

Đana Luša, Petar Kurečić

The economic growth of small states and small economies in regional economic organizations and integrations: similarities and differences

The Journal of Education, Culture and Society nr 1, 261-284

2014

Artykuł został opracowany do udostępnienia w internecie przez Muzeum Historii Polski w ramach prac podejmowanych na rzecz zapewnienia otwartego, powszechnego i trwałego dostępu do polskiego dorobku naukowego i kulturalnego. Artykuł jest umieszczony w kolekcji cyfrowej bazhum.muzhp.pl, gromadzącej zawartość polskich czasopism humanistycznych i społecznych.

Tekst jest udostępniony do wykorzystania w ramach dozwolonego użytku.

THE ECONOMIC GROWTH OF SMALL STATES AND SMALL ECONOMIES IN REGIONAL ECONOMIC ORGANIZATIONS AND INTEGRATIONS: SIMILARITIES AND DIFFERENCES

PETAR KUREČIĆ
Business School Zagreb
E-mail address: petar.kurecic@vpsz.hr



ĐANA LUŠA
Faculty of Political Science, Zagreb
E-mail address: giannalusa@yahoo.com

ABSTRACT

The authors examine the effect of membership of small states in regional economic organizations and integrations on the growth of GDP. The aim is to use cost-benefit analysis to answer the question of whether small states, and also small economies, achieve greater economic growth through regional economic organizations and integrations than those small states that are not small economies. Small states, as the subjects of research work, have been chosen precisely because of their size, here defined by quantitative criteria, but taking into account that relational criteria are very important for their positioning in international relations, such as greater exposure to external influences and their dependence on membership in regional economic organizations and integrations. The GDP of small states, in an attempt to answer the hypothesis, was followed for a period of twenty years. Characteristics that depend on regional affiliation of small states, as well as the similarities and differences between small states which are members of the same regional economic organizations/integrations, were also the subject of this paper.

Key words: small states, small economies, economic growth, regional economic organizations and integrations, gross domestic product (GDP).

INTRODUCTORY CONSIDERATIONS

The study of small states has always attracted the attention of the literary world due to the connotations tied to them, such as isolation, secrecy, leisurely and luxurious lifestyles, adventure. However, it was during the 60s and 70s of the past century that interest in their economic determinants and performance increased, based on the fact that the size of a country and its natural resources are important determinants of economic growth (Parsad, 2009, p. 44). In recent years, the economic approach to the study of small states was differentiated, seeing them as more fragmented due to economic determinants and categorizing the relation-

ship between small and large states. In doing so, there is still a lack of economic analysis of the differential indicators among small states.

Thorhallsson addresses this inconsistency by proposing a new method of determining size and influence. He provides six categories when determining state size: (1) the fixed size of the state; (2) whether a state can actually maintain its own sovereignty at the international level; (3) a state's political size, including military and administrative capabilities, internal cohesion and external unity; (4) its economic size; (5) how the state is viewed by actors both domestic and foreign; and (6) the views of the governing elite regarding the possibilities and priorities of the state internationally (Thorhallsson, 2006, p. 8-14).

Small states are different in a large number of aspects, especially with regard to the degree of vulnerability to changes in their external environment. A large number of small states formed regional integration agreements (RIAs) such as CARICOM (Caribbean Community and Common Market) and the OECS (the Organization of Eastern Caribbean States), which allow preferential trade access to member states, but at the same time maintain an unaltered external trade policy toward the rest of the world, thereby resulting in reduced profits of the entire block (Schiff, 1997). Large member states benefit more than smaller states from such arrangements. One of the reasons is that former have positive results in their trade with small states. Namely, larger and more developed countries attempt to produce protected products that will be competitive, compared to imports from the rest of the world, which have a common external customs tariff. Within the framework of regional economic organizations and integrations they sell their products without customs to small states, resulting in the transfer of customs revenue from poorer to richer countries. Still, small member states of Southern RIAs can benefit from a reduction of common foreign trade barriers, and gain visibility and recognition in terms of holding international negotiations (Schiff, 2002). Thus, such regional economic organizations and integrations can result in the strengthening of a climate of trust, on the one hand, and tensions in cases where the distribution of benefits and costs is asymmetric, on the other. The economic performance of small states within the framework of regional organizations and integrations depends on that, and it can be further analyzed with respect to differences between large and small member states, as well as between small states and small states that are also small economies.

Economic theory defines that small states have intrinsic defects (Easterly, & Kraay, 2000; Alesina, & Spolaore, 2003). Specifically, problems they are facing range from the determinants of geographical position, natural disasters, and relatively open markets, to the surplus of exports over imports. According to Aiyar (2008), there are three key determinants that affect the economic performance of small states – geographic location, natural resources, policies and institutions. Given their geography, small states are mostly islands or landlocked, which carries with it a number of deficiencies that vary regionally. Furthermore, natural resources (such as oil) are extremely important for the economic prosperity of small states, and changing policies and institutions can minimize the disadvantages of the first two categories, and maximize the benefits. Examples of small states

that have succeeded in just that are Antigua and Barbuda, the Bahamas, Barbados, Mauritius and Botswana (Aiyar, 2008).

On the other hand, Ramkissoon (2002) believes that the measuring of economic performance of small states is based on the constraints arising from the size itself, such as small internal markets, limited opportunities for development of endogenous technologies, limited quality of natural resources, the narrow structure of import and export markets, high transportation costs, and high dependence on strategic imports. Significant differences in performance were observed among small states. Therefore, the author introduces a number of factors affecting the interpretation of growth of small economies: geography (island location, climate, location in relation to other countries, distance from the equator); strategic importance (e.g. location along an important strategic route); degree of vulnerability; political stability (political environment of relative peace); natural resources; openness to international trade in goods and services; economic structure (the strengthening of certain economic sectors such as tourism and financial services); cultural and social coherence (strong sense of community, a greater elasticity of social institutions); independence and endogenous policies (fast and flexible responses to external shocks and targeted specialization) (Armstrong, & Read, 2000).

Small states are more vulnerable to international economic fluctuations given the openness of their economy, and are dependent on a number of economic activities, which all results in greater volatility of GDP compared to large states (Armstrong, & Read, 1998). Namely, they seek specialization in order to be internationally competitive, and often rely on one or two export products. Furthermore, their export is concentrated on specific markets. Therefore, small states are the first to feel the effects of an international economic crisis (Handel, 1981), which also affects them the fastest with the deepest effects.

Recent empirical evidence (Luthria & Dhat, 2005) gave additional credibility to specific problems faced by small states, proving that there is a price to pay for size, which is manifested in higher transportation costs of imports and exports, higher utility costs, as well as extensive business costs. These are the consequences of market size, location as well as politics.

