

NEWS OF THE MONTH on EU-10 and CIS



November

News of the Month, on EU-10 and CIS

The ICEG European Center issues its monthly publication, which includes 2-4 brief analyses on macroeconomic and microeconomic issues. The publication focuses on two groups of countries: *Commonwealth of Independent States - CIS* (Armenia, Azerbaijan, Belarus, Georgia, Kazakhstan, Kyrgyzstan, Moldova, Russia, Tajikistan, Turkmenistan, Ukraine and Uzbekistan) and the ten postsoviet *New Member States of the European Union – EU-10* (Bulgaria, Czech Republic, Estonia, Hungary, Latvia, Lithuania, Poland, Romania, Slovakia and Slovenia).

Editor

Olivér Kovács okovacs@icegec.hu

About us

ICEG European Center is an independent economic research institute based in Budapest, Hungary. The Center was founded by Dr. Pál Gáspár in 2001.

Contact information

ICEG European Center, 5/B Kiralyhago Street Budapest, 1126 Hungary.

Phone: (+36) | 248 | 160. Fax: (+36) | 319 0628

E-mail: office@icegec.hu.Webpage: www.icegec.org

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From the 1800s to the future – Forecasts and fiscal Institutions

Olivér Kovács

Our article attempts to illustrate whether the use of fiscal institutions (e.g. independent fiscal councils) of certain European countries are taken into account by fiscal position-related forecasts reflecting that these institutionalisations positively affect the prognoses.¹

Background

On 29 November 2010 the European Economic Forecast – autumn 2010-2012 was published by the European Commission. It states that economic recovery is continuing however, it seems that GDP growth will be more moderate in 2010 and 2011 than expected by the spring forecast. For 2010-2011 the projected growth rate is at about 1.75% and for 2012 is around 2%. As regards fiscal performances, public deficit is expected to decline to about 4.25% of GDP, due to numerous fiscal consolidations.

Gazing at the recent development of fiscal positions of various EU countries, there were certain signs that the current financial and economic juncture summoned in a certain way both the spirit of the 1930s and of the early 1800s. On the one hand, the recent global economic crisis brought a Keynesian renaissance to life, namely countries have decided to intervene by significant fiscal stimulus in order to nourish the impaired demand. Since, monetary policy is not able to stimulate demand, fiscal policy became the major conductor of the process. The prerequisite of this is the recognition that the state, contrary to the citizens, is able to be swelled infinitely when the citizens' capacity to spend proves insufficient. Roosevelt's policy provided solid grounds for recovery by governmental expenditures. It goes without saying that Roosevelt would have been in conjunction with Keynes' suggestion regarding the deficit spending. What is more interesting is the fact that the demand stimulation turned into fiscal consolidation by 1936 causing a significant reduction in governmental expenditures. On the other hand, the contemporary practice of fiscal stimulus does not provide any peace-offering tranquillity, because the countries face an indebtedness-process tempting the basic feature of post-Napoleonic wars period when indebtedness of nations became dominant in the first half of 1800s.²

Taking into account that debt-to-GDP ratios started to permanently rise in most of the developed countries since the 1970s (IMF 2001), we can claim with reasonable certainty that curbing indebtedness is inevitable in numerous countries, if for no other reason than for the fact that macroeconomic stability and sustainable development require sustainable public finances. In an effort, lots of countries were about to wane their debt burdens in different ways between 1980s and 2000s (e.g., by implementing fiscal rules, or creating independent fiscal institutions as *Table 1* shows, and fiscal responsibility frameworks).

¹National fiscal institutions are independent bodies (e.g. councils), other than the central bank, tax office, government or parliament, that prepare macroeconomic forecasts for the budget, monitor fiscal performance and/or advise the government on fiscal policy issues.

