1325-1352.
- TERLUIN, I. and POST, J., (Eds.) (2000) *Employment Dynamics in Rural Europe*. CABI Publishing, Wallingford.

Fig. 1a Regions converging towards the average in a statistically significant manner

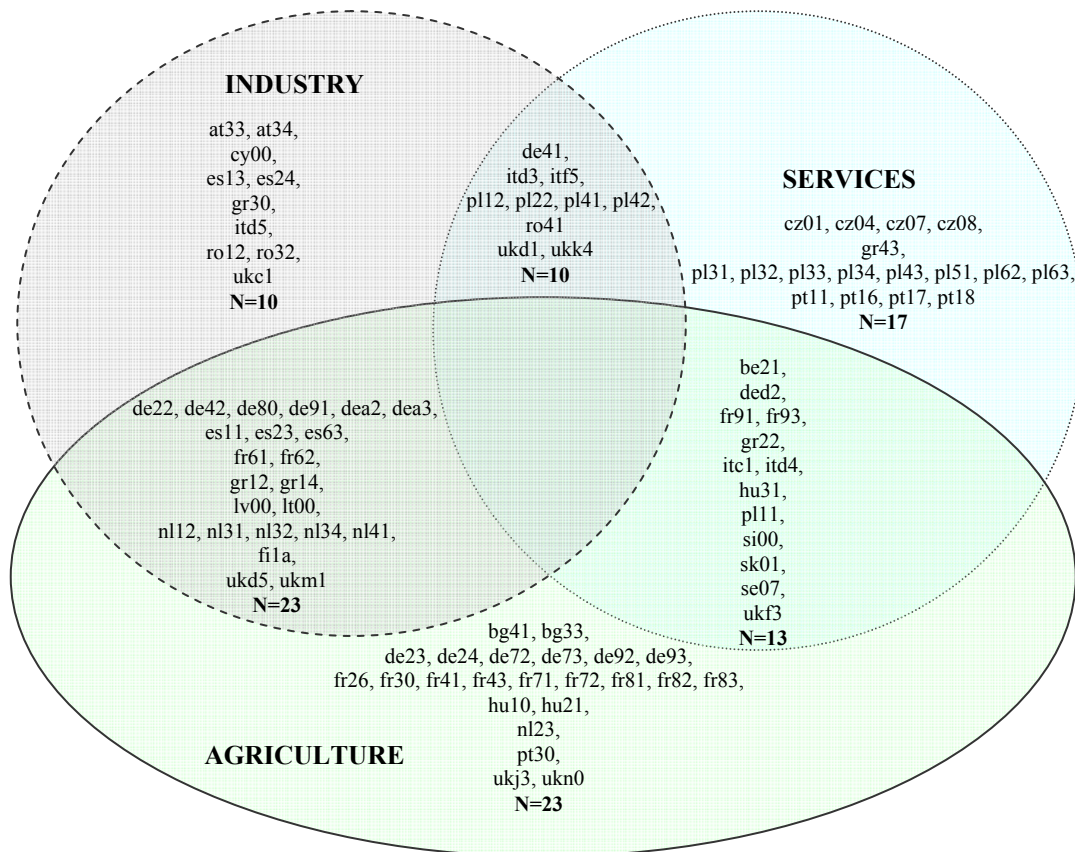


Fig. 1b Regions converging above the average in a statistically significant manner

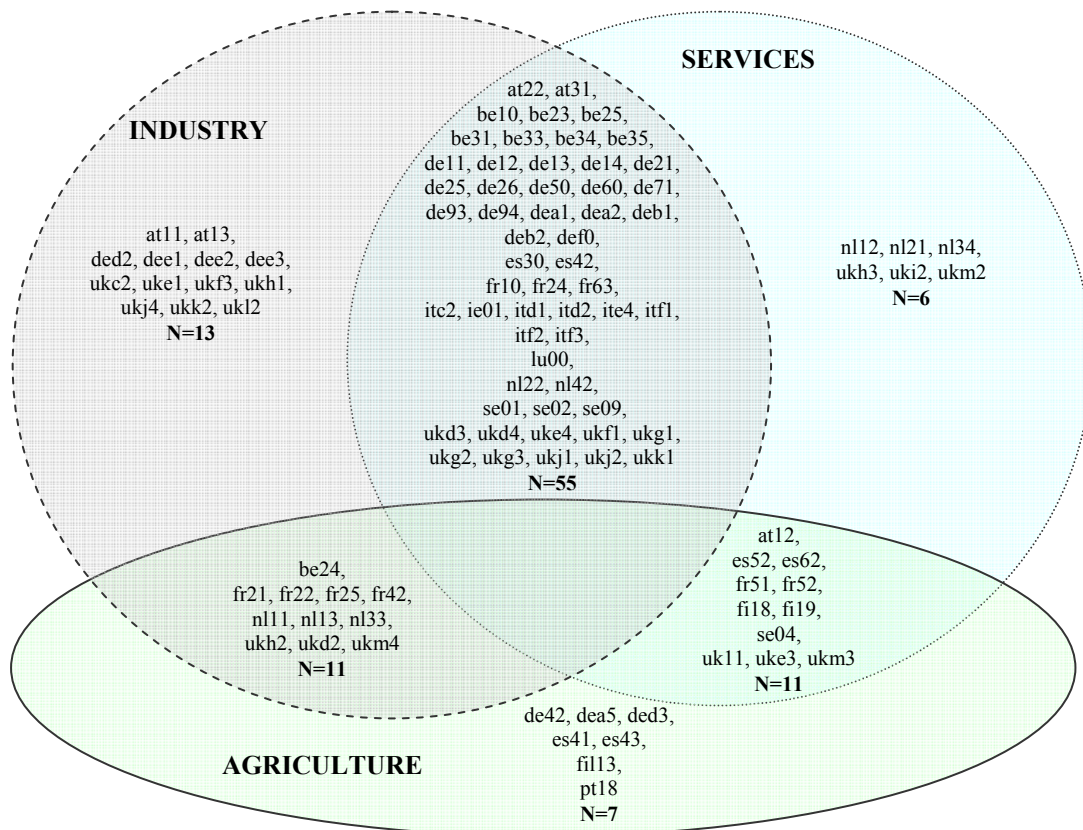
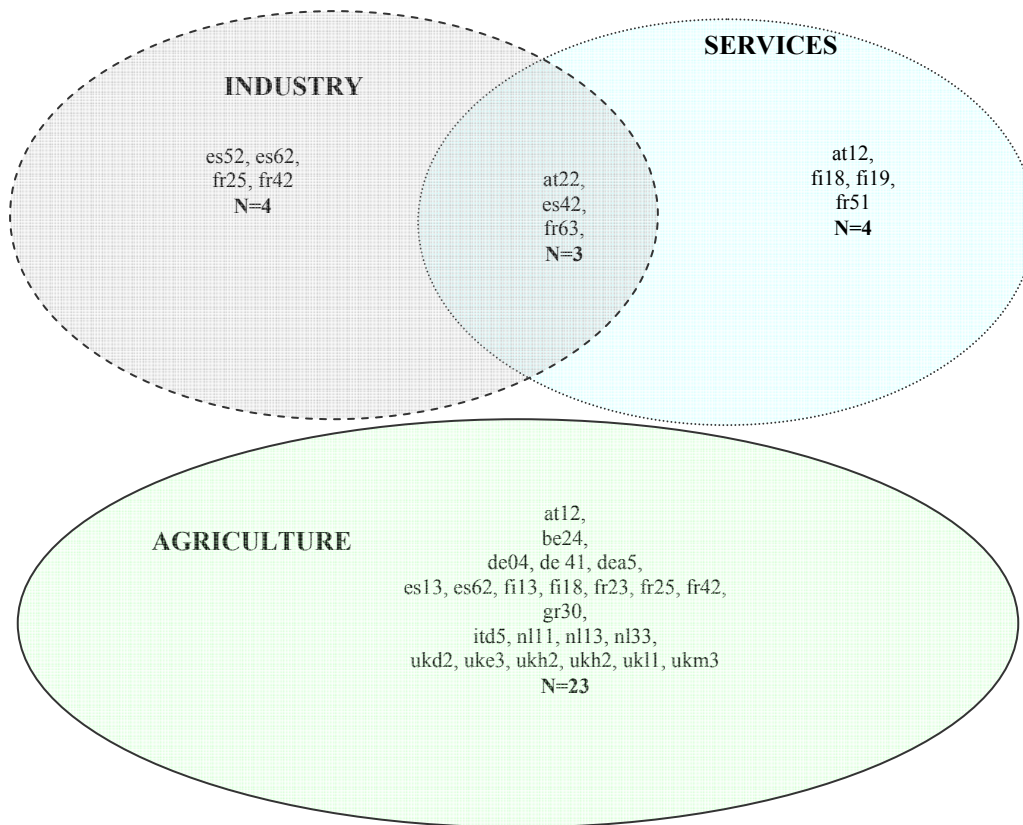