Briguglio, Persuad and Stern (2005) suggest several ways in which small states can deal with their shortcomings: through the diversification of activities that are sustainable in the long term (especially services, notably tourism, which converts geographic disadvantages such as difficult access and distance into benefits), investments in telecommunications services, as well as regional approaches that allow them additional investments into government services, infrastructure and human development. Also small states can be the first to recover from an economic crisis considering that their small bureaucracy, with shorter distances between decision-makers and faster decision-making, affects a quicker adaptation to the situation (Kautto, 2001). To offset their economic vulnerability small states look for protection from large neighbors and the auspices of international and regional organizations in which they benefit from clear procedures and rules. Further reasons for the success of small states are a high level of structural trade openness, which requires them to carry out an export-driven growth strategy based on their comparative

advantages, strategies filling a niche in the form of use of natural resources and human capital intensive activities; location, while keeping in mind the additional risks from accession into larger regional and global markets due to their distance; the successful use of limited circuits of politics, cultural diversity and social capital in the form of building networks of trust and norms of reciprocity (Armstrong, & Read, 2004).

Easterly and Kraay (2000) point out that small states have a higher GNI (Gross National Income) per capita than larger ones, and the differences among the countries in this group are more drastic than the average difference between small and large states. This also demonstrates that size is not a key factor in economic performance. The same study emphasized that market openness and large trading range, which is perceived as a handicap of small states due to economic volatility, are also advantageous in terms of GDP growth.

According to the results of the research small states have higher incomes and higher levels of productivity than larger ones, and their economies do not grow slower than the large economies (Easterly, & Kraay, 2000). For example, none of the small Caribbean and Pacific States is a low income state. Astonishing results are found in Africa, where small states are, on average, four times wealthier than the large countries, while a relatively small number of small states are poor and heavily indebted. Of the 41 countries monitored by the Heavily Indebted Poor Countries Initiative there are only five small states (Aiyar, 2008). A study by Winters and Martins (2004) points out that large and small states have comparable policies and institutions, and CPIA (Country Policy and Institution Assessment) indicates that a small state compared to larger one leads in financial stability, banking regulations, the business regulatory environment, transparency and property rights.

Other advantages of small over large states are as follows: relatively homogenous population, small island states are less open to violence flow and other fluctuations from neighboring countries, small states benefit from specializing in niches such as military bases, philately, telecommunication services, offshore business, renting services, fishing rights, tourism etc. (Aiyar, 2008). On the other hand large states are more autonomous in formulating and conducting of their foreign policy, which is mostly described as proactive, while small states are more reactive in their foreign policy behavior in terms of being more constrained and affected by the international environment. Furthermore small states develop different foreign policy strategies some of which is bandwagoning with, rather than balancing against great powers; they are economically more dependent, their foreign policy is mostly focused on joining international and regional organizations (multilateralism) as well on their relations with neighboring countries; they are less influential in regional organizations (e.g. EU) compared to larger states who have greater economic weight, more voting power in the Council of Ministers and can sometimes make side-deals outside the formal decision-making process. It is easy for them to be invisible in international politics (quietism) by adopting a position of a bystander. Small states must therefore change their traditional reactive policy focused on bandwagoning and quietism to a proactive smart state strategy by playing their role as lobbyists, coalition builders, mediators and norm entre-

preneurs if they want to punch above their weights in international politics and establish themselves as small powers.

Regardless of the fact that small states face common external and internal challenges, some still achieve better results. However, the measuring of economic performance of small states itself is not simple. In the case of small Caribbean states, despite similarities in their socio-economic and political evolution, their performance, as measured by changes in average GDP per capita in the twenty-year period, showed that the smaller islands have achieved better results than the larger ones. In doing so, the key was building the institutional infrastructure, as well as their openness and economic structure, with an emphasis on tourism and offshore finance, political stability, and cultural and social cohesion (while factors such as geography and natural resources are structural and hence less susceptible to control) (Ramkissoon, 2002). Given the lack of research dedicated to the economic performance of small states, especially their differentiation into small states and small states which are also small economies, and the impact of regional economic organizations and integrations on the indicators mentioned, the main goal of this paper is to answer two hypotheses:

- Do small states which are also small economies¹, achieve faster economic growth in the same period, measured by GDP in time, within the same regional economic organizations and integrations, than small states that are not small economies?
- Are there regional differences in economic growth, measured by the increase of the total GDP in time, among small states? Small states who are also small economies and those who are not were taken into account here as well.

When searching for answers to these questions, first and foremost:

- the quantitative criteria for singling out small states were accurately set;
- the arguments for using these exact criteria were laid out;
- the mentioned states were singled out according to the set criteria.

The GDP of small states was followed in a twenty-year period (1993-2012), to determine its trajectory. Small states were then classified by regional economic organizations and integrations, in order to determine the similarities and differences between the states that are members of the same organization/integration, and states that are not members of the same organization/integration.

Small states, as subjects of research, have been chosen precisely because of their size, here defined by quantitative criteria, bearing in mind that for their positioning in international relations the relational criteria are extremely important, such as, for example, their total GDP compared to the GDP of larger countries, and the fact that they represent a group of countries that are more exposed to external influences and more dependent on joining regional economic organizations and integrations. The paper also attempts to identify the characteristics that depend on the regional affiliation of small states, as well as the similarities and differences between small states which belong to the same regional economic organization/integration.

¹ Small economies are those with GDP in Current US \$ below 15 billion in 2012 (as the last year of reference), regardless the population size.

DEFINING SMALL STATES: METHODOLOGY AND RESULTS

In the literature devoted to small states, there are different criteria for their definition. Political geography as a discipline of geographic science, often takes into account the surface area of a country. Scientific disciplines such as political science or economics, dealing with issues such as international relations, international economics, etc., take the number of inhabitants as the criterion for classifying a country as small. Small states, which are defined as such based on population, are the subject of study in political science and economics literature, but also of the interest of international organizations and integrations (Kurečić 2012, p. 90). States with a small surface area size and a small population have specificity that arises precisely from the fact that they have a small population and a small surface area.

Singling out small states should take into account the fact that although there is a consensus that small states certainly exist as a specificity and a concept, there is absolutely no consensus on the exact criteria and requirements that a country must meet to be considered a small state. Thus, a classification of small states mostly boils down to this – as many authors, as many different criteria and thus classifications of small states. Recognizing the abundance and diversity of criteria for the classification of small states – quantitative, qualitative and relational (Hanggi, & Regnier, 2000, p. 7) – for reasons of exactness we have decided to use the quantitative criteria for classifying small states, in order to correctly (by using figures) define which countries will be discussed, taking exceptions into account². Hey (2003, p. 3), however, believes that insisting only on quantitative criteria produces too many exceptions, but here the exceptions are debated on as just that – exceptions, separately, with emphasis on why each case is an exception, and the effects such an exceptional position produces.

