Cultural Diversity a Barrier to Riches?

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Using a theory based gravity equation, we first show that cultural dissimilarity nega-

tively affects bilateral imports of countries. More importantly, we examine Hunting-

ton's the Clash of Civilizations hypothesis and provide evidence that the impact of

cultural heterogeneity on trade flows is far more accentuated in the post-Cold War

period than during the Cold War, a result that confirms Huntington's thesis from

an economic standpoint. In the post-Cold War period, two countries that belong to

different civilizations have 40% lower import flows than those of the same civilization,

whereas this effect is insignificant during the Cold War. Alternatively, in the post-Cold

War epoch, import flows of a country pair with different majority ethnicity are 51%

lower than those that sharing the same heritages, whereas this effect is only 27% in

the Cold War era.

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## I. Introduction

There is a widespread agreement on the importance of the role culture plays in economic interactions (Felbermayr and Toubal, 2010; Guiso et al., 2009; Rauch and Trindade, 2002). In this context, culture is considered to be a source of informational cost and/or a source of uncertainty that acts as a barrier in trade relations of countries. In this paper, we feed into this line of discussion and scrutinize the impact of civilizational/cultural dissimilarity on bilateral trade across countries and across time periods.

The first contribution of this study is to test whether cultural dissimilarity between countries is, by and large, a trade barrier. We do that by estimating a theory based gravity model of international trade and by using a comprehensive set of cultural variables that allow us to look at different aspects of culture. We start off with deriving our empirical specification from the well-established theory of gravity equations (see, for instance, Anderson and Van Wincoop, 2003; Baldwin and Taglioni, 2007). Subsequently, using data on bilateral imports from 1950 to 2006 as well as Huntington's (1998) typology of civilizations, we provide evidence that when two countries in a dyad are members of different civilizations their import flows are up to 20% lower than that of two countries of the same civilization. Furthermore, we extend the analysis using Ellingsen's measure of religious, ethnic and linguistic fragmentation within countries. This data set provides us with majority religious groups, majority ethnic groups and majority linguistic groups in countries between 1945-1994<sup>1</sup>, and hence, allows us to examine whether sharing a dominant cultural heritage such as religion, ethnicity or language has an impact on countries trade relations. We show that when two countries in a dyad do not share the same religion or the same

<sup>1.</sup> The original data by Ellingsen (2000) have been extended up until 2001 by Gartzke and Gleditsch (2006).

ethnicity or the same language their trade relations are strongly hampered. While two countries with different dominant ethnicity have 38 percent lower mean imports, this figure increases to 46 percent for two countries not sharing the same dominant language.

Parallel to the fact that this paper adds to the discussion on the relationship between culture and trade, its main contribution lies in a more specific issue. We examine Huntington's "The Clash of Civilizations?" hypothesis from an economic point of view. In his much acclaimed thesis, Huntington (1993a, 1993b, 1998, 2000) claims that the great divisions among humankind and the dominating source of conflict in the post-Cold War era will be cultural. He furthers his predictions by stating that the violent struggles among peoples will result as a consequence of the fault lines between civilizations at the micro level; however, at the macro level, states from different civilizations will compete for economic and political power (Huntington, 1993). Although the Clash of Civilizations in the post-Cold War hypothesis entited a number of authors into testing it for conflicts and battles between countries (Chiozza, 2002; Gokmen, 2011; Henderson, 1997, 1998; Henderson and Tucker, 2001; Russett et al., 2000), the fact that Huntington's predictions also indicated an economic clash among countries remained overlooked and no author ever put it into rigorous testing. This is exactly the aim of the present paper. We probe Huntington's projections of an economic clash in the post-Cold War era from an economic standpoint. Our findings are in support of the Clash of Civilizations thesis. We provide evidence suggesting that there is a strong surge in economic clash in terms of trade relations across countries in the post-Cold War era compared to the Cold War era. Two countries that belong to different civilizations have 40% reduced import flows in the post-Cold War period compared to two countries of the same civilization, whereas this effect insignificant during the Cold War. Alternatively, in the post-Cold War epoch, import flows of a country pair with different majority ethnicity are 51% lower than those that sharing the same heritages, whereas this effect is only 27% in the Cold War era.

Our results are robust to alternative procedures of critical evaluation. Unlike some existing studies (Felbermayr and Toubal, 2010; Giuliano et al., 2006; Guiso et al., 2009; Rauch and Trindade, 2002), the data set we use not only contains European countries or a subset of the world, but the entire range of world countries. Moreover, we are careful to control for a large array of measures of geographic barriers as well as historical and policy related determinants of trade relations. Moreover, we include time-varying origin and destination fixed effects to account for the multilateral resistance terms. We also cluster standard errors at the country pair level.

The paper proceeds as follows. Section II delivers a brief outline of where this study stands in the literature. Section III lays out the methodology and describes the data. Section IV provides baseline and main estimation results. Section V tests Huntington's "The Clash of Civilizations?" hypothesis. Section VI challenges the sensitivity and robustness of our results. Finally, Section VII concludes.

# II. RELATED LITERATURE

This study is part of the literature in political science and international relations on the *Clash of Civilizations* thesis. This strand of literature focused on militarized disputes aspect of the thesis and completely ignored what the economic implications could be. For instance, Russett et al. (2000) and Henderson and Tucker (2001) assess the incidents of militarized interstate disputes between countries during the periods 1950-92 and 1816-1992, respectively. They find that such traditional realist influences as contiguity, alliances and relative

power as well as liberal influences of joint democracy and interdependence provide a much better account of interstate conflict involvement and that intercivilizational dyads are less, and not more, conflict prone. However, Huntington (2000) reacted to such studies criticizing time periods and claiming his predictions are valid in the post-Cold War era. As such, on a larger data set with a better coverage of the post-Cold War era, Gokmen (2012) provides evidence that even after controlling for geographic, political, military and economic factors, being part of different civilizations in the post-Cold War period brings about 71.2 percentage points higher probability of conflict than belonging to the same civilization, whereas it reduces the probability of conflict by 25.7 percentage points during the Cold War.

In addition, this paper substantially contributes to the literature on trade and culture (see, for instance, Felbermayr and Toubal, 2010; Giuliano et al., 2006; Guiso et al., 2009; Melitz, 2008; Rauch and Trindade, 2002). Felbermayr and Toubal (2010) establish a correlation between culture and trade using scores from European Song Contest as a proxy for cultural proximity. Giuliano et al. (2006) question the validity of genetic distance as a proxy for cultural distance in explaining trade relations and show that genetic distance only captures geographic barriers that are reflected in transportation costs across Europe. Guiso et al. (2009), on the other hand, show that bilateral trust between pairs of European countries leads to higher trade between them. Melitz (2008) disentangles the channels of linguistic commonality and finds that ease of communication facilitates trade rather through the ability to communicate directly than through translation. Lastly, on a subset of world countries, Rauch and Trindade (2002) show the importance of ethnic Chinese networks in international trade by expediting matches between buyers and sellers and by generating better contract enforcement for international transactions.

