The non-independence of nations and why it matters

Scott Claessens¹ & Quentin D. Atkinson^{1,2}

- ¹ School of Psychology, University of Auckland, Auckland, New Zealand
- ² Max Planck Institute for Evolutionary Anthropology, Leipzig, Germany

Author Note

- This working paper has not yet been peer-reviewed.
- The authors made the following contributions. Scott Claessens: Data curation, Formal
- analysis, Investigation, Software, Visualization, Writing original draft, Writing review &
- 9 editing; Quentin D. Atkinson: Conceptualization, Funding acquisition, Supervision, Writing -
- review & editing.

1

2

5

- 11 Correspondence concerning this article should be addressed to Quentin D. Atkinson,
- Floor 2, Building 302, 23 Symonds Street, Auckland, 1010, New Zealand. E-mail:
- 3 q.atkinson@auckland.ac.nz

2

Abstract

Cross-national analyses test hypotheses about the drivers of global variation in national 15 outcomes. However, since nations are connected in various ways, such as via spatial 16 proximity and shared cultural ancestry, cross-national analyses often violate assumptions of 17 non-independence, inflating false positive rates. Here, we show that, despite being recognised 18 as an important statistical pitfall for over 200 years, cross-national research in economics and 19 psychology still does not sufficiently account for non-independence. In a review of the 100 20 highest-cited cross-national studies of economic development and values, we find that 21 controls for non-independence are rare. When studies do include controls for 22 non-independence, our simulations suggest that commonly used methods continue to produce 23 false positives. In reanalyses of twelve cross-national relationships, we show that half are no longer significant after controlling for non-independence using global proximity matrices. We 25 urge social scientists to sufficiently control for non-independence in cross-national research.

27 Keywords: spatial non-independence; cultural non-independence; cross-national 28 analyses; simulations; replications; reanalyses

Word count: 5459 words

30

The non-independence of nations and why it matters

Nations are perhaps the single most important population unit structuring modern
human life. The nation in which someone is born has a large effect on what they can expect
out of life, including their income level¹, life expectancy², mental health³, subjective
well-being⁴, and educational attainment⁵. Nations are also among the most important
determinants of human cultural variation, with greater cultural similarity within than
outside national borders⁶.

Given the importance of nations for structuring human behaviour, there is justifiably huge interest in statistical analyses that attempt to predict variation in national outcomes of all kinds. At the time of writing, a search in Web of Science for the terms "cross-national", "cross-cultural", or "cross-country" in titles and abstracts returned 80,000 unique hits. The standard practice for cross-national analyses is to conduct bivariate correlations or multiple regressions with individual data points representing different nations. Such analyses widen the scope of social science beyond Western populations^{7,8} and have been used to study, among other topics, the causes of variation in the economic wealth of nations⁹⁻¹², global patterings of cultural norms and values¹³⁻¹⁶, and the universality and diversity of human behaviour and psychology around the world¹⁷⁻²⁰.

However, cross-national analyses are complicated by the fact that nations are not statistically independent data points. Unlike independent random samples from a population, nations are related to one another in a number of ways. First, nations that are closer to one another tend to be more similar than distant nations. This phenomenon is known as spatial non-independence²¹, and it occurs because nations in close spatial proximity share characteristics due to local cultural diffusion of ideas²² and regional variation in climate and environment²¹. For example, the neighbouring African nations Zambia and Tanzania have similar levels of terrain ruggedness, which has been used to partially explain their similar levels of economic development²³. This pattern conforms to

Tobler's first law of geography: "everything is related to everything else, but near things are more related than distant things" (p. 236).

Second, nations with shared cultural ancestry tend to be more similar than culturally unrelated nations. This is known as cultural phylogenetic non-independence^{25–27}, and occurs because related nations share cultural traits inherited via descent from a common ancestor. Shared cultural ancestry can result in a form of pseudoreplication, whereby multiple instances of the same trait across nations are merely duplicates of the ancestral original. For example, despite being separated by over 1,500 kilometres of ocean, the related island nations Tonga and Tuvalu share similar languages and customs due to cultural inheritance from a common Polynesian population dating back more than 1,000 years. More recently, shared ancestry explains a myriad of cultural similarities between colonial settlements and their colonisers (e.g. Argentina and Spain).

Spatial and cultural phylogenetic non-independence between nations make

cross-national inference challenging. A fundamental assumption of regression analysis is that

model residuals should be independently and identically distributed²⁸. But without

accounting for spatial or cultural non-independence between nations, model residuals can

show structure that remains unaccounted for, violating this assumption. Treating nations as

independent can thus inflate false positive rates²⁹, producing spurious "direct" relationships

between variables that in fact only indirectly covary due to spatial or cultural connections³⁰

(see Supplementary Figure S1 for an example causal model).

Non-independence between data points is widely acknowledged in fields that routinely deal with spatially or culturally structured data. In ecology and sociology, studies with regional-level data use a variety of autoregressive models designed to account for spatial patternings^{31,32}. In anthropology, researchers have recognised cultural non-independence as an important statistical pitfall for over 200 years, with issues of cultural pseudoreplication being identified in early comparative studies of marriage practices across societies²⁵. More

recently, the Standard Cross-Cultural Sample of 186 cultures was compiled to minimise the
confounding effects of non-independence in comparisons of traditional societies³³, though
spatial and cultural dependencies are difficult to remove entirely^{34,35}. Anthropologists also
borrow phylogenetic comparative methods from evolutionary biology, such as phylogenetic
least squares regression³⁶, when comparing traditional societies, treating culturally related
societies in the same way as biologists treat genetically related species (e.g.^{37,38}).

At the national level, recent reanalyses have revealed that several cross-national 88 relationships reported in economics and psychology do not hold when controlling for 89 non-independence between nations. One study replicated 25 analyses of "persistence" in 90 economics, in which modern national outcomes are regressed against historical characteristics 91 of those nations, and found that over half of the relationships were attenuated when 92 controlling for spatial non-independence³⁹. Another replication study found that many of the widely publicised relationships between national-level pathogen prevalence and political institutions and attitudes fail to hold when controlling for various kinds of non-independence⁴⁰. These reanalyses, and others^{41–43}, raise the question: how widespread a concern is non-independence in studies of national-level outcomes? 97

To address this question, we consider national-level variables of general interest across 98 the social sciences: economic development and cultural values. These variables are frequently gg included as both outcomes and predictors in cross-national studies in economics and 100 psychology^{9–16}. First, we show that economic development and cultural values are spatially 101 and culturally non-independent across nations, emphasising the need to control for 102 non-independence. Second, we systematically review the 100 highest-cited cross-national 103 studies of economic development and cultural values and estimate the proportion of 104 cross-national analyses within these articles that account for non-independence between 105 nations. Third, we run simulations to determine whether common methods of dealing with 106 non-independence in the literature sufficiently reduce false positive rates. Fourth, we 107

reanalyse twelve previous cross-national analyses of economic development and cultural
values from our systematic review, incorporating global geographic and linguistic proximity
matrices to correctly control for spatial and cultural non-independence.

111 Results

National-level economic development and cultural values are spatially and culturally non-independent

In order to motivate our research question, it is important to first show that economic 114 development and cultural values are indeed spatially and culturally non-independent around 115 the world. To this end, we used Bayesian multilevel models to simultaneously estimate 116 geographic and cultural phylogenetic signal for the Human Development Index⁴⁴ and two 117 primary dimensions of cultural values from the World Values Survey, traditional vs. secular 118 values and survival vs. self-expression values 16. For all three of these variables, we found that 119 a substantial proportion of national-level variation was explained by spatial proximity and 120 shared cultural ancestry between nations (Figure 1). In our models, shared cultural ancestry 121 explained over half of the national-level variation in economic development and cultural 122 values, with spatial proximity explaining most of the remaining national-level variance. 123 Bayes Factors indicated strong evidence that these estimates of geographic and cultural 124 phylogenetic signal differed from zero, aside from the geographic signal for survival values, 125 for which the evidence was equivocal (see Supplementary Results). These findings emphasise the need to account for spatial and cultural phylogenetic non-independence in cross-national 127 analyses of economic development and cultural values. 128

Previous cross-national analyses have not sufficiently accounted for non-independence

Given that economic development and cultural values show evidence of geographic and cultural phylogenetic signal, have cross-national analyses sufficiently accounted for this

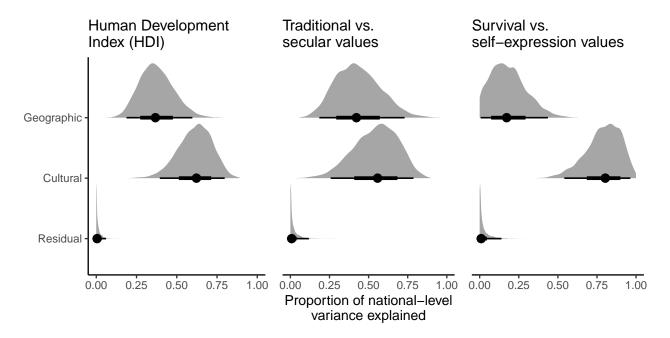


Figure 1. Posterior estimates of geographic and cultural phylogenetic signal for the Human Development Index and Inglehart's traditional and survival values. Geographic and cultural phylogenetic signal are operationalised as the proportion of national-level variance explained by geographic and linguistic proximity matrices. Grey ridges are full posterior distributions, points are posterior median values, and lines are 50% and 95% credible intervals.

non-independence? To assess this, we systematically searched the published literature for 133 articles that combined the search terms "economic development" or "values" with the search 134 terms "cross-national", "cross-cultural", or "cross-country". We removed articles that did not 135 report original research, were not relevant to economic development or cultural values, or did 136 not report at least one cross-national analysis. We then retained the 100 articles (50 for 137 economic development, 50 for cultural values) with the highest annual rate of citations. For 138 each of these highly-cited articles, we exhaustively recorded every cross-national analysis 139 reported in the main text (n = 4,308), identifying in each case whether or not the analysis 140 attempted to control for spatial, cultural, or any other form of non-independence between 141 nations (see Methods for detailed search criteria and coding decisions).