² Defaults and reschedulings took place right after the Napoleonic Wars throughout Europe, e.g., France (1812); Germany (Hesse in 1914; Prussia in 1813; Westphalia in 1812); Greece (1829); The Netherlands (1814). It was well documented by Reinhart and Rogoff (2009) pp. 91.

| Country | Name of the institution | Date of creation |
|---------|--|------------------|
| AT | Government Debt Committee | 2002 |
| BE | High Council of Finance - Section "Public sector borrowing requirement" | 1989 |
| BE | National Accounts Institute | 1994 |
| DE | Advisory Board to the Federal Ministry of Finance | 1950 |
| DE | Joint Economic Forecast project group | 1950 |
| DE | Working Party on Tax Revenue Forecasting | 1955 |
| DE | German Council of Economic Experts | 1963 |
| DK | Danish Economic Council | 1962 |
| EE | National Audit Office of Estonia | 1990 |
| EL | Centre for Planning and Economic Research | 1959 |
| ES | Court of Auditors | 1978 |
| ES | National Committee of Local Administration | 1985 |
| FR | Court of Accounts | 1807 |
| FR | Commission Economique de la Nation | 1952 |
| HU | State Audit Office | 1989 |
| IT | Institute for Studies and Economic Analyses | 1999 |
| LT | National Audit Office of Lithuania | 1990 |
| LU | Court of Auditors | 1999 |
| NL | Netherlands Bureau for Economic Policy Analysis | 1945 |
| PT | Court of Auditors | 1990 |
| PT | Unidade Técnica de Apoio Orçamental (UTAO) | 2006 |
| SE | National Institute of Economic Research | 1937 |
| SE | Swedish Fiscal Policy Council | 2007 |
| SI | Institute of Macroeconomic Analysis and Development | 1991 |
| UK | National Audit Office | 1983 |

TABLE 1. DEVELOPMENT OF FISCAL INSTITUTIONS IN EUROPEAN COUNTRIES

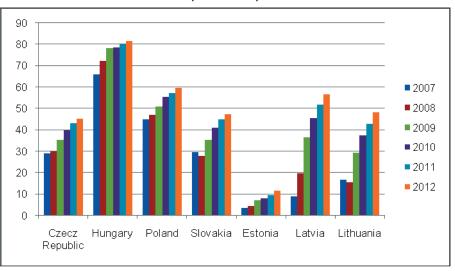
Source: European Commission (2008).

One might live under a delusion believing that all of these institutions would have the same standard characteristics whereby they are able to reduce the likelihood of indebtedness for all time. Instead, some countries have reached better performance with these institutions; others face further challenges. This *per se* confirms the existing differences among these independent institutions and explains in a certain way the various fiscal positions during the 2008 crisis.

Fiscal positions differ across countries in the era of crisis as well

Chart I illustrates the development of general government gross debts in Visegrad and Baltic countries in the period of 2007-2009; furthermore, it envisages the projections presented by the European Commission (2010) for 2011-2012.

CHART 1. GENERAL GOVERNMENT GROSS DEBT IN VISEGRAD AND BALTIC COUNTRIES IN 2007-2012 (% OF GDP)



Source: European Commission (2010) provided data and estimations for 2010-2012.

Nevertheless, if we broaden the geographical context and take a mere glimpse onto the recent development of debt-to-GDP ratios of EU15 nations we can claim with reasonable certainty that those who have not introduced any independent fiscal institution can be portrayed as countries possessing the highest debt levels among EU15 countries (*Chart* 2).³

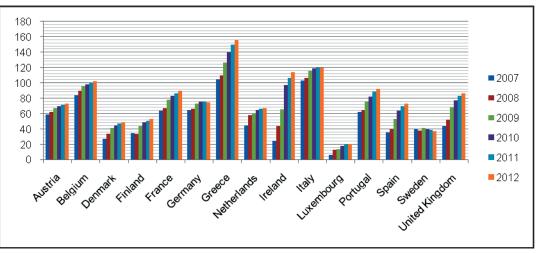


CHART 2. GENERAL GOVERNMENT GROSS DEBT IN EU15 COUNTRIES IN 2007-2012 (% OF GDP)

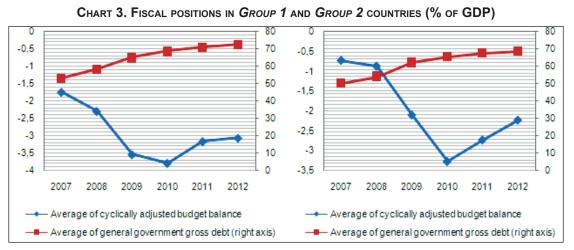
Source: data and estimations for 2010-2012 are provided by the European Commission (2010).

