Tolerance and economic growth revisited: A note

Abstract

Berggren and Elinder (BE) in this journal write on the relationship between the degree of

tolerance in a nation and its rate of economic growth. They are disturbed to find in their cross

sections that higher economic growth statistically goes together with low tolerance of

homosexuals. In this comment, we revisit the issue and demonstrate that the concern

expressed by BE is unwarranted if we properly account for "conditional convergence" in the

regressions for economic growth. Other things being equal, a country grows faster if it starts

from a poorer initial position. In the BE dataset, China since the Deng reforms is a prime

example. At about the same time, another group of countries managed to accelerate their

economic growth after a long period of stagnation: the ex-communist countries in central and

Eastern Europe. Many of these nations also grew exceptionally fast for a number of years,

once freedom had been regained and the initial chaos overcome. With simple modeling of

these historical initial conditions, we find no statistical pattern that associates low tolerance

for homosexuals with weaker economic growth. Our results are robust under alternative

specifications.

Keywords

Tolerance; Growth

JEL codes

O40; Z13

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1. Introduction

A recent article in this journal by Berggren and Elinder (2011) (hereafter BE) focuses on the association between the degree of tolerance in different countries and economic growth. BE emphasize responses to one of two questions in the World Values Survey (WVS) about tolerance for homosexuality and find that countries with less tolerant attitudes on average exhibit stronger economic growth. As they note, such a result would contradict the popular writings of Richard Florida (2005) who has argued that successful world cities need a culture that is welcoming of gays and especially of their contributions to the creative areas of the urban economy.¹

BE are distressed by their conclusion and write that "one may very well advocate tolerance toward homosexuals in spite of this finding [of a negative relationship between the degree of tolerance and growth], as there are other, and to many people more important, goals than growth." ² BE argue that productive and innovative people who are sexually prejudiced would refrain from moving into tolerant places. Staying in places with more tolerance towards homosexuality would reduce their productivity.

BE have very kindly provided their rich data set which combines the Survey responses with national economic, demographic and government indicators. We use it for the same sample of 56 countries (reduced to 54 countries in some specifications, both in their paper and in this comment) to show that their concern is unwarranted. More recent data allow yet another test for a sample that includes more East Asian countries – fast growing but with different, more conservative values as compared to the Rich West, butagain there is no evidence of growth being promoted by a low tolerance of homosexuals.

¹ See also Marlet and Woerkens (2007).

² They also test for the responses to the question in the WVS about people from a different race as neighbors and find the positive coefficient they are looking for. That also is true in our analysis, but the coefficient is insignificant, so we focus here on the contentious issue of economic growth and tolerance of homosexuals.

One of the principal causes for the contrast between the findings of BE and our results with their dataset lies in the modeling of "conditional convergence". In neoclassical growth models, such as Solow (1956), Cass (1965), and Koopmans (1965), a country's GDP per capita growth rate is negatively related to its starting level of GDP per capita. The convergence issue in growth theory has generated much discussion in the literature. Integral to these discussions are the concept of β and σ -convergence (Barro and Sala-i-Martin 1991). Regions tend to converge over different time periods at a strikingly similar speed of around 2% per vear.³ All of BE's regression equations have growth over some period as the dependent variable and the level of GDP per capita as one of the explanatory variables. We replace that level by the logarithm of initial GDP per person, in line with the literature, since the distance between, for example, the poorest country in their sample, Tanzania with a GDP per capita of \$652 (PPP corrected) in the start year (1998) and Turkey's \$6418 is very likely to be more relevant for potential future growth than the gap between two upper-middle income countries such as Turkey and Argentina (\$13,132). All of our results below, however, hold also for BE's level of GDP.

2. Tolerance and economic growth revisited

BE measure tolerance for homosexuals by answers to a question (A132) in the third wave of the WVS, which was conducted in 1995-1998:

"On this list are various groups of people. Could you please sort out any that you would not like to have as neighbors?"

³ Refer to Quah (1996) and Sala-i-Martin (1996) for a review of empirical findings on convergence.

They take the percentage of respondents who do not mention homosexuals as undesirable neighbors. In addition to using BE's variable, we also use answers to another question (F118)⁴ on homosexuality:

"Please tell me for each of the following actions whether you think it can always be justified, never be justified, or something in between".

Answers to this question are on a scale of 1 to 10 with 1 meaning 'never justifiable' and 10 meaning 'always justifiable'. Therefore, in both cases, higher numbers mean greater tolerance, but answers to question F118 should have more information since this question asks for a response on a ten-point scale. Here, we employ both measures of tolerance for homosexuals and find no significant differences in our regression models.