The results of our systematic review show that most published articles and

143

cross-national analyses make no attempt to account for statistical non-independence. Figure 144 2a plots the proportion of articles that contain at least one cross-national analysis accounting 145 for non-independence. We find that 42% of economic development articles contain at least 146 one attempt to control for non-independence (95% bootstrap confidence interval [0.30 0.54]), 147 while this proportion decreases to only 8% for cultural values articles (95% bCI [0.02 0.16]). 148 Both kinds of article are most likely to use regional fixed effects (e.g. continent fixed effects) 149 to account for non-independence, but some articles also include controls for spatial distance 150 (e.g. latitude) and shared cultural history (e.g. colony status). 151

Focusing on the full sample of 4,308 analyses, we find that the proportion of individual cross-national analyses accounting for non-independence is even lower (Figure 2b). Across 2,487 cross-national analyses from studies of economic development, only 5% are estimated to control for non-independence (95% credible interval [0.02 0.15]). Similarly, across 1,821 cross-national analyses from studies of cultural values, only 1% are estimated to control for non-independence (95% CI [0.00 0.02]).

Since our systematic review goes back as far as 1993 (Figure 2c), it is possible that our estimates are being biased by earlier studies, and that controls for non-independence have increased over time with methodological advancements and greater awareness of the issue.

To test this possibility, we fitted a time trend to the full sample of analyses with a Bayesian multilevel spline model. However, we found that, for both studies of economic development and cultural values, the estimated probability of controlling for non-independence has remained low since 1993 (Figure 2d).

Common methods of controlling for non-independence produce inflated false positive rates

Our systematic review revealed that most cross-national analyses in the literature do not control for spatial or cultural phylogenetic non-independence. When they do, they tend

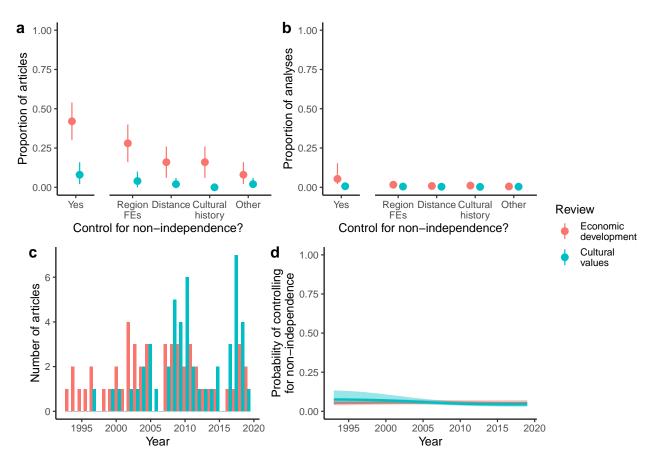


Figure 2. Results from systematic review of 100 highly-cited cross-national studies of economic development (red) and cultural values (blue). (a) Proportion of articles containing at least one analysis accounting for non-independence, overall and split by common methods of controlling for non-independence. Point ranges represent proportions and 95% bootstrap confidence intervals. (b) Adjusted proportion of individual analyses accounting for non-independence, overall and split by method. Point ranges are posterior medians and 95% credible intervals from Bayesian multilevel logistic regressions. (c) Histogram of publication years for studies of economic development and cultural values. (d) Estimated trend over time for the probability of controlling for non-independence. Lines and shaded areas are posterior median regression lines and 50% credible intervals from a Bayesian multilevel spline model. Region FEs = region fixed effects.

to include controls like latitude and regional fixed effects. Do these methods sufficiently account for statistical non-independence?

To compare the efficacy of different methods in the literature, we conducted a 171 simulation study. We simulated national-level datasets (n = 236 nations) with varying 172 degrees of spatial or cultural phylogenetic autocorrelation (i.e. non-independence) for 173 outcome and predictor variables, but with no direct causal relationship between the variables. 174 We then fitted naive regressions without controls to these datasets, as well as regression 175 models with controls for latitude, longitude, and continent fixed effects. Despite not being 176 identified in our systematic review, we also included fixed effects for the language families of 177 the majority-spoken languages in each country, as this control is often used to account for 178 cultural phylogenetic non-independence (e.g. 45). In addition, we included Conley standard 179 errors, a widely used standard error correction that purportedly accounts for spatial 180 non-independence^{46,47}. Finally, we included Bayesian multilevel regressions that explicitly 181 model spatial and/or cultural phylogenetic non-independence by allowing nation random 182 intercepts to covary according to global geographic and/or linguistic proximity matrices (see 183 Supplementary Methods). To model spatial non-independence we included a Gaussian 184 process^{48,49} over latitude and longitude values, and to model cultural phylogenetic 185 non-independence we assumed that nation random intercepts were correlated in proportion 186 to their linguistic proximity⁵⁰. Across all model types, false positive rates were measured as 187 the proportion of models that estimated a slope with a 95% confidence / credible interval 188 excluding zero (i.e. falsely infering a relationship when none is present).

Figures 3 and 4 plot the estimated false positive rates from our simulation study, split
by different methods and different degrees of spatial or cultural phylogenetic autocorrelation
(see Supplementary Figures S2 and S3 for full distributions of effect sizes under strong
autocorrelation). For reference, "weak" autocorrelation in our simulation is comparable to
the geographic signal for survival values in Figure 1, while "moderate" and "strong" levels of

autocorrelation are comparable to the cultural phylogenetic signal for traditional and
 survival values, respectively.

Our simulation study revealed that with at least moderate degrees of spatial or
cultural phylogenetic autocorrelation for both outcome and predictor variables, naive
regression models produce false positive rates above chance levels. This false positive rate
increases as the degree of autocorrelation increases. With strong spatial autocorrelation for
both outcomes and predictors, false positive rates reach as high as 71%. We find a slightly
lower false positive rate under strong cultural phylogenetic autocorrelation, though this false
positive rate is still greater than expected by chance (38%).

Common methods in the literature do not reduce these high false positive rates. With 204 strong spatial autocorrelation for both outcome and predictor variables, false positive rates remain above 50% when controlling for latitude, longitude, and language family fixed effects (Figure 3). Applying Conley standard errors also does not reduce false positive rates below 50% under strong spatial autocorrelation, regardless of the distance cutoff. Continent fixed effects are more effective than other frequentist methods, though they continue to produce a 200 false positive rate of 28% under strong spatial autocorrelation. By contrast, Bayesian spatial 210 Gaussian process regression with longitude and latitude values outperforms all other 211 methods. This approach eliminates false positives under moderate spatial autocorrelation, 212 such that the false positive rate is no different from chance, and reduces the false positive 213 rate under strong spatial autocorrelation to 17%. Bayesian models that additionally account 214 for linguistic proximity between nations perform equally well, though models with only 215 linguistic covariance continue to produce false positives. 216

In our simulation of cultural phylogenetic non-independence, we find that most frequentist methods do not reduce false positive rates (Figure 4). Controls for latitude and longitude, continent fixed effects, and Conley standard errors do little to change false positive rates. Language family fixed effects are slightly more effective than other frequentist

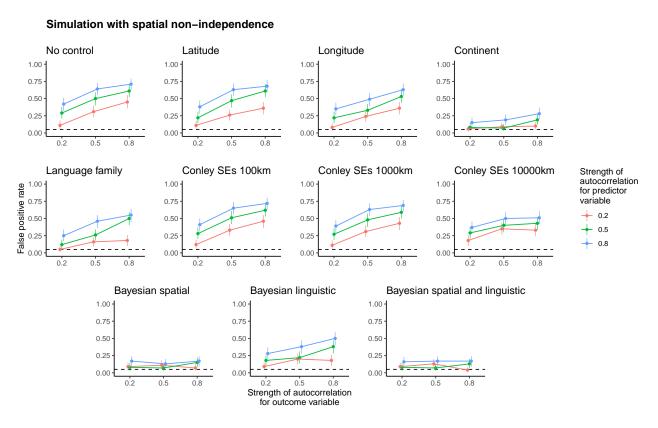


Figure 3. False positive rates for different methods of controlling for spatial non-independence in our simulation study. For simulated outcome and predictor variables, we systematically varied the strength of spatial autocorrelation, from weak (0.2) to moderate (0.5) to strong (0.8). We simulated 100 datasets per parameter combination and fitted different models to each dataset. False positive rates were operationalised as the proportion of models that estimated a slope with a 95% confidence / credible interval excluding zero. Point ranges represent proportions and 95% bootstrap confidence intervals, and dashed lines indicate the 5% false positive rate that is expected due to chance. SEs = standard errors.