This study is also part of the vast literature attempting to explain bilateral trade flows using gravity models. Gravity equation is one of the most successful in empirical economics. Simply put, it explains bilateral international trade flows with GDP, distance, and other factors that conduce to trade barriers. Despite several attempts to theoretically justify gravity equations (Anderson, 1979; Anderson and Van Wincoop, 2003; Baldwin and Taglioni, 2007; Bergstrand, 1985, 1989, 1990), its success lies in its strongly consistent empirical findings. There is a wide range of empirical studies investigating the relationship between international trade flows and border effects (McCallum, 1995), internal or/and external conflict (Blomberg and Hess, 2006; Glick and Taylor, 2010; Martin et al., 2008; Rohner et al., 2011), currency unions (Glick and Rose, 2002; Rose, 2000; Rose and van Wincoop, 2001), General Agreements on Tariffs and Trade (GATT)/ World Trade Organization (WTO) (Rose, 2004), security of property rights and the quality of institutions (Anderson and Marcouiller, 2002; Berkowitz et al., 2006; de Groot et al., 2004; Nunn, 2007).<sup>2</sup>

Lastly, it is important to note that the recognition of the influence of cultural factors on social and economic phenomena is not new.<sup>3</sup> However, the curiosity in the field has been reignited only recently. In that respect, this study is partially related to a growing strand of literature on the impact of culture and institutions on social, political and economic outcomes (Alesina et al., 2003; Algan and Cahuc, 2007; Barro and McCleary, 2003; Botticini and Eckstein, 2005; Fernandez and Fogli, 2007; Giuliano, 2007; Guiso et al., 2003, 2004, 2008a, 2008b; Ichino and Maggi, 2000; Knack and Keefer, 1997; Spolaore and Wacziarg, 2009a, 2009b; Tabellini, 2007, 2008a, 2008b).<sup>4</sup>

<sup>2.</sup> For a recent survey of the literature on trade costs, see Anderson and Van Wincoop (2004). Anderson (2011) also provide a review of the recent developments in the gravity models literature.

<sup>3.</sup> Early seminal examples are Banfield (1958), Putnam (1993) and Weber (1958).

<sup>4.</sup> This list is not meant to be exhaustive. See, also, Fernandez (2007) and Guiso et al. (2006) for comprehensive surveys of the literature on the relation between culture and economic outcomes.

# III. METHODOLOGY AND DATA

In this section, we first lay out the theoretical set up, and accordingly, derive the empirical specification to be estimated. Subsequently, we give a description of the data set used in the analysis.

# III.A. Methodology

One of the first authors who provided clear microfoundations for the gravity model is Anderson (1979).<sup>5</sup> More recently, Anderson and Van Wincoop (2003) showed that most of the estimated gravity equations do not have a theoretical foundation and, by providing a theoretical framework that can be easily estimated, the authors reestablished the validity of the theory. With their theoretical framework they also facilitated the estimation of key parameters in a theoretical gravity equation relating bilateral trade to size, to bilateral trade barriers and to multilateral resistance terms. Below we provide a sketch of the theoretical framework for we want to stay as close to the theory as possible when it comes to estimation. From the following theoretical setup we derive an empirical specification. What follows is largely based on Anderson and Van Wincoop (2003, 2004) and Baldwin and Taglioni (2007).

Assume only one single differentiated good is produced in each country. Preferences are of constant elasticity of substitution (CES) functional form. Let  $m_{ij}$  be the consumption by country j consumers of goods imported from country i. Accordingly, consumers in country j maximize:

<sup>5.</sup> Bergstrand (1985) is another early attempt to theoretically justify gravity equations. Anderson (1979) provides a theoretical foundation for the gravity model under perfect competition based on constant elasticity of substitution (CES) preferences and goods that are unique to their production origin and are imperfectly substitutable with other countries' goods. Further theoretical extensions- for instance, Bergstrand (1989, 1990)- have preserved the CES preference structure and added monopolistic competition or a Heckscher-Ohlin structure.

$$\left[\sum_{i} \beta_{i}^{(1-\sigma)/\sigma} m_{ij}^{(\sigma-1)/\sigma}\right]^{\sigma/(\sigma-1)}$$

subject to the budget constraint:

$$\sum_{i} p_{ij} m_{ij} = Y_j$$

where  $\sigma$  is the elasticity of substitution between goods,  $\beta_i$  is a positive distribution parameter,  $Y_j$  is the nominal expenditure of country j on imported goods, and  $p_{ij}$  is the price of country i goods inside the importing country j, also called the "landed price."

Then, from the maximization problem, the nominal import expenditure on country i good is given as a function of relative prices and income level:

(3) 
$$p_{ij}m_{ij} = \left[\frac{\beta_i p_{ij}}{P_i}\right]^{(1-\sigma)} Y_j$$

where  $P_j$  is country j's CES price index, that is:

(4) 
$$P_j = \left[\sum_i (\beta_i p_{ij})^{(1-\sigma)}\right]^{1/(1-\sigma)}$$

Prices differ among partner countries due to trade costs. The landed price in country j of country i good is linked to the exporter's supply price,  $p_i$ , and trade costs,  $\tau_{ij}$ . Exporter in country i passes the bilateral trade costs on to the importer via the following pass-through equation:

$$(5) p_{ij} = p_i \tau_{ij}$$

which renders the price index as follows:  $P_j = \left[\sum_i (\beta_i p_i \tau_{ij})^{(1-\sigma)}\right]^{1/(1-\sigma)}$ .  $\tau_{ij}$  is a factor that reflects all trade costs, natural and man-made, between country i and country j. In addition to the transportation costs, these trade costs might reflect information costs, legal costs, regulatory and institutional costs, cost of business norms and all the remaining costs that altogether accrue up to bilateral trade barriers. This is where we see our cultural variable come into play as one of the bilateral trade barriers.

Denoting  $M_{ij}$  the value of imports, equation (3) combined with the passthrough equation of exporter's cost, (5), yields:

(6) 
$$M_{ij} = \left[\frac{\beta_i p_i \tau_{ij}}{P_j}\right]^{(1-\sigma)} Y_j$$

Imposing market clearance guarantees that the total income from exports of country i should be equal to the sum of import expenditure on good i in each and every market. In symbols:

$$(7) Y_i = \sum_j M_{ij}$$

which we can express as follows using the import expenditure equation, (6), for each country j:

(8) 
$$Y_i = (\beta_i p_i)^{(1-\sigma)} \sum_j \left(\frac{\tau_{ij}}{P_j}\right)^{(1-\sigma)} Y_j, \forall i$$

If we solve for  $\{\beta_i p_i\}^{(1-\sigma)}$ , after multiplying both sides of equation (8) by world nominal income  $\overline{Y} = \sum_i Y_i$ , we get:

(9) 
$$\left\{\beta_{i} p_{i}\right\}^{(1-\sigma)} = \frac{Y_{i}}{\overline{Y} \Omega_{i}^{1-\sigma}}$$

where 
$$\Omega_i \equiv \left[\sum_j \left(\frac{\tau_{ij}}{P_j}\right)^{(1-\sigma)} \lambda_j\right]^{1/(1-\sigma)}$$
 and  $\lambda_j \equiv \frac{Y_j}{\overline{Y}}$ .