BE are correct in pointing out that very tolerant countries grow more slowly on average than less tolerant countries. The first column of Table 1 shows the simplest possible regression using their dataset and their measure of tolerance. Results for the full WVS wave 5 dataset and with the alternative variable for tolerance (not shown here) are broadly similar. There is a simple explanation: tolerance for homosexuals increases as people urbanize and work in service industries (Štulhofer and Rimac 2009). Thus, the rich countries tend to be more tolerant. But because Switzerland is already so rich, it can no longer get the boost to economic growth from "catching up" that is available to poorer countries.

There need not be a causal link between tolerance and growth when the low growth as well as the broad social tolerance in Switzerland and other rich countries are both functions of high income, urbanization and a preponderance of service industries.

One could, for example, also correlate growth with the well-known indicator developed by Barro and Lee (2010) for the average number of years of schooling of females.⁵ Perhaps no

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⁴ This question has been more commonly used in research because it has served as one of the components for the Inglehart-Welzel index of "self-expression values" (see Bomhoff and Gu 2011; Inglehart and Welzel 2005; Inglehart 2007). Two fewer countries are covered by this alternative question in wave 3 than by the question used by BE, thus reducing the sample size slightly.

other single variable is so strongly predictive of economic development than is female education. The same type of regression as before – not shown here – just correlating growth with the number of years of schooling for all females, does deliver an even stronger negative coefficient. There is no need, however, to rush to a wrong deduction and claim – copying the language in BE when they comment on the correlation between tolerance for homosexuals and growth - that education of girls is desirable "in spite of this finding". The correlation simply summarizes in one number that poor countries have fewer girls with a full education and that these countries also have the potential for catching up and thus grow faster on average. It is therefore important to account better for conditional convergence, since otherwise the computer will conclude wrongly from the negative association between growth (higher on average in poor countries) and the indicator variable – tolerance (lower on average in these poor countries).

In BE's Table 1, models 2 and 3 are the most satisfactory. We start from BE's richer model 3 and make the following changes in order to better account for initial historical conditions. First, for clarity of presentation and also to limit the number of regressors in a modestly sized sample of 54 countries, we omit a number of insignificant variables from BE's models 2 and 3 (keeping these variables does not change our findings). Second, we add a dummy variable for the 15 ex-communist countries, as in BE's 15-variable model 4 (see section 3 for more discussion). Third, we add a second shift variable for the three Baltic republics – again see section 3 for a justification based on the common histories of Estonia, Latvia and Lithuania. Finally, adopting BE's cut-off point for outliers (defined as standardized residuals greater than 2.5), we add dummies for fast growing China and Ireland. The second column of Table 1 reports the regression results after the above changes are made

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⁵ See http://www.barrolee.com/data/yrsch2.htm .

⁶ We are able to duplicate both exactly. BE's model 4 has 16 explanatory variables for a set of 54 countries which appears excessive. Also, the crucial coefficient on homosexuality is much less significant in model 4 than in models 2 and 3.

to model (3) in BE. Although not reported here, preliminary analyses also include education (average years of schooling), tolerance towards other racial groups and regional dummies for the European Union, Asia and North America. These variables are found to be statistically insignificant and their inclusion shows little change in the coefficients of other variables in our model.

3. Tolerance in Central and Eastern Europe

We want our models to reflect that all fifteen ex-communist countries in the sample exited from communism and Russian domination and then suffered a very large drop in GDP over the period 1991-1994, just a few years before BE started measuring growth. That traumatic transition also created the potential for very rapid catching-up in this group of countries in which values of all adults were still formed under communist rule. In order to account for this, we use data from Angus Maddison's (2003) unique historical dataset for national GDP. Maddison's research puts numbers on the terrible waste under communism as he offers estimates of GDP per capita for all countries in the BE sample; annual numbers for the larger countries and a single number for 1973 for the Baltic republics, Moldavia and Ukraine which at the time were part of the USSR and no longer independent nations. For consistency, we work with the 1973 numbers for all ex-communist countries and compare these to Maddison's estimates for 1990, the first full year after the fall of communism, as well as 1994, the end of the depression following the breakdown of Comecon, and 1998, the start year of the analysis in BE.