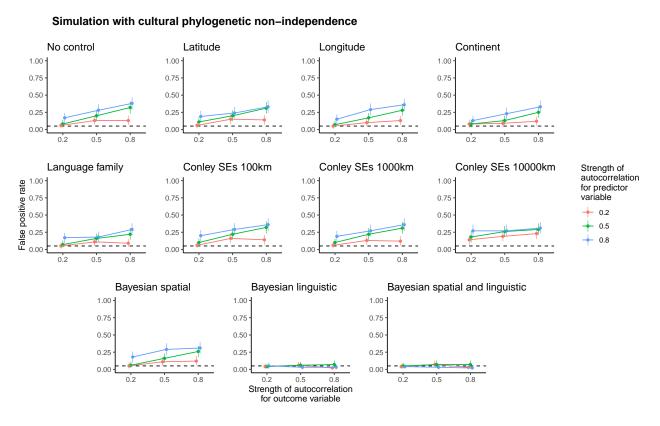


Figure 4. False positive rates for different methods of controlling for cultural phylogenetic non-independence in our simulation study. For simulated outcome and predictor variables, we systematically varied the strength of cultural phylogenetic autocorrelation, from weak (0.2) to moderate (0.5) to strong (0.8). We simulated 100 datasets per parameter combination and fitted different models to each dataset. False positive rates were operationalised as the proportion of models that estimated a slope with a 95% confidence / credible interval excluding zero. Point ranges represent proportions and 95% bootstrap confidence intervals, and dashed lines indicate the 5% false positive rate that is expected due to chance. SEs = standard errors.

methods, though they continue to produce a false positive rate of 29% under strong cultural phylogenetic autocorrelation. By contrast, Bayesian models with random effects covarying according to linguistic proximity completely eliminate false positives across all degrees of cultural phylogenetic autocorrelation. Bayesian models that additionally account for geographic proximity between nations perform equally well, though models with only a spatial Gaussian process continue to produce false positives.

Key findings in the literature are not robust to reanalysis with more rigorous methods

Our systematic review and simulation study have shown that controls for
non-independence are rare in cross-national studies of economic development and cultural
values, and when studies do attempt to control for non-independence, the methods typically
used are likely to continue to produce false positives. This raises the worrying possibility
that the cross-national literature in economics and psychology is populated with spurious
relationships.

To determine how widespread this issue of spurious cross-national relationships might 235 be, we reanalysed a subset of twelve previous cross-national analyses from our systematic 236 review, sufficiently controlling for spatial and cultural phylogenetic non-independence using 237 global geographic and linguistic proximity matrices. We subsampled six analyses from our 238 economic development review $^{51-56}$ and six from our cultural values review $^{13,14,16,57-59}$. Our 239 choice of analyses was constrained by data availability and whether we were able to initially 240 replicate the original finding. We pre-registered our subsample of analyses before running 241 any control models (https://osf.io/uywx8/). We controlled for non-independence by 242 including (1) a Gaussian process allowing nation random intercepts to covary according to a geographic proximity matrix, and/or (2) nation random intercepts that covaried according to a linguistic proximity matrix (see Supplementary Methods for full models).

Figure 5 visualises the results of our reanalysis. Cross-national correlation effect sizes 246 tended to reduce when controlling for statistical non-independence between nations, 247 sometimes by as much as half of the original effect size. Overall, after controlling for 248 non-independence, six out of twelve cross-national associations had 95% credible intervals 249 that included zero. For the economic development analyses, four out of six cross-national 250 relationships had 95% credible intervals including zero when controlling for spatial 251 non-independence. For the cultural values analyses, two out of six cross-national 252 relationships had 95% credible intervals including zero when controlling for cultural 253 phylogenetic non-independence. Supplementary Figure S4 shows these cross-national 254 correlations plotted against the raw data. 255

To understand why some cross-national correlations were attenuated by controls for 256 non-independence while others were robust, we further explored our fitted models for 257 evidence of spatial and cultural autocorrelation. For each outcome variable, our Gaussian 258 process models provided varying estimates of how quickly spatial autocorrelation declined 250 with distance (Supplementary Figure S5). For example, in Skidmore and Toya⁵⁶ gross 260 domestic product growth was only moderately spatially autocorrelated at 1,000 km distance 261 (posterior median spatial autocorrelation at 1,000 km = 0.47, 95% CI [0.06 0.97]), whereas in 262 Inglehart and Baker¹⁶ traditional values were strongly spatially autocorrelated at the same 263 distance (posterior median spatial autocorrelation at 1,000 km = 0.96, 95% CI [0.78 0.99]). 264 We also found varying estimates of cultural phylogenetic signal (Supplementary Figure S6), 265 with some outcome variables expressing low signal (e.g. tightness¹⁴; posterior median = 0.11, 266 95% CI [0.00 0.82]) and others expressing high signal (e.g. female labour force participation⁵⁸; posterior median = 0.91, 95% CI $[0.67 \ 0.99]$). Across all analyses, we found 268 that stronger estimates of spatial autocorrelation or cultural phylogenetic signal resulted in a 269 more pronounced reduction in the effect size when controlling for non-independence between 270 nations (Figure 6).

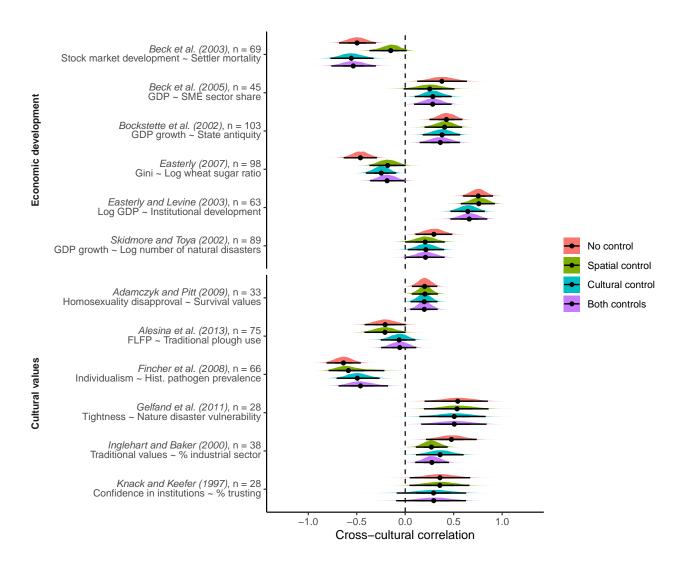


Figure 5. Posterior correlations from our reanalysis of twelve previous cross-national analyses. For each previous cross-national relationship, we plot the posterior slopes from a naive regression (red), a regression controlling for spatial non-independence (green), a regression controlling for cultural phylogenetic non-independence (blue), and a regression controlling for both spatial and cultural phylogenetic non-independence simultaneously (purple). All outcome and predictor variables are standardised. Most analyses are simple bivariate cross-national correlations, but Gelfand et al. (2011) is a partial correlation controlling for log gross national income and Adamczyk and Pitt (2009) is a multilevel model including several covariates. Point ranges represent posterior medians and 95% credible intervals. GDP = gross domestic product. FLFP = female labour force participation.

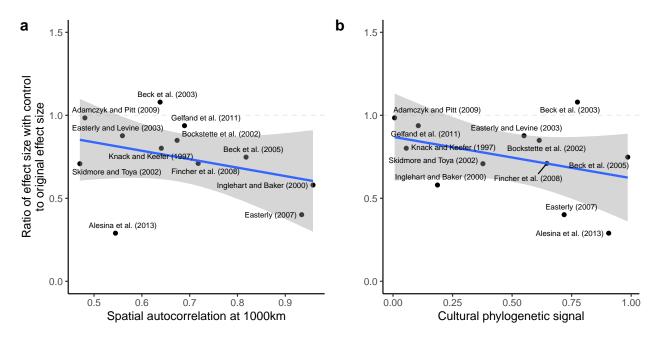


Figure 6. The estimated degree of spatial and cultural phylogenetic non-independence predicts reductions in effect size in our reanalysis. (a) Higher estimated degrees of spatial autocorrelation at 1,000 km distance predict more pronounced reductions in effect sizes when controlling for non-independence. (b) Higher estimated levels of cultural phylogenetic signal predict more pronounced reductions in effect sizes when controlling for non-independence. In both panels, the y-axis represents the ratio of the effect size when controlling for spatial and cultural non-independence to the original effect size (from naive regression model), and the x-axis represents posterior median model estimates. Regression lines are plotted with 95% confidence intervals.