The classification of small states on the basis of two quantitative criteria, size and population, done by Kurečić (2012, pp. 97-103), applying as limits the surface area of 60,000 square kilometers and a population of four million, has been taken as a guideline for the minimum number of exceptions, which is direct a result of the set limits in size and population, because different limits would produce more exceptions. In this study, a total of 73 countries meet the criteria when it comes to surface area criterion, and 71 countries that meet the criteria when it comes to population were identified. At the same time, 57 small states that meet both criteria that were applied were singled out.

For the purposes of this study, which has an economic dimension, the total GDP with a set limit of US \$15 billion was added as a third criterion to size and population, while using the total GDP in relation to the current US\$, which more faithfully reflects the position of one economy compared to other economies

² In case of defining small states by using quantitative criteria one needs to take into account their limitations. Despite their exactness, some things cannot be measured and numbered, such as state's self-perception, which makes a basis of qualitative criteria and state's relations in the international community, which are being covered by relational criteria. However these defining criteria as well as discussion on their limitation are not the topic of this article: discussion on criteria is intended only to elaborate why some criteria for distinguishing different groups of small states were chosen.

(instead of the Purchasing Power Parity that measures the purchasing power of the population). The limit of US \$15 billion is one below which the economy of a country, for the purposes of this paper, can be considered small. GDP, as a third criterion, was added precisely to attempt to define small states more accurately, since countries can be small in one sense, and not in the other. Rapaport (1971: 29) adds more criteria to defining small states by combining population and size or population, size and GDP. Namely a small sized state with small population can be economically developed and very influential (e.g. Switzerland, Singapore, Luxemburg) and if there is also a respectful military power (e.g. Israel) it can be considered also a small power. Its position in international relations seems to be quite different from other small states that are more vulnerable to external influences and more dependent on other countries. There are several strategies which can position small states as proactive smart states: coalition building, use of soft power, norm entrepreneurship, honest brokering and identifying strategic priorities.

States that meet the criteria of small surface areas, a small population and a small total GDP, were analyzed along with the exceptions that do not meet one or two of the three criteria. From countries that meet none of the three criteria, the exceptions that would colloquially be called area-wise, population-wise or economic „giants“ among small states were isolated. At the same time, as an exception, countries that represent true „economic dwarfs“, i.e., those that do not belong among small states by surface area or population according to the applied criteria, but whose total GDP puts them in the group of small countries, that is, small economies were singled out. Research studies of the impact of involvement in regional organizations/integrations on the growth of GDP, focused precisely on small economies, i.e. those below US\$ 15 billion of total GDP in 2012, and compared them to larger economies, where again, it should be taken into consideration that the ratio between the size of economies of individual countries (which can be considered small under one of the three criteria and have economies that have achieved over 15 billion US\$ of GDP in 2012) can amount to 1:50 as a result of an extremely large difference in the level of GDP per capita. Precisely because of the huge difference in size between the economies of small states that meet the set criteria, the research also included those small states that meet all the criteria and the ones that do not meet the GDP criterion, in an attempt to discover the differences in economic growth between these two heterogeneous groups of countries regarding their GDP.

Looking at Table 1, it is evident that there are a total of 46 states that meet all three criteria and can be considered small states according to their surface area, their population, and the size of their total GDP. And this 46 countries can be divided into several subgroups. The surfaces of these countries vary from 0.44 square kilometers (Vatican City) up to 38,394 square kilometers (Bhutan), the population ranges from 839 (Vatican City) to 3,619,925 (Moldova), while the size of GDP varies from 38 million US\$ for Tuvalu to 14,840 million US\$ for Jamaica. Classification set forth herein is considered useful as it clearly separates the states that meet all three criteria from exceptions that do not meet some of these criteria.

Table 1. Small states that meet the criteria of small surface area, small population and small total GDP: surface area and population (estimated in 2013), total GDP in Current US\$ and BDP per capita /PPP/(2012).

State	Surface area in square kilometers	Population (According to: <i>The World Factbook. Country Comparison: Population</i>)	Total GDP in mil. US\$ / Current US\$ / (<i>The World Bank Data-bank: GDP (current US\$)</i>)	GDP per capita in US\$ / PPP / (<i>The World Factbook. Country Comparison: GDP (Purchasing Power Parity)</i>)
• Albania	28,748	3,011,405	13,119	8,200
• Andorra	468	85,293	4,800	37,200
• Antigua and Barbuda	443	90,156	1,176*	18,300
• Armenia	29,743	2,974,184	9,910	5,900
• Bahamas, The	13,880	319,031	8,149*	31,900
• Barbados	430	288,725	4,490	25,800
• Belize	22,966	334,297	1,554*	8,900
• Bhutan	38,394	725,296	1,780	6,800
• Cape Verde	4,033	531,046	1,897	4,200
• Comoros, The	2,235	752,288	596	1,300
• Djibouti	23,200	792,198	1,354*	2,700
• Dominica	751	73,286	480	14,400
• Fiji	18,274	896,758	3,882	4,900
• Gambia, The	11,295	1,883,051	917	1,900
• Grenada	344	109,590	790	13,700
• Guinea-Bissau	36,125	1,660,870	897	1,200
• Jamaica	10,991	2,909,714	14,840	9,300
• Kiribati	811	103,248	176	6,100
• Kosovo	10,887	1,847,708	6,238	7,355
• Lesotho	30,355	1,936,181	2,448	2,200
• Liechtenstein	160	37,009	5,113*	89,400
• Macedonia	25,713	2,087,171	9,663	10,800
• Maldives	298	393,988	2,222	9,400
• Malta	316	411,277	8,722	27,500
• Marshall Islands	181	69,747	187	8,800
• Mauritius	2,040	1,322,238	10,492	15,800
• Micronesia, Federated States of	702	106,104	327	7,500
• Moldova	33,851	3,619,925	7,254	3,500
• Monaco	2	30,500	5,748 ^{3*}	70,700

³ * <https://www.cia.gov/library/publications/the-world-factbook/rankorder/2001rank.html>

** Nauru's data are from 2005., while no data for the Vatican City.

State	Surface area in square kilometers	Population (According to: <i>The World Factbook. Country Comparison: Population</i>)	Total GDP in mil. US\$/Current US\$/ (<i>The World Bank Databank: GDP (current US\$)</i>)	GDP per capita in US\$/PPP/ (<i>The World Factbook. Country Comparison: GDP (Purchasing Power Parity)</i>)
• Montenegro	13,812	653,474	4,231	12,000
• Nauru	21	9,434	60**	5,000*
• Palau	459	21,108	228	10,500
• Saint Kitts and Nevis	261	51,134	748	16,500
• Saint Lucia	616	162,781	1,186	13,300
• Sao Tome and Principe	964	186,817	264	2,400
• Saint Vincent and the Grenadines	389	103,220	713	12,000
• Samoa	2,831	195,476	677	6,300
• San Marino	61	32,448	1,855*	36,200
• Seychelles	455	90,846	1,032	25,600
• Solomon Islands	28,896	597,248	1,008	3,400
• Swaziland	17,364	1,403,362	3,747	5,900
• Timor-Leste	14,874	1,172,390	1,293	10,000
• Tonga	747	106,322	472	7,700
• Tuvalu	26	10,698	37	3,400
• Vanuatu	12,189	262,565	785	5,000
• Vatican City	0,44	839	NA**	NA**