Fig. 1c Regions converging below the average in a statistically significant manner



*Fig. 2. The geographical distribution of regions converging above the EU27 average (1995-2005)*

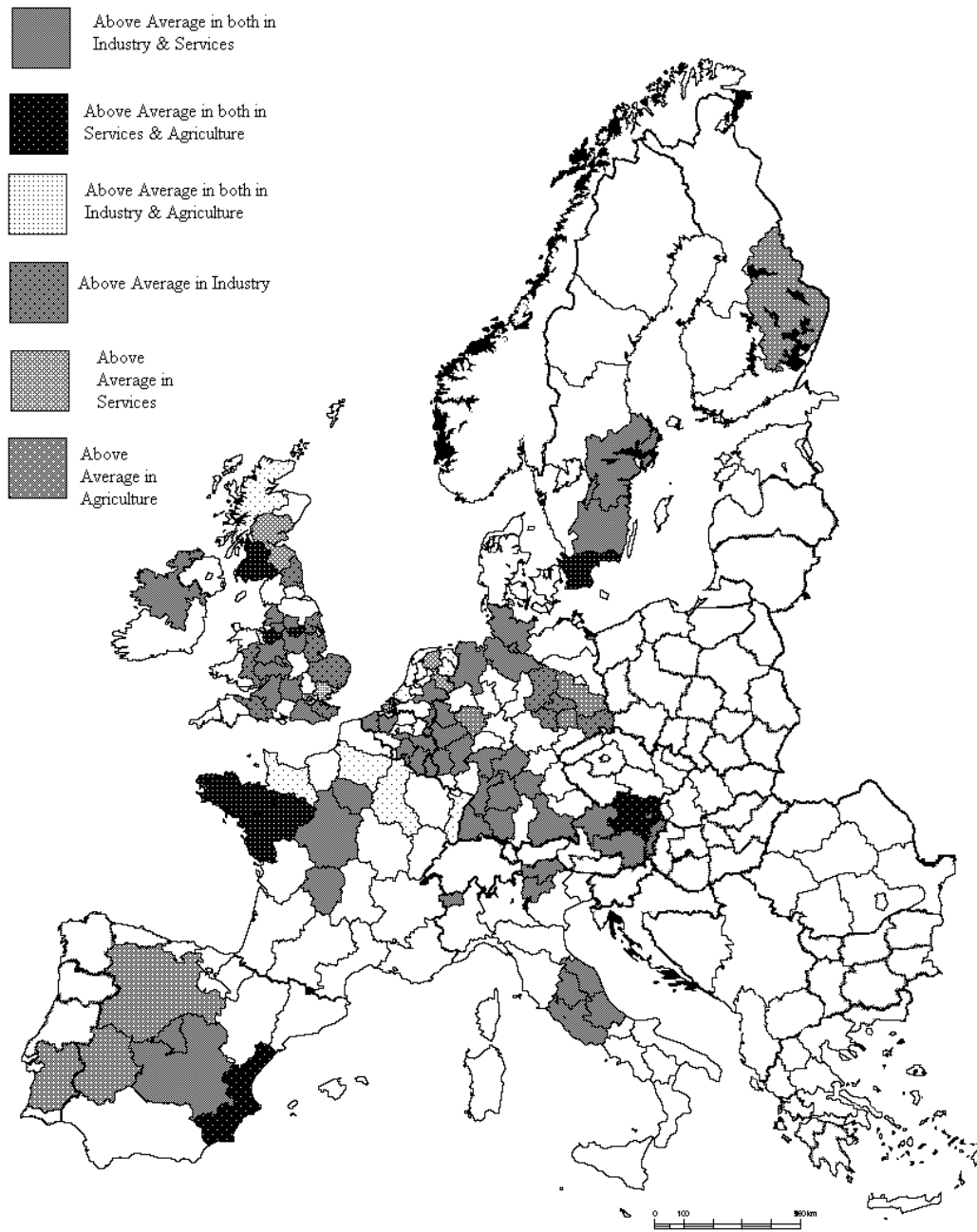


Fig. 3. The geographical distribution of regions converging above the EU12 average (1977-2005)