Using above equation (9) and substituting it into equation (6) we can acquire the value of imports as:

(10) 
$$M_{ij} = \frac{Y_i Y_j}{\overline{Y}} \left( \frac{\tau_{ij}}{\Omega_i P_j} \right)^{(1-\sigma)}$$

This is our first-pass gravity equation. We can rearrange terms to make our gravity equation look similar to the gravitational force equation:<sup>6</sup>

$$M_{ij} = G \frac{Y_i Y_j}{\tau_{ij}^{\sigma-1}}$$

where 
$$G \equiv \frac{1}{\overline{Y}} \left( \frac{1}{\Omega_i P_j} \right)^{(1-\sigma)}$$
 .

6. A reminder for the reader of the law of gravity:

$$Gravitational\ Force = G \frac{M_i M_j}{distance_{ij}^2}$$

where  $M_i$  and  $M_j$  are the masses of the two objects;  $distance_{ij}$  is the distance between them and G is the gravitational constant.

Our final expression of the gravity equation relates bilateral imports positively to the size of the countries and negatively to the trade barriers between countries (since  $\sigma > 1$ ). Bilateral trade barriers,  $\tau_{ij}$ , are also referred to as "bilateral resistance". As mentioned earlier, one of the bilateral resistance terms is our variable of cultural dissimilarity between countries. Moreover, it is important to notice that the G term bears the price indices of the two countries. Although,  $\Omega_i$  and  $P_j$  could be interpreted as price indices in the model, they cannot be interpreted as price levels in general. These unobservable variables should be better thought of as nonpecuniary trade costs a country has with all its trading partners. Hence,  $\Omega_i$  and  $P_j$  represent average trade barriers of country i and country j, respectively, which we refer to as "multilateral resistance" terms following Anderson and Van Wincoop (2003).

As it is common practice in the literature, we work with the unidirectional trade flows.<sup>8</sup> Therefore, a log-linearized version of equation (11) gives us the empirical counterpart of the gravity equation that we are going to use throughout:

(12) 
$$\log M_{ij} = -\log \overline{Y} + \log Y_i Y_j + (1 - \sigma) \log \tau_{ij} + (\sigma - 1) \log \Omega_i P_j$$

<sup>7.</sup> Some empirical papers try to account for multilateral resistance by including a remoteness variable that is intended to reflect the average distance of country i from all trading partners other than country j. Anderson and Van Wincoop (2003) completely discard remoteness variables as they are entirely disconnected from the theory.

<sup>8.</sup> A common practice in the empirical literature is to work with the average of the two-way imports, the average of country i imports to country j and country j imports to country i. With no reference to the theory, averaging is done before log-linearizing, instead of after. This is a simple, though common, error, and, as shown by Baldwin and Taglioni (2007), it leads to biased estimates, especially so for countries with unbalanced trade.

Fortunately, it is easy to see what theory has to suggest. Let us multiply both sides of equation (11) by the value of imports from j to i,  $M_{ji}$ . Taking the geometric average of both sides, together with the symmetry of bilateral trade barriers assumption  $(\tau_{ij} = \tau_{ji})$ , yields:  $\sqrt{M_{ij}M_{ji}} = \frac{Y_iY_j}{\overline{Y}}\tau_{ij}^{1-\sigma} (P_iP_j)^{\sigma-1}$ . It is important to notice that theoretical gravity equation requires estimation of the average of the logs of unidirectional flows, rather than the log of the average.

One last pending issue before we can carry out estimations is how to treat multilateral resistance terms. Multilateral resistance terms are unobservable, however, their omission might lead to biased estimates as they are a function of bilateral resistance terms (Anderson and Van Wincoop, 2003). To remedy this problem, Anderson and Van Wincoop (2003) suggest that multilateral resistance terms can be accounted for with country-specific dummies in order to get consistent estimates. Subsequently, Feenstra (2002) show that an estimation strategy with exporting and importing country fixed effects produces consistent estimates of the average border effect across countries. Hence, our estimation strategy is to replace multilateral resistance terms with country fixed effects. With panels such importing and exporting country fixed effects should be time-varying as well. Finally, we have our empirical specification that is a log-linearized version of equation (11) together with time-varying importing country fixed effects and time-varying exporting country fixed effects.

Our focus in estimation is on the cultural barriers to trade, among others, for we deem such barriers as one of the most important trade barriers for the question at hand. Cultural variables reflect business norms, customs, beliefs, trust and information costs and they accrue up to bilateral barriers to trade and, in turn, might impede trade relations of countries. For expository simplicity, we disaggregate the bilateral trade barriers term and write our variable of interest -namely, civilizational/cultural heterogeneity- separately from other bilateral trade barriers. Hence, we restate our empirical specification that takes the following final form:

(13) 
$$\log Imports_{ijt} = a + \gamma C_{ij} + \alpha_k \tau_{kijt} + R_i * Year_t + R_j * Year_t + \epsilon_{ijt}$$

9. More discussion on time fixed effects follows below in Section II.B. Data.

where  $Imports_{ijt}$  is imports from country i to j; a is a constant;  $C_{ij}$  is our variable of interest, that is a binary variable that captures cultural heterogeneity across country dyads;  $\tau_{kijt}$  represents all of the k control variables we account for as bilateral trade barriers other than culture;  $R_i$  is exporting country fixed effects;  $R_j$  is importing country fixed effects;  $Year_t$  is yearly time fixed effects; and  $\epsilon_{ijt}$  is the unaccounted-for error term.

Note that a more befitting estimation strategy should also allow for, when appropriate, dyad fixed effects. Nevertheless, we cannot make use of dyad fixed effects as our variable of interest is either entirely time-invariant or has very little time variation. In order to be able to apply first-differencing or fixed-effects estimation methods we need each explanatory variable to change over time. Given that our main variable of interest is time-invariant, this methodology is not applicable. Therefore, using dyad fixed effects would wash away our variable of interest or would yield misleading estimates (Baltagi and Khanti-Akom, 1990).

## III.B. Data

Measure of Trade. Measures of dyadic imports from country i to country j as well as imports from country j into country i are acquired from Correlates of War Project International Trade Data Set Version 2.01.<sup>11</sup> Within this data set, the majority of the post-WWII data were obtained from the International Monetary Fund's Direction of Trade Statistics (2007 CD-ROM Subscription and hard copy versions for various years). These data were supplemented with data from Barbieri, Keshk and Pollins (2005), Barbieri's International Trade Dataset, Version 1.0 (Barbieri, 2002), and data from the Republic of China

<sup>10.</sup> Monadic variables, such as importing country's GDP or exporting country's GDP, are absorbed in time-varying multilateral resistance terms.