In Western Europe, GDP per capita increased by an average of 40% between 1973 and 1990, in spite of two oil price hikes and concomitant recessions in 1973-1975 and 1980-1982. In all 15 ex-communist countries in our sample, by contrast, GDP increased by some 10% on average, Between 1990 and 1998, the start year in BE, Western Europeans gained another

13%, but in Central and Eastern Europe, GDP per capita fell in 12 out of our 15 countries, stagnated in Hungary and went up only in Poland and Slovenia.⁷

The data also illustrate that the three Baltic republics are somewhat special. Here is some potted history. When Hitler invaded Poland in the fall of 1939, Stalin had begun the implementation of a secret protocol in the Molotov-Ribbentrop pact. After escalating threats, the Red Army occupied Lithuania on June 15, 1940, Estonia on June 16 and Latvia on June 17. All three countries dissolved into the Soviet Union. In August 1989, 50 years after the Molotov-Ribbentrop pact, the citizens of Estonia, Latvia and Lithuania joined hands for a 600 km protest against the Soviets and soon after the three Baltic republics became independent nations again. In the course of the 1990s they lifted legal bans on homosexuality and later passed legislation against homophobic discrimination – a pre-requisite for joining the European Union, which the Baltics managed to do in 2004.

In 1973, the three Baltic republics were some 30% poorer on average than neighboring Finland; in 1998, Estonia was 45% poorer, Latvia and Lithuania were at one third of the Finnish level. These countries have forests and can produce their own cement, but otherwise natural resources are limited, so that trends in GDP must be related primarily to human capital and politics. After almost 50 years of forced economic integration in the USSR, their small economies at first suffered terribly from the legacy of central planning when they became independent nations again and had to pay in hard currency for all their imports. Ukraine and Moldava suffered even more than the Baltics between 1990 and 1998, and were less able to recover in more recent years, perhaps because they have much less openness and an even

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⁷ For consistency, we use Maddison's GDP estimates for 1998 for this comparison with 1973. We need approximations for Slovenia, Slovakia and the Czech Republic, since these countries did not exist in 1973. Maddison's initial year of GDP per capita for these territories is 1990, immediately after the transition, but before the full impact of the break-up of Comecon hit, with the low point in GDP per capita reached around 1994. We take the ratio of GDP in the territory of the future Czech Republic to GDP in all of Czechoslovakia in 1990 and apply that to Maddison's estimate of GDP for all of Czechoslovakia in 1973; likewise for Slovakia. Similarly for Slovenia, we use the fact that GDP per capita in the territory of future Slovenia in 1990 was twice as high as the average in that year for all of Yugoslavia and apply that ratio to Maddison's estimate for Yugoslavia in 1973 to get an estimate for Slovenia in 1973; likewise for Croatia.

more tragic history, and because they were not given a chance to embark on the road towards membership of the European Union.

As mentioned above, 1973 is the first year after the Iron Curtain descended for which we have a consistent set of estimates of GDP per capita. We insert Maddison's numbers in the BE equations to proxy for historical conditions, hoping to capture something of Baltic strength of human capital and institutions from the past. A test for equality of the coefficient for the Baltics and the other 12 countries in the sample is strongly rejected, so we allow for a separate coefficient on the same variable for Estonia, Latvia and Lithuania. The three Baltics exhibit even stronger catching-up after 1994, and that must reflect institutional strengths from longer historical connections to Sweden or Finland and a Hanseatic history of trading with cities in the West

4. Empirical Results

Table 1 reports our empirical results. Note that the dollar value of initial GDP in the second column of Table 1 is quite insignificant here (also in the original BE models: the level of GDP has *t*-values ranging from 0.09 to 1.3 in their four models and thus never reaches significance). To account better for conditional convergence, we re-estimate, replacing the dollar level of GDP by its natural logarithm. The results are reported in the third column of Table 3. The Jacque-Bera test indicates that both models 2 and 3 satisfy the requirement of normally distributed errors.

Table 1 Cross-sectional regression results

| Dependent variable: | | | |
|--|----------|---------------------|---------------------|
| Average annual growth in real GDP per capita 1998-2007 | (1) | (2) | (3) |
| Constant | 4.833*** | 3.428*** | 7.592*** |
| | (0.870) | (0.984) | (2.455) |
| Tolerance homosexuals | -2.614** | 0.145 | 1.048 |
| | (1.190) | (0.916) | (0.943) |
| Gini | | -0.024 | -0.030* |
| | | (0.018) | (0.016) |
| Transition countries dummy | | 2.139*** | 2.108*** |
| Transition countries duminy | | (0.50) | (0.409) |
| China dummy | | 7.112*** | 6.825*** |
| Ciniia duniniiy | | (1.135) | (1.096) |
| Turbond donner | | 2.845** | 2.980*** |
| Ireland dummy | | 2.843 (1.094) | 2.980 (1.060) |
| | | , , | , |
| Baltics dummy | | 2.652*** (0.702) | 2.823*** (0.684) |
| | | , , | (0.001) |
| Initial GDP/capita 1998 (thousands of dollars) | | -0.0121 (0.000) | |
| (mousands of donars) | | (0.000) | |
| Initial GDP/capita 1998 (natural logarithm) | | | -0.500* |
| Jarque-Bera statistic | 6.27** | 3.26 | (0.261) 1.73 |
| • | | | |
| Adjusted R^2 | 0.09 | 0.70 | 0.72 |
| Observations Notice * *** and *** denotes similar and 10% 50% and 10% | 56 | 56 | 56 |