Discussion 272

277

279

In a systematic literature review and simulation, we found that cross-national studies 273 in economics and psychology rarely account for non-independence between nations, and, 274 when they do, the methods they use continue to produce false positives. In a reanalysis of 275 twelve cross-national correlations, we further showed that neglecting to account for 276 non-independence has resulted in spurious relationships in the published literature, with half of the correlations failing to replicate when controlling for spatial or cultural 278 non-independence with more rigorous methods. These findings suggest that cross-national

analyses in economics and psychology should be interpreted with caution until non-independence is sufficiently accounted for.

Our initial analyses add to and clarify existing evidence regarding the 282 non-independence of economic and cultural variation among nations. One previous study suggested that geographic proximity is more important than deep cultural ancestry in explaining the distribution of human development across Eurasian nations, though the 285 authors noted that their small sample of 44 nations and regional focus limited their 286 statistical power⁶⁰. Our global sample of nations revealed strong cultural phylogenetic signal, 287 as well as geographic signal, for the Human Development Index. Another previous study 288 found that similarities in the cultural values of nations are predicted by linguistic, but not 289 geographic, distances between those nations⁶. We find this same result for survival 290 vs. self-expression values, but for traditional vs. secular values we find that both linguistic 291 and geographic proximity are important independent predictors of global variation. These 292 findings emphasise the need to account for both spatial and cultural phylogenetic 293 non-independence in cross-national studies of economic development and cultural values. 294

Crucially, our systematic literature review and simulation study revealed that the most 295 commonly used controls for non-independence do not sufficiently deal with the issue. In our 296 simulations, controlling for either latitude or longitude did not reduce false positive rates. 297 This result calls into question controls like distance to the equator to account for 298 non-independence in cross-national regression models, though these controls may still be 299 suitable to account for regional or latitudinal variation in ecology, which we did not simulate. 300 High false positive rates persisted with Conley standard errors, which have previously been 301 critiqued for being overly sensitive to arbitrary distance cutoffs³⁹. The simulation also 302 confirmed the assertion that fixed effects for spatial or cultural groupings (e.g. continent or 303 language family fixed effects) are insufficient because non-independence still remains within 304 groupings⁴⁰. This logic further applies to analyses that control for non-independence by 305

separately analysing different regions (e.g.⁶¹). Across all model types in our simulation, the
only methods that sufficiently reduced the false positive rate were the Bayesian multilevel
regressions that explicitly modelled spatial and cultural phylogenetic autocorrelation, though
we did not include other possible controls for non-independence, such as conditional
autoregressive models³¹ or generalised additive models⁶².

Ours is not the first review to show that studies are misapplying statistical methods in 311 ways that inflate false positive rates. For example, other literature reviews have shown that 312 studies in the social sciences tend to use small samples of participants⁶³, treat ordinal data 313 as metric⁶⁴, incorrectly handle missing values⁶⁵, and ignore best practices in meta-analyses⁶⁶. 314 Why do cross-national studies also rarely account for non-independence? At the institutional 315 level, one possibility is that such practices are incentivised because they generate statistically 316 significant relationships, which increase the probability that a study is published⁶³. At the 317 individual level, another possibility is that researchers outside of anthropology and ecology 318 are simply not aware of the problem, or believe that the problem does not apply to analyses 319 of nations. Even if researchers appreciate the problem, they might not know of suitable 320 controls or perceive the methods to be too complex. 321

These institutional- and individual-level barriers can be combatted. First, 322 cross-national replication studies like ours and others^{39–43}, combined with the methodological 323 reviews included in Registered Reports⁶⁷, might change incentive structures and encourage 324 researchers to analyse the world's nations with more rigorous methods. Second, since the 325 issue of non-independence is fundamentally an issue of causal inference (Supplementary 326 Figure S1), more explicit descriptions of causal models could promote controls for 327 non-independence in cross-national research. In our review, economists studying economic 328 development dealt with national-level non-independence more than psychologists studying 329 cultural values, likely because economics studies tend to be lengthy statistical exercises that 330 systematically incorporate or exclude numerous variables in an attempt to infer causation. 331

Third, the recent widespread accessibility of open source statistical software, such as the programming language Stan⁶⁸ and the R package *brms*⁶⁹, should promote the use of more rigorous methods to control for non-independence. Using *brms*, for example, Bayesian Gaussian process regression is straightforward to conduct, requiring only longitude and latitude values for nations.

Until such changes are implemented and sufficient controls for non-independence are 337 the norm, existing cross-national correlations should be interpreted with caution. In our 338 reanalyses, we found that four out of six cross-national correlations with economic 339 development variables had 95% credible intervals that included zero when controlling for 340 spatial non-independence. Three of these analyses were tests of "persistence" hypotheses, 341 studying the effects of historical and environmental conditions — settler mortality⁵¹, 342 wheat-sugar suitability⁵⁵, and natural disaster frequency⁵⁶ — on modern developmental 343 outcomes. A recent reanalysis has also called into question various studies of this ilk³⁹. We 344 also found that two out of six cross-national correlations with cultural values variables had 345 95% credible intervals that included zero when controlling for cultural phylogenetic 346 non-independence. 347

We do not wish to dissuade researchers from conducting cross-national studies. On the 348 contrary, such work promises to deepen understanding of our world, including the causes and 349 consequences of economic development and cultural values. Moreover, cross-national studies 350 allow social scientists to broaden their scope of study beyond Western populations⁷, 351 providing the representative samples necessary to test evolutionary and socio-ecological 352 theories of human behaviour^{8,70}. But in order to minimise spurious relationships in global 353 datasets, we urge researchers to control for spatial and cultural phylogenetic 354 non-independence when reporting cross-national correlations. Nations are not independent, 355 and our statistical models must reflect this. 356

357 Methods

Geographic and cultural phylogenetic signal

To estimate the degree of spatial and cultural phylogenetic non-independence in 359 economic development and cultural values, we calculated geographic and cultural 360 phylogenetic signal for global measures of development and values. Our measure of economic 361 development was the Human Development Index⁴⁴. We retrieved a longitudinal dataset 362 capturing human development for 189 nations since 1990 (n = 1.512): 363 https://hdr.undp.org/en/content/download-data). Our measures of cultural values were 364 traditional vs. secular values and survival vs. self-expression values from the World Values 365 Survey¹⁶. We downloaded the full Integrated Values Survey, which included all waves from 366 the World Values Survey and the European Values Survey, and computed the two 367 dimensions of cultural values following procedures from previous research¹⁶. This longitudinal dataset captures values and attitudes for 116 nations since 1981 (n = 645,249; 360 https://www.worldvaluessurvey.org/WVSEVStrend.jsp).

To calculate geographic and cultural phylogenetic signal, we created two proximity 371 matrices for 269 of the world's nations: a geographic proximity matrix and a linguistic 372 proximity matrix. Geographic proximity was converted from logged geodesic distances 373 between nation capital cities. Linguistic proximity was calculated as the cultural proximity 374 between all languages spoken within nations, weighted by speaker percentages (see 375 Supplementary Methods). We included these matrices in Bayesian multilevel models, 376 allowing nation random intercepts to covary according to both geographic and linguistic 377 proximity simultaneously. These models were fitted with the R package brms⁶⁹ and 378 converged normally ($\hat{R} < 1.1$). Estimates of geographic and cultural phylogenetic signal were 379 computed as the proportion of national-level variance in these models explained by 380 geographic and linguistic proximity matrices.

Systematic literature review

We exported two searches from Web of Science (https://www.webofknowledge.com/)
on 27th September 2021, restricting our searches to articles published between 1900 and 2018.
The first search was for the terms "economic development" AND ("cross-national" OR
"cross-cultural" OR "cross-country"), which returned 965 articles. The second search was for
the terms "values" AND ("cross-national" OR "cross-cultural" OR "cross-country"), which
returned 6806 articles. Once exported, we ordered the articles by descending number of
citations per year since initial publication, using citation counts reported by Web of Science.

We then systematically coded each article, in order, for inclusion in our review.

Articles were only included if: (1) they were judged to be relevant to economic development

or cultural values; (2) they were an original empirical research article; and (3) they contained

at least one analysis with national-level outcome or predictor variables. We stopped when we

had included 50 articles for the economic development review and 50 articles for the cultural

values review.