³Belgium's debt structure conveys a message that Belgians have a large amount of internal debt, contrary to Greece, Ireland, Italy and Portugal who have not got any independent fiscal institutions, but they are imperatively facing enormous volume of debt-to-GDP ratios.

Independent fiscal institutions

Fiscal rules were more or less inaugurated by most of EU14 countries since the 1980s. The only exceptions are Greece, Ireland, Italy and Portugal. Furthermore, there were some fiscal institutionalisations up until the midst of 2000s as well by designing independent fiscal councils invoked to foster the evolvement and solidification of better fiscal discipline.

While lots of countries have introduced such institutions by nowadays, we can distinguish among these institutions according to their authorities and tasks. Therefore we rank the countries using fiscal councils into 3 groups in order to decipher the councils' potential contribution to the improving fiscal discipline by the end of 2000s: Group I where the fiscal council's tasks imply the preparation of binding macro forecasts for budget; Group 2 where the councils are preparing non-binding macro forecasts for the state budget; and Group 3 where the council is responsible for monitoring the budget performance. In an effort to have a more comprehensive picture on the performance of countries establishing councils we also contemplate Group 4 countries without such fiscal institutions.4



Note: Chart on the left side refers to Group 1; chart on the right side refers to Group 2. Source: data and estimations for 2010-2012 are provided by the European Commission (2010).

As Chart 3 depicts, Group I countries, with independent fiscal institutions which also provide binding macroeconomic forecasts, have been experiencing a slower pace of decline in terms of cyclically adjusted budget balance relative to Group 2 countries where the macroeconomic forecasts of the fiscal councils are not binding.⁵

⁴ *Group 1*: Austria, Belgium, The Netherlands and Slovenia. *Group 2*: Denmark, Germany, France, Italy, Luxembourg, Sweden and United Kingdom. *Group 3*: Belgium, Denmark, Germany, Estonia, France, Hungary, Italy, Lithuania, The Netherlands, Portugal and Sweden. *Group 4*: Bulgaria, Cyprus, Czech Republic, Finland, Ireland, Latvia, Malta, Poland, Romania, Slovakia.

⁵However, the dept-to-GDP ratios of *Group 1* countries are higher than in case of *Group 2*, one should not ignore that the Belgian indebtedness can easily smuggle significant distortion into the observation due to its high, but primarily internal debt which seems to be financeable.

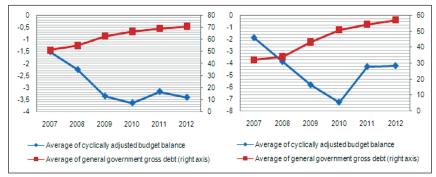


CHART 4. FISCAL POSITIONS IN GROUP 3 AND GROUP 4 COUNTRIES (% OF GDP)

Note: Chart on the left side refers to Group 3, chart on the right side refers to Group 4. Source: data and estimations for 2010-2012 are provided by the European Commission (2010).

Since economics teaches us for moderation both in terms of modesty and self-confidence, we have to be aware of the empirical findings suggested by Kennedy and Robbins (2001), namely of the experience that the determining and influential powers of fiscal rules on fiscal discipline are not very clear. Still, after mature deliberation on the development of the presented two indicators we can get to the conclusion that, *Group 4* countries without independent fiscal institutions seem to be in much worse fiscal conditions both in terms of the trajectory of cyclically adjusted budget balance and general government gross debt ratio.

Group 4 countries face an even higher decline than *Group* 3 where the independent fiscal institutions are not entitled to serve as a primary source of binding macroeconomic forecasts for the government in power. The forecasts for the period 2010-2012 provided by the European Commission capture the existence of independent fiscal institutions or their absence, because the improvements of *Group* 4's indicators conspicuously lag behind the other groups' developments. As a consequence, the Commission envisages that *Group* 4 countries will merely approach – even without reaching – the achievements in cyclically adjusted budget balance of *Group* 3 countries by 2012.

Conclusion

The fiscal policy accompanied by rules and independent institutions is *per* se not a 'celestial manna'; disciplined fiscal policy also requires a distinct commitment of the government. However, it seems that independent fiscal institutions enhance the acclimatisation of more disciplined public finances *via* serving transparency and more flexibility for the economic policy. Subsequently, the forecasts provided by the Commission also imply the influential power of fiscal councils on fiscal policy behaviour.