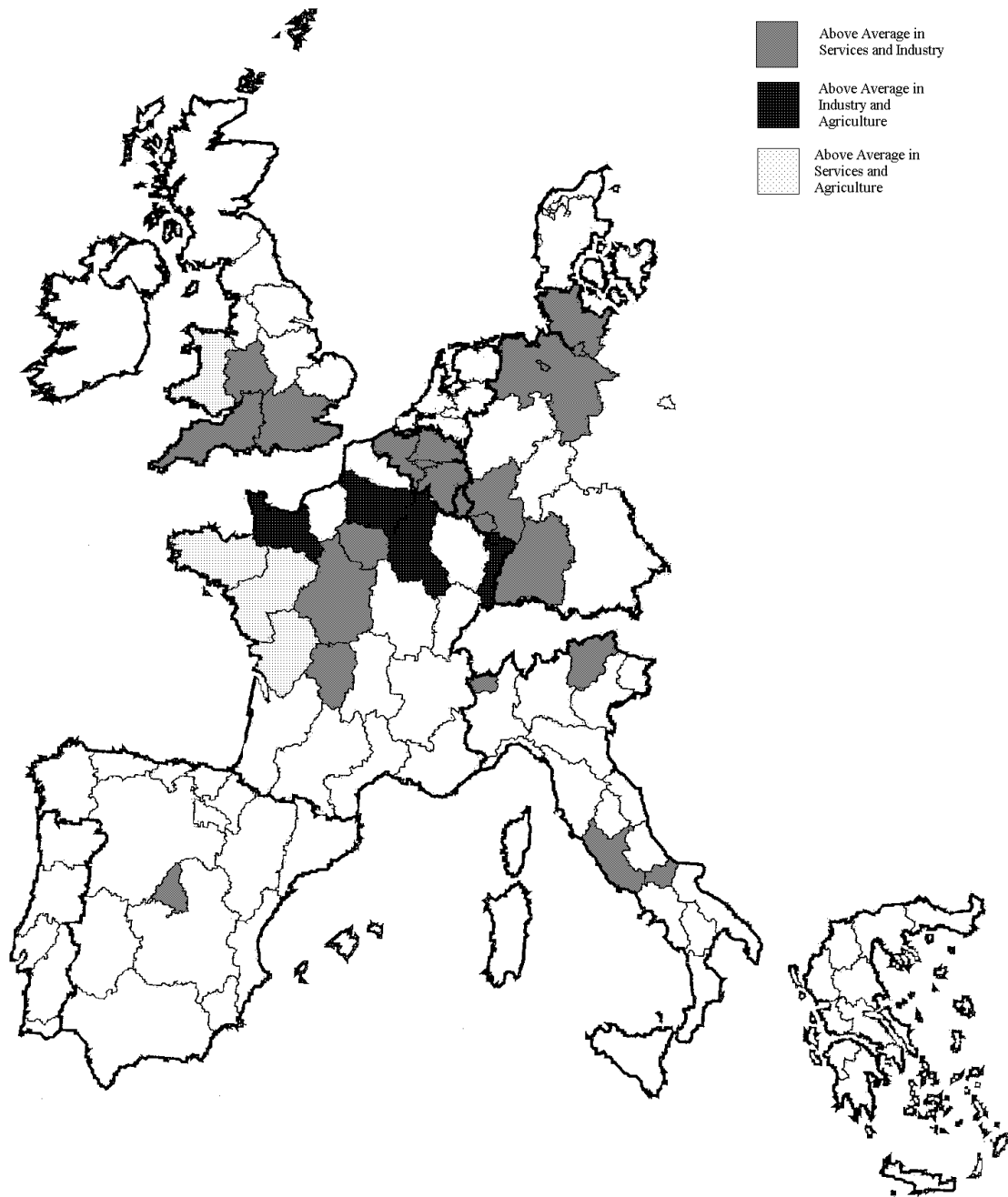


Table 1. Summary of the 3 Venn diagrams (Fig. 1a-c)

Convergence-clubs Sector(s)	Below the Average		Towards the Average		Above the Average		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Agriculture	23	8.6	23	8.6	7	2.6	53	20
Industry	4	1.5	10	3.7	13	4.9	27	10
Services	4	1.5	17	6.4	6	2.2	27	10
<b>Single-sector convergence Total</b>	<b>31</b>	<b>12</b>	<b>50</b>	<b>19</b>	<b>26</b>	<b>9.7</b>	<b>107</b>	<b>40</b>
Agriculture & Industry	0	0	23	8.6	11	4.1	34	13
Agriculture & Services	0	0	13	4.9	11	4.1	24	9
Industry & Services	3	1.1	10	3.7	55	21	68	25
<b>Dual-sector convergence Total</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>1.1</b>	<b>46</b>	<b>17</b>	<b>77</b>	<b>29</b>	<b>126</b>	<b>47</b>
<b>Convergence-club Total</b>	<b>34</b>	<b>13</b>	<b>96</b>	<b>36</b>	<b>103</b>	<b>39</b>	<b>233</b>	<b>87</b>

Notes: There are 34 regions (13%) whose convergence patterns are not statistically significant.

Table 2a. Spatial Proximity of EU27 leading regions (N=72)

Sector Country	Agriculture	Industry	Services	Agriculture & Industry	Agriculture & Services	Industry & Services
<b>Austria</b>						at22, at31
<b>Belgium</b>						be10, be31, be33, be34, be35 be23, be25
<b>France</b>				fr21, fr22	fr51, fr52	fr10, fr24, fr63
<b>Portugal</b>	[pt18]					
<b>Spain</b>	es41, es43				[es52], es62	[es30], es42
<b>Sweden</b>						[se01], [se02], [se09]
<b>Italy</b>						[itd1], [itd2] [ite4], [itf1]
<b>Luxemburg</b>						<b>Lu00</b>
<b>Germany</b>	de42, ded3	dee3, [dee1], dee2				def0, de60, de50, de93, de94 dea1, dea2, deb1, deb2, de11, de12, de13, de14, de21, de25, de26, de71
<b>Netherlands</b>			[nl12], nl21	nl11, [nl13]		
<b>UK</b>		[uke1], [ukf3], [ukh1]	ukh3, [uki2]			[ukd3], [ukd4], [uke4] [ukf1], ukg1, [ukg2], [ukg3], [ukj1], [ukj2], ukk1

Notes: Bold indicates regions in which capital cities are located (N=6), square brackets indicate autonomous leading regions (N=23). Leading regions in some countries (viz. Belgium, Italy, Germany, and the UK) appear as forming two clusters.