Within each included article, we exhaustively coded every individual cross-national 396 analysis reported in the main text. We coded mainly correlation or regression analyses, and 397 explicitly excluded meta-analyses, factor analyses, measurement invariance analyses, 398 multidimensional scaling analyses, hierarchical clustering analyses, multiverse analyses, and 399 scale development / validation analyses. We also excluded analyses that compared only two, 400 three, four, five, or six nations. For each included analysis, we recorded the year, outcome 401 variable, all predictor variables, test statistic, p-value, number of nations, number of data 402 points, model type, if the data were available, and whether and how the analysis attempted 403 to control for non-independence. 404

We coded common attempts to control for non-independence between nations. These included: (1) any higher-level control variables for spatial regional groupings (e.g. continent

fixed effects); (2) any geographic distance control variables (e.g. distance between capital cities, distance from equator, latitude); (3) any control variables capturing shared cultural history (e.g. former colony, legal origin fixed effects, linguistic history, cultural influence); and (4) any other control variables, tests, or approaches that were deemed as attempts to control for non-independence (e.g. eigenvector filtering⁷¹, controls for trade-weightings between countries, cross-sectional dependence tests⁷², separate analyses for subsets of countries). These were coded by the first author.

Once we had compiled our review database, we calculated the proportion of articles
attempting to control for non-independence at least once. We also calculated the proportion
of articles employing the different types of control listed above at least once: regional fixed
effects, distance, shared cultural history, or other. For these proportions, we calculated 95%
boostrap confidence intervals with 1,000 bootstrap iterations.

For individual analyses, we dealt with the nested nature of the data (analyses nested 419 within articles) by fitting Bayesian multilevel logistic regression models with review type 420 (economic development vs. cultural values) as the sole fixed effect and random intercepts for 421 articles. We fitted these models separately for overall attempts to control for 422 non-independence and split by method type. We report the adjusted proportions with 95% 423 credible intervals. To test for a trend over time, we also fitted a Bayesian multilevel logistic 424 regression with a multigroup spline for year of publication and random intercepts for articles. 425 Bayesian models were fitted with the brms R package⁶⁹. Our priors were informed by prior 426 predictive checks, and all models converged normally ($\hat{R} < 1.1$). 427

428 Simulations

We simulated data for 236 nations with varying degrees of spatial or cultural phylogenetic signal for outcome y and predictor x using the following generative model:

$$y = \alpha_y + \epsilon_y$$

$$x = \alpha_x + \epsilon_x$$

$$\alpha_y \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \sqrt{\lambda} \cdot \Sigma)$$

$$\alpha_x \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \sqrt{\rho} \cdot \Sigma)$$

$$\epsilon_y \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \sqrt{1 - \lambda})$$

$$\epsilon_x \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \sqrt{1 - \rho})$$

where Σ is a correlation matrix proportional to either geographic or linguistic proximities between nations, and λ and ρ are autocorrelation parameters that represent the expected spatial or cultural phylogenetic signal for outcome and predictor variables, respectively. Importantly, in this simulation, we know that there is no direct causal relationship between y and x because we simulate the variables independently. Instead, any relationship between the two variables is merely the result of autocorrelation.

We set the autocorrelation parameters to either 0.2 (weak), 0.5 (moderate), or 0.8

(strong). We simulated 100 datasets for each parameter combination, resulting in 900

datasets. Each dataset had 236 rows representing different nations, with the following

associated data for each nation: latitude, longitude, continent (Africa, Asia, Europe, North

America, Oceania, or South America), and language family of the nation's majority spoken

language (Afro-Asiatic, Atlantic-Congo, Austroasiatic, Austronesian, Eskimo-Aleut,

Indo-European, Japonic, Kartvelian, Koreanic, Mande, Mongolic-Khitan, Nilotic, Nuclear

Trans New Guinea, Sino-Tibetan, Tai-Kadai, Tupian, Turkic, or Uralic).

With the resulting simulated datasets, we standardised outcome and predictor
variables and fitted eleven different models: (1) naive regression without controls, (2)
regression with latitude control, (3) regression with longitude control, (4) regression with
continent fixed effects, (5) regression with language family fixed effects, (6) regression

employing Conley standard errors with 100 km cutoff, (7) regression employing Conley standard errors with 1,000 km cutoff, (8) regression employing Conley standard errors with 10,000 km cutoff, (9) Bayesian regression including a Gaussian process over latitudes and longitudes, (10) Bayesian regression including random intercepts covarying according to linguistic proximity, and (11) Bayesian regression including both a Gaussian process over latitudes and longitudes and random intercepts covarying according to linguistic proximity.

Models employing Conley standard errors required latitude and longitude values, and 455 the cutoffs implied the distance beyond which autocorrelation is assumed to be zero. These 456 models were fitted using the conleyreg R package⁷³. Bayesian models were fitted using the 457 brms R package⁶⁹. Our choice of priors was based on prior predictive simulation. All models 458 converged normally ($\hat{R} < 1.1$). Across all model types and parameter combinations, we 459 calculated the false positive rate as the proportion of models that estimated slopes with a 460 95% confidence / credible interval excluding zero. We calculated 95% bootstrap confidence 461 intervals for these false positive rates with 1,000 bootstrap iterations. 462

463 Reanalyses

We searched the individual analyses from our systematic review for cross-national correlations with available data. We included only analyses for which we were able to replicate the original result (i.e. find a cross-national correlation with the same sign and roughly the same effect size). We restricted our search to one analysis per article, and aimed for an even number of analyses for both economic development and cultural values studies. We also ensured that at least one analysis was a multilevel model, with multiple observations per nation.

The twelve analyses that we settled on ^{13,14,16,51–59} were mostly bivariate cross-national correlations, except for two. One analysis ¹⁴ additionally controlled for log gross national income, and another analysis ⁵⁶ is a multilevel model including random intercepts for nations

and several individual-level and national-level covariates (see Model 5 in original paper).

Before running any additional models, we pre-registered these twelve analyses on the Open

Science Framework on 25th January 2022 (https://osf.io/uywx8/).

For each individual analysis, we ran four models: (1) a naive regression replicating the original finding, (2) a regression including a Gaussian process allowing nation random intercepts to covary according to a geographic proximity matrix from latitude and longitude values, (3) a regression including nation random intercepts that covaried according to a linguistic proximity matrix, and (4) a regression including both a geographic Gaussian process and nation random intercepts with linguistic covariance. See Supplementary

Methods for full models.

We fitted these models using the *brms* R package⁶⁹. Our choice of priors was based on prior predictive simulation. All models converged normally ($\hat{R} < 1.1$), though for some models we resorted to using approximate Gaussian processes⁷⁴ to reach convergence.

Reproducibility

All data and code are accesible at our Open Science Framework repository

(https://osf.io/uywx8/). We used the *targets* R package⁷⁵ to create a reproducible data

analysis pipeline and the *papaja* R package⁷⁶ to reproducibly generate the manuscript.

491 References

- 1. Caselli, F. Accounting for cross-country income differences. in (eds. Aghion, P. & Durlauf, S. N.) vol. 1 679–741 (Elsevier, 2005).
- Austin, K. F. & McKinney, L. A. Disease, war, hunger, and deprivation: A cross-national
 investigation of the determinants of life expectancy in less-developed and sub-Saharan
 African nations. Sociological Perspectives 55, 421–447 (2012).
- 3. Rai, D., Zitko, P., Jones, K., Lynch, J. & Araya, R. Country- and individual-level socioeconomic determinants of depression: Multilevel cross-national comparison.

 British Journal of Psychiatry 202, 195–203 (2013).
- 4. Diener, E., Diener, M. & Diener, C. Factors predicting the subjective well-being of
 nations. in Culture and well-being: The collected works of Ed Diener (ed. Diener, E.)
 43-70 (Springer Netherlands, 2009). doi:10.1007/978-90-481-2352-0_3.
- 503 5. Kirkcaldy, B., Furnham, A. & Siefen, G. The relationship between health efficacy,
 504 educational attainment, and well-being among 30 nations. European Psychologist 9,
 505 107–119 (2004).
- 6. White, C. J. M., Muthukrishna, M. & Norenzayan, A. Cultural similarity among
 coreligionists within and between countries. Proceedings of the National Academy of
 Sciences 118, e2109650118 (2021).
- 7. Henrich, J., Heine, S. J. & Norenzayan, A. The weirdest people in the world? *Behavioral* and *Brain Sciences* **33**, 61–83 (2010).
- 8. Pollet, T. V., Tybur, J. M., Frankenhuis, W. E. & Rickard, I. J. What can cross-cultural correlations teach us about human nature? *Human Nature* **25**, 410–429 (2014).
- 9. Benhabib, J. & Spiegel, M. M. The role of human capital in economic development:

- Evidence from aggregate cross-country data. Journal of Monetary Economics 34,

 143–173 (1994).
- 10. Comin, D., Easterly, W. & Gong, E. Was the wealth of nations determined in 1000 BC?