 $<sup>11.\,</sup> This \; data \; set \; is \; available \; at \; http://www.correlatesofwar.org/.$ 

(ROC), Bureau of Foreign Trade.<sup>12</sup>

Bilateral import flows and income variables are measured in current US Dollars (millions). Usage of real income variables, instead, would require us to deflate nominal trade values as well. Unfortunately, good price indices for bilateral trade flows are often unavailable. Hence, what most authors do is to deflate the nominal trade values using some price index for the U.S. This inappropriate deflation of nominal trade values is a common mistake that biases the results (Baldwin and Taglioni, 2007). As suggested by Baldwin and Taglioni (2007), this problem can be overcome by including time dummies. Time dummies will account for some of the proper conversion factor between U.S. dollars in different years, and hence, will reduce the bias. Moreover, time-fixed effects allow the intercept to vary across periods to account for different distributions in different time periods, which takes care of time-varying trends. These time effects are absorbed in the time-varying country fixed effects.

Measure of Civilizations/Culture. 179 countries are classified as members of various civilizations. As described in Gokmen (2011) and in Huntington (1998), these civilizations are Western, Sinic, Islamic, Hindu, Orthodox, Latin American, African, Buddhist and "Lone" States. The classification and the construction of civilization membership is based on Huntington (1998). Accordingly, each country is assigned to a civilization.<sup>13</sup>

Furthermore, country dyads are formed by pairing each country with one another, which resulted in 15931 dyads. To indicate civilizational heterogeneity within a dyad we construct a variable labeled "Different Civilizations" denoting whether a pair of countries belong to different civilizations. This variable

<sup>12.</sup> For more details, see Barbieri et. al. (2008, 2009). This data set runs between 1870-2006, though with a considerable number of missing values for early years. This is not a source of concern for us as we use the part of the data for the period 1950 on given our income data also start from the year 1950.

<sup>13.</sup> See Gokmen (2012) for the details of country specific civilizational memberships and a more detailed discussion on Huntington's thesis of clash of civilizations. Table 1A in the appendix presents the list of countries together with the corresponding civilizations.

is coded as one if in a dyad the two countries i and j belong to different civilizations and as zero if both countries belong to the same civilization. Out of 15931 country-pairs, 2875 pairs are formed of countries belonging to the same civilization and 13056 pairs belonging to different civilizations.

As a second measure of civilizational/cultural cleavages we use Tanja Ellingsen's 'Ethnic Witches' Brew Data Set' that provide us with data on religious, linguistic and ethnic fragmentation within countries between 1945-2001. Hellingsen (2000) collected data on the size and name of the linguistic, religious, and ethnic dominant group; the number of linguistic, religious, and ethnic groups; the size and name of the linguistic, religious, and ethnic minority group as well as ethnic affinities. She has obtained information from three reference books: Handbook of the Nations, Britannica Book of the Year and Demographic Yearbook. What is particularly important for our purpose in this data set is the information on the name and proportional size of the largest and the second largest linguistic, religious, and ethnic group. Similar to Gartzke and Gleditsch (2006), we have indicator variables for whether the two countries in a dyad have the same dominant religion, language and ethnicity, however, we recode these variables so that they take value one when two countries have different cultural backgrounds.

### Other Determinants of Trade.

Geographic barriers are proxies for transportation as well as information costs. Correspondingly, we have a range of geographic metrics such as contiguity variable that takes value one if there is any sort of land or water contiguity between two countries in a pair, zero otherwise. Additional geographic distance metrics such as the measure of the great circle (geodesic) distance between

<sup>14.</sup> The original data by Tanja Ellingsen runs from 1945 to 1994. We use the version of the data by Gartzke and Gleditsch (2006). For more details, see Ellingsen (2000) and Gartzke and Gleditsch (2006).

<sup>15.</sup> For contiguity data we use Correlates of War Project, Direct Contiguity Data, 1816-2006, Version 3.1 (Stinnett et al., 2002). See also Gochman (1991) for additional details.

the major cities of the countries.<sup>16</sup>

To control for historical, political and institutional links we include dummy variables for whether a dyad ever had a colonial relationship, i.e. whether one was a colony of the other at some point in time; had a common colonizer after 1945, i.e. whether the two countries have been colonized by the same third country, and whether the two countries have been part of the same polity.<sup>17</sup> In addition, a dummy variable for whether two countries in a pair have same legal origins is also created. Same legal origin in a pair of countries might reduce information costs related to legal and regulatory systems. Moreover, sharing same legal origins might enhance trust between interacting parties (Guiso et al., 2009). Hence, we have a binary variable that takes value one if the two countries in a dyad have the same legal origins, zero otherwise <sup>18</sup>

We also take into account policy related dyadic variables. As such, free trade area (FTA), GATT/WTO membership, common currency and generalized system of preferences (GSP) data are from Martin, Mayer and Thoenig (2008) and Thierry Mayer's webpage.<sup>19–20</sup>

Summary statistics are provided in Table 1B in the Appendix.

# IV. Results

We start off with simple correlation coefficients between log imports and our measures of culture. We observe in Table 1 that all of the variables of culture

<sup>16.</sup> See Head and Mayer (2002) for details.

 $<sup>17.\,</sup> These \quad data \quad come \quad from \quad CEPII. \quad The \quad data \quad are \quad available \quad athtp://www.cepii.fr/anglaisgraph/bdd/distances.htm.$ 

<sup>18.</sup> Legal origin indicators (common law, French civil law, German civil law, Scandinavian law, and Socialist law) are from La Porta et al. (1999).

 $<sup>19. \,</sup> Available \,\, at \,\, http://econ.sciences-po.fr/node/131$ 

<sup>20.</sup> As noted by Anderson and van Wincoop (2004), regional trade agreements may not be exogenous, and therefore, FTA included contemporaneously may suffer from reverse causality. A reasoning for this is that countries might have agreed on a trade agreement since they already have been trading lots for many reasons that are not observed by the econometrician. Consequently, we tried lagging FTA variable to overcome reverse causality up to four-period lags. The results concerning our variables of interest carry over.

indicate towards a negative relationship between trade flows and dissimilar cultural heritages. Moreover, different civilizations indicator is highly correlated with different religion and different language. We also observe a high correlation between different language and different ethnicity.

TABLE I: CORRELATION COEFFICIENTS

	Log	Different	Different	Different	Different
	Imports	Civilizations	Religion	Ethnicity	Language
Log Imports	1*				
Different Civilizations	-0.106*	1			
Different Religion	-0.052*	0.393*	1		
Different Ethnicity	-0.008*	0.237*	0.124*	1	
Different Language	-0.041*	0.400*	0.207*	0.404*	1

<sup>\*</sup> Significant at the 5 percent level or better.

Next we carry out regression analysis of gravity equations.

#### IV.A. Baseline Results

Standard "gravity" model of bilateral trade explains the natural logarithm of trade with the joint income of the countries and the logs of the distance between them together with border effects (see Anderson and van Wincoop, 2003 and Rose, 2004). We extend this analysis by counting for dyadic trade barriers and time-varying country fixed effectrs.