Table 2b. Isolated Leaders, EU27 (N=39)

<b>Sector Country</b>	<b>Agriculture</b>	<b>Industry</b>	<b>Services</b>	<b>Agriculture &amp; Industry</b>	<b>Agriculture &amp; Services</b>	<b>Industry &amp; Services</b>
<b>Austria</b>		at11, at13			at12	at22
<b>Belgium</b>				be24		be35
<b>Germany</b>	dea5, ded3	ded2		de42		de93
<b>Finland</b>	fi13				fi18, fi19	
<b>France</b>				fr25	fr52	
<b>Germany</b>	dea5, ded3	ded2		de42		de93
<b>Ireland</b>						ie01
<b>Italy</b>						itd1, itd2, itc2, itf2, itf3
<b>Netherlands</b>		nl42	nl34	nl33		nl22
<b>Sweden</b>					se04	
<b>UK</b>		ukc2, ukj4, ukk2, uk12	ukh3	ukd2, ukh2, ukm4	uke3, uk11, ukm2, ukm3	

**Notes:** There are no regions in which capital cities are located in this group..

Table 3a. Correlations between neighboring leading regions: Autonomous leading regions

	dee1	es30	es52	itd1	itd2	ite4	itf1	nl12	nl13	pt18	se01	se02	se09	ukd3	ukd4	uke1	uke4	ukf1	ukf3	ukg2	ukg3	ukh1	uki2	ukj1	ukj2
de21									-0.05																
de94									-0.06																
dee2	-0.10																								
dee3	-0.06																								
es41		-0.04																							
es42		-0.08	-0.09																						
es43										-0.14															
itd1																									
itd2																									
ite4																									
itf1																									
nl11																									
nl21																									
se01																									
se02																									
se09																									
ukd3																									
ukd4																									
uke1																									
uke4																									
ukf1																									
ukf3																									
ukg1																									
ukg2																									
ukg3																									
ukh1																									
ukh3																									
uki2																									
ukj1																									
ukj2																									
ukk1																									

Notes: Autonomous leading regions are listed in header row (N=23).

Table 3b. Correlations between neighboring leading regions: Spillover leading regions (be10-es62)

	be10	be23	be25	be31	be33	be34	de11	De12	de13	de14	de21	de25	de26	de50	de60	de71	de94	dea1	dea2	deb1	deb2	dee2	dee3	def0	es41	es42	es43	es62	
be10				0.60																									
be23			0.51																										
be25		0.70																											
be31	0.60																												
be33						0.62																0.68							
be34					0.73																								
be35					0.72																								
de11							0.62		0.26				0.66																
de12							0.30	0.62	-0.03	-0.01			0.34			0.24													
de13										0.25																			
de14							0.47	0.65	0.27																				
de21												0.58	0.63																
de25													0.65																
de26																0.42													
de50																	0.04												
de60																									0.75				
de71							0.51						0.58																
de93													0.67																
de94													0.78																
dea1																				0.63		0.56							
dea2					-0.51													-0.62		0.65	-0.51	-0.40							
deb1																0.34			0.65		0.33								
deb2						0.51													0.57	0.33									
dee1																							0.15	0.18					
dee2																								0.16	0.16				
dee3																								0.16					
def0														0.09															
es30																									0.01	-0.03			
es41																													
es42																													
es43																													
es52																													
es62																										0.16	0.14	-0.17	0.13
lu00					0.74	0.48																0.58							
nl11																													
nl13																													
at31												0.59																	
pt18																													0.04

Notes: Spillover leading regions are listed in header row (N=39).

Table 3c. Correlations between neighboring leading regions: Spillover leading regions (fr10-ukk1)

	fr10	fr21	fr22	fr24	fr51	lu00	nl11	nl21	at31	ukg1	ukk1
be33						0.17					
be34						0.17					
de21									0.48		
de94							-0.17				
deb2						-0.14					
fr10		0.52	0.52	0.46							
fr21	0.24		0.44								
fr22	0.19	0.51									
fr24	0.17										
fr52					0.48						
nl12							0.22	0.11			
nl13								0.02			
ukf1										-0.47	
ukg1											-0.65
ukg2										-0.46	
ukg3										-0.47	
ukj1										-0.50	1.00
ukk1										0.99	

Notes: Spillover leading regions are listed in header row (N=39).

Table 4. Industry-services-leaders' characteristics in 1995

Region	Extend of Characteristics Above the Average of the Industry-Services-Leaders			Extend of Characteristics Below the Average of the Industry-Services-Leaders		
	Patents per Capita	Employment in High Technology Sectors	Population Density	Patents per Capita	Employment in High Technology Sectors	Population Density
at22	X				X	X
at31	X				X	X
<b>be10</b>	X	X	X			
be23		X	X	X		
be25		X		X		X
be31	X	X				X
be33		X		X		X
be34		X		X		X
be35		X		X		X
de11	X	X				X
<b>de12</b>	X	X	X			
de13	X	X				X
de14	X	X				X
de21	X	X				X
de25	X	X				X
de26	X	X				X
de50		X	X	X		
<b>de60</b>	X	X	X			
<b>de71</b>	X	X	X			
de93	X				X	X
<b>de94</b>				<u>X</u>	<u>X</u>	<u>X</u>
<b>dea1</b>	X	X	X			
<b>dea2</b>	X	X	X			
deb1	X	X				X
deb2	X	X				X
def0	X	X				X
ie01		X		X		X
[es30]		X	X	X		
<b>es42</b>				<u>X</u>	<u>X</u>	<u>X</u>
<b>fr10</b>	X	X	X			
fr24	X	X				X
fr63		X		X		X
itc2		X		X		X
<b>itd1</b>				<u>X</u>	<u>X</u>	<u>X</u>
<b>itd2</b>				<u>X</u>	<u>X</u>	<u>X</u>
[ite4]		X		X		X
<b>itf1</b>				<u>X</u>	<u>X</u>	<u>X</u>
itf2		X		X		X
itf3			X	X		
lu00	X				X	X
nl22	X		X		X	
<b>nl42</b>	X	X	X			
[se01]	X	X				X
[se02]	X	X				X
[se09]	X	X				X
<b>ukd3</b>	X	X	X			
[ukd4]			X	X	X	
[uke4]	X		X		X	
<b>ukf1</b>	X	X	X			
ukg1	X	X				X
[ukg2]		X		X		X
<b>ukg3</b>	X	X	X			
[ukj1]	X	X				X
<b>ukj2</b>	X	X	X			
ukk1		X		X		X
Col Total	34	42	19	21	13	36

Notes: X indicates whether a region is above or below the industry-services-leaders' average of each characteristic. Regions in bold (underline) indicate that all of their characteristics are above (below) average. Square brackets indicate autonomous leadership (N=16).