Fiscal institutions might be especially important when the fiscal rules do not represent enough coercive power in order to keep the fiscal condition in a manageable position. More precisely, when deficit targets are not realistic, where the consensual commitment to the fiscal discipline is suffering from political unwillingness as it was pinpointed by Schick (2003), Corbacho and Schwartz (2007).

Adopting and strengthening these institutions rather than getting rid of them through 'decouncilisation' are in line with the international trends. Additionally, it would equal to the endeavour to oust the spirit of the indebtedness by providing positive impetus on an impaired fiscal performance and ultimately on sustainable economic development in the long run.

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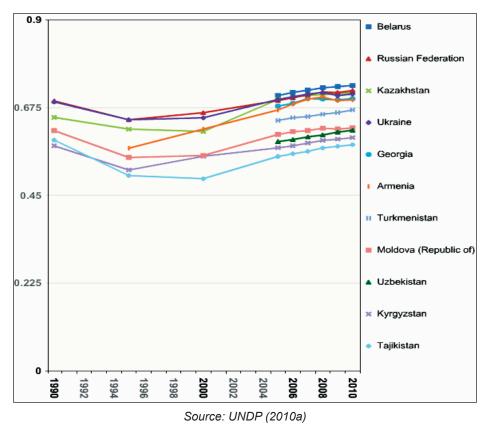
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BELARUS IN THE LABYRINTH OF ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT INDICES

Ágnes Orosz

The 20th anniversary edition of Human Development Report was released 4 November 2010. Looking at the performance of CIS countries we can observe that Belarus outstrips all CIS countries in ranking of human development. By 2010 Belarus has made a leap from the 68th to the 61st place; this improvement means that the index increased from 0.729 to 0.732. Belarus is ahead of Russia which occupies the 65th place, Kazakhstan is the 66th, and Ukraine is at the 69th place. On *Chart 1* we can review the development of HDI in CIS countries.





Examining the components of HDI we can conclude that health is a driving force of the good performance, but it must be stated that life expectancy worsened dramatically during the 1990s and has not improved significantly since 2000 when it reached its turning point.

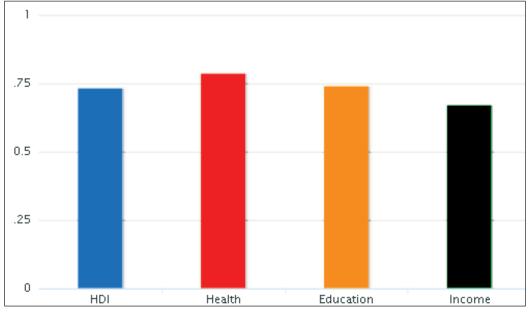
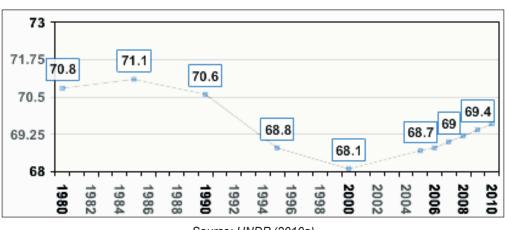
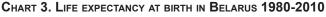


CHART 2. HDI COMPONENTS FOR BELARUS IN 2010

Source: UNDP (2010b)

Chart 3 shows the development of life expectancy at birth in Belarus. Belarus's infant mortality rate is below the international average, but it has improved in some degree since 2000. The proportion of the undernourished population is less than 4% in Belarus which means top 10 ranking. In terms of number of hospital beds per capita is the second highest, but just 93% of the total population has access to good sanitation facilities, which is just above the global average (Legatum Prosperity Index 2010). There are several on-going UNDP projects in order to improve the health care system (e.g. "Tuberculosis" Programme or the HIV Prevention Programme), because the number affected by tuberculosis was above the international average. In order to improve health care services a new financing system based on health care expenditures per capita has been introduced.⁶





Source: UNDP (2010a)

It is important to mention that Belarus' ranking is the best but all the other CIS countries have reached outstanding improvement in their HDI ranking. *Table 1* shows HDI improvement in CIS countries, Turkmenistan, Azerbaijan and Moldova have undergone significant improvement, at about 20 rankings.