Table 2 provides the estimation output. In column (1) of Table 2 we look at how different civilizational memberships alone impact trade in a gravity equation regression controlling for other determinants of trade flows and time-varying importing and exporting country fixed effects. We extend the basic specification by accounting for a full set of geographical barriers to trade. Distance decreases, contiguity increases trade. The effect of different civilizations indicator is both economically and statistically significant. If two countries in a dyad belong to different civilizations their import flows drop by 20%.<sup>21</sup>

21. Since 
$$[exp(-0.227) - 1] * 100 \simeq -20\%$$

TABLE II: IMPACT OF CULTURE ON BILATERAL TRADE, ALTERNATIVE Measures of Culture

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)
Different Civilizations	-0.227***				-0.111***			-0.004
	(0.035)				(0.037)			(0.040)
Different Religion	, ,	-0.293***			, ,	-0.233***		-0.231***
_		(0.031)				(0.032)		(0.035)
Different Ethnicity		, ,	-0.491***			, ,	-0.256***	-0.252***
-			(0.080)				(0.080)	(0.080)
Different Language			, ,	-0.626***	-0.561***	-0.550***	-0.541***	-0.465***
				(0.064)	(0.068)	(0.066)	(0.066)	(0.070)
ln Distance	-0.980***	-1.000***	-0.999***	-0.978***	-0.961***	-0.965***	-0.971***	-0.958***
	(0.024)	(0.022)	(0.023)	(0.023)	(0.024)	(0.023)	(0.023)	(0.024)
Contiguity	0.399***	0.390***	0.396***	0.397***	0.392***	0.381***	0.390***	0.374***
	(0.071)	(0.072)	(0.070)	(0.069)	(0.069)	(0.070)	(0.069)	(0.069)
Colonial Link	1.166***	1.149***	1.171***	1.066***	1.077***	1.065***	1.082***	1.081***
	(0.077)	(0.076)	(0.076)	(0.077)	(0.077)	(0.077)	(0.077)	(0.077)
Same Country	0.794***	0.807***	0.807***	0.752***	0.757***	0.768***	0.765***	0.781***
	(0.119)	(0.120)	(0.121)	(0.119)	(0.119)	(0.120)	(0.121)	(0.121)
Common Colonizer	0.540***	0.515***	0.531***	0.537***	0.532***	0.508***	0.527***	0.499***
	(0.063)	(0.063)	(0.063)	(0.062)	(0.062)	(0.062)	(0.062)	(0.062)
Same Legal Origin	0.335***	0.348***	0.341***	0.304***	0.303***	0.311***	0.308***	0.315***
	(0.028)	(0.028)	(0.028)	(0.028)	(0.028)	(0.028)	(0.028)	(0.027)
FTA	0.362***	0.392***	0.415***	0.410***	0.386***	0.395***	0.412***	0.397***
	(0.062)	(0.063)	(0.062)	(0.061)	(0.062)	(0.062)	(0.061)	(0.062)
Both in WTO	0.264***	0.261***	0.259***	0.226***	0.206***	0.186***	0.204***	0.165***
	(0.056)	(0.057)	(0.055)	(0.055)	(0.055)	(0.055)	(0.054)	(0.054)
Common Currency	0.643***	0.638***	0.665***	0.697***	0.689***	0.682***	0.699***	0.683***
	(0.086)	(0.086)	(0.086)	(0.087)	(0.087)	(0.087)	(0.087)	(0.087)
GSP	0.600***	0.546***	0.536***	0.568***	0.597***	0.574***	0.564***	0.572***
	(0.042)	(0.042)	(0.042)	(0.042)	(0.042)	(0.041)	(0.042)	(0.042)
Importer-Year Effects	YES							
Exporter-Year Effects	YES							
$\overline{N}$	385379	385379	385379	385379	385379	385379	385379	385379
$R^2$	0.717	0.718	0.718	0.718	0.719	0.719	0.719	0.719

Regressand: log Imports. Robust standard errors (clustered at the dyad level) are in parentheses. \* p < 0.10, \*\* p < 0.05, \*\*\* p < 0.01

Colonial links and common history are commonly considered to be reflecting historical and institutional backgrounds (Blomberg and Hess, 2006; Glick and Taylor, 2005; Rose, 2004). Since they might be capturing an element of culture as well, the coefficient on different civilizations variable is probably reduced with the inclusion of colonial links, common colonizer and same country dummies, though still large and statistically significant. Colonial links and common history increase trade relations.

As discussed by Guiso et al. (2009), sharing same legal origin might proxy for informational costs as well as norms of dealing with property rights. A quick look at Table 2 tells us that countries that have the same legal origin trade significantly more. Their import flows are approximately 40 percent higher.

We also take into account policy related variables such as free trade agreements (FTA), GATT/WTO membership, common currency and GSP. As expected, FTAs, common GATT/WTO memberships, common currency and GSP positively affect trade flows. Even in our full specification with an entire set of controls, our different civilizations indicator is statistically very significant and has a considerably large economic effect. Two countries of different civilizations trade 20 percent less than two countries of the same civilization.

To reiterate our findings further we now investigate the effect of other measures of cultural cleavages. Using *Ellingsen's Measure* of majority religions, ethnicities and languages within countries we probe the relationship between trade flows and sharing dominant religious, ethnic and linguistic heritages. To this end, we bring in new indicator variables for when the two countries in a dyad have different majority religion or different majority ethnicity or different majority language.

Second column of Table 2 shows that having different dominant religion negatively affects trade relations. Columns (3) and (4) do the same exercise when

the two countries have different majority ethnicity and different majority language, respectively. When the two countries in a dyad have different dominant ethnicity they have about 38 percent lower import flows than the two countries that have the same dominant ethnicity. On the other hand, two countries with different majority language have 46 percent less imports. Columns (5), (6) and (7) look at the effects of three indicators of cultural difference when language is controlled for. We do that in order to show that cultural difference variables on civilizations, religion and ethnicity do not capture the effect coming from communication channel. As such, we show that even when the communication channel is taken into account previous results carry over.

From the analysis of this section we can conclude that cultural differences negatively affect countries' bilateral trade relations and countries of different cultures trade a lot less than those of the same culture.

# V. Economic Clash of Civilizations?

When Samuel Huntington put his "The Clash of Civilizations?" hypothesis forward and hypothesized that "the great divisions among humankind and the dominating source of conflict in the post-Cold War era will be cultural" (Huntington, 1993), he did not only have military clashes in mind but also economic and political clashes. At the micro level, the violent struggles among peoples will result as a consequence of the fault lines between civilizations, however, at the macro level, states from different civilizations will compete for economic and political power (Huntington, 1993). Differences in culture and religion engender differences over policy issues, ranging from human rights to immigration, and, more importantly in this paper's context, to trade and commerce. Huntington's "The Clash of Civilizations?" hypothesis drew a lot of attention to military conflicts between countries and some authors have tried testing it from different

angles (Chiozza, 2002; Gokmen, 2011; Henderson, 1997, 1998; Henderson and Tucker, 2001; Russett et al., 2000). Nevertheless, to our knowledge, the economic clash aspect has never been put to rigorous econometric testing. Therefore, we take the challenge and test whether there has been an amplification in economic clash in the post-Cold War era as Huntington suggested.

