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Interest rates and convergence across Italian regions

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Abstract

The purpose of this paper is to investigate the evidence for economic convergence across Italian regions using trends in interest rate spreads and premia as indicators of regional credit conditions. Our results indicate the presence of persistent interest rate differentials, and thus an absence of convergence across the twenty political regions, but we observe a high degree of convergence within the four macroeconomic areas.

JEL Classification Codes: C23, E43, R11 and R15.

Keywords: interest rates, unit root, panel data, convergence, Italy.

1. Introduction

The dualistic nature of the Italian economy is a well-known phenomenon which has been analysed and debated in many studies. Moreover, there is a vast amount of literature on the general issue of whether or not there is convergence across economies or regions over time. These studies have mainly focused their attention on the behaviour of different economies over the business cycle in order to uncover the presence of real asymmetries between regions or nations.¹ Within this literature, recently there has been a resurgence in the analysis of growth and convergence across the Italian regions.²

The thinking underlying all of these studies can be illustrated by making reference to Mundell's (1961) optimal currency area theory. He argued that, if economic shocks have differential consequences for different economies, i.e. if they do not impact on these economies homogeneously, then these economies would not together constitute an optimal currency area in the absence of appropriate adjustment mechanisms. Thus, we would expect such economies not to converge. It follows that, for an economy which is not an optimal currency area, any macroeconomic policy decision taken by central government would also be sub-optimal since it would *not fit all*, and could contribute to divergence.

Later, however, Mundell (1973) focused his attention on the benefits of monetary union as itself providing the basis for adjustment to asymmetric shocks. A common currency and integrated financial markets would provide the means for adjustment, at least to temporary asymmetric shocks, by means of capital flows, but longer-lasting shocks would still need more price and wage adjustment. We would

therefore expect greater convergence within a common currency area, other things being equal. Some studies have addressed this issue by identifying differences between saving and investment in each economy as indicators of the power of capital flows to cushion economies from short-term shocks (see Bayoumi and Rose, 1993). The capacity for financial account imbalances within a currency area would therefore be expected to ease adjustment to shocks.

Regional economic theory has challenged this notion that integrated financial markets tend to promote economic convergence. According to Dow (1982, 1992), Dow and Montagnoli (2007), Martin (1989), Martin and Minns (1995) and MacKay and Molyneux (1996), the spatial structure of an economy matters. This can be summarized in three points: i) information imperfections and transaction costs increase with distance from markets; ii) inadequate local credit markets mean that SMEs face funding problems; iii) spatial differences in supply and demand may be mutually reinforcing. These points are mainly drawn from Dow's (1992, 1999) relative liquidity preference theory of the relationship between the spatial evolution of a national banking system and the process of uneven regional development. Dow's theory suggests that the free movement of capital and financial integration will lead to spatial centralization of the financial system, which in turn will lead to uneven economic development between the centre and periphery of the space economy. Contrary to the neoclassical view, an integrated financial system will encourage a net outflow of capital from the periphery to the core, and these flows in turn will fuel the process of uneven economic development between the core and the periphery (Martin and Minns, 1995).³

Testing this hypothesis has frequently proved difficult given the lack of available of regional data on the distribution of bank credit, and finance more

generally. Nevertheless, a few studies have attempted to analyse data on regional money flows along these lines, for Australia and Canada (Porteous, 1995), for Brazil (Amado, 1997), for Spain (Rodriguez Fuentes, 2005) and for various British regions (see Dow, 1992, Dow and Montagnoli, 2007, Martin, 1989, Martin and Minns, 1995, and MacKay and Molyneux, 1996). The common view running through this strand of literature seems to be, first, that over-centralization of the financial system disadvantages peripheral regions, and, second, a local financial infrastructure characterized by local and regional based banks is better for those regions (Martin and Minns, 1995). These points are summarized as follows in MacKay and Molyneux (1996: 763): 'it seems that spatial diversity of financial structures will continue to persist as long as economic diversity exists. The shocking suspicion that flows of capital may add to rather than limit the regional inequality does not disappear.'

This study tries to contribute some empirical evidence to inform this debate. We analyse the question of whether Italy, as an optimal currency area, has reached convergence in the credit sector. We take a novel approach to regional credit markets, facilitated by Italian data availability, by focusing on regional interest rates. Rather than investigating net capital account imbalances for each region, we investigate regional interest rate differentials as an alternative indicator of imbalances. In particular, high demand for investment finance relative to supply in any region is taken to be reflected in high long-term rates relative to short-term rates. Similarly, tighter credit conditions in any region are taken to be reflected in higher loan rates relative to deposit rates. If capital is mobile within the national economy, regional convergence would be associated with a process of moving towards uniformity of rates following any shock, while divergence would be reflected in persistent regional rate differentials.

 We take Italy as our case study, a country for which data on regional interest rates are available. To investigate whether there are synergies across the twenty Italian regions we look in particular at the behaviour of interest rate spreads and premia. We define the interest rate spread as the difference between the long-term and short-term rates; the interest rate premium is defined as the difference between the interest rate on loans and the interest rate on deposits. We take these series as alternative indicators of regional credit conditions. We employ panel data unit root tests to examine the dynamics of interest rate spreads and premia across Italian regions.

The remainder of the paper is organized as follows; the next section presents a brief discussion of the dualistic nature of the Italian economy and of financial convergence in Italy; Section 3 presents the data and econometric methodology; Section 4 reports the results of four tests for convergence, section 5 considers evidence on speed of convergence, section 6 considers some policy implications of our results, and Section 6 concludes.