Table 4. Sectoral Convergence Clubs and Externalities' Correlations

Sector	Convergence club	Patents per-capita	Employment in High Technology Sectors	Population Density
Agriculture	Below Average	0.0001	0.0008	0.001
	Towards Average	0.002	0.0014	0.003
	Above Average	0.012	0.022	0.001
Industry	Below Average	0.4	0.51	0.65
	Towards Average	0.64	<b>0.74</b>	<b>0.72</b>
	Above Average	<b>0.71</b>	<b>0.82</b>	<b>0.76</b>
Services	Below Average	0.34	0.53	0.43
	Towards Average	0.52	<b>0.77</b>	0.60
	Above Average	<b>0.68</b>	<b>0.71</b>	0.53
Agriculture & Industry	Below Average	0.12	0.28	0.31
	Towards Average	0.17	0.15	0.17
	Above Average	0.24	0.47	0.33
Agriculture & Services	Below Average	0.08	0.11	0.12
	Towards Average	0.34	0.45	0.22
	Above Average	0.36	0.47	0.46
Industry & Services	Below Average	0.36	0.31	0.48
	Towards Average	0.58	0.47	0.61
	Above Average	<b>0.69</b>	0.64	0.57

Notes: bold and underline indicate the strongest correlations, grey-shaded cells indicate reversals in correlation rankings

Table 5. Tests for  $\beta$ -convergence between regional-groups

$$g_i = a + b_1 y_{i,0} + b_2 PT_{i,0} + b_3 HT_{i,0} + b_4 PD_{i,0} + (\mathbf{I} - \zeta \mathbf{W})^{-1} u_i$$

	EU27 Regions (N=267)	Regions converging below the average (N=34)	Regions converging towards the average (N=96)	Industry-Services Leaders (N=55)
$a$	1.0835**	1.0072**	1.1032**	4.2807**
$b_1$	-0.24688**	-0.0681**	-0.2287**	-0.5844**
$b_2$	0.01117	0.0131*	0.0107*	0.04819
$b_3$	0.0363**	0.0209**	0.0442**	0.01659*
$b_4$	0.01328**	0.0018**	0.0278**	0.0558**
$\zeta$	0.4225**	0.1015**	0.3225**	0.7781**
Implied $\beta$	2.823**	0.704**	2.596**	8.770**

Notes: \* Indicates significance at 90% level of confidence while \*\* indicates significance at 95% level of confidence.

## Appendix

*Table A1. Average Slope Estimates, EU27 regions*  
 Estimated Equation:  $w_{i,t} = \theta_0 + \theta_1 r + \theta_2 r^2 + \dots + \theta_{k-1} r^{k-1} + \theta_k r^k + u_{i,t}$ , OLS

Region	Agriculture	Industry	Services
be10 Région de Bruxelles-Capitale	-0.0218802	0.0182035 **	0.0306834 **
be21 Prov. Antwerpen	-0.0337025	-0.0407695	-0.0268617
be22 Prov. Limburg (B)	-0.0284227	-0.0266904	-0.0185315
be23 Prov. Oost-Vlaanderen	-0.0175894	0.0224201 **	0.0169035 **
be24 Prov. Vlaams Brabant	0.0408076 **	0.0298999 **	-0.024279
be25 Prov. West-Vlaanderen	-0.0262938	0.0368974 **	0.0163382 **
be31 Prov. Brabant Wallon	-0.0124991	0.0029599 **	0.021044 **
be32 Prov. Hainaut	-0.0105994	-0.0326041	-0.0189504
be33 Prov. Liège	-0.0239477	0.0283463 **	0.0200842 **
be34 Prov. Luxembourg (B)	-0.015917	0.0357112 **	0.0163296 **
be35 Prov. Namur	-0.019728	0.0177543 **	0.016427 **
bg31 Severozapaden	-0.0237701	-0.0044465	-0.0285249
bg32 Severen tsentralen	-0.0132615	-0.0036388	-0.0280717
bg33 Severoiztochen	-0.022517 **	-0.0026462	-0.0353208
bg34 Yugoiztochen	0.0342365	-0.0030404	-0.0277092
bg41 Yugozapaden	-0.0199334 **	-0.0045944	-0.0190709
bg42 Yuzhen tsentralen	0.0173326	-0.0020921	-0.0307266
cz01 Praha	-0.0241165	-0.0177563	-0.0612163 **
cz02 Střední Čechy	-0.0129358	-0.0183206	-0.0810661
cz03 Jihozápad	-0.0189548	-0.0184497	-0.066605
cz04 Severozápad	-0.0100938	-0.0185448	-0.0364651 **
cz05 Severovýchod	-0.0190183	-0.0195355	-0.059975
cz06 Jihovýchod	-0.0159324	-0.0190598	-0.0766822
cz07 Střední Morava	-0.0179189	-0.0143994	-0.0411524 **
cz08 Moravskoslezsko	-0.0620611	-0.0175752	-0.088502 **
dk00 Denmark	-0.0371832	-0.0079037	-0.0155704
de11 Stuttgart	-0.0186222	0.0245944 **	0.0418302 **
de12 Karlsruhe	-0.0294023	0.0267937 **	0.04451 **
de13 Freiburg	-0.0073885	0.0173408 **	0.0355839 **
de14 Tübingen	-0.0151582	0.0192983 **	0.0305637 **
de21 Oberbayern	-0.0018499 **	-0.0207253	-0.0357543 **
de22 Niederbayern	-0.0020322 **	-0.0168082 **	-0.0299602
de23 Oberpfalz	-0.0041647 **	-0.0201923	-0.0237492

de24 Oberfranken	-0.001448	**	-0.0135938	-0.033707
de25 Mittelfranken	-0.0022194		0.0223254	**
de26 Unterfranken	-0.0174529		0.0192292	**
de27 Schwaben	0.0021465		-0.0205202	-0.0344121
de30 Berlin	-0.0123191		-0.0184805	-0.0384156
de41 Brandenburg - Nordost	0.0045936	**	-0.0028247	**
de42 Brandenburg - Südwest	-0.0015168	**	-0.0048977	**
de50 Bremen	-0.0225877		0.0202567	**
de60 Hamburg	-0.0184329		0.0154732	**
de71 Darmstadt	-0.017196		0.0168486	**
de72 Gießen	-0.0068006	**	-0.0230214	-0.0324443
de73 Kassel	-0.0028426	**	-0.0151546	-0.0340018
de80 Mecklenburg-Vorpommern	-0.0038839	**	-0.002947	**
de91 Braunschweig	-0.0203698	**	-0.0171912	**
de92 Hannover	-0.0033448	**	-0.0279002	-0.0429916
de93 Lüneburg	-0.0277564	**	0.0014032	**
de94 Weser-Ems	0.0050716		0.0160603	**
dea1 Düsseldorf	-0.0260824		0.0353183	**
dea2 Köln	-0.0019868	**	-0.0291307	**
dea3 Münster	-0.0316657	**	-0.0185838	**
dea4 Detmold	-0.018503		-0.0287025	-0.0384436
dea5 Arnsberg	0.0005606	**	-0.0285958	-0.0385734
deb1 Koblenz	-0.0265748		0.0218109	**
deb2 Trier	-0.0367538		0.0220422	**
deb3 Rheinhessen-Pfalz	-0.0341235		-0.0390541	-0.0410586
dec0 Saarland	-0.0197496		-0.0275011	-0.0359898
ded1 Chemnitz	0.0010357		-0.0004232	-0.010574
ded2 Dresden	-0.001314	**	0.0026864	**
ded3 Leipzig	0.0033199	**	-0.0087508	-0.0154765
dee1 Dessau	-0.0052406		0.0024767	**
dee2 Halle	-0.0097606		0.0122002	**
dee3 Magdeburg	-0.0266085		0.0003428	**
def0 Schleswig-Holstein	-0.0347715		0.0300828	**
deg0 Thüringen	-0.0002639		-0.00095	-0.0088388
ee00 Estonia	-0.0216425		-0.0291063	-0.0214366
ie01 Border, Midlands and Western	-0.0082029		0.0078911	**
ie02 Southern and Eastern	-0.0210696		0.0189088	0.0282575