Source: The Authors, *The World Bank Databank: GDP (current US\$)*. Retrieved from <https://www.data.worldbank.org/indicator/NY.GDP.MKTP.CD>; *The World Factbook. Country Comparison: GDP (Purchasing Power Parity)* <https://www.cia.gov/library/publications/the-world-factbook/rankorder/2001rank.html>; *The World Factbook. Country Comparison: Population*, Retrieved from <https://www.cia.gov/library/publications/the-world-factbook/rankorder/2119rank.html>

Table 2. Small states that don't meet one or two out of three set criteria of small surface area, small population and small total GDP: surface area and population (estimated in 2013), total GDP in Current US\$ and BDP per capita / PPP/ (2012).

State	Surface area in square kilometers	Population (According to: <i>The World Factbook. Country Comparison: Population</i>)	Total GDP in mil. US\$/Current US\$/ (<i>The World Bank Databank: GDP (current US\$)</i>)	GDP per capita in US\$/PPP/ (<i>The World Factbook. Country Comparison: GDP (Purchasing Power Parity)</i>)
• Bahrain	760	1,281,332	27,030	29,200
• Belgium	30,528	10,444,268	483,700	38,500
• Benin	112,622	9,877,292	7,557	1,700

State	Surface area in square kilometers	Population (According to: <i>The World Factbook. Country Comparison: Population</i>)	Total GDP in mil. US\$/Current US\$/ (<i>The World Bank Databank: GDP (current US\$)</i>)	GDP per capita in US\$/PPP/ (<i>The World Factbook. Country Comparison: GDP (Purchasing Power Parity)</i>)
• Bosnia and Herzegovina	51,197	3,875,723	17,048	8,400
• Botswana	581,730	2,127,825	14,411	17,100
• Brunei	5,765	415,717	16,954	55,300
• Burkina Faso	274,200	17,812,961	10,441	1,400
• Burundi	27,830	10,888,321	2,472	600
• Cambodia	181,035	15,205,539	14,062	2,400
• Central African Republic	622,984	5,166,510	2,139	800
• Chad	1,284,000	11,193,452	11,018	2,000
• Congo, Republic of the	342,000	4,492,689	13,678	4,700
• Costa Rica	51,100	4,695,942	45,127	12,800
• Croatia	56,594	4,290,611	56,442	18,100
• Cyprus	9,251	1,155,403	22,981	27,500
• Denmark	43,096	5,556,452	314,242	38,300
• Dominican Republic	48,670	10,219,630	58,951	9,800
• El Salvador	21,041	6,108,590	23,787	7,600
• Equatorial Guinea	28,051	704,001	17,697	26,400
• Eritrea	117,600	6,233,682	3,092	800
• Estonia	45,228	1,266,375	21,854	22,100
• Gabon	267,667	1,640,286	18,661	16,800
• Guinea	245,857	11,176,026	6,768	1,100
• Guyana	214,969	739,903	2,851	8,100
• Haiti	27,750	9,893,934	7,843	1,300
• Iceland	103,000	315,281	13,657	39,900
• Israel	20,770	7,707,042	240,900	32,800
• Kuwait	17,818	2,695,316	173,400	40,500
• Kyrgyzstan	199,951	5,548,042	6,473	2,400
• Laos	236,800	6,695,166	9,299	3,100
• Latvia	64,589	2,178,443	28,374	18,600
• Lebanon	10,400	4,131,583	42,945	16,000
• Liberia	111,369	3,989,703	1,767	700
• Lithuania	65,300	3,515,858	42,246	22,000
• Luxembourg	2,586	514,862	57,117	81,100

State	Surface area in square kilometers	Population (According to: <i>The World Factbook. Country Comparison: Population</i>)	Total GDP in mil. US\$/Current US\$/ (<i>The World Bank Databank: GDP (current US\$)</i>)	GDP per capita in US\$/PPP/ (<i>The World Factbook. Country Comparison: GDP (Purchasing Power Parity)</i>)
• Madagascar	587,041	22,599,098	9,975	1,000
• Malawi	118,484	16,777,547	4,264	900
• Mali	1,240,192	15,968,882	10,308	1,100
• Mauritania	1,030,700	3,437,610	4,199	2,200
• Mongolia	1,564,116	3,226,516	10,271	5,500
• Namibia	824,292	2,182,852	12,807	7,900
• Netherlands	41,543	16,805,037	772,227	42,900
• Nicaragua	130,370	5,788,531	10,507	4,500
• Niger	1,267,000	16,899,327	6,568	800
• Oman	309,500	3,154,134	76,460	29,600
• Panama	75,420	3,559,408	36,253	15,900
• Qatar	11,586	2,042,444	183,400	103,900
• Rwanda	26,338	12,012,589	7,103	1,500
• Senegal	196,722	13,300,410	14,160	2,100
• Sierra Leone	71,740	5,612,685	3,796	1,400
• Singapore	697	5,460,302	274,701	61,400
• Slovakia	49,035	5,488,339	91,619	24,600
• Slovenia	20,273	1,992,690	45,469	28,700
• Somalia	637,657	10,251,568	2,372	600
• South Sudan	644,329	11,090,104	9,337	1,000
• Suriname	163,820	566,846	4,738	12,600
• Switzerland	41,227	7,996,026	632,194	46,200
• Tajikistan	143,100	7,910,041	6,987	2,300
• Togo	56,785	7,154,237	3,814	1,100
• Trinidad and Tobago	5,128	1,225,225	23,986	20,400
• Uruguay	163,820	3,324,460	49,060	16,200
• Zimbabwe	390,757	13,182,908	10,814	600

Looking at the Table 2 there are 62 states that do not meet one or two specified criteria applied to small states. These states can, to some extent, be divided into subgroups according to the level of economic development measured by total GDP and GDP per capita, which is useful in order to highlight their common features as well as regional grouping of states which share similar features. This division ignores surface area having in mind that physical size of the country doesn't have a direct impact on the size of the economy:

- states with the population over 4 million and GDP up to 15 billion US\$ representing small economies (Benin, Burkina Faso, Burundi, Cambodia, Cen-

tral African Republic, Chad, Republic of the Congo, Eritrea, Guinea, Haiti, Kyrgyzstan, Laos, Madagascar, Malawi, Mali, Nicaragua, Niger, Rwanda, Senegal, Sierra Leone, Somalia, South Sudan, Tajikistan, Togo, Zimbabwe). These states, with the exception of the Republic of Congo and Nicaragua, are among the least developed countries in the world and are mostly found in Africa, Asia and the region of Central America and Caribbean.