2. Brief literature review on dualism and financial convergence in Italy

The concept of duality implies the existence, within the same economic system, of areas that follow different paths of development, both in terms of growth of real per capita income, and in terms of socio-economic transformations, leaving these differences unchanged over time. If the process of integration does not occur, the economic system as a whole will be characterized by distorted and inefficient social and economic development. This economic dualism can take a triple configuration: the first is called territorial dualism, indicating a difference in the development from the spatial perspective; the second is industry/sector dualism in the productive structure, representing a dichotomy between types of company or sector; the final one

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is dualism in the labour market, to signal a labour market structure characterized by regular and irregular (i.e. black labour market) employees.

The peculiarity of the Italian case is found in the fact that the three identified types of dualism tend to coexist, creating a fairly clear separation between the North and South of the country (Lutz 1958, 1962; Vinci 1967; Singer 1970; Graziani 1969, 2000). Recent studies have pointed out the importance of the dualistic nature of the Italian economy in terms of unemployment, income growth, public finance and a technological gap. The latter studies showed that the clear gap in technological endowment and capacity for innovation has been one of the main factors behind the divergence between Italian regions (see Evangelista *et al.*, 2002, and Iammarino *et al.*, 2004).

Furthermore the understanding of the problem seems crucial for the effectiveness of economic policies both in the short and on the long-term. Mauro (2004) explains the importance for the Italian economy of the lack of convergence between North and South. For instance, using a well accepted definition of convergence, the standard deviation of per capita GDP, he shows that the process of convergence has been in operation in Italy since the 1960s. However 'once the GDP net of public sector value added is considered, the picture appears dramatically different. There is now evidence of divergence from the 1980s onward once this variable has been corrected' (Mauro, 2004 p.929). Finally, it is worth mentioning the important role played in the divergence process by the way in which the public finances are managed across Italy. Guerrieri and Iammarino (2003) show that from the early 1990s the Southern regions have gone through a deterioration of their economic fundamentals due to the lack of public finance support. This has induced the economic literature to speak about 'many Mezzogiorni', referring to the fact that,

 in the last twenty years, economies within the southern macro area have been based on different industrial sectors from the rest of the country, and are characterized by a different speed of economic growth.

With a simple exercise Mauro (2004) shows that in 1996 the lack of convergence precluded a rise in GDP for the South of almost 20% when the benchmark considered is the average GDP in the North and South, and 16% of GDP when the Centre is the benchmark. When economic dualism assumes such a scale, the imbalances between areas highlight different trends and divergent economic developments. This implies that differences are not automatically resolved, but they require substantial and sustained economic policies which would induce the transformation of a vicious cycle into a virtuous process of development.

Recently, a renewed interest in the economic literature has been devoted to the importance of the sound functioning of financial institutions as a growth factor, and for regional differences in economic development. An efficient financial system can help to overcome market frictions by reducing the costs of transferring information and wealth between savers and investors. Undoubtedly, when financial systems carry out their functions well, the cost of financial intermediation is lower and economic growth increases.

At a regional level, many studies have emphasized the importance of local finance for regional economic growth. For example, Guiso *et al* (2004) study the effects in Italy of differences in local financial development within an integrated financial market. They build a new indicator of financial development which considers the probability that a household is precluded from accessing the credit market. Their results show that financial development improves the probability of an individual starting a new business, increases competition, and promotes economic

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growth. Financial development is, with different effects, important for both large and small firms. However, despite the fact that large firms will become gradually more indifferent to the conditions of the local financial system, small firms will continue to rely on it.

Usai and Vannini (2005) examine the role that various types of bank played in promoting Italy's regional economic growth. Over the period 1970–1993, while the real sector was still characterized by the presence of a large number of small- and medium-sized enterprises, the financial sector showed a large and varied set of credit organizations with different ownership, size and lending styles. Their results can be summarized as follows: the size of the financial sector as a whole is irrelevant to growth; but looking at the size of each single intermediary, they found that size matters. Small banks, like cooperative banks or local banks, play a positive role while national banks can have a negative impact on peripheral regions; furthermore, the reform and subsequent consolidation of the financial system can lead to a reduction of availability of credit in such regions.

Empirical evidence on the interaction between the banking system and economic growth is also investigated by Lucchetti *et al* (2001); they suggest a new indicator based on a measure of bank microeconomic efficiency. The empirical results for the Italian regions show the existence of an autonomous effect on regional growth supported by the efficiency of the banking system.

Coccorese (2008) focuses his analysis on the importance of the consolidation process that has characterized the banking industries in many industrialized countries. He assesses the level of competition in the Italian banking industry at a regional level, in order to identify the main factors that could help to explain differences in competition among areas. He finds that Italian banks globally benefit from modest

market power, but the level of this power is quite different from region to region. Further the structure of local banking markets matters. The level of competition decreases when regional markets are concentrated.

The relationship between banks and firms in Italy differ among the four macro areas; this point is presented in Ferri and Messori (2000). They demonstrate that except for the Northwest, which is characterized by larger banks and firms, the rest of the country has an economic stricture based on small banks and firms, which have a closer and more lasting customer relationship. This close relationship is able to promote a more favourable allocation of credit for the Northeast and the Centre but a less favourable one for the South.

Finally Vaona (2008) tries to test the hypothesis that there is a positive relationship between the size of the banking sector and economic growth of a region. In particular he investigates whether the former can be considered a good predictor of future growth. The empirical evidence shows clearly that there is an indirect relationship between the size of banking system and economic growth. In particular, since the size of the bank sector is an indicator of the banks' aptitude to allocate capital and to activate savings, he concluded that 'the more the financial system is able to provide these functions, especially to firms belonging to non-financial sectors of the economy, the more the economy will benefit from it in terms of enhanced growth' (Vaona, 2008, p. 198).