gr11 Anatoliki Makedonia, Thraki	-0.0366299		0.0053897		0.0014662
gr12 Kentriki Makedonia	-0.0030681	**	-0.0032251	**	0.0002732
gr13 Dytiki Makedonia	0.0211483		-0.0015572		0.0058044
gr14 Thessalia	-0.0098376	**	-0.0004507	**	0.0006099
gr21 Ipeiros	0.0462135		-0.039246		-0.0034806
gr22 Ionia Nisia	-0.0109966	**	-0.0121456		-0.001335
gr23 Dytiki Ellada	0.0144343		0.0292081		-0.0087407
gr24 Sterea Ellada	0.0050071		-0.0092239		-0.0330742
gr25 Peloponnisos	0.0065286		0.0553852		-0.0048619
gr30 Attiki	0.035653	**	-0.0090353	**	0.0089275
gr41 Voreio Aigaio	0.0306573		-0.001398		-0.0064054
gr42 Notio Aigaio	0.0360585		0.0290749		0.0117754
gr43 Kriti	0.0467819		0.0012478		-0.0001633
es11 Galicia	-0.0320647	**	-0.0024087	**	-0.0027021
es12 Principado de Asturias	-0.0161282		-0.0137198		-0.0058268
es13 Cantabria	0.004274	**	-0.0070506	**	-0.0107851
es21 Pais Vasco	-0.0326353		-0.0109895		-0.0125151
es22 Comunidad Foral de Navarra	-0.0285951		-0.0147561		-0.0117091
es23 La Rioja	-0.0298019	**	-0.0038456	**	-0.0085776
es24 Aragón	0.0223745		-0.0089684	**	-0.0077866
es30 Comunidad de Madrid	-0.0145527		0.014087	**	0.0139059
es41 Castilla y León	0.0059757		-0.0081992		-0.0034535
es42 Castilla-la Mancha	-0.0225963		0.0002113	**	0.0028683
es43 Extremadura	0.0078407	**	0.0005996		0.0004339
es51 Cataluña	0.0266571		-0.0114876		-0.0082472
es52 Comunidad Valenciana	0.0317525	**	0.0014073	**	-0.0037389
es61 Andalucia	-0.021562		-0.0045244		-0.0031992
es62 Región de Murcia	0.0020917	**	0.0007428	**	-0.001336
es63 Ciudad Autónoma de Ceuta (ES)	-0.0188397	**	-0.0075799	**	-0.0248041
es64 Ciudad Autónoma de Melilla (ES)	0.0020349		-0.0166198		-0.0037306
es70 Canarias (ES)	0.0023814		-0.0002081		-0.006222
fr10 Île de France	0.0153969		0.0252319	**	0.0232372
fr21 Champagne-Ardenne	0.0007703	**	0.0148968	**	-0.0218229
fr22 Picardie	0.0348207	**	0.0257127	**	-0.0246067
fr23 Haute-Normandie	-0.0042719		-0.0244148		-0.024223
fr24 Centre	-0.0366452		0.0182508	**	0.0226486
fr25 Basse-Normandie	0.0200313	**	0.0195009	**	-0.018251

fr26 Bourgogne	-0.0545197	**	-0.0162199	-0.0211088		
fr30 Nord - Pas-de-Calais	-0.0265092	**	-0.0295494	-0.0221432		
fr41 Lorraine	-0.024953	**	-0.0184195	-0.0256128		
fr42 Alsace	0.0336998	**	0.0283047	**	-0.0312595	
fr43 Franche-Comté	-0.0141788	**	-0.0124951	-0.0202607		
fr51 Pays de la Loire	0.0103686	**	-0.0126033	0.020332	**	
fr52 Bretagne	0.0094859	**	-0.0113298	0.0174642	**	
fr53 Poitou-Charentes	-0.0203976		-0.0132689	-0.0203623		
fr61 Aquitaine	-0.0447176	**	-0.0115209	**	-0.0181282	
fr62 Midi-Pyrénées	-0.0176621	**	-0.0125739	**	-0.0193167	
fr63 Limousin	0.027736		0.0130099	**	0.0202964	**
fr71 Rhône-Alpes	-0.0168136	**	-0.0219842	-0.023917		
fr72 Auvergne	-0.0038007	**	-0.0146969	-0.0202275		
fr81 Languedoc-Roussillon	-0.0147614	**	-0.0168486	-0.0211915		
fr82 Provence-Alpes-Côte d'Azur	-0.0092883	**	-0.020561	-0.0280698		
fr83 Corse	-0.0005419	**	-0.0142331	-0.0207998		
fr91 Guadeloupe (FR)	-0.0069555	**	-0.0191258	-0.0030271	**	
fr92 Martinique (FR)	0.0092101		-0.0101864	-0.0046384		
fr93 Guyane (FR)	-0.0097375	**	0.0142981	-0.0137382	**	
fr94 Reunion (FR)	-0.0281		-0.0056772	-0.0087769		
itc1 Piemonte	-0.0154133	**	-0.014979	-0.0133101	**	
itc2 Valle d'Aosta/Vallée d'Aoste	-0.0562779		0.0246099	**	0.0304661	**
itc3 Liguria	-0.0416		-0.0044887	-0.0101338		
itc4 Lombardia	-0.0487853		-0.0059613	-0.0048514		
itd1 Provincia Autonoma Bolzano-Bozen	0.0467698		0.026123	**	0.0269368	**
itd2 Provincia Autonoma Trento	0.0462295		0.0053658	**	0.0277137	**
itd3 Veneto	0.0049043		-0.0048173	**	-0.0091142	**
itd4 Friuli-Venezia Giulia	-0.0329476	**	-0.0109179	-0.0139588	**	
itd5 Emilia-Romagna	0.0469415	**	-0.0069599	**	-0.0130938	
ite1 Toscana	-0.0326677		-0.001937	-0.0059135		
ite2 Umbria	-0.003681		-0.005944	-0.0136243		
ite3 Marche	-0.0158424		-0.0041334	-0.0107845		
ite4 Lazio	0.0057353		0.0033659	**	0.0019198	**
itf1 Abruzzo	-0.01411		0.0001547	**	0.0104628	**
itf2 Molise	-0.005829		0.0068796	**	0.0186402	**
itf3 Campania	0.0043532		0.0040673	**	0.0083513	**
itf4 Puglia	-0.0026907		-0.0012632	-0.002212		