⁶Medical aid has been restructured and the redistribution of resources has been improved to a more economical pattern.

| Country | HDI rank (2009) | HDI rank (2010) | Improvement in the ranking |
|--------------------|--------------------|--------------------|----------------------------|
| Armenia | 84 | 76 | 8 |
| Azerbaijan | 86 | 67 | 19 |
| Belarus | 68 | 61 | 7 |
| Georgia | 89 | 74 | 15 |
| Kazakhstan | 82 | 66 | 16 |
| Kyrgyz Republic | 120 | 109 | 11 |
| Moldova | 117 | 99 | 18 |
| Russian Federation | 71 | 65 | 6 |
| Tajikistan | 127 | 112 | 15 |
| Turkmenistan | 109 | 87 | 22 |
| Ukraine | 85 | 69 | 16 |
| Uzbekistan | 119 | 102 | 17 |

TABLE 1. HDI RANKING IMPROVEMENT FROM 2009 TO 2010

Source: UNDP (2010a)

The premise of HDI is simple: national development should be measured not simply by national income, as had long been the practice, but also by life expectancy and literacy (Human Development Report 2010), because economic growth as a measure fails to account for some important social and economic factors. There are many criticisms and possible drawbacks of HDI, for example the gross enrolment overstates the amount of schooling, giving equal weights to the components can be problematic, or the lack of quality measurement.

TABLE 2. GNI PER CAPITA, INCOME LEVEL AND POVERTY HEADCOUNT RATIO IN CIS COUNTRIES

| Country | GNI per capita (2009) (in US dollars) | Income level (2009) | Poverty headcount ratio at national poverty line (% of population) - latest data |
|--------------------|---|------------------------|---|
| Armenia | 3100 | Lower middle income | 50.9% (2001) |
| Azerbaijan | 4840 | Upper middle income | 49.6% (2001) |
| Belarus | 5540 | Upper middle income | 17.4% (2004) |
| Georgia | 2530 | Lower middle income | 54.5% (2003) |
| Kazakhstan | 6740 | Upper middle income | 15.4% (2002) |
| Kyrgyz Republic | 870 | Low income | 43.1% (2005) |
| Moldova | 1590 | Lower middle income | 48.5% (2002) |
| Russian Federation | 9370 | Upper middle income | 19.6% (2002) |
| Tajikistan | 700 | Low income | 53.5% (2007) |
| Turkmenistan | 3420 | Lower middle income | n.a. |
| Ukraine | 2800 | Lower middle income | 19.5% (2003) |
| Uzbekistan | 1100 | Lower middle income | 27.2% (2003) |

Source: World Bank (2010)

Regarding HDI ranking we can observe remarkable differences; now let us observe the standard indices for economic development. The most common measure of economic development is gross national income per capita in accordance with the World Bank's income-based country classification. In calculating gross national income (GNI) and GNI per capita in U.S. dollars for certain operational purposes, the World Bank uses the Atlas conversion factor (adjusting exchange rate fluctuations).

Examining GNI per capita we can conclude that in Belarus the income level is upper middle income with relative low poverty headcount ratio at national poverty line according to the World Bank classification, but GNI per capita is one of the lowest among upper middle income level CIS countries. Tajikistan and the Kyrgyz Republic are low income level countries in which GNI per capita is less than 1000 \$ and the poverty headcount ratio at national poverty line is extremely high. The poverty headcount ratio is the highest in Georgia, more than 54 per cent.

Per capita GNI comparisons are exaggerated by the use of official exchange rates to convert the countries' national currency figures into U.S. dollars. This conversion does not measure the relative domestic purchasing power of different currencies (Todaro - Smith 2009), it needs some rectification. To this end, we observe the ranking of CIS countries by using GDP per capita at purchasing power parity.

| GDP per capita (PPP) | Ranking |
|----------------------|---|
| 5900 | 109 |
| 9900 | 88 |
| 11600 | 78 |
| 4500 | 118 |
| 11400 | 80 |
| 2100 | 135 |
| 2400 | 132 |
| 15200 | 63 |
| 1800 | 137 |
| 6700 | 103 |
| 6400 | 105 |
| 2800 | 129 |
| | 5900 9900 11600 4500 11400 2100 2400 15200 1800 6700 6400 |

TABLE 3. GDP PER CAPITA (PPP) ESTIMATED FOR 2009 IN CIS COUNTRIES

Source: CIA World Factbook (2010)

Comparing the different ranking methods we can see obvious disparities e.g., in terms of HDI ranking or GDP per capita (PPP) ranking. Consequently HDI in conjunction with traditional economic measures of development greatly increases our understanding of the CIS countries' real development.