All these studies consider, directly or indirectly, the issue of banking regulation. Guiso *et al* (2006) study the cost of Italian regulation across Italian provinces. The main finding is that limits to competition have a double effect: they both diminish the supply of credit and reduce the percentage of bad loans. Deregulation can have opposite effects, that is, increasing the supply of credit and also

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increasing the percentage of bad loans. In general, restrictions on competition have negative effects on aggregate growth.

It is in the light of these studies that we approach the issue of the effect of financial conditions in Italy on regional convergence in a different way, using regional interest rate data. To our knowledge it is the first time an empirical study has tried to investigate the degree of financial integration using regional interest rates.

3. Data and econometric methodology

Our dataset is comprised of quarterly time-series on short-term and long-term interest rates on loans and on interest rates on banks' deposits.⁴ All data were obtained from the *Regional Bulletin* published by the Bank of Italy. The dataset covers all twenty Italian administrative regions and the full sample period under investigation is 1998Q1-2008Q4, providing 44 observations per region, with a cross-section of twenty.

[TABLE 1]

Table 1 presents the summary statistics for the two series for each political and economic region.⁵ There is a large heterogeneity in the mean and standard deviation across the various regions for both variables. An important feature emerges; there is a clear dichotomy between the North and the South of the country: the premia, i.e. the cost of borrowing for the southern regions exhibit values above the national average.

The benchmark model that defines whether a region is converging can be written as:

$$(i_{it} - i_{it}^*) = \alpha_i d_{mt} + \varphi(i_{it-1} - i_{it-1}^*) + \varepsilon_{it}$$

$$\tag{1}$$

where i_{it} is a measure of regional credit conditions (measured either by the interest rate spread or interest rate premium in region *i*). i_{it}^* is the corresponding value at national level, d_{me} is a set of deterministic variables which can take a value of {1} or {1,t}, a_i is the corresponding coefficient, and ε_{it} is an *iid* error.

Equation (1) can be reformulated as:

$$\Delta x_{it} = \alpha_i d_{mt} + \rho x_{it-1} + \sum_{L=1}^n \beta_{iL} x_{it-L} + \varepsilon_{it}$$
(2)

where
$$x_{it} = (i_{it} - i_{it}^*)$$
, $\rho = \sum_{i=1}^n \phi_i - 1$, and $\sum_{i=1}^n \phi_i = \phi$.

 ρ in Equation (2), corresponding to ϕ in Equation (1), is the parameter of interest. If its value is $|\phi| < 1$ then Equation (1) is said not to have a unit root. In this case the interest rate is stable and any economic shock, to which a region is subject, will over time be absorbed by the system, reducing regional interest rate differentials again. Moreover if $\alpha \neq 0$ the process is stable around a non-zero mean. On the contrary, if $|\phi| = 1$, the time series follows a random walk and any economic shock will be permanently incorporated in the series. Finally, if $|\phi| > 1$, the process is explosive.

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We can therefore use unit root tests to investigate whether the parameter of interest in Equation (2) is statistically different from one. If it is statistically different from one, we cannot reject the hypothesis that the regions are converging.

Given that our time dimension comprises eleven years, univariate unit root tests may suffer from low power in such a small sample. Here, alongside the traditional test, we therefore consider more powerful panel approaches to examine the degree of non-stationarity across regional interest rates differentials. The four tests implemented are presented below.

We utilise panel unit root tests which assume that the residual error term in the panel regression is $\sigma^2 I$, where I is the identity matrix. This is consistent with the idea that the cross-sections are not affected by common shocks, an approach adopted by Culver and Papell (1997) when examining aggregate inflation data.

We start our analysis by assuming that ρ in Equation (2), i.e. the persistence parameter, is common across regions. Following Levin, Lin and Chu (2002) (LLC hereafter), we use Equation (2) to test the null hypothesis that the common slope has a unit root ($H_0: \rho = 0$) against the alternative that all series x_i are stationary.

The limit of the LLC test is the assumption of homogeneity of the persistence parameter (ρ); thus, we employ the tests of Im, Pesaran and Shin (2003) (hereafter IPS). This test utilises a panel version of the Dickey Fuller model, which can be specified as follows:

$$\Delta x_{it} = \alpha_i d_{m,t} + \rho_i x_{it-1} + \sum_{i=1}^N \beta_i x_{it-1} + \varepsilon_{it}$$

The IPS test has a null hypothesis that all regional interest rate rates differentials are random walks with drift:

$$H_{0} = \rho_{1} = \rho_{2} = \dots = \rho_{i} = 0 \tag{3}$$

against the alternative that all series are stationary:

$$H_1 = \rho_1 < 0, \dots, \rho_i < 0 \tag{4}$$

The test statistic, $Z_{\tilde{i}bar}$ is based on an average of the individual cross-section ADF test statistics. In particular,

$$Z_{\tilde{t}bar} = \sqrt{N} \left\{ \tilde{t} \, bar_{NT} - E(\tilde{t}_T) \right\} / \sqrt{Var(\tilde{t}_T)} \qquad \Longrightarrow \mathsf{N}(0,1) \tag{5}$$

where N(0,1) is the standard normal distribution. Also $\tilde{t} bar_{NT} = 1/N \sum_{t=1}^{N} \tilde{t}_{iT}$ and \tilde{t}_{iT} are the standard cross section unit root test statistics.