itf5 Basilicata	0.0003202		-0.0119384 **	-0.0166889 **
itf6 Calabria	-0.0136579		-0.0026058	-0.0040831
itg1 Sicilia	0.0133515		-0.0094093	-0.0089107
itg2 Sardegna	0.004088		-0.011557	-0.0077933
cy00 Cyprus	-0.0182202		-0.0022476 **	0.0005267 **
lv00 Latvia	-0.0303069 **		-0.0215064 **	-0.0296612
lt00 Lithuania	-0.0215617		-0.0309103	-0.0303401
lu00 Luxembourg (Grand-Duché)	0.0126871		0.0163044 **	0.0476823
hu10 Közép-Magyarország	-0.035912 **		-0.0173069	-0.0526458
hu21 Közép-Dunántúl	-0.0407605 **		-0.0179189	-0.1000244
hu22 Nyugat-Dunántúl	-0.0492868		-0.0183785	-0.0195318
hu23 Dél-Dunántúl	-0.0335494		-0.0195854	-0.0189877
hu31 Észak-Magyarország	-0.0273177		-0.0121788	-0.0178602
hu32 Észak-Alföld	-0.0422675		-0.0186849	-0.017076
hu33 Dél-Alföld	-0.0347122		-0.0290998	-0.0183703
mt00 Malta	-0.0216513		0.0211938	0.0144644
nl11 Groningen	0.02604 **		0.0195363 **	0.0087704
nl12 Friesland	-0.0190686 **		-0.016338 **	0.0119242 **
nl13 Drenthe	0.0330369 **		0.0136067 **	0.0074394
nl21 Overijssel	-0.0199131		-0.0003086	0.0143335 **
nl22 Gelderland	-0.0045657		0.0170328 **	0.0104564 **
nl23 Flevoland	-0.0211967 **		0.0211011	0.0342922
nl31 Utrecht	-0.04121 **		-0.0018805 **	0.0243614
nl32 Noord-Holland	-0.0131338 **		-0.0190138 **	0.0172782
nl33 Zuid-Holland	0.0199606 **		0.003466 **	0.007542
nl34 Zeeland	-0.007471 **		-0.0100415 **	0.0005373 **
nl41 Noord-Brabant	-0.046855 **		-0.0015714 **	0.0195617
nl42 Limburg (NL)	-0.0169196		0.0096351 **	0.0157325
at11 Burgenland	-0.0399127		0.0013871 **	-0.0244656
at12 Niederösterreich	0.0315545 **		-0.0273572	0.0019206 **
at13 Wien	-0.0050397		0.0007851 **	-0.0362954
at21 Kärnten	0.0603014		-0.0179694	-0.0229945
at22 Steiermark	0.0562046		0.0082461 **	0.0228059 **
at31 Oberösterreich	0.0393634		0.0157756 **	0.0273335 **
at32 Salzburg	0.067255		-0.0206565	-0.0302018
at33 Tirol	0.0188723		-0.0135288 **	-0.0223299
at34 Vorarlberg	0.0120342		-0.0034006 **	-0.0281266

pl11 Łódzkie	-0.018223 **	-0.0127082	-0.0295352 **
pl12 Mazowieckie	0.0364798	-0.0330377 **	-0.0280753 **
pl21 Małopolskie	0.0212838	-0.0181444	-0.0310651
pl22 Śląskie	0.042336	-0.000571 **	-0.0706881 **
pl31 Lubelskie	0.0245395	-0.0190647	-0.0688313 **
pl32 Podkarpackie	0.0552176	-0.0189757	-0.028088 **
pl33 Świętokrzyskie	0.0264915	-0.0126527	-0.0284188 **
pl34 Podlaskie	0.0555131	-0.0123572	-0.0673844 **
pl41 Wielkopolskie	0.0073307	-0.0101497 **	-0.0610915 **
pl42 Zachodniopomorskie	0.0688786	-0.0169532 **	-0.0679819 **
pl43 Lubuskie	0.0578098	-0.0141011	-0.0400206 **
pl51 Dolnośląskie	0.015191	-0.0188196	-0.0713389 **
pl52 Opolskie	0.0166843	-0.0183462	-0.050496 **
pl61 Kujawsko-Pomorskie	0.0006131	-0.0085214	-0.0669574
pl62 Warmińsko-Mazurskie	0.0329361	-0.0129447	-0.0743356 **
pl63 Pomorskie	0.0582271	-0.0185915	-0.0697771 **
pt11 Norte	0.0200749	0.0263957	-0.0058279 **
pt15 Algarve	-0.0273503	0.0426602	0.0021199
pt16 Centro (PT)	0.0328726	0.0231786	-0.0031344 **
pt17 Lisboa	0.0405856	0.0034688	-0.0015298 **
pt18 Alentejo	0.0084488 **	0.0067171	-0.0044213 **
pt20 Região Autónoma dos Açores (PT)	-0.018936	-0.0254696	-0.0033343
pt30 Região Autónoma da Madeira (PT)	-0.011145 **	-0.0249706	0.0009028
ro11 Nord-Vest	0.0282234	-0.0108738	-0.0296185
ro12 Centru	0.0215266	-0.0258948 **	-0.0322409
ro21 Nord-Est	-0.0047252	-0.0301612	-0.0267061
ro22 Sud-Est	0.0089076	-0.0188686	-0.0192774
ro31 Sud - Muntenia	0.0102148	-0.0307692	-0.0196361
ro32 Bucuresti - Ilfov	0.0258313	-0.0129084 **	-0.015137
ro41 Sud-Vest Oltenia	0.013893	-0.0040602 **	-0.0183942 **
ro42 Vest	0.0134151	-0.0267439	-0.0193375
si00 Slovenia	-0.0201675 **	-0.0280601	-0.0004663 **
sk01 Bratislavský kraj	-0.0545198 **	-0.0171894	-0.0503287 **
sk02 Západné Slovensko	-0.0149983	-0.0182702	-0.06991
sk03 Stredné Slovensko	-0.0168268	-0.0166542	-0.0687325
sk04 Východné Slovensko	-0.0235288	-0.0137386	-0.0510841
fi13 Itä-Suomi	0.0199947 **	-0.0257726	-0.0110869