It is salient that only in the case of the Russian Federation is ranking of GNI per capita better than HDI ranking. In the case of Belarus there is no difference between the different rankings. More surprising is the fact that Georgia's GNI per capita ranking proved much worse (by 26 places) than its HDI ranking.

| Country | GNI per capita (PPP 2008, US dollars) | GNI per capita rank minus HDI rank (2010) |
|--------------------|--|--|
| Armenia | 5495 | 9 |
| Azerbaijan | 8747 | 8 |
| Belarus | 12926 | I |
| Georgia | 4902 | 26 |
| Kazakhstan | 10234 | 6 |
| Kyrgyz Republic | 2291 | 17 |
| Moldova | 3149 | 9 |
| Russian Federation | 15258 | -15 |
| Tajikistan | 2020 | 22 |
| Turkmenistan | 7052 | I |
| Ukraine | 6535 | 20 |
| Uzbekistan | 3085 | 17 |

| TABLE 4. COMPARISON OF GNI PER CAPITA | A (PPP) AND HDI RANKING IN CIS COUNTRIES |
|---------------------------------------|--|
|---------------------------------------|--|

Source: Human Development Report (2010)

Other measures of development

To measure development the UN has introduced GDI (gender-related development index). The aim of the index is to show inequalities between men and women in the following areas: long and healthy life, knowledge, and a decent standard of living. To understand development in a broader sense, GDI (a supplementary index to the Human Development Index) can be meant as a starting point, to address the issue of health and overall well-being.

| Index | Longevity | Knowledge | Decent standard of living |
|-------|--|--|--|
| HDI | Life expectancy at birth | Adult literacy rate Combined primary, secondary and tertiary enrolment ratio | GDP per capita |
| GDI | Female and male life expectancy at birth | Female and male adult literacy rates Female and male combined enrolment ratios | Estimated income earned by females and males, reflecting women's and men's command over resources |

Source: Paul (2006) pp. 24

In Human Development Report 2009 Gender empowerment measure (GEM) is not ranked and valued for every CIS countries. It is conspicuous that the highest difference between HDI and GEM is in the Kyrgyz Republic, where the share of the seats in parliament held by women is one of the highest, but the ratio of estimated female to male earned income is relatively low. Another CIS country where we can observe a high difference between HDI and GEM is Moldova where the ratio of estimated female to male earned income is the highest between the CIS. In Belarus GEM is not ranked which has the highest HDI ranking, it is salient that the seats in parliament held by women is the highest among the CIS countries, but the ratio of estimated female to male earned income is medial.

| Country | | GEM | Seats in parliament held by | Ratio of estimated female to | Women received right to | | Women in ministerial |
|--------------------|--------|------|-----------------------------------|------------------------------------|----------------------------|-----------------------|--------------------------|
| | (2009) | rank | women (% of total) | male earned income | vote | stand for election | position (% of total) |
| Armenia | 84 | 93 | 8 | 0.57 | 1918 | 1918 | 6 |
| Azerbaijan | 86 | 100 | 11 | 0.44 | 1918 | 1918 | 7 |
| Belarus | 68 | n.a | 33 | 0.63 | 1918 | 1918 | 6 |
| Georgia | 89 | 105 | 6 | 0.38 | 1918, 1921 | 1918, 1921 | 18 |
| Kazakhstan | 82 | 73 | 12 | 0.68 | 1924, 1993 | 1924, 1993 | 6 |
| Kyrgyz Republic | 120 | 56 | 26 | 0.55 | 1918 | 1918 | 19 |
| Moldova | 117 | 66 | 22 | 0.73 | 1924, 1993 | 1924, 1993 | 11 |
| Russian Federation | 71 | 60 | 11 | 0.64 | 1918 | 1918 | 10 |
| Tajikistan | 127 | n.a | 20 | 0.65 | 1924 | 1924 | 6 |
| Turkmenistan | 109 | n.a | n.a | 0.65 | 1927 | 1927 | 7 |
| Ukraine | 85 | 86 | 8 | 0.59 | 1919 | 1919 | 4 |
| Uzbekistan | 119 | n.a | 16 | 0.64 | 1938 | 1938 | 5 |