The third test we implement uses the Breitung (2000) method. This test corrects for the loss of power associated with the IPS when individual ADF tests include a trend in the specification; the basic approach is similar to the LLC test, but it modifies it in two ways. First the exogenous component is not removed when the standardized proxies are computed. Then the proxies are transformed and detrended.⁶

The first step is the same as in the LLC test, but only $\Delta y_{i,t-1}$ is used to obtain the residuals; they are then adjusted for the individual-specific variances. In the second step, the estimated residuals are transformed and detrended as:

$$\varepsilon_{it}^{\star} = \sqrt{\frac{T-t}{(T-t+1)}} \left(\tilde{\varepsilon}_{it} - \frac{\tilde{\varepsilon}_{it+1} + \dots + \tilde{\varepsilon}_{itT}}{T-t} \right)$$

And

 $v_{it}^* = \tilde{v}_{it-1} - \tilde{v}_{it}$ with intercept and no trend

 $v_{it}^* = \tilde{v}_{it-1} - \tilde{v}_{it} - \frac{t-1}{T} \tilde{v}_{iT}$ with intercept and trend

The final step consist in running the following pooled regression

 $s^*_{it} = \rho v^*_{it-1} - s^*_{it}$

The null hypothesis of no unit root will be determined using the derived t-statistic which is distributed as N(0, 1).

Finally, we implement the Maddala and Wu (1999) test. They show that under the null-hypothesis of unit root for all the cross-section N, the following asymptotic result holds true:

$$-2\sum_{j=1}^{N}\log(\pi_{j}) \rightarrow \chi^{2}_{2N}$$

where π_j is the p-value for the unit root test for any cross-section *j*.

The results of the tests are presented in the next section.

4. The four tests: empirical results

The unit root tests presented above are implemented using three different cross sections for both interest rate premium and spread. We first test for the presence of a unit root between region i and the national value. The number of lags in each model is determined by the Schwarz (SIC) information criterion.

The results for the premium are presented in Tables 2a-3d, while the results for the spread are in Tables 4a-5d. Both sets of results indicate that we cannot accept the alternative hypothesis that shocks to interest rate premia and spreads are not persistent across the regions. This is a clear indication of non-convergence across Italian regions.

[TABLES 2, 4, 5]

We then test whether this persistence is present across regions within the groupings of regions according to macro areas; thus, we conside the differential between the premium (spread) in region *i* and the value of the corresponding macro area. The results are set out in Tables 3a-3d for interest rate premia, and 5a-5d for interest rate spreads. In all cases except two (the North-east and South), we can safely reject the unit root hypothesis at the usual statistical level of confidence. Hence there is a clear indication that interest rate premia and spreads do not tend to converge with the national value, but rather they follow the dynamics of the relevant macro areas. To determine whether the final results are driven by some of the regions, we can look at the Maddala and Wu (1999) intermediate test; the results are reported in Table 6. For

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the spread the results indicate that the only two regions which accept the null of unit root are Umbria and Liguria. For the premium, we can say that the North West and the South accept the null hypothesis for all regions, however in the other two macro areas we have two regions which are stationary; these are Liguria and Lombardia for the North West and Emilia Romagna e Marche for the Centre.

[TABLE 6]

The persistence of wide spreads can be explained by a number of systemic problems that, for instance, can be applied to the majority of the southern Italian regions. These could include a lack of adequate competition in the region's banking sector, the apparent market risk, bank unreliability, diseconomies of scale due to the small (regional) markets, high fixed and operating costs and the lack of development of regional economies and their financial markets.⁷

Having shown that the interest rate spreads and premia are stationary in all cases but two, we can now estimate a simple AR(1) fixed effect model to verify whether we are in the presence of conditional or unconditional convergence.⁸ The fixed effect estimation is reported in Table 7. The resulting *F-test* strongly rejects the null hypothesis that the effects are redundant. Since we cannot accept the hypothesis that all fixed effects are equal to zero, we can conclude that there is evidence of conditional convergence of regional interest rate premia/spreads.

[TABLE 7]

5. Speed of convergence

The above results indicate that there is convergence towards some common mean. In this section, we extend the analysis further, and ask how quickly the spread (premium) reverts back to that mean following a shock. The starting point is the traditional AR(1) equation:

 $p_{i,\varepsilon} = \alpha_i + (1-\beta)p_{i,\varepsilon-1} + \varepsilon_{\varepsilon}$

where **P**_{i.t} is the difference between the spread (premium) between region *i* and the macro-area average, α_i a region specific fixed effect, $\boldsymbol{\epsilon}_t$ the error term. The one period lag (j=1) is usually employed in empirical studies (see Dobado and Marrero, 2005, and Wolszczak-Derlacz, 2008). The estimated coefficient is an indicator of β -convergence. In particular, two parameters of interest can be immediately revealed from the regression results. The speed of convergence (λ) and the half lives (HL) of shocks are calculated as:

 $\lambda = -\ln(1-\beta)$

 $HL = -\frac{\ln(0.5)}{\lambda}$

HL indicates how many years it takes for the impact of a unit shock to halve.⁹ In the case of higher autoregressive orders in the convergence model, the absolute value of the first order coefficient is a suitable approximation to obtain measures for the speed of convergence and half lives.