Notes: *, *** and **** denotes significance at 10%, 5% and 1%, respectively. The Breusch-Pagan-Godfey heteroscedaticity test indicates that the null hypothesis of homoscedasticity cannot be rejected in model (2) and model (3). However, heteroscedasticity is found to be present in Model (1). Figures in parentheses represent the standard errors. For model (1), White heteroscedasticity-consistent standard errors are reported. The Jarque-Bera (JB) statistic has a χ^2 distribution with two degrees of freedom under the null hypothesis of normally distributed errors.

Model 3 in Table 1 explains 72% with seven explanatory variables – much better than the 16-variable model (4) in BE with an r-squared of 48% and double the explanatory power of their models (1)-(3). These results are confirmed by further tests (not shown here), where we measure the tolerance of homosexuals in the alternative manner, using responses to question F118 about attitudes toward homosexuality. We also re-run the model changing the

start year to 1996 – just before the East Asian crisis and the crash of the Russian Ruble. Again, no important changes are found. A robustness check that replaces the Baltics and transitional country dummies with the log of GDP per capita 1973 (Baltics) and log GDP per capita 1973 (ex-communist countries) produces similar results. In addition, results from specification test together with Akaike's and the Schwartz Criterion provide evidence that both our models (2) and (3) are preferable to BE's model (refer to the Appendix).

It is worth noting that the coefficient on initial GDP in 1998 in our model is much more significant than in BE. Their low significance on this variable statistically explained why another variable – tolerance for homosexuals – obtained a significance that was inappropriate.⁹

BE's concern is gone: there is no statistical link between low tolerance of homosexuality and high economic growth.

There remains a puzzle, though, namely why tolerance for homosexuals is on average so low in the ex-communist countries. Various researchers have analyzed trends in values in these countries. Easterlin (2009) notes exceptionally large declines in life satisfaction during the initial years after the fall of communism. A sharp rise in income inequality in this period, coupled with the greater vulnerability of older people to all these changes, made senior respondents especially bitter.

Looking in some more detail at the distribution of the responses, we find that in the three Baltics, a minuscule 1.6% of the 4200 respondents are fully OK with homosexuality; 12% of the 5700 respondents in the other four ex-communist countries close to the West hold that fully tolerant view. At the other side of the spectrum, 49.8% of the Baltic respondents below age 30 feel that homosexuality is completely unacceptable; 27.9% of the young people in the

⁸ Results not produced here.

⁹ Omitted variable bias can cause significant predictors to appear to be insignificant.

Czech Republic, Slovakia, Slovenia and Poland agree with them. In Spain, for example, only 11% of the young take that severe view of homosexuality. Selezneva (2010) summarizes a large number of papers on values in the ex-communist nations and also concludes that greater economic uncertainty in the ex-communist countries could well reinforce traditional attitudes and social norms.

5. Conclusion

In this comment, we revisit BE's study, which finds a negative relationship between the degree of tolerance and economic growth over the 1998-2007 period. Our results how no such relationship, but explain growth much better with more attention to initial conditions. Tolerance on average increases as countries get richer. But intolerance is in no way a factor that helps economic growth. We conclude that the concern in BE is unwarranted.

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Appendix: Specification Test

Table A1 Specification Test

| | BE's Model (3) | Model (2) | Model (3) |
|------------------------------------|----------------|-------------|-------------|
| Ramsey's RESET test | | | |
| Likelihood ratio | | | |
| No of fitted terms: 2 | 16.08*** | 0.72 (0.70) | 1.05 (0.59) |
| No of fitted terms: 3 | 19.97*** | 0.97 (0.81) | 1.05 (0.79) |
| No of fitted terms: 4 | 22.75*** | 6.14 (0.19) | 1.48 (0.83) |
| Akaike information criterion (AIC) | 3.96 | 3.11 | 3.04 |
| Schwarz criterion (SC) | 4.40 | 3.40 | 3.33 |

Notes: * denotes significance at 1%. Figures in parentheses represent the probability. Model (2) and (3) in the last two columns correspond with the model (2) and (3) in Table 1.

We employ the Ramsey's Regression Specification Error test (RESET) to compare our model specification with that of BE's. Ramsey RESET jointly tests whether the coefficients on the predicted squared, cubed and fourth powers are equal to zero. Results from Table A1 show that Ramsey rejects BE's model, indicating that BE's model is misspecified. In addition, both Akaike's and the Schwartz Criterion provide evidence that both our models (2) and (3) are preferable to BE's model.

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