- states with the population up to 4 million and GDP up to 15 billion US\$ representing exceptions because of the surface area greater than 60 000 square kilometers (Botswana, Guyana, Iceland, Liberia, Mauritania, Mongolia, Namibia and Suriname). They present a diverse group of countries without strong common characteristic except from an extremely low population density.
- states with the population up to 4 million and GDP over 15 billion US\$ (Bahrain, Bosnia and Herzegovina, Brunei, Cyprus, Equatorial Guinea, Gabon, Estonia, Kuwait, Latvia, Lithuania, Luxembourg, Oman, Panama, Qatar, Slovenia, Trinidad and Tobago, Uruguay). These states are medium or highly developed, located on different continents (except North America and Australia) and their surface area is significantly distinctive, which indicates their population density being also different.
- states with the population over 4 million and GDP over 15 billion US\$ (Belgium, Costa Rica, Croatia, Denmark, Dominican Republic, El Salvador, Israel, Lebanon, Netherlands, Singapore, Slovakia, Switzerland). These states are medium or highly developed and located in Europe, Central America and Asia.

From this division of states that do not meet one or two criteria set for defining small states, it is evident that they can be classified into one group of less developed states, one group of middle and high developed states, as well as into one group that comprises states of all different levels of development. This division just aims to detect generalization among different states out of the same group of 62 states, always taking into account two (population and total GDP) parameters. There is a total of 108 small states that meet all three criteria or do not meet one or two criteria, while there are 79 small economies according to GDP criteria.

After the classification of small states, a categorization was made of most of the small states that meet all the criteria and small states that do not meet one or two criteria in Table 3, according to individual regional economic organizations or integrations.

The countries which are not members of a common regional economic organization or integration, which would have had a very significant impact on their economies, were regionally categorized. Those organizations in which there are small states, but no small economies, such as the Gulf Cooperation Council (GCC) were taken into account. The Pacific Islands Forum (PIF), in which all the members are small states and also small economies, was considered. Countries that are members of a regional economic organization in which there are no other small states, as in the case of Uruguay and Bhutan, were not taken into account. The years 1993 (20 years before the last reference year), 2008 (for most of the resear-

ched economies the year of the highest GDP, before entering into recession) and 2012 (the last year for which data is available) were taken as reference years. If the data for one of the reference years was unavailable, the closest year for which data was available was taken, using the same source, as indicated in Table 3.

Table 3. Small economies (with total GDP below 15 mil.US\$ in 2012) according to individual regional economic organization or integration: GDP in Current US\$ for 1993, 2008 i 2012, with indexes.

European Union, 12 small states (plus 16 member states which are not defined as small)

State	Year	GDP in mil. US\$	GDP - index
Belgium	1993	221 986	100.0
	2008	507 379	228.6
	2012	483 709	217.9
Croatia	1993	10 901	100.0
	2008	69 595	638.4
	2012	56 442	517.8
Cyprus	1993	6 590	100.0
	2008	25 321	384.2
	2012	22 981	348.7
Denmark	1993	140 627	100.0
	2008	343 881	244.5
	2012	314 242	223.5
Estonia	1995	3 777	100.0
	2008	23 782	629.7
	2012	21 854	578.6
Latvia	1993	4 468	100.0
	2008	33 669	753.6
	2012	28 374	635.0
Lithuania	1993	7 425	100.0
	2008	47 253	636.4
	2012	42 245	569.0
Luxembourg	1993	15 788	100.0
	2008	54 743	346.7
	2012	57 117	361.8
Malta	1993	2 709	100.0
	2008	8 554	315.8
	2012	8 722	321.2
Netherlands	1993	327 495	100.0
	2008	870 811	265.9
	2012	772 226	235.8
Slovakia	1993	16 146	100.0
	2008	97 909	606.4
	2012	91 219	565.0
Slovenia	1993	12 673	100.0
	2008	54 606	430.9
	2012	45 469	358.8

Small states in Europe out of the integration process/neutral

State	Year	GDP in mil. US\$	GDP - index
Andorra	1993	1 007	100.0
	2008	3 712	368.6
	2012	NA	/
Iceland	1993	6 126	100.0
	2008	16 832	274.8
	2012	13 657	222.9
Liechtenstein	1993	1 673	100.0
	2008	4 929	294.6
	2012	NA	/
Monaco	1993	2 574	100.0
	2008	6 919	268.8
	2011	6 075	236.0
San Marino	1999	853	100.0
	2008	1 900	222.7
	2012	NA	/
Switzerland	1993	249 967	100.0
	2008	524 289	209.7
	2012	632 194	252.9

Small transitional countries in Western Balkans

State	Year	GDP in mil. US\$	GDP - index
Albania	1993	1 228	100.0
	2008	12 969	1056.1
	2012	13 119	1068.3
Bosnia and Herzegovina	1994	1 256	100.0
	2008	18 543	1476.4
	2012	17 048	1357.3
Kosovo	2000	1 849	100.0
	2008	5 642	305.1
	2012	6 238	337.4
Macedonia	1993	2 550	100.0
	2008	9 834	385.6
	2012	9 663	378.9
Montenegro	2000	984	100.0
	2008	4 520	459.3
	2012	4 231	430.0

Small states of the Commonwealth of Independent States (CIS)

State	Year	GDP in mil. US\$	GDP - index
Armenia	1993	1 201	100.0
	2008	11 662	971.0
	2012	9 910	807.0
Kyrgyzstan	1993	2 028	100.0
	2008	5 140	253.5
	2012	6 473	319.2

Moldova	1993	2 372	100.0
	2008	6 055	255.3
	2012	7 254	305.8
Tajikistan	1993	1 647	100.0
	2008	5 161	313.4
	2012	6 987	424.2

Small states of the Carribean Community and Common Market (CARICOM)

State	Year	GDP in mil. US \$	GDP - index
Antigua and Barbuda	1993	457	100.0
	2008	1 347	294.7
	2012	1 176	257.3
Bahamas, The	1993	3 092	100.0
	2008	8 247	266.7
	2012	8 149	263.6
Barbados	1993	1 641	100.0
	2008	3 670	223.6
	2011	3 685	224.6
Belize	1993	560	100.0
	2008	1 364	243.6
	2011	1 448	258.6
Dominica	1993	200	100.0
	2008	452	226.0
	2012	480	240.0
Grenada	1993	250	100.0
	2008	826	330.4
	2012	790	316.0
Guyana	1993	442	100.0
	2008	1 923	435.1
	2012	2 851	645.0
Haiti	1993	1 806	100.0
	2008	6 408	354.8
	2012	7 843	434.3
Jamaica	1993	4 891	100.0
	2008	13 681	279.7
	2012	14 840	303.4
Saint Kitts and Nevis	1993	198	100.0
	2008	736	371.7
	2012	748	377.8
Saint Lucia	1993	492	100.0
	2008	1 165	236.8
	2012	1 186	241.0
Saint Vincent and the Grenadines	1993	239	100.0
	2008	695	290.8
	2012	713	298.3
Suriname	1993	429	100.0
	2008	3 533	823.5
	2012	4 738	1104.4