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A further methodological consideration concerns the choice of estimators to accommodate the joint presence of dynamics and unobserved heterogeneity in individual regions. In previous literature, the first difference-IV estimators, the General Method of Moments (GMM) estimators and system GMM are usually applied to solve the first order dynamic panel data models. However, these methods are only efficient asymptotically and thus are not suitable for small data samples. Bruno (2005) pointed out that the weakness of these estimators is that their properties hold for large N, so they can be severely biased and imprecise in panel data with a small number of cross-sectional units. For our data the GMM estimator does not seem advisable since we have small N and large T. Therefore we use the least squares dummy variable corrected (LSDVC) method proposed by Kiviet (1995 and 1999), and extended by Bruno (2005a and 2005b). The LSDVC offers a method for samples where N is small or only moderately large. This methodology has been proved to be a suitable to correct the bias in the LSDV estimator and in the case of small samples

[TABLE 8]

The results are shown in table 8. Our estimates of the speed of convergence suggest that it is higher in the North West compared to the other macro areas and it takes about 1.5 quarters for the spread and less than two quarters for premium to reduce by half the shock. Another interesting observation is therefore that the speed of convergence is not of similar magnitude across all macro areas.

It is interesting to note that the estimated speed of convergence is actually slower for the South than for the other areas. This result may be explained by the economic conditions of this area which, as we mentioned in section 4, play a crucial role in determining the convergence process.

The nature and efficiency of the financial sectors have been found to be the major reasons behind differences in speed of convergence across different countries and across different areas inside one country. In economies with weak financial sectors, the intermediation costs are much larger. These costs have been found to be responsible for high spreads and longer speeds of adjustment. In particular, for the case of the South of Italy we can mention high intermediation costs, the lack of adequate competition, the diseconomies of scale due to the small size of markets, high fixed and operating costs, the existence of regulatory controls, and maybe even more important, perceived market risks.

6. Policy Implications

Our evidence of persistent regional differentials implies that any asymmetric shock will not be absorbed by capital flows within Italy, but will rather be reflected in persistent regional differences in credit conditions. The further implication is that any change in monetary policy, as one such shock, does not have the same impact across Italy. This is consistent with evidence for Spain and the UK (e.g. Rodriguez-Fuentes, 2005; Dow and Montagnoli, 2007).

One policy implication of our research is therefore that, for regional economic convergence in Italy, measures are required to ease credit conditions in the lowergrowth regions if greater regional convergence is to be achieved. The convergence within the macro regions that we have identified reflects greater homogeneity of credit conditions within these regions. Further consideration of how this has been

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achieved would serve to illuminate how such an outcome might be obtained for the nation as a whole. But the suggestion that there is homogeneity within regions is consistent with the view that regional economies do have distinctive identities, and are therefore amenable to regional policies.

Distinctive regional identities allow us to identify regional characteristics in credit markets. In particular, in line with the Post Keynesian theory of regional finance developed by Dow (1982) and Rodriguez Fuentes (2005), we would expect to find homogeneity within the macro regions with respect both to supply of credit and demand, but heterogeneity between them. Thus poorer regions facing adverse shocks would be characterised by unfavourable risk assessment on the part of banks in other regions, which reflected lower levels of knowledge about borrowers (particularly SMEs) as much as the assessment of risk itself. If poorer regions tend to fare worse under adverse shocks, credit conditions will in any case reflect this. Further, borrowers would be less willing to accept the consequences of vulnerability associated with high debt levels, would attempt to maintain relatively liquid portfolios more generally, and would satisfy this by buying financial assets issued outside the region (partly because the financial centre is elsewhere), further weakening the market in local assets. While local banks would have better knowledge of borrowers, high local liquidity preference leading to capital outflows to other regions would weaken their capacity to lend. Conversely the more prosperous regions (which also tend to house the larger financial institutions) would experience more favourable risk assessment based on more robust knowledge, credit conditions would reflect the normal more favourable response to adverse shocks, and lower liquidity preference would encourage more borrowing, and more investment in illiquid assets. The ability

to respond better to adverse shocks would be further reinforced by the capital inflows from the poorer regions.

If this is indeed the case for the different macro regions in Italy, then policy measures at least to improve information flows on borrowers in the poorer regions would provide a foundation for more informed risk assessment, which would reduce the differential on interest charges and supply of credit. Support for regional financial institutions would be one way of addressing the difficulty of accessing credit from large remote financial institutions. But the absence of convergence between regions is self-reinforcing, in that the divergent response to adverse shocks causes credit conditions (both demand and supply) to diverge, which reinforces the divergent response. The only substantial way of breaking out of this vicious cycle is public sector financial institutions specifically designed to improve credit conditions in poorer regions, or regional policy based on fiscal measures. If this could achieve economic convergence, then that would in itself bring about convergence of credit conditions to a significant extent. Indeed, since monetary policy is likely to have divergent effects on different regions, regional policy is required, even if only to offset the effects of national macroeconomic policy.

Finally, if there are interest rate differentials within nations, we should expect differentials also within larger economic areas. Yet EMU was expected to bring about interest rate convergence. Indeed, as de Grauwe (2003: 136) puts it: '[T]he interest rate convergence criterion [for EMU entry] is redundant. As soon as countries are expected to satisfy the other criteria, market forces make sure that the interest rates quickly converge'. But to the extent that national interest rate data suggest convergence at the national level, our evidence suggests that this masks divergence within each national economy.

7. Conclusion

Our study has used a novel set of measures of regional financial credit conditions to assess the argument that financial markets within currency areas promote regional convergence. Using a series of panel unit root tests on panel interest rate data, we have shown that Italy is characterized by four macro-areas which follow different dynamics. Since the Italian regions operate under a single currency area, theory suggests that there are enough conditions for the convergence of interest rates towards an average national level (net of single region risk). However, the widespread perception, confirmed by our results, is that interest rate convergence did not occur in Italy, either before or after membership of EMU.