| TABLE 6. | HDI AND | GDI | COMPONENTS | IN 2009 |
|----------|---------|-----|------------|---------|
| IADLE V. | | | | |

Source: Human Development Report (2009): Gender empowerment measure and its components

Human Development Report 2010 provides new indices, Inequality-adjusted HDI, Gender Inequality Index and Multidimensional Poverty Index, building on innovations in the field and advances in theory and data. Gender Inequality Index (GII)⁷ and Multidimensional Poverty Index are not valued for Belarus. Inequality-adjusted HDI is a measure of the average level of human development of people in a society once inequality is taken into account. It is possible to measure inequality as the difference between HDI and IHDI: the greater the difference between HDI and IHDI, the greater the inequality.

| Country | HDI value (2010) | IHDI value (2010) | Measure of inequality (HDI-IHDI) |
|--------------------|---------------------|----------------------|----------------------------------|
| Armenia | 0.695 | 0.619 | 0.076 |
| Azerbaijan | 0.713 | 0.614 | 0.099 |
| Belarus | 0.732 | 0.664 | 0.068 |
| Georgia | 0.698 | 0.579 | 0.119 |
| Kazakhstan | 0.714 | 0.617 | 0.097 |
| Kyrgyz Republic | 0.598 | 0.508 | 0.090 |
| Moldova | 0.623 | 0.539 | 0.084 |
| Russian Federation | 0.719 | 0.636 | 0.083 |
| Tajikistan | 0.580 | 0.469 | 0.111 |
| Turkmenistan | 0.669 | 0.493 | 0.176 |
| Ukraine | 0.710 | 0.652 | 0.058 |
| Uzbekistan | 0.617 | 0.521 | 0.096 |

TABLE 7. MEASURING INEQUALITY IN CIS COUNTRIES (HDI-IHDI) IN 2010

Source: Human Development Report (2010)

⁷GII is estimated for 138 countries, reveals gender disparities in reproductive health, empowerment and labour market participation. The importance of the index is that gender inequality remains a major barrier to human development.

Belarus is one of the most developed CIS countries according to HDI and the inequality is relatively low, on the contrary in Turkmenistan and Georgia HDI ranks medial, but inequality is extremely high.

Business environment can be measured – among others – by the credit ratings of independent institutions. Credit ratings institutions play a key role in financial market. Moody's, Standard and Poor's and Fitch differ in terms of the expected timing of default and by the Recovery Rate (UN 2008). Previously in July 2010 Moody's assigned B1 rating to Belarus, because in Moody's' view it has made some improvement in building institutional capacity (Moody's 2010). Fitch international ratings agency increased ratings for three Belarusian banks in October 2010 and changed the outlook for four banks with a share of foreign capital to stable. The long-term issuer default rating of Belarusbank, Belagroprombank and Belinvestbank were raised from B- to B. The outlook of Belarusbank and Belinvestbank has been changed from negative to stable. Contrary to Fitch, S&P's outlook for Belarus is negative (Standard and Poor's, 2010), more precisely S&P's consider the banking industry as one of the most risky (BICRA Group 9⁸ and Gross Problematic Assets range between 35-50 per cent).

The ratings improvements are based on the World Bank's Doing Business 2010 in which Belarus has moved up from 82th position in 2009 to 58th this year in terms of the ease of doing business in the country.