Trinidad and Tobago	1993	4 585	100.0
	2008	28 018	611.1
	2012	23 986	523.1

Central American Integration System (CACM), small states plus Guatemala and Honduras

State	Year	GDP in mil. US\$	GDP - index
Belize	1993	560	100.0
	2008	1 364	243.6
	2011	1 448	258.6
Costa Rica	1993	9 638	100.0
	2008	29 838	309.6
	2012	45 127	468.2
Dominican Republic	1993	12 976	100.0
	2008	45 712	352.3
	2012	58 951	454.3
El Salvador	1993	6 938	100.0
	2008	21 431	308.9
	2012	23 787	342.9
Nicaragua	1993	1 756	100.0
	2008	8 254	470.0
	2012	10 507	598.3
Panama	1993	7 253	100.0
	2008	23 002	317.1
	2012	36 253	499.8

Gulf Cooperation Council (GCC), small states plus United Arab Emirates and Saudi Arabia

State	Year	GDP in mil. US\$	GDP - index
Bahrain	1993	5 200	100.0
	2008	21 903	421.2
	2010	22 945	441.2
Kuwait	1993	23 941	100.0
	2008	147 402	615.7
	2011	176 590	737.6
Oman	1993	12 493	100.0
	2008	60 567	484.8
	2011	71 782	574.6
Qatar	1993	7 157	100.0
	2008	115 020	1607.1
	2011	172 982	2417.0

Pacific Islands Forum (small states plus Australia, New Zealand, and Papua New Guinea)

State	Year	GDP in mil. US\$	GDP - index
Micronesia, Federated States of,	1993	198	100.0
	2008	261	131.8
	2012	327	165.2
Fiji	1993	1 635	100.0
	2008	3 591	219.6
	2012	3 882	237.4

Kiribati	1993	49	100.0
	2008	131	267.3
	2012	176	359.2
Marshall Islands	1993	99	100.0
	2008	153	154.5
	2012	187	188.9
Palau	1993	76	100.0
	2008	213	280.3
	2012	228	300.0
Samoa	1993	119	100.0
	2008	574	482.4
	2012	677	568.9
Solomon Islands	1993	411	100.0
	2008	646	157.2
	2012	1 008	245.3
Tonga	1993	139	100.0
	2008	347	249.6
	2012	472	339.6
Tuvalu	1993	10	100.0
	2008	30	300.0
	2012	37	370.0
Vanuatu	1993	188	100.0
	2008	608	323.4
	2012	785	417.6

Association of Southeast Asian Nations (ASEAN), small states plus Indonesia, Malaysia, Burma, Philippines, Thailand, Vietnam and Papua-New Guinea

State	Year	GDP in mil. US\$	GDP - index
Brunei	1993	4 106	100.0
	2008	14 393	350.5
	2012	16 954	412.9
Cambodia	1993	2 534	100.0
	2008	10 352	408.5
	2012	14 062	554.9
Laos	1993	1 328	100.0
	2008	5 444	409.9
	2012	9 299	700.2
Singapore	1993	59 984	100.0
	2008	178 924	298.3
	2012	274 701	458.0
Timor-Leste	2000	316	100.0
	2008	665	210.4
	2012	1 293	409.2

Southern African Development Community (SADC), small states plus Angola, Democratic Republic of the Congo, Mozambique, Republic of South Africa, Tanzania, and Zambia)

State	Year	GDP in mil. US\$	GDP - index
Botswana	1993	4 160	100.0
	2008	11 113	267.1
	2012	14 411	346.4

Lesotho	1993	722	100.0
	2008	1 631	225.9
	2012	2 448	339.1
Malawi	1993	2 071	100.0
	2008	4 277	206.5
	2012	4 264	205.9
Mauritius	1993	3 263	100.0
	2008	9 641	295.5
	2012	10 492	321.5
Namibia	1993	2 847	100.0
	2008	8 830	310.2
	2012	12 807	449.8
Seychelles	1993	469	100.0
	2008	967	206.2
	2012	1 032	220.0
Swaziland	1993	1 357	100.0
	2008	3 020	222.5
	2012	3 747	276.1
Zimbabwe	1993	6 564	100.0
	2008	4 416	67
	2012	10 814	164.7

ECOWAS (small states plus Ivory Coast, Ghana, Nigeria)

State	Year	GDP in mil. US\$	GDP - index
Benin	1993	2 275	100.0
	2008	6 634	291.6
	2012	7 557	332.2
Burkina Faso	1993	2 332	100.0
	2008	8 351	358.1
	2012	10 441	447.7
Cape Verde	1993	490	100.0
	2008	1 562	318.8
	2012	1 897	387.1
Gambia, The	1993	755	100.0
	2008	966	127.9
	2012	917	121.5
Guinea	1993	3 279	100.0
	2008	3 778	115.2
	2012	6 768	206.4
Guinea-Bissau	1993	237	100.0
	2008	842	355.3
	2012	897	378.5
Liberia	1993	160	100.0
	2008	850	531.3
	2012	1 767	1104.4
Mali	1993	2 678	100.0
	2008	8 738	326.3
	2012	10 308	384.9

Niger	1993	1 607	100.0
	2008	5 370	334.2
	2012	6 568	408.7
Senegal	1993	5 679	100.0
	2008	13 386	235.7
	2012	14 160	249.3
Sierra Leone	1993	769	100.0
	2008	2 504	325.6
	2012	3 796	493.6
Togo	1993	1 233	100.0
	2008	3 160	256.3
	2012	3 814	309.3

Common Market for Eastern and Southern Africa (COMESA)

Small states plus Egypt, Democratic Republic of the Congo, Ethiopia, Kenya, Libya, Tanzania, Uganda, and Zambia

State	Year	GDP in mil. US \$	GDP - index
Burundi	1993	939	100.0
	2008	1 612	171.7
	2012	2 472	263.3
Comoros	1993	264	100.0
	2008	530	200.8
	2012	596	225.8
Djibouti	1993	466	100.0
	2008	983	210.9
	2011	1 239	265.9
Eritrea	1993	468	100.0
	2008	1 380	294.5
	2012	3 092	660.7
Madagascar	1993	3 371	100.0
	2008	9 394	278.7
	2012	9 975	295.9
Malawi	1993	2 071	100.0
	2008	4 277	206.5
	2012	4 264	205.9
Mauritius	1993	3 263	100.0
	2008	9 641	295.5
	2012	10 492	321.5
Rwanda	1993	1 972	100.0
	2008	4 712	238.9
	2012	7 103	360.2
Seychelles	1993	469	100.0
	2008	967	206.2
	2012	1 032	220.0
Swaziland	1993	1 357	100.0
	2008	3 020	222.5
	2012	3 747	276.1