In particular, our empirical results suggest that the twenty regions do not move together. Convergence is found within, but not across, the four macro regions: North-East, North-West, Central and South. Despite the theoretical consensus about the factors that can contribute to regional differences in spreads and premia, there is a lack of literature analysing the convergence towards macro regions. This, together with the large interest rate spreads and premia which are evident between the Italian macro regions, in our opinion, warrant further investigation. Indeed our study lends support to the idea that similar investigations could be revealing for other countries where such data are available.

The evidence we have found of homogeneity within macro regions allows an analysis of characteristics particular to different regions, and thus consideration of policy addressed to the absence of regional convergence which we have identified. This runs counter to a recent trend to downplay regional economic identity, relative to the role of cities for example, and thus to downplay also the potential role for regional policy.

With a historical pattern of divergence between macro regions we can expect persistence of regional differences in credit conditions, both on the supply and demand side. If indeed we cannot rely on capital flows within national markets to promote convergence, and indeed if instead they promote divergence, then some policy response is called for. Addressing these differences requires attention to the institutional structure of banking from the point of view of the regions. Otherwise the vicious cycle of absence of convergence requires a fiscal response to promote the economic convergence which would go a long way to promoting convergence of credit conditions.

In order to reduce differences between the credit conditions in the different macro regions, we have suggested improved information flows on the weaker regions. But even more effective would be active state involvement in regional credit markets through dedicated state-run financial institutions. These institutions would be designed to improve credit conditions in weaker regions in general, but also aim to assist adjustment to particular shocks, including the regional component of monetary policy shocks. The origins of regional divergence lie predominantly in structural factors relating to location, industrial and sectoral composition, and the regional labour market. But our evidence suggests that the evolution of financial structure and financial behaviour have also become part of the structural problem. Efforts to make financial conditions more homogeneous across regions could, instead, help to ameliorate the other structural problems and promote regional convergence.

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Table 1. Descriptive statistics

	Interest rate spread			Interest rate premium		
	Moon	n Std Correl	Moon	Std	Correl	
	Wiean	Deviation	(r _i , r _N)	wiean	Deviation	(r _i , r _N)
Political Region						
Abruzzi	-2.23	0.77	0.25	6.01	0.47	0.44
Basilicata	-2.68	0.89	-0.37	6.73	0.75	-0.16
Calabria	-3.46	1.06	0.04	7.82	0.84	0.00
Campania	-2.81	0.82	0.13	6.83	0.34	0.07
Emilia Romagna	-1.53	0.51	0.02	4.55	0.44	0.15
Friuli Ven.Giu	-2.03	0.68	-0.48	5.07	0.57	-0.47
Lazio	-1.97	0.85	-0.15	4.80	0.68	-0.38
Liguria	-2.35	0.82	0.15	5.95	0.53	-0.10
Lombardia	-1.18	0.66	0.04	4.16	0.57	-0.18
Marche	-1.59	0.55	0.02	4.69	0.59	-0.15
Molise	-3.37	0.65	-0.21	7.15	0.50	-0.11
Piemonte	-1.90	0.89	0.23	5.06	0.64	-0.09
Puglia	-2.82	0.79	0.07	6.71	0.56	-0.16
Sardegna	-2.49	0.91	-0.48	6.29	0.78	-0.03
Sicilia	-3.02	0.65	-0.27	6.85	0.78	-0.13
Toscana	-1.78	0.57	-0.08	4.95	0.43	0.07
Trentino Alto Adige	-1.19	0.40	-0.19	4.37	0.79	0.07
Umbria	-2.37	0.61	-0.16	5.88	0.51	0.03
Val d'Aosta	-2.51	0.87	-0.20	6.01	0.71	-0.19
Veneto	-1.76	0.50	0.30	5.16	0.36	0.18
Economic Region						
North-West	-2.03	0.74	-0.006	5.21	0.52	0.77
North-East	-1.61	0.40	-0.11	4.87	0.42	0.90
Centre	-1.92	0.57	-0.05	5.34	0.51	-0.05
South	-2.95	0.65	-0.01	6.92	0.54	0.94
National	-3.19	1.21		6.70	1.28	

Table 2a. Premium (all re	egions – National) Individual effects	Individual effects and individual linear trends
Levin, Lin & Chu t*	-0.56	0.32
Breitung t-stat		-0.50
Im, Pesaran and Shin W-stat	-0.26	0.95
ADF - Fisher Chi-square	30.09	36.62

Notes: Null: Unit root; Newey-West bandwidth selection using Bartlett kernel; Probabilities for Fisher tests are computed using an asymptotic Chi-square distribution. All other tests assume asymptotic normality. *, **, and *** indicate significance at the 10%, 5%, and 1% level, respectively.