 **American Economic Journal: Macroeconomics 2, 65–97 (2010).
- 11. La Porta, R., Lopez-De-Silanes, F., Shleifer, A. & Vishny, R. W. Legal determinants of external finance. *The Journal of Finance* **52**, 1131–1150 (1997).
- 12. Sachs, J. D. & Warner, A. M. The curse of natural resources. European Economic Review 45, 827–838 (2001).
- 13. Fincher, C. L., Thornhill, R., Murray, D. R. & Schaller, M. Pathogen prevalence predicts
 human cross-cultural variability in individualism/collectivism. Proceedings of the
 Royal Society B: Biological Sciences 275, 1279–1285 (2008).
- 14. Gelfand, M. J. et al. Differences between tight and loose cultures: A 33-nation study.

 Science 332, 1100–1104 (2011).
- 15. Hofstede, G. Culture's consequences: Comparing values, behaviors, institutions and organizations across nations. (Sage Publications, 2001).
- 16. Inglehart, R. & Baker, W. E. Modernization, cultural change, and the persistence of traditional values. *American Sociological Review* **65**, 19–51 (2000).
- ₅₃₁ 17. Awad, E. et al. The moral machine experiment. Nature **563**, 59–64 (2018).
- 18. Rhoads, S. A., Gunter, D., Ryan, R. M. & Marsh, A. A. Global variation in subjective
 well-being predicts seven forms of altruism. *Psychological Science* 32, 1247–1261
 (2021).
- 19. Schulz, J. F., Bahrami-Rad, D., Beauchamp, J. P. & Henrich, J. The Church, intensive

- kinship, and global psychological variation. Science **366**, eaau5141 (2019).
- 20. Thomson, R. et al. Relational mobility predicts social behaviors in 39 countries and is tied to historical farming and threat. Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences 115, 7521–7526 (2018).
- 21. Kissling, W. D. & Carl, G. Spatial autocorrelation and the selection of simultaneous
 autoregressive models. Global Ecology and Biogeography 17, 59–71 (2008).
- 22. Hewlett, B. S., DeSilvestri, A. & Guglielmino, C. R. Semes and genes in africa. Current
 Anthropology 43, 313–321 (2002).
- Nunn, N. & Puga, D. Ruggedness: The blessing of bad geography in Africa. The Review
 of Economics and Statistics 94, 20–36 (2012).
- 24. Tobler, W. R. A computer movie simulating urban growth in the Detroit region.
 Economic Geography 46, 234–240 (1970).
- Tylor, E. B. On a method of investigating the development of institutions; applied to
 laws of marriage and descent. The Journal of the Anthropological Institute of Great
 Britain and Ireland 18, 245–272 (1889).
- ⁵⁵¹ 26. Naroll, R. Two solutions to Galton's Problem. *Philosophy of Science* **28**, 15–39 (1961).
- ⁵⁵² 27. Naroll, R. Galton's Problem: The logic of cross-cultural analysis. *Social Research* **32**, 428–451 (1965).
- 28. Jarque, C. M. & Bera, A. K. A test for normality of observations and regression
 residuals. International Statistical Review / Revue Internationale de Statistique 55,
 163–172 (1987).
- ⁵⁵⁷ 29. Legendre, P. Spatial autocorrelation: Trouble or new paradigm? *Ecology* **74**, 1659–1673

- 558 (1993).
- 30. Roberts, J., Seán AND Winters. Linguistic diversity and traffic accidents: Lessons from statistical studies of cultural traits. *PLOS ONE* 8, 1–13 (2013).
- 31. Lichstein, J. W., Simons, T. R., Shriner, S. A. & Franzreb, K. E. Spatial autocorrelation and autoregressive models in ecology. *Ecological Monographs* **72**, 445–463 (2002).
- 32. Loftin, C. & Ward, S. K. A spatial autocorrelation model of the effects of population density on fertility. *American Sociological Review* **48**, 121–128 (1983).
- 33. Murdock, G. P. & White, D. R. Standard cross-cultural sample. *Ethnology* 8, 329–369
 (1969).
- 567 34. Dow, M. M. & Eff, E. A. Global, regional, and local network autocorrelation in the 568 standard cross-cultural sample. *Cross-Cultural Research* **42**, 148–171 (2008).
- 569 35. Eff, E. A. Does Mr. Galton still have a problem? Autocorrelation in the standard cross-cultural sample. World Cultures 15, 153–170 (2004).
- 571 36. Symonds, M. R. E. & Blomberg, S. P. A primer on phylogenetic generalised least squares.

 572 in Modern phylogenetic comparative methods and their application in evolutionary

 573 biology: Concepts and practice (ed. Garamszegi, L. Z.) 105–130 (Springer Berlin

 574 Heidelberg, 2014). doi:10.1007/978-3-662-43550-2_5.
- 575 37. Watts, J., Sheehan, O., Bulbulia, J., Gray, R. D. & Atkinson, Q. D. Christianity spread 576 faster in small, politically structured societies. *Nature Human Behaviour* 2, 559–564 577 (2018).
- 38. Atkinson, Q. D., Coomber, T., Passmore, S., Greenhill, S. J. & Kushnick, G. Cultural and environmental predictors of pre-european deforestation on pacific islands. *PLOS* ONE **11**, 1–15 (2016).

- 39. Kelly, M. Understanding persistence. CEPR Discussion Paper No. DP15246 (2020).
- ⁵⁸² 40. Bromham, L., Hua, X., Cardillo, M., Schneemann, H. & Greenhill, S. J. Parasites and ⁵⁸³ politics: Why cross-cultural studies must control for relatedness, proximity and ⁵⁸⁴ covariation. *Royal Society Open Science* **5**, 181100 (2018).
- 41. Bromham, L., Skeels, A., Schneemann, H., Dinnage, R. & Hua, X. There is little
 evidence that spicy food in hot countries is an adaptation to reducing infection risk.
 Nature Human Behaviour 5, 878–891 (2021).
- 588 42. Currie, T. E. & Mace, R. Analyses do not support the parasite-stress theory of human 589 sociality. *Behavioral and Brain Sciences* **35**, 83–85 (2012).
- 43. Passmore, S. & Watts, J. WEIRD people and the Western Church: Who made whom?
 Religion, Brain & Behavior 1–58 (2022) doi:10.1080/2153599X.2021.1991459.
- 592 44. Human development report. http://hdr.undp.org/en/composite/HDI.
- 45. Currie, T. E. & Mace, R. Political complexity predicts the spread of ethnolinguistic groups. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences* **106**, 7339–7344 (2009).
- 46. Conley, T. GMM estimation with cross sectional dependence. Journal of Econometrics
 92, 1–45 (1999).
- ⁵⁹⁷ 47. Conley, T. G. Spatial econometrics. in *Microeconometrics* (eds. Durlauf, S. N. & Blume, L. E.) 303–313 (Palgrave Macmillan, 2010).
- 48. McElreath, R. Statistical rethinking: A Bayesian course with examples in R and Stan.

 (CRC Press, 2020).
- 49. Neal, R. M. Regression and classification using Gaussian process priors. in Bayesian
 statistics (eds. Bernardo, J. M., Berger, J. O., Dawid, A. P. & Smith, A. F. M.) vol. 6

- 475–501 (Oxford University Press).
- 50. Villemereuil, P. de & Nakagawa, S. General quantitative genetic methods for
 comparative biology. in Modern phylogenetic comparative methods and their
 application in evolutionary biology: Concepts and practice (ed. Garamszegi, L. Z.)
 287–303 (Springer Berlin Heidelberg, 2014). doi:10.1007/978-3-662-43550-2_11.
- 51. Beck, T., Demirgäç-Kunt, A. & Levine, R. Law, endowments, and finance. *Journal of*Financial Economics **70**, 137–181 (2003).
- 52. Beck, T., Demirgäç-Kunt, A. & Levine, R. SMEs, growth, and poverty: Cross-country
 evidence. Journal of economic growth 10, 199–229 (2005).
- 53. Bockstette, V., Chanda, A. & Putterman, L. States and markets: The advantage of an early start. *Journal of Economic growth* 7, 347–369 (2002).
- 54. Easterly, W. & Levine, R. Tropics, germs, and crops: How endowments influence
 economic development. *Journal of Monetary Economics* 50, 3–39 (2003).
- 55. Easterly, W. Inequality does cause underdevelopment: Insights from a new instrument.