Zimbabwe	1993	6 564	100.0
	2008	4 415	67
	2012	10 814	164.7

Economic Community of Central African States (ECCAS), small states plus Angola, Democratic Republic of the Congo, Cameroon

State	Year	GDP in mil. US \$	GDP - index
Burundi	1993	939	100.0
	2008	1 612	171.7
	2012	2 472	263.3
Central African Republic	1993	1 299	100.0
	2008	1 983	152.7
	2012	2 139	164.7
Chad	1993	1 463	100.0
	2008	8 361	571.5
	2012	11 018	753.1
Congo, Republic of the	1993	1 919	100.0
	2008	11 675	608.4
	2012	17 870	931.2
Equatorial Guinea	1993	152	100.0
	2008	15 471	10178.3
	2012	17 697	11642.8
Gabon	1993	4 379	100.0
	2008	15 732	359.3
	2012	18 661	426.1
Sao Tome and Principe	2000	77	100.0
	2008	183	237.7
	2012	264	342.9

Source: The Authors. *The World Bank Databank: GDP (current US\$)*. Retrieved from <https://www.data.worldbank.org/indicator/NY.GDP.MKTP.CD>; *The World Factbook. Country Comparison: GDP (Purchasing Power Parity)* <https://www.cia.gov/library/publications/the-world-factbook/rankorder/2001rank.html>;

According to the Table 3 in small states of the European Union it is evident that only one economy of small states can meet the criteria for a small economy (Malta), reflecting the high level of development in the EU compared to the rest of the world. Small states that joined the EU in 2004 and 2013 have recorded a much higher GDP growth in the past twenty years than small states that are in the EU since its establishment (the Benelux countries), or since 1973 (Denmark), because they are smaller economies on the whole and because they represent transitional economies, whose base GDP was very low in the first year researched (1993). Due to most EU countries entering the recession in 2009, the economic growth of small EU member states, the former transitional economies, slowed down after the recorded growth in the early 1990s. Croatia, which became an EU member in 2013, also recorded a decline in GDP from 1999-2000, and has been through a recession thrice since independence (1999-2000, 2009-2010 and 2012). Malta, as the only small economy and Cyprus, as one of the smallest economies in the EU, recorded a level of growth whose size fell between small old EU member states

and small new EU member states which have undergone transition in the analyzed period. The record-holder among small EU countries by GDP growth in the last twenty years is Latvia (its GDP index rose from 100 to 635).

Small states in Europe that are not members of the EU and not undergoing the transition process are mainly small economies, with Switzerland as the only exception. All these economies are highly developed (Table 3). The recession that emerged in 2009 affected them less than most EU member states in general, with the exception of Iceland.

Small transitional countries of the Western Balkans have recorded a GDP growth by approximately 3.8 (Macedonia) and 13.5 times (Bosnia and Herzegovina) from 1993 to 2012. In Albania, and even more so in Bosnia and Herzegovina, a very large increase in GDP reflects a very low base in year 1993 (Table 3). Small countries of the Western Balkans are among the European countries that are least developed.

Small member states of the Commonwealth of Independent States (CIS) also recorded a GDP growth by three (Moldova) to as much as eight times (Armenia) in the observed period (Table 3), which is primarily a reflection of the very low initial GDP level in 1993. These are also the small economies and states that are the least developed members of the CIS.

All CARICOM member states are small states, and, aside from Trinidad and Tobago, small economies. CARICOM has existed for 40 years, and most member states joined the organization during its establishment or a year after its founding. Small island economies of the Caribbean (also members of the Commonwealth) recorded a growth of GDP by approximately two to four times in the observed period, with the exception of Haiti (not a member of the Commonwealth, only became a CARICOM member state in 2002). Suriname is the record holder for the increase in GDP among the members of CARICOM, and Guyana holds second place, meaning these small economies recorded a much higher GDP growth than the small island economies of the Caribbean. Trinidad and Tobago, which is not a small economy, takes the position between Guyana and small economies of the Caribbean islands by the increase of its GDP (Table 3).

In the Gulf Cooperation Council (GCC), four small member states are not small economies, which are completely absent from GCC, reflecting a higher GDP, the effect of oil and gas wealth, which are exported from the Persian Gulf states. Small states, members of the GCC, have recorded a high growth of GDP in the analyzed period, while Qatar is the absolute record-holder, its GDP growing by 24 times (Table 3). The GDP of these countries depends primarily on their wealth in oil and gas and the price of these fuels on the world market. Decline in energy prices due to oil and gas importers entering recession in year 2009, reflected negatively on the GDPs of these countries, but the rapid increase in prices also increased their GDPs, which have a tendency of growth.

The Pacific Islands Forum is made up of a total of 13 countries, 10 of which are small countries, and also small economies. The insular and archipelagic countries of the Pacific are small by their surface area, their population and size of their economy. The differences in GDP growth among these small economies

have been significant in the last 20 years. The GDP of the Federated States of Micronesia has increased by just 1.6 times and for the Marshall Islands by less than two times. At the same time, the GDP of Vanuatu has increased by more than four times, and the GDP of Samoa by as much as 5.7 times (Table 3), which is also an indicator of different development potentials, which are decreased on small, low islands of Micronesia, as opposed to the larger and higher islands of Polynesia and Melanesia.

There are five small states, three of which are also small economies (Cambodia, Laos, Timor-Leste), and two are not (Brunei, Singapore) in the Association of Southeast Asian Nations (ASEAN). There is a remarkable difference in development, as measured by GDP per capita between the two groups of small states. What they all have in common, however, is the high level of GDP growth during the observed period, regardless of the size of their economy and the initial level of GDP, because the GDP of developed and major economies (Brunei, Singapore) increased by more than four times, while at the same time the GDP of Laos grew seven times and 5.5 times in Cambodia (Table 3).