Huntington takes civilizations as the main unit of his analyses. A civilization is defined as "a cultural entity, the highest cultural grouping of people and the broadest level of cultural identity people have short of what distinguishes humans from other species. It is defined both by common objective elements, such as language, history, religion, customs, institutions, and by the subjective self-identification of people." Huntington takes the central defining characteristic of a civilization as its religion; hence, the major civilizations in human history have been closely identified with the world's great religions. These civilizations outlined include the Sinic, Japanese, Hindu, Islamic, Orthodox, Western, Latin American, Buddhist and possibly African civilizations plus "lone" countries that do not belong to any of the major civilizations.

According to Huntington, inter-civilizational differences stand out in the way individuals comprehend the relations between God and man, the individual and the group, the citizen and the state, parents and children, husband and wife as well as in the weight of importance they put in matters of responsibility and rights, freedom and authority, and equality and hierarchy. He further claims that these differences are largely irresolvable; they are the product of centuries and are far more fundamental than differences among political ideologies and political regimes as they concern the very self-identification of man. The fact that people identify themselves with a civilization inevitably implies that they think of themselves separately from other civilizations and differentiate them-

<sup>22.</sup> Huntington (1993a), p.23-24.

selves from the members of other civilizations. To highlight this point, Huntington argues that identity at any level -personal, tribal, racial, civilizational - can only be defined in relation to an "other", a different person, tribe, race, or civilization. This brings about a group identity in the simple form of "us" and "them" which nurtures clashes with those that are different.

Huntington (1993, 1998), viewing culture as the "cause," suggests that civilizations tend to clash with other civilizations that do not share their culture, world view and values. Such vehement tendencies, he argues, long held in check by the Cold War, have been unleashed by the end of the Cold War and, from then onwards, form the dominant pattern of global conflict. One theorem that logically devolves from Huntington's cultural realist rendering of clashing civilizations is that the degree of cultural dissimilarity between states should predict the likelihood of clashes between them. In this view, culturally dissimilar dyads, ceteris paribus, should be more inclined to conflict than culturally similar dyads. As such, Huntington claims that in the post-Cold War world the most important distinctions among peoples are not ideological, political, or economic, but they are cultural, and therefore, he prophesies that in the post-Cold War<sup>23</sup> era, compared to the Cold War era, we are to witness a surge in the clash of civilizations. By the end of the Cold War, the demise of ideology will accentuate the differences between civilizations and the clashes between civilizations will be unleashed. Not only militarized clashes between civilizations will ensue but also economic ones. For instance, the economic issues between the United States and Europe are no less serious than those between the United States and Japan, but they do not have the same political salience and emotional intensity because the differences between American culture and European culture are so much less than those between American civilization and Japanese civilization.<sup>24</sup> This

 $<sup>23.\,\</sup>mathrm{By}$  most, Cold War is considered to have lasted between 1945-1991.

<sup>24.</sup> Huntington (1993a), p.34.

is to say that cultural differences exacerbate economic conflict, especially so in the post-Cold War world. This is what we empirically test from an economic clash standpoint in what follows.

Before carrying out regressions, to see whether there is seemingly an economic clash of different civilization country pairs we plot mean trades calculated for different and same civilizations and their difference at each year. As such, Figure I delivers a first-pass understanding of how trade relations of countries from different and same civilizations evolved over time. We observe that from 1950s up until current day mean trade between countries of the same civilization has always been more than that of countries of different civilizations (left scale). This is not very informative as the two seem to evolve in a very similar pattern. However, if we look at the evolution of the difference between the mean trade of the same civilization countries and different civilization countries, we notice a rather different story (right scale). This difference seems to be rather stable from 1950 up until some point around 1985. From that point on, we see that this difference always has an upward trend and the increase in mean same civilization trade is more than the increase in mean different civilizations trade. This analysis from Figure I indicates two rather different stories, one for the Cold War period and another one for the post-Cold War period.

If we turn to Table 3, we observe a set of correlation coefficients for both Cold War and post-Cold War periods in columns (1) and (2), respectively. Each cell of a row reports the coefficient of correlation between a cultural variable of interest and log imports in the two respective time periods. Except for different religion indicator, there is a strong changing trend from Cold War to post-Cold War. For instance, the size of the coefficient for different language indicator is much larger in the post-Cold War period compared to the Cold War period or the coefficient of different ethnicity indicator changes signs from one period to

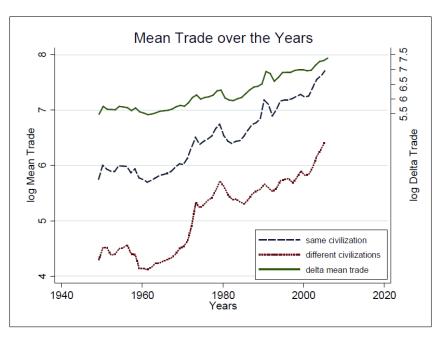


FIGURE I: EVOLUTION OF MEAN BILATERAL TRADE OVER THE YEARS FOR DIFFERENT AND SAME CIVILIZATION COUNTRY DYADS

the other. Nevertheless, simple correlation coefficients are satisfactory enough to have a robust analysis. Next, we carry on regression analysis.

A cursory look at Table 4 would convince one that there is a surge in economic clash in the post-Cold War era as Huntington hypothesized. Each cell of a row reports the regression coefficient of a cultural variable of interest in the two respective time periods. The effect of belonging to two different civilizations on bilateral trade is much bigger in the post-Cold War era. Although different civilizations membership negatively impacts trade in the Cold War, it is statistically insignificant. On the other hand, in the post-Cold War era, two countries that belong to different civilizations have about 40% less imports than two countries that share the same civilization. This finding is very robust and is not subject to the definition of culture. In the following rows of the Table 4 we repeat the same exercise with our various measures of culture. Both economic

TABLE III: CORRELATION BETWEEN CULTURE AND TRADE: COLD WAR VS. POST-COLD WAR COMPARISONS

	(1)	(2)
	Cold War	post-Cold War
Different Civilizations	-0.097*	-0.123*
' D 1	0.055*	0.059*
Different Religion	-0.055*	-0.053*
Different Ethnicity	0.004*	-0.025*
J		
Different Language	-0.011*	-0.086*

All correlation coefficients are between Log Imports and the corresponding culture variable.

significance and statistical significance is much stronger in the post-Cold War era than in the Cold War era. For instance, when the two trading partners do not share the same dominant ethnicity, their imports is reduced by 27% during the Cold War; whereas in the post-Cold War epoch they import 51 percent less than a pair of countries that share these values.

These findings are very strong. In the post-Cold War period countries of different civilizational/cultural heritage have shown to display a much stronger economic clash than in the Cold War era. May the cultural heritage be being part of a civilization as Huntington classified or a more concrete definition of dominant religious, ethnic and linguistic populations, the results do not change. We observe that these results show us the end of the Cold War brought about more conflictual economic relations among countries of heterogeneous cultural backgrounds. In Table 5 we carry out the same analysis with a diff-in-diff approach instead of splitting the sample. Previous results and interpretations carry over.

 $<sup>^{*}</sup>$  Significant at the 5 percent level or better.