fi18 Etelä-Suomi	0.0186414 **	-0.0002473	0.0131676 **
fi19 Länsi-Suomi	0.0206075 **	-0.0114648	0.0101876 **
fi1a Pohjois-Suomi	-0.0070334 **	-0.0145421 **	-0.0135606
fi20 Åland	-0.0296625	-0.0039041	-0.0011503
se01 Stockholm	-0.0235703	0.0117098 **	0.0033012 **
se02 Östra Mellansverige	-0.0026386	-0.0256685	-0.0131114
se04 Sydsverige	0.0085823 **	-0.0113139	0.0110545 **
se06 Norra Mellansverige	-0.0324395	-0.029146	-0.0131125
se07 Mellersta Norrland	-0.0323816 **	-0.0379523	-0.0149848 **
se08 Övre Norrland	-0.0322704	-0.0200278	-0.0159996
se09 Småland med öarna	-0.0277818	0.0233695 **	0.0142342 **
se0a Västsverige	-0.0082675	-0.0172297	-0.0130854
ukc1 Tees Valley and Durham	0.0308896	-0.0013606 **	0.0007251
ukc2 Northumberland, Tyne and Wear	-0.0151195	0.0173752 **	0.0029816
ukd1 Cumbria	0.0268302	-0.0057304 **	-0.0015254 **
ukd2 Cheshire	0.0526977 **	0.0037589 **	0.0034355
ukd3 Greater Manchester	-0.0029913	0.002572 **	0.0050311 **
ukd4 Lancashire	0.047057	0.0052907 **	0.0001355 **
ukd5 Merseyside	-0.041412 **	-0.0063327 **	0.0004427
uke1 East Riding and North Lincolnshire	-0.0455819	0.0096649 **	0.0002439
uke2 North Yorkshire	0.0091963	-0.0035687	0.0001189
uke3 South Yorkshire	0.028778 **	0.0038882	0.0009774 **
uke4 West Yorkshire	0.0093916	0.0037027 **	0.0058617 **
ukf1 Derbyshire and Nottinghamshire	0.0144542	0.0058116 **	0.0063747 **
ukf2 Leicestershire, Rutland and Northants	-0.0405334	0.0141856	0.0093565
ukf3 Lincolnshire	-0.0494454 **	0.0042526 **	-0.0004194 **
ukg1 Herefordshire, Worcestershire and Warks	0.0343924	0.014498	0.0048941
ukg2 Shropshire and Staffordshire	0.035349	0.0050614 **	0.0059787 **
ukg3 West Midlands	-0.0005688	0.0068133 **	0.0066504 **
ukh1 East Anglia	-0.0287118	0.0050497 **	0.0042668
ukh2 Bedfordshire, Hertfordshire	0.0066947 **	0.00134 **	0.0176765
ukh3 Essex	-0.0210862	-0.0001702	0.0042108 **
uki1 Inner London	-0.0289796	0.0118686	0.0339749
uki2 Outer London	0.0197179	-0.0056797	0.0118633 **
ukj1 Berkshire, Bucks and Oxfordshire	0.0019662	0.0190825 **	0.0210645 **
ukj2 Surrey, East and West Sussex	-0.0252528	0.0077732 **	0.0108393 **
ukj3 Hampshire and Isle of Wight	-0.0091957 **	0.0068755	0.0026791

ukj4 Kent	-0.0122541		0.0062504 **	0.0003087	
ukk1 Gloucestershire, Wiltshire and North Somerset	0.0008817		0.0147264 **	0.0112932	
ukk2 Dorset and Somerset	0.0410556		0.0161021 **	0.0003807	
ukk3 Cornwall and Isles of Scilly	0.0644619		0.0006444	-0.0106421	
ukk4 Devon	0.0303667		-0.0072258 **	-0.0009158	**
ukl1 West Wales and The Valleys	0.0132954 **		-0.0068377	0.0003595	**
ukl2 East Wales	-0.0026647		0.0009703 **	0.0081844	
ukm1 North Eastern Scotland	-0.0165903 **		-0.0128904 **	0.013115	
ukm2 Eastern Scotland	-0.0262768		-0.011855	0.0041162	**
ukm3 South Western Scotland	0.0136084 **		0.0162417	0.0028419	**
ukm4 Highlands and Islands	0.000598 **		0.0049764 **	-0.0065786	
ukn0 Northern Ireland	-0.0161734 **		0.0063124	0.0032519	

**Notes:** \*\* indicates significance at 95% level. The specific choice of the polynomial order is then made using the Akaike and the Schwartz-Bayesian information criteria.

## NOTES

---

<sup>1</sup> For Ricardo the process of growth leads to convergence, while Marx and Malthus argue that growth exaggerates an already established unevenness leading to divergence. A more detailed discussion can be found in BOYER (1997).

<sup>2</sup> Although originally developed for national economies, ALEXIADIS and TOMKINS (2004) demonstrated that it is equally suited to regional economies.

<sup>3</sup> As this study has a large number of observational units (viz. 267 regions) and the ADF is geared towards testing convergence between *pairs* of regions it produces a rather complicated and possibly misleading picture.

<sup>4</sup> Table A1 in the Appendix lists the regions used in this study.

<sup>5</sup> See for example NEVEN and GOUYETTE (1995), OXLEY and GREASLEY (1995), etc. On the other hand, OÖSTERHAVEN and BROERSMA (2007) offer a particular interesting approach in detecting clusters based on a sectoral decomposition of labour productivity. This analysis, however, is restricted in the context of the regions of a single country (Denmark).

<sup>6</sup> See Table A1 in the Appendix.

<sup>7</sup> Neighbouring is operationalised here as sharing a common border. This relation however is not reciprocal; e.g. the central French region Île de France (fr10), shares a common border with by five regions, viz. Champagne-Ardenne (fr21), Picardie (fr22), Haute-Normandie (fr23), Centre (fr24) and Bourgogne (fr26). The region Centre (fr24) shares common borders only with Haute-Normandie (fr23) and Bourgogne (fr26). It should thus be made explicit that although there are 72 neighbouring leading regions, only 64 of them have a reciprocal neighbouring relation.

<sup>8</sup> For a review of these models see MARTIN (1999), MARTIN and SUNLEY (1998), among others.

<sup>9</sup> This is also the case when comparisons are made with the respective EU27 averages.