The group of analyzed African countries is made up of small states, most of which are also small economies, given the very low GDP per capita. A significant part of the analyzed countries of Africa were considered small precisely due to the small size of their economy and so the group of small states includes 15 African states, which size and population do not meet the set criteria, but they are small economies according to the criterion of the total GDP. Small African states were analyzed according to membership in several regional economic organizations, with membership of some small states repeated in several regional economic organizations. There should be mention of an important moment in regional economic organizations of Africa, which is less influential or has an almost irrelevant role in small member states of regional economic organizations on other continents, and it is at least a basic level of political stability and political authority that is democratically legitimized and working on the development of the economy (which in many parts of Africa today is not the case nor was it in the last two decades). Military coups and civil wars were a frequent occurrence in Africa, particularly in Western and Equatorial Africa. Therefore, the GDP growth in these countries cannot be high, although most of them recorded an increase of the population, which is much larger than that in other parts of the world, in the same period. A high, even incredible increase in GDP during the observed period, which is a characteristic of some countries in Africa (e.g. Equatorial Guinea as an absolute record-breaker among all the researched countries, then Chad, the Republic of Congo and Gabon to a lesser extent, see Table 3) due to the beginning of oil exploitation, and preceded by a very low GDP of these economies, which increased manifold based on oil exports. The mentioned countries are now exactly where the Gulf States were a few decades ago in this characteristic, when stronger exploitation and a large increase in prices led to an „explosion“ of GDP of these countries.

CONCLUSION

Data on GDP growth of small states within integrations and out of them (Table 3), point out the limitations of quantitative criteria that despite their exactness do not provide complete answers without delving into the context, which just confirms the notion that during the research of small states it is necessary to realize their specific position in the region they are located in, as well as the circumstances in the international community that significantly influence their policies.

Similarities between small economies and small states, who are members of regional economic organizations and integration, exist along with differences that arise in relation to member countries from other regional economic organizations/integrations. However, there are also large differences in GDP trajectories between small member states of the same regional economic organization/integration.

The study did not find enough evidence to be able to determine that the size of the national economy of small states is a factor that directly affects the movement of GDP, according to the principle that smaller economies have a faster GDP growth in the same period, which is the answer to the first hypothesis in this paper. Changes in the GDP of small states in the studied period is primarily dependent on factors such as: (1) whether the economy is in transition or not (post-communist countries had different conditions for development from advanced capitalist economies of Europe), which is coupled with the height of the base taken as the starting year of the studies period (1993, the period after the start of transition); (2) political (in)stability, the presence or absence of wars and conflicts (especially important in Africa); (3) energy prices at the world market and the stage of development of the domestic energy industry – the most important factor when it comes to GCC member states and states highly dependent on oil exports in general, in Africa and Asia; (4) envelopment by the recession and the successfulness of the fight against it since 2009 until today.

If we accept these factors as fundamental determinants of trends in GDP growth of small countries in the last two decades, the answer to the second hypothesis set at the beginning of this paper is that there is sufficient evidence, found by tracking the movement of the GDP of small states, about the regional differences between the factors, as well as the complexity of internal and external circumstances that affect the growth of GDP of small states. These factors are much more complex than simply the size of the economies of small states.

REFERENCES

- Aiyar, S.S.A. (2008). Small States: Not Handicapped and Under-Aided, but Advantaged and Over-Aided. *CATO Journal*, 28(3), 449-478.
- Alesina, A., & Spolaore, E. (2003). *The Size of Nations*. Cambridge: MIT Press
- Armstrong, H.W., & Read, R.A. (1998). Trade and Growth in Small States: The Impact of Global Trade Liberalisation. *Working Papers*, ec 5/98. Departments of Economics: Lancaster University.
- Armstrong, H.W., & Read, R. A. (2000). Comparing the Economic Performance of Dependent Territories and Sovereign Microstates. *Economic Development and Cultural Change*, 48, 285-306.
- Armstrong, H.W., & Read, R.A. (2004). The Economic Performance of Small States and Islands: The Importance of Geography. *Islands of the World III International Conference: Changing Islands - Changing Worlds*. Kinmen Island: Taiwan.

- Briguglio, L., Persaud, B., & Stern, R. (2005). *Towards an Outward – Oriented Development Strategy for Small States: Issues, Opportunities and Resilience – Building*. Washington: The World Bank.
- Briguglio, L. (2011). *Economic Vulnerability and Resilience with Reference to Small States*. ECLAC Conference September 2011.
- Easterly, W., & Kraay, A. (2000). Small States, Small Problems? Income, Growth and Volatility in Small States. *World Development*, 28(11), 2013-2027.
- Handel, M. (1981). *Weak States in the International System*. New York: Frank Cass & Co. Ltd
- Hanggi, H., & Regnier, P. (2000). *The Small State and the Triad: the Case of Switzerland's Foreign Policy Towards East Asia*, Study in NRF Policy, National Foreign Policy Program.
- Hey, J. (Ed.). (2003). *Small States in World Politics: Explaining Foreign Policy Behaviour*. Boulder: Lynne Rienner Publishers.
- Kautto, M. (Ed.). (2001). *Nordic Welfare States in the European Context*. London: Routledge.
- Krugman, P. (1998). The Role of Geography in Development. *Paper prepared for the Annual World Bank Conference on Development Economics*. Washington, D.C.
- Kurečić, P. (2012). Problematika definicije malih država [Defining small states]. *Hrvatski geografski glasnik*, 74 (2), 89-112.
- Luthria, M., & Dhat, S. (2005). *Pacific 2020, Background Paper: Framework for Growth*. Commonwealth of Australia.
- Parsad, N. (2013). Small but Smart: Small States in the Global System. In: Cooper, A.F., & Shaw, T., (Eds.). (2009). *The Diplomacies of Small States – Between Vulnerability and Resilience*. London: Palgrave Macmillan.
- Ramkissoon, R. (2002). Explaining Differences in Economic Performance in Caribbean Economies. Presented at International Conference on Island and the World Economy: small Island economies in the Era of Globalization. Center for International development: Harvard University.
- Rapaport, J., Muteba, E., & Therattil, J. J. (1971). *Small States & Territories, Status and Problems*, United Nations Institute for Training and Research Study, New York.: Arno Press.
- Schiff, M. (1997). Small is beautiful: Preferential Trade Agreements and the Impact of Country Size, Market Share, Trade Policy and Smuggling. *Journal of Economic Integration*, 12(3), 359-87.
- Schiff, M. (2002). Regional Integration and Development in Small States. *Policy Research Working Paper 2797*. Washington: The World Bank Development Research Group.
- Thorhallsson, B. (1996). The Size of States in the European Union: Theoretical and Conceptual Perspectives. *European Integration*. 28(1), 7-31
- The World Bank Databank: GDP (current US\$)*. Retrieved from <https://www.data.worldbank.org/indicator/NY.GDP.MKTP.CD>
- The World Factbook. Country Comparison: GDP (Purchasing Power Parity)* <https://www.cia.gov/library/publications/the-world-factbook/rankorder/2001rank.html>
- The World Factbook. Country Comparison: Population*, Retrieved from <https://www.cia.gov/library/publications/the-world-factbook/rankorder/2119rank.html>
- Winters. L.A., & Martinis, P.M.G. (2004). When Comparative Advantage is Not Enough: Business Costs in Small Remote Economies. *World Trade Review*, 3(3), 347-383.