 Journal of Development Economics 84, 755–776 (2007).
- 56. Skidmore, M. & Toya, H. Do natural disasters promote long-run growth? *Economic Inquiry* **40**, 664–687 (2002).
- 57. Adamczyk, A. & Pitt, C. Shaping attitudes about homosexuality: The role of religion and cultural context. *Social Science Research* **38**, 338–351 (2009).
- 58. Alesina, A., Giuliano, P. & Nunn, N. On the origins of gender roles: Women and the plough. Quarterly Journal of Economics 128, 469–530 (2013).
- 59. Knack, S. & Keefer, P. Does social capital have an economic payoff? A cross-country

- investigation. The Quarterly Journal of Economics 112, 1251–1288 (1997).
- 626 60. Sookias, R. B., Passmore, S. & Atkinson, Q. D. Deep cultural ancestry and human development indicators across nation states. *Royal Society Open Science* 5, 171411 628 (2018).
- 629 61. Smith, M. D., Rabbitt, M. P. & Coleman- Jensen, A. Who are the world's food insecure?

 New evidence from the Food and Agriculture Organization's Food Insecurity

 Experience Scale. World Development 93, 402–412 (2017).
- 62. Hastie, T. J. & Tibshirani, R. J. Generalized additive models. (Routledge, 2017).
- 63. Smaldino, P. E. & McElreath, R. The natural selection of bad science. Royal Society

 Open Science 3, 160384 (2016).
- 64. Liddell, T. M. & Kruschke, J. K. Analyzing ordinal data with metric models: What could possibly go wrong? *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology* **79**, 328–348 (2018).
- 65. Nicholson, J. S., Deboeck, P. R. & Howard, W. Attrition in developmental psychology: A review of modern missing data reporting and practices. *International Journal of* Behavioral Development 41, 143–153 (2017).
- 66. Tipton, E., Pustejovsky, J. E. & Ahmadi, H. Current practices in meta-regression in psychology, education, and medicine. *Research Synthesis Methods* **10**, 180–194 (2019).
- 642 67. Chambers, C. D. & Tzavella, L. The past, present and future of Registered Reports.

 Nature Human Behaviour 6, 29–42 (2021).
- 68. Stan Development Team. RStan: The R interface to Stan. (2020).
- 69. Bürkner, P.-C. brms: An R package for Bayesian multilevel models using Stan. Journal
 of Statistical Software 80, 1–28 (2017).

- 70. Oishi, S. Socioecological psychology. Annual Review of Psychology 65, 581–609 (2014).
- 71. Tiefelsdorf, M. & Griffith, D. A. Semiparametric filtering of spatial autocorrelation: The
 eigenvector approach. Environment and Planning A: Economy and Space 39,
 1193–1221 (2007).
- 72. De Hoyos, R. E. & Sarafidis, V. Testing for cross-sectional dependence in panel-data models. *The Stata Journal* **6**, 482–496 (2006).
- 73. Düben, C. conleyreg: Estimations using Conley standard errors. (2021).
- 74. Solin, A. & Särkkä, S. Hilbert space methods for reduced-rank Gaussian process regression. Statistics and Computing 30, 419–446 (2020).
- 75. Landau, W. M. The targets R package: A dynamic Make-like function-oriented pipeline
 toolkit for reproducibility and high-performance computing. Journal of Open Source
 Software 6, 2959 (2021).
- ⁶⁵⁹ 76. Aust, F. & Barth, M. papaja: Create APA manuscripts with R Markdown. (2020).

Supplementary Material

50 Supplementary Methods

Calculating global geographic and linguistic proximity matrices. Geographic distance between two nations was calculated as the logged geodesic distance between country capital cities (data from the R package maps; Brownrigg, 2018) using the R package geosphere (Hijmans, 2019). The geographic proximity matrix was computed as one minus the log geographic distance matrix scaled between 0 and 1.

Linguistic proximity between two nations was calculated as the cultural proximity between all languages spoken within those nations, weighted by speaker percentages. We acquired cultural proximity data by combining the language family trees provided by Glottolog v3.0 (Hammarström et al., 2017) into one global language tree (undated and unresolved). We calculated cultural proximity s between two languages j and k as the distance (in number of nodes traversed) of their most recent common ancestor i to the root of the tree, through the formula:

$$s_{jk} = \frac{n_r - n_i}{n_r}$$

where n_r is the maximum path length (in number of nodes traversed) leading to the pan-human root r, and n_i is the maximum path length leading to node i. We then combined these proximities with speaker data from Ethnologue 21 (Ethnologue, 2018) and compared every language spoken within those nations by at least 1 permille of the population, weighted by speaker percentages, through the formula:

$$w_{lm} = \Sigma \Sigma p_{lj} p_{mk} s_{jk}$$

where p_{lj} is the percentage of the population in nation l speaking language j, p_{mk} is
the percentage of the population in nation m speaking language k, and s_{jk} is the proximity
measure between languages j and k (Eff, 2008). The resulting linguistic proximity matrix
was also scaled between 0 and 1 before analysis.

Bayesian models for reanalysis. We provide model formulae for our reanalyses of cross-national correlations, for a general bivariate case with standardised outcome Y and predictor X variables. In the naive regression model without controls for non-independence:

$$Y_i \sim \text{Normal}(\mu_i, \sigma)$$

 $\mu_i = \alpha + \beta X_i$
 $\alpha \sim \text{Normal}(0, 0.4)$
 $\beta \sim \text{Normal}(0, 0.4)$
 $\sigma \sim \text{Exponential}(5)$

The priors in this model were arrived at by prior predictive checks, with wider priors making predictions beyond the scale of standardised outcome variables and narrower priors being too informative.

To control for spatial non-independence, we add a Gaussian process to this model and feed it a scaled geographic distance matrix D based on Euclidean distances between latitude and longitude coordinates. This distance matrix is computed internally by the R package brms (Bürkner, 2017). The Gaussian process uses an exponentiated quadratic covariance kernel, the only covariance kernel currently supported by brms. The model formula is:

$$Y_{i} \sim \text{Normal}(\mu_{i}, \sigma)$$

$$\mu_{i} = \alpha + \kappa_{\text{NATION}[i]} + \beta X_{i}$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} \kappa_{1} \\ \kappa_{2} \\ \kappa_{3} \\ \dots \\ \kappa_{n} \end{pmatrix} \sim \text{MVNormal} \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ , \mathbf{K} \\ \dots \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, \mathbf{K}$$

$$\mathbf{K}_{ij} = sdgp^{2} \exp\left(-D_{ij}^{2}/(2lscale^{2})\right)$$

$$\alpha \sim \text{Normal}(0, 0.4)$$

$$\beta \sim \text{Normal}(0, 0.4)$$

$$\beta \sim \text{Normal}(0, 0.4)$$

$$\sigma \sim \text{Exponential}(5)$$

$$sdgp \sim \text{Exponential}(5)$$

$$lscale \sim \text{InverseGamma}(?,?)$$

where n is the number of nations, and D_{ij}^2 reflects the squared Euclidean distances between latitude and longitude coordinates for the i-th and j-th nations. Notice that the inverse gamma prior on lscale is left undetermined. This is because the brms package intelligently tunes the prior for this parameter based on the covariates of the Gaussian process (see https://betanalpha.github.io/assets/case_studies/gp_part3/part3.html). To control for cultural phylogenetic non-independence, we manually specify the covariance structure for nation random intercepts using a pre-computed linguistic proximity matrix L (see previous section). The covariance between two nations is assumed to be linearly proportional to the linguistic proximity between those nations. This assumption is justified if we assume that cultural traits evolve via Brownian motion along a language phylogeny. The non-centered parameterisation of this model is:

$$Y_i \sim \text{Normal}(\mu_i, \sigma)$$

$$\mu_i = \alpha + z_{\text{NATION}[i]} \sigma_{\alpha} L + \beta X_i$$

$$\alpha \sim \text{Normal}(0, 0.4)$$

$$\beta \sim \text{Normal}(0, 0.4)$$

$$z_j \sim \text{Normal}(0, 1)$$

$$\sigma_{\alpha} \sim \text{Exponential}(5)$$

$$\sigma \sim \text{Exponential}(5)$$

Finally, we can control for spatial and cultural phylogenetic non-independence simultaneously by including both a Gaussian process over latitude and longitude coordinates and nation random intercepts that covary according to linguistic proximity. The resulting model is as follows:

$$Y_{i} \sim \text{Normal}(\mu_{i}, \sigma)$$

$$\mu_{i} = \alpha + \kappa_{\text{NATION}[i]} + z_{\text{NATION}[i]} \sigma_{\alpha} L + \beta X_{i}$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} \kappa_{1} \\ \kappa_{2} \\ \kappa_{3} \\ \dots \\ \kappa_{n} \end{pmatrix} \sim \text{MVNormal} \begin{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, \mathbf{K} \\ \dots \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\mathbf{K}_{ij} = sdgp^{2} \exp\left(-D_{ij}^{2}/(2lscale^{2})\right)$$