Table 2b. Premium (North-East – National)

	Individual effects	Individual effects and individual linear trends
Levin, Lin & Chu t*	-0.14	1.36
Breitung t-stat		-1.07
Im, Pesaran and Shin W-stat	-0.16	-0.74
ADF - Fisher Chi-square	4.60	11.19 *
\mathbf{N}_{1}		

Notes: See Table 2a

Table 2c. Premium (North-West – National)

	Individual effects	Individual effects and individual linear trends
Levin, Lin & Chu t*	0.58	0.09
Breitung t-stat		0.38
Im, Pesaran and Shin W-stat	0.66	1.59
ADF - Fisher Chi-square	3.47	1.77
Matan Cas Table 2a		

Notes: See Table 2a

Table 2d. Premium (Central – National)

	Individual effects	Individual effects and individual linear trends
Levin, Lin & Chu t*	-0.45	-0.24
Breitung t-stat		-0.02
Im, Pesaran and Shin W-stat	-0.26	1.59
ADF - Fisher Chi-square	10.90	4.55
Natan Cas Table 2a		

Notes: See Table 2a

Table 2e. Premium (South – National)

	Individual effects	Individual effects and individual linear trends
Levin, Lin & Chu t*	-0.86	-0.32
Breitung t-stat		-0.71
Im, Pesaran and Shin W-stat	-0.61	-0.63
ADF - Fisher Chi-square	11.12	19.11 *

Notes: See Table 2a

Table 3a. Premium North-East

	Individual effects	Individual effects and individual linear trends
Levin, Lin & Chu t*	-1.22	-0.06
Breitung t-stat		-0.85
Im, Pesaran and Shin W-stat	-0.98	0.26
ADF - Fisher Chi-square	7.88	4.01
N		

Notes: See Table 2a

Table 3b. Premium North-West

	Individual effects	Individual effects and individual linear trends
Levin, Lin & Chu t*	-2.85 ***	-3.23 ***
Breitung t-stat		-2.59 ***
Im, Pesaran and Shin W-stat	-3.30 ***	-2.55 ***
ADF - Fisher Chi-square	25.65 ***	19.56 ***
Natas Saa Tabla 2a		

Notes: See Table 2a

Table 3c. Premium Central

	Individual effects	Individual effects and individual linear trends
Levin, Lin & Chu t*	-2.16 ***	-3.64 ***
Breitung t-stat		-1.99 ***
Im, Pesaran and Shin W-stat	-2.58 ***	-2.97 ***
ADF - Fisher Chi-square	23.09 ***	33.19 ***
Notes: See Table 2a		

Notes: See Table 2a

Table 3d. Premium South

	Individual effects	Individual effects and individual linear trends	
Levin, Lin & Chu t*	-3.44 ***	-3.54 ***	
Breitung t-stat		-3.21 ***	
Im, Pesaran and Shin W-stat	-3.62 ***	-3.24 ***	
ADF - Fisher Chi-square	33.83 ***	29.26 ***	
Notes: See Table 2a			

Table 4a. Spread (all regions – National)

\mathbf{I} $\langle \mathbf{O}$			
	Individual effects	Individual effects and individual	
		linear trends	
Levin, Lin & Chu t*	-0.89	-0.06	
Breitung t-stat		-1.65 **	
Im, Pesaran and Shin W-stat	-1.33 *	1.39	
ADF - Fisher Chi-square	35.76	25.72	
N. 0 T.11.0			

Notes: See Table 2a

Table 4b. Spread (North-East – National)

	Individual effects	Individual effects	
		and individual	
		linear trends	
Levin, Lin & Chu t*	-0.35	0.65	
Breitung t-stat		-0.61	
Im, Pesaran and Shin W-stat	-0.37	1.34	
ADF - Fisher Chi-square	5.26	1.39	
Notes: See Table 2a			

Notes: See Table 2a

Table 4c. Spread (North-West – National)

L N			
	Individual effects	Individual effects	
		and individual	
		linear trends	
Levin, Lin & Chu t*	-0.26	-0.37	
Breitung t-stat		-0.39	
Im, Pesaran and Shin W-stat	-0.29	0.89	
ADF - Fisher Chi-square	6.53	3.11	
Notes: See Table 2a			

Table 4d. Spread (Central – National)

	Individual effects	Individual effects and individual	
		linear trends	
Levin, Lin & Chu t*	-0.01	0.11	
Breitung t-stat		-0.44	
Im, Pesaran and Shin W-stat	-0.76	1.52	
ADF - Fisher Chi-square	13.28	5.00	
N (0 T 11 0			

Table 4e. Spread (South – National)

in, i couran and onni vi otat	0.70	1.02	
ADF - Fisher Chi-square	13.28	5.00	
Notes: See Table 2a			
Table 4e. Spread (South –	National)		
	Individual effects	Individual effects	
		and individual	
		linear trends	
Levin, Lin & Chu t*	-1.33 *	-0.48	
Breitung t-stat		-2.05 **	
Im, Pesaran and Shin W-stat	-1.14	-0.70	
ADF - Fisher Chi-square	14.08	16.23	

Notes: See Table 2a

Table 5a. Spread North-East

	Individual effects	Individual effects and individual	
		linear trends	
Levin, Lin & Chu t*	-2.98 ***	-2.42 ***	
Breitung t-stat		-3.75 ***	
Im, Pesaran and Shin W-stat	-3.83 ***	-3.17 ***	
ADF - Fisher Chi-square	25.84 ***	20.34 ***	

Notes: See Table 2a

Table 5b. Spread North-West

	Individual effects	Individual effects and individual	
		linear trends	
Levin, Lin & Chu t*	-6.51 ***	-5.74 ***	
Breitung t-stat		-3.67 ***	
Im, Pesaran and Shin W-stat	-6.35 ***	-5.08 ***	
ADF - Fisher Chi-square	54.02 ***	39.04 ***	

Notes: See Table 2a

Table 5c. Spread Central

	Individual effects	Individual effects and individual	
		linear trends	
Levin, Lin & Chu t*	-5.49 ***	-4.57 ***	
Breitung t-stat		-4.79 ***	
Im, Pesaran and Shin W-stat	-6.19 ***	-4.83 ***	
ADF - Fisher Chi-square	64.21 ***	46.54 ***	
Notes Cas Table 2.			