TABLE IV: IMPACT OF CULTURE ON TRADE: COLD WAR VS. POST-COLD WAR COMPARISONS

	(1)	(2)	(3)
	Cold War	post-Cold War	Chow P-value
Different Civilizations	-0.038	-0.514***	0.000
	(0.040)	(0.040)	
Different Religion	-0.177***	-0.435***	0.000
	(0.037)	(0.037)	
Different Ethnicity	-0.324***	-0.715***	0.000
	(0.090)	(0.086)	
Different Language	-0.336	-1.062***	0.000
	(0.072)	(0.070)	

Regressand: log Imports. Regressors included but with unrecorded coefficients: ln Distance, Contiguity, Colonial Link, Same Country, Common Colonizer, Same Legal Origin, FTA, Both in WTO, Common Currency, GSP and time-varying importing and exporting country fixed effects. Robust standard errors (clustered at the dyad level) are in parentheses.

TABLE V: IMPACT OF CULTURE IN THE POST-COLD WAR

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
Different Civilizations	0.064			
	(0.038)			
Different Civilizations×Post-Cold War	-0.690***			
	(0.033)			
Different Religion	(01000)	-0.104***		
Different Rengion		(0.036)		
Different Religion×Post-Cold War		-0.421***		
Different Rengion XI ost-Cold war				
D:6		(0.040)	0.105**	
Different Ethnicity			-0.187**	
_			(0.089)	
Different Ethnicity×Post-Cold War			-0.746***	
			(0.076)	
Different Language				-0.207***
				(0.071)
Different Language×Post-Cold War				-1.040***
				(0.060)
$\overline{N}$	385379	385379	385379	385379
$R^2$	0.719	0.718	0.718	0.719
	0.,10	0.,10	0.,10	··· ±0

Regressand: log Imports. Regressors included but with unrecorded coefficients: ln Distance, Contiguity, Colonial Link, Same Country, Common Colonizer, Same Legal Origin, FTA, Both in WTO, Common Currency, GSP and time-varying importing and exporting country fixed effects. Robust standard errors (clustered at the dyad level) are in parentheses.

<sup>\*</sup> p < 0.10, \*\* p < 0.05, \*\*\* p < 0.01

<sup>\*</sup> p < 0.10, \*\* p < 0.05, \*\*\* p < 0.01

# VI. SENSITIVITY ANALYSIS

In this section we challenge the sensitivity of our results. We do that, first, by including a popular measure of cultural distance -namely, genetic distance variable- and testing whether our measures of culture survive the inclusion of genetic distance.

## VI.A. Our Measures of Culture vs. Genetic Distance

Genetic distance variable as a proxy for culture has recently attracted a myriad of researchers (Giuliano, Spilimbergo and Tonon, 2006; Guiso, Sapienza and Zingales, 2009; Spolaore and Wacziarg, 2009a, 2009b). Moreover, Desmet et al. (2006) provide empirical support for choosing genetic distance as a proxy for cultural differences measured by World Values Survey. To that end, we would like to test the sensitivity of our measures of culture against genetic distance variable and see how they fare in comparison.

Genetic distance is a summary measure of differences in allele frequencies across a range of neutral genes (or chromosomal loci). Correspondingly, the index constructed measures the genetic variance between populations as a fraction of the total genetic variance. Given genetic characteristics are transmitted throughout generations at a regular pace, genetic distance is closely linked to the times when two populations shared common ancestors. It is argued that the degree of genetic distance also reflects cultural distance for culture can be transmitted across genetically related individuals, and therefore, populations that are farther apart genealogically tend to be, on average, more different in characteristics that are transmitted with variations from parents to children.<sup>25</sup>

<sup>25.</sup> For more details and the discussion on the construction of genetic distance between populations, its corresponding mapping onto countries and its cultural implications, interested reader should see Cavalli-Sforza and Feldman (1981), Cavalli-Sforza et al. (1994), Giuliano, Spilimbergo and Tonon (2006) and Spolaore and Wacziarg (2009a).

In this strand of the literature, for instance, using genetic distance as a measure of cultural similarity/dissimilarity, researchers tried to explain the differences in the level of development across countries (Spolaore and Wacziarg, 2009a), the effect of culture on the likelihood of conflict involvement of country dyads (Spolaore and Wacziarg, 2009b) or the level of trust populations have for each other (Guiso, Sapienza and Zingales, 2009).

Given the above discussion and the importance of genetic distance in recent times we deem it necessary to establish the robustness of our results to the inclusion of this variable. The genetic distance data we use are from Spolaore and Wacziarg (2009a) as the genetic distance information on populations is mapped onto countries.

TABLE VI: DO OUR MEASURES OF CULTURE SURVIVE GENETIC DISTANCE?

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
Different Civilizations		0.083**			
		(0.039)			
Different Civilizations×Post-Cold War		-0.661***			
		(0.035)			
Different Religion			-0.121***		
			(0.037)		
Different Religion×Post-Cold War			-0.414***		
			(0.041)		
Different Ethnicity				-0.173*	
				(0.090)	
Different Ethnicity $\times$ Post-Cold War				-0.607***	
				(0.080)	
Different Language					-0.228***
					(0.071)
${\bf Different\ Language}{\times} {\bf Post\text{-}Cold\ War}$					-0.952***
					(0.061)
Genetic Distance	-0.00009***	-0.00012***	-0.00010***	-0.00008***	-0.00010***
	(0.00002)	(	(0.00002)	(0.00002)	(0.00002)
Genetic Distance×Post-Cold War	-0.00018***	-0.00005**	-0.00017***	-0.00014***	-0.00013***
	(0.00002)	(0.00002)	(0.00002)	(0.00002)	(0.00002)
$N_{\parallel}$	382002	382002	382002	382002	382002
$R^2$	0.718	0.720	0.720	0.719	0.721

Regressand: log Imports. Regressors included but with unrecorded coefficients: In Distance, Contiguity, Colonial Link, Same Country, Common Colonizer, Same Legal Origin, FTA, Both in WTO, Common Currency, GSP and time-varying importing and exporting country fixed effects. Robust standard errors (clustered at the dyad level) are in parentheses.

We present the results in Table 6. Before contrasting our measures of culture

<sup>\*</sup> p < 0.10, \*\* p < 0.05, \*\*\* p < 0.01

with genetic distance we, first, would like to consider whether genetic distance has any explanatory power in trade relations when we take into account basic determinants of trade barriers and how it changes after the demise of the Cold War. Giuliano, Spilimbergo and Tonon (2006) suggest that the effect captured by genetic distance is geographic barriers, not cultural ones. The authors show that the same geographic determinants that explain transportation costs also explain genetic distance. In addition, they provide evidence that genetic distance in a gravity equation of bilateral trade has no significance once one controls for transportation costs. Having said that, in the first column of Table 6, without including our measures of culture, we regress import flows on genetic distance, its interaction with post-Cold War dummy and the entire set of control variables. Genetic distance appears as statistically significant, has a negative effect on imports and this impact is much stronger in the post-Cold War period, a finding that supports our previous results.