According to this report Belarus is ranked as the 7th country where the business start-up is the easiest. Belarus was one of the runner-up reformers, it simplified its registration formalities and start-up time was shortened by nearly 4 weeks.

| Easiest | RANK | Most difficult | RANK | |
|----------------|------|-------------------------|------|--|
| New Zealand | 1 | Cameroon | 174 | |
| Canada | 2 | lraq | 175 | |
| Australia | 3 | 3 West Bank and Gaza | | |
| Singapore | 4 | Djibouti | 177 | |
| Georgia | 5 | Equatorial Guinea | 178 | |
| Macedonia, FYR | 6 | Guinea | 179 | |
| Belarus | 7 | Haiti | 180 | |
| United States | 8 | Eritrea | 181 | |
| Ireland | 9 | Chad | 182 | |
| Mauritius | 10 | Guinea-Bissau | 183 | |

TABLE 8. WHERE IS BUSINESS START-UP EASY - AND WHERE NOT?

Source: Doing Business (2010) pp. 10

Examining the Doing Business 2010 report it is salient that between the top 10 reformers there are 4 CIS countries, namely the Kyrgyz Republic, Belarus, Moldova and Tajikistan.

⁸BICRAs classify countries into 10 groups ranging from the lowest-risk banking industries (Group 1) to the highest risk (Group 10) from a bank credit perspective.

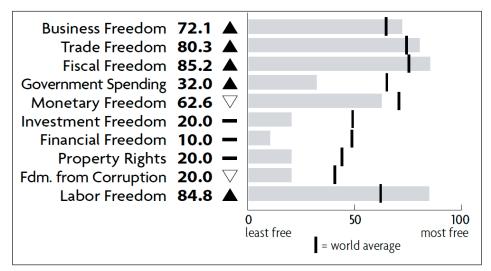
| Economy | Starting a business | Dealing with construction permits | Employing workers | Registering property | Getting credit | Protecting investors | Paying taxes | Trading across borders | Enforcing contracts | Closing a business |
|----------------------|---------------------|---|----------------------|----------------------|-------------------|-------------------------|-----------------|------------------------------|---------------------|-----------------------|
| Rwanda | ~ | | ~ | V | ~ | ~ | | ~ | | ~ |
| Kyrgyz Republic | V | ~ | × | v | V | | ~ | ~ | | |
| Macedonia, FYR | V | v | v | ~ | v | v | ~ | | | |
| Belarus | V | v | × | v | | | ~ | × | | |
| United Arab Emirates | ~ | v | | | | | | v | | |
| Moldova | ~ | | | v | | | ~ | | | |
| Colombia | ~ | × | | v | ~ | ~ | ~ | ~ | | v |
| Tajikistan | ~ | × | | | ~ | v | | | | v . |
| Egypt, Arab Rep. | ~ | × | | | ~ | | | | v | |
| Liberia | ~ | ~ | | | | | | ~ | | |

TABLE 9. THE TOP 10 REFORMERS IN 2008/09

Source: Doing Business (2010) pp. 2

If we assess the business environment of Belarus on the sheer basis of the World Bank Doing Business report (2010), it informs us about a compelling performance. Therefore it would be instructive to broaden the horizon of investigation by taking into account other business environment related indices such as the economic freedom index (by economic freedom the Heritage Foundation means the fundamental right of people to control their own labour and property). Examining HDI and business environment Belarus presents a really good appearance, but it is totally different in the case of economic freedom. In the 2010 Index Belarus ranks just as the 150th freest economy (freedom score is 48.7) mostly as a consequence of the Soviet-era policies and practices.





Source: Heritage Foundation (2010).

As a part of business environment it is a great disadvantage that corruption is extremely high and has deteriorated, and property rights, as well as financial and investment freedom have remained among the least free dimensions. In terms of business, trade, fiscal and labour freedom Belarus performs above world average.

Conclusion

One should not neglect the fact that the assessment of development of a given country could be misleading if it is based merely on one particular index. This phenomenon has also been justified in the case of Belarus which shows striking differences by contemplating various indices.

Accepting the imperfections of all indices leads us to examine a country's development in a broader sense by using different indices which are able to compensate the failures of each other. As far as Belarus is concerned, its HDI development is surpassing that of the other the CIS countries, however, it performs about the average in the field of GNI per capita. In terms of business environment the ease of business start-ups can be a good measure, but one has to take into account the effects of economic freedom, as well.

In the case of Belarus it is controversial that the improvement of institutional capacity has undergone simultaneously with the worsening of corruption. There is much to be done in order to improve the business environment in Belarus, because it needs the fundamental advancement of property rights, financial and investment freedom, as well.

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