Table 5d. Spread South

ADF - Fisher Chi-square	64.21 ***	46.54 ***
Notes: See Table 2a		
Table 5d. Spread South		
	Individual effects	Individual effects
		and individual
		linear trends
Levin, Lin & Chu t*	-6.03 ***	-6.10 ***
Breitung t-stat		-5.34 ***
Im, Pesaran and Shin W-stat	-5.38 ***	-4.98 ***
ADF - Fisher Chi-square	50.55 ***	44.29 ***
Notes: See Table 2a		

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Table 6. Maddala and Wu intermediate results (p-value)

		Pre	mium	Spread		
	Regions	Individual Intercept	Individual intercept and trend	Individual Intercept	Individual intercept and trend	
	Friuli Ven.Giu	0.519	0.592	0.073	0.188	
North-East	Trentino A. A.	0.950	0.759	0.005	0.008	
	Veneto	0.937	0.996	0.028	0.152	
North-West	Lombardia	0.000	0.005	0.000	0.001	
	Piemonte	0.230	0.056	0.001	0.010	
	Liguria	0.061	0.091	0.224	0.731	
	🔹 Val d'Aosta	0.115	0.241	0.000	0.000	
	Abruzzi	0.077	0.268	0.015	0.081	
	Emilia Romagna	0.008	0.058	0.037	0.040	
	Lazio	0.425	0.741	0.048	0.000	
Centre	Marche	0.024	0.022	0.010	0.020	
	Molise	0.371	0.197	0.042	0.090	
	Toscana	0.037	0.198	0.057	0.110	
	Umbria	0.789	0.002	0.226	0.219	
South	Campania	0.194	0.309	0.044	0.173	
	Calabria	0.071	0.222	0.018	0.075	
	Basilicata	0.419	0.102	0.016	0.014	
	Puglia	0.522	0.867	0.049	0.290	
	Sicilia	0.440	0.108	0.061	0.016	
	Sardegna	0.452	0.115	0.031	0.009	

Notes: p-values of a null of unit root; the number of lagged difference terms was selected using the Schwarz (SIC) information criterion.

	Constant	AR(1) coeff.	F-test
Premium NE	-0.022	0.776 ***	F(2, 125) = 5.54 ***
Premium NW	0.038 **	0.782 ***	F(3, 167) = 4.36 ***
Premium Central	0.042 ***	0.763 ***	F(6, 293) = 5.12 ***
Premium South	0.042 **	0.686 ***	F(5, 251) = 6.01 ***
Spread NE	-0.018	0.519 ***	F(2,125) = 8.67 ***
Spread NW	-0.020	0.354 ***	F(3, 167) = 16.36 ***
Spread Central	-0.121 ***	0.371 ***	F(6, 293) = 15.37 ***
Spread South	-0.031	0.561 ***	F(5, 251) = 3.72 ***
Spread NE Spread NW Spread Central Spread South	-0.018 -0.020 -0.121 *** -0.031	0.519 *** 0.354 *** 0.371 *** 0.561 ***	F(2,125) = 8.67 *** $F(3, 167) = 16.36 ***$ $F(6, 293) = 15.37 ***$ $F(5, 251) = 3.72 ***$

Table 7: Pooled AR (1) estimation with fixed effect

Notes: The *F*-test null-hypothesis is that the individual effects are zero

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Table 8. Speed of adjustment

	Premium				Spread			
Regions	NE	NW	Centre	South	NE	NW	Centre	South
Speed of Convergence		0.369	0.281		0.447	1.165	0.683	0.468
Half-life of Shocks		1.879	2.463		1.552	0.595	1.016	1.482

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¹ See for example Angeloni *et al.* (2003), Artis (2003), De Grauwe and Mongelli (2005).

² See for example Aricó (2003), Barro and Sala-i-Martin (1991), Mauro (2004) and Topel (1999).

³ Overoptimistic (but relatively uninformed) expectations in central financial institutions may at times encourage significant capital inflows to peripheral regions in response to some new development, but with a high risk of strong reversals when expectations change (see Chick and Dow 1988).

⁴ The short-term interest rate is the interest rate earned by a debt instrument that will mature within one year. The long-term interest rate is the interest rate earned by a note or bond that matures in one or more years (Bank of Italy definitions).

⁵ Italy has 20 administrative regions; the economic regions reflect the different economic structures across Italy. They are defined as: North-West (Liguria, Piemonte, Valle d'Aosta, Lombardia), North-East (Friuli Venezia Giulia, Trentino Alto Adige, Veneto), Centre (Abruzzo, Emilia Romagna, Lazio, Marche, Molise, Toscana, Umbria), South and Islands (Basilicata, Calabria, Campania, Puglia, Sardegna, Sicilia). In the remainder of the text, the terms 'economic regions' and 'macro regions/areas' are used interchangeably.

⁶ For the full specification, see Breitung (2000)

⁷ See Bodo and Sestito (1989), Mauro and Podrecca (1994), Paci and Pigliaru (1995), Carmeci and Mauro (2002).

⁸ Formally we can write that there is *unconditional* convergence between two time series if $\lim_{k \to \infty} (y_{t+k}) = \alpha = 0$. Where y_{t+k} denotes current and past observations of the

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price differentials. If $\alpha \neq 0$ then convergence is said to be *conditional*. For a similar exercise see Bayer and Juessen (2007).

⁹ In other words this measure tells us how long it takes for the series to decrease by half after it has been hit by a shock. (Est)