Subsequently, we carry on with our tests of whether our measures of culture survive genetic distance. In column (2) of Table 6 we observe that our binary indicator of different civilizations not only maintains its negative sign and high statistical significance, but it also has a sizeable economic magnitude. When two countries in a dyad belong to different civilizations, the change in the negative impact of different civilization on imports in the post-Cold War period is about 48%.

In columns (3), (4) and (5) we carry out similar exercises for the robustness of different religious, different ethnic and different linguistic heritage variables to the inclusion of genetic distance variable. In all three cases our measures of culture do not suffer from the inclusion of genetic distance and they are significant. That is to say that even after controlling for genetic distance, countries that have different dominant religion or different dominant ethnicity or different

dominant language trade less with one another than country pairs that share the same values and this effect is much stronger in the post-Cold War period.

All in all, we can confidently conclude from the above analysis that our measures of culture are not sensitive to the inclusion of genetic distance as a proxy for culture. Therefore, if we believe that genetic distance captures an element of culture, our measures of culture explain some additional constituent of culture which is not explained by genetic distance.

# VII. CONCLUSION

This paper contributes to the literature on the relation between culture and bilateral trade flows of countries. First contribution of the paper is to establish the link between cultural dissimilarity and mean bilateral imports of countries. However, the main novelty of this study is to test Huntington's the *Clash of Civilizations* hypothesis from an economic perspective.

To be more specific, this paper first shows whether cultural dissimilarity between countries is, by and large, a barrier to trade. We do that by estimating a theory based gravity model of international trade and by using a comprehensive set of cultural variables that allow us to look at different aspects of culture. Based on Huntington's classification and categorization of civilizational membership of countries, over the period of 1950 to 2001, we provide evidence that when two countries in a dyad are members of different civilizations their import flows are up to 20% lower than that of two countries of the same civilization. We also show that when two countries in a dyad do not share the same ethnicity or the same language their trade relations are strongly worsened. While two countries with different dominant ethnicity have 38 percent lower imports, two countries with different dominant language have 46 percent lower imports.

Furthermore, we examine Huntington's "The Clash of Civilizations?" hy-

pothesis from an economic clash point of view. We provide evidence suggesting that there is a very strong surge in economic clash (in terms of trade relations) across countries in the post-Cold War era compared to the Cold War era. For instance, two countries that belong to different civilizations have 40% reduced imports in the post-Cold War period compared to two countries of the same civilization, whereas this effect is insignificant during the Cold War. Alternatively, when the two trading partners do not share the same dominant ethnicity, their imports is reduced by 27% during the Cold War; whereas in the post-Cold War epoch they trade 51 percent less than a pair of countries that share these values.

Establishing the impact of culture on trade and how this relationship evolves throughout time might only be the tip of an iceberg. One natural question to ask upon observing our results is the reason why we see such a sharp pattern of increased economic clash in the post-Cold War era. Huntington claimed that we observe such clashes because the demise of ideology in the aftermath of the Cold War unleashed cultural fault lines that were previously held in check by the ideological doctrines. Therefore, a natural future line of research would be to look into whether this claim is true and to identify the underlying reasons as for why there is a *Clash of Civilizations*.

# APPENDIX

	THI I DIVDIA
TABLE 1A. Civiliz	ation Membership
Civilization Western	Country Andorra, Australia, Austria, Barbados, Belgium, Canada, Croatia,
Western	
	Czech Rep., Denmark, Dominica, Estonia, Finland, France, French
	Guiana, Germany, Greenland, Grenada, Hungary, Iceland, Ireland, Is-
	rael, Italy, Jamaica, Latvia, Liechtenstein, Lithuania, Luxembourg,
	${\it Malta, Monaco, Netherlands, New Zealand, Norway, Papua New Guinea,}$
	Philippines, Poland, Portugal, San Marino, Slovakia, Slovenia, Solomon
	Islands, Spain, Sweden, Switzerland, Trinidad and Tobago, United King-
Sinic Islamic	dom, United States, Vanuatu. China, Hong Kong, North Korea, South Korea, Taiwan, Vietnam. Afghanistan, Albania, Algeria, Azerbaijan, Bahrain, Bangladesh, Bosnia
	and Herzegovina, Brunei, Burkina Faso, Chad, Djibouti, Egypt, Er-
	itrea, Gambia, Guinea, Guinea-Bissau, Indonesia, Iran, Iraq, Jordan,
	Kyrgyzstan, Kuwait, Lebanon, Libya, Malaysia, Mali, Mauritania, Mo-
	rocco, Niger, Oman, Pakistan, Qatar, Saudi Arabia, Senegal, Somalia,
	Sudan, Syria, Tajikistan, Tunisia, Turkey, Turkmenistan, United Arab
Hindu Orthodox	Emirates, Uzbekistan, Yemen. Guyana, India, Nepal. Armenia, Belarus, Bulgaria, Cyprus, Georgia, Greece, Kazakhstan,
Latin American	Macedonia, Moldova, Romania, Russia, Serbia, Ukraine. Antigua and Barbuda, Argentina, Bahamas, Belize, Bolivia, Brazil,
	Chile, Colombia, Costa Rica, Cuba, Dominican Rep., Ecuador, El Sal-
	vador, Guatemala, Honduras, Mexico, Nicaragua, Panama, Paraguay,
	Peru, Puerto Rico, Saint Lucia, St. Vincent & Grenadines, Uruguay,
	Venezuela.
African	Angola, Benin, Botswana, Burundi, Cameroon, Cape Verde, Central
	African Republic, Comoros, Congo, Congo Dem. Rep. (Zaire), Equator-
	ial Guinea, Gabon, Ghana, Ivory Coast, Kenya, Lesotho, Liberia, Mada-
	${\it gascar, Malawi, Mauritius, Mozambique, Namibia, Nigeria, Rwanda, Sao}$
	Tome and Principe, Sierra Leone, South Africa, Suriname, Swaziland,
	Tanzania, Togo, Uganda, Zambia, Zimbabwe.
Buddhist	Bhutan, Cambodia, Lao People's Dem. Rep., Mongolia, Myanmar, Sin-
	gapore, Sri Lanka, Thailand.
"Lone" States	Ethiopia, Haiti, Japan.
Source: Author's or	wn construction based on Huntington (1998).

TABLE 1B: Summary Statistics

	Mean	Std.	Min	Max
Log Imports	1.148	3.072	-24.83	12.66
Different Civilizations	0.817	0.386	0	1
Different Religion	0.607	0.488	0	1
Different Ethnicity	0.964	0.185	0	1
Different Language	0.951	0.214	0	1
Log Distance	8.713	0.788	2.349	9.901
Contiguity	0.042	0.201	0	1
Colonial Link	0.016	0.126	0	1
Same Country	0.010	0.101	0	1
Common Colonizer	0.086	0.281	0	1
Same Legal Origin	0.372	0.483	0	1
FTA	0.029	0.169	0	1
Both in WTO	0.439	0.496	0	1
Common Currency	0.016	0.126	0	1
GSP	0.082	0.275	0	1

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