$$\alpha \sim \text{Normal}(0, 0.4)$$

$$\beta \sim \text{Normal}(0, 0.4)$$

$$z_{j} \sim \text{Normal}(0, 1)$$

$$\sigma_{\alpha} \sim \text{Exponential}(5)$$

$$\sigma \sim \text{Exponential}(5)$$

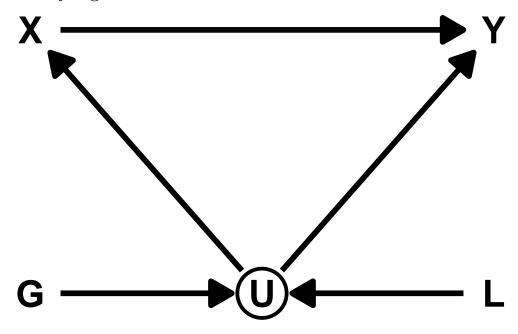
$$sdgp \sim \text{Exponential}(5)$$

$$lscale \sim \text{InverseGamma}(?,?)$$

708 Supplementary Results

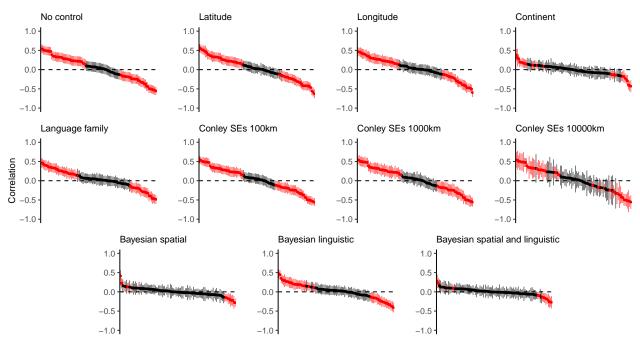
Geographic and cultural phylogenetic signal estimates for Human 709 Development Index and Inglehart's value dimensions. Controlling for shared 710 cultural ancestry, the proportion of national-level variance explained by spatial proximity 711 was 0.37 for the Human Development Index (95% credible interval [0.19 0.60]; $BF_{\neq 0} > 100$), 712 0.43 for traditional values (95% CI [0.19 0.73]; BF $_{\neq 0}$ > 100), and 0.18 for survival values 713 (95% CI [0.01 0.44]; BF $_{\neq 0} = 1.77$). Controlling for spatial proximity, the proportion of 714 variance explained by shared cultural ancestry was 0.61 for the Human Development Index 715 (95% CI [0.39 0.80]; BF $_{\neq 0} >$ 100), 0.55 for traditional values (95% CI [0.26 0.79]; BF $_{\neq 0} >$ 716 100), and 0.79 for survival values (95% CI [0.54 0.96]; $\mathrm{BF}_{\neq 0} >$ 100). 717

718 Supplementary Figures



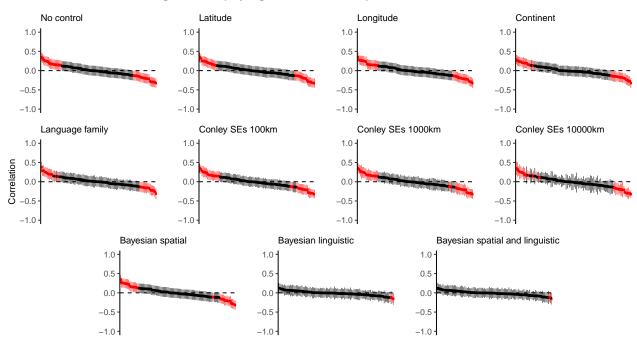
Supplementary Figure S1. A causal directed acyclic graph of spatial and cultural phylogenetic non-independence in cross-national studies. We are interested in estimating the direct effect of national-level exposure X on national-level outcome Y. But these variables are confounded by their common unobserved cause U. U is a stand-in for shared environmental, ecological, and geographic causes (e.g. climate, biodiversity, physical topography) and cultural and institutional causes (e.g. cultural norms, political systems). In this causal model, we need to condition on U to estimate the direct path from X to Y, but we cannot since it is unobserved. However, geographic G and linguistic L relationships between societies influence U, since changing a nation's spatial distance to or shared cultural ancestry with other nations will change its environmental and cultural traits. We can thus use G and G to model the covariation between G and G induced by G induced spurious relationships and residuals that are spatially and culturally non-independent around the world.



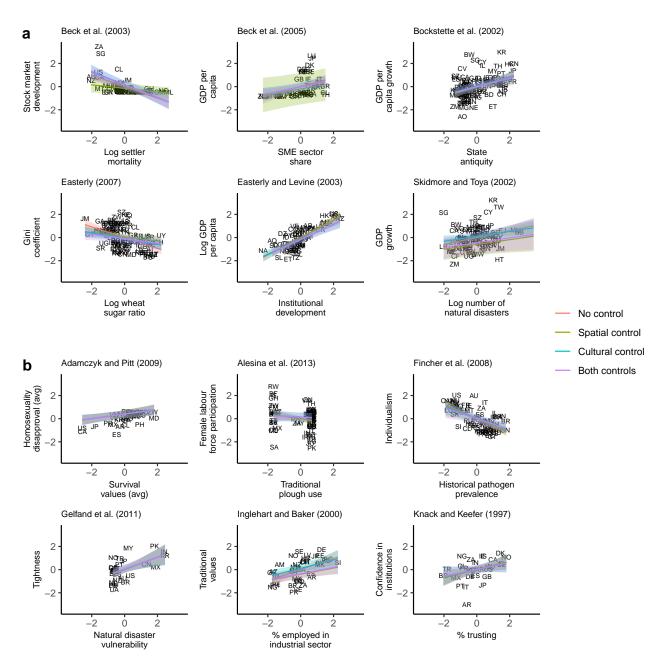


Supplementary Figure S2. Distribution of cross-national correlations from simulation study under strong spatial autocorrelation. In these simulations, the strength of spatial autocorrelation is set to 0.8 for both outcome and predictor variables. For frequentist regression models, point ranges represent correlation estimates and 95% confidence intervals. For Bayesian regression models, point ranges represent posterior means and 95% credible intervals. Correlations are ordered by effect size independently in each panel. Red point ranges indicate that the slope is "significant" (i.e. the 95% confidence / credible interval excludes zero). Black point ranges indicate that the slope is "not significant".

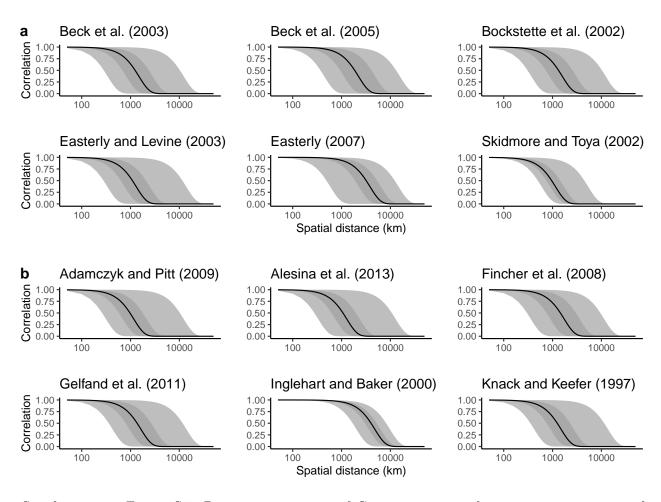




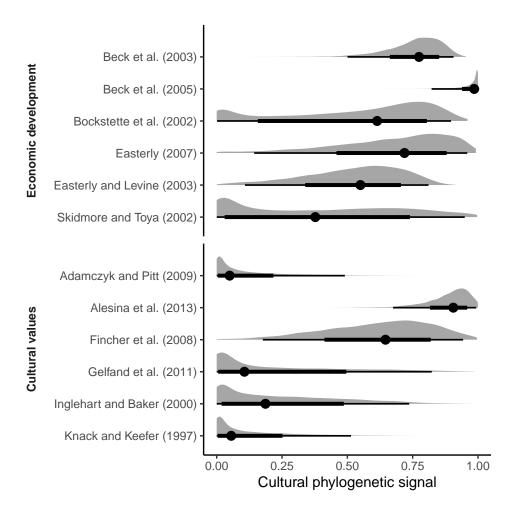
Supplementary Figure S3. Distribution of cross-national correlations from simulation study under strong cultural phylogenetic autocorrelation. In these simulations, the strength of cultural phylogenetic autocorrelation is set to 0.8 for both outcome and predictor variables. For frequentist regression models, point ranges represent correlation estimates and 95% confidence intervals. For Bayesian regression models, point ranges represent posterior means and 95% credible intervals. Correlations are ordered by effect size independently in each panel. Red point ranges indicate that the slope is "significant" (i.e. the 95% confidence / credible interval excludes zero). Black point ranges indicate that the slope is "not significant".



Supplementary Figure S4. Reanalysis models fitted to raw data, for economic development (a) and cultural values (b) studies. Data points are labelled using ISO 3166-1 alpha-2 letter country codes. In all reanalyses, outcome and predictor variables are standardised, making regression slopes comparable to Pearson's correlation coefficients. Lines and shaded areas represent posterior median regression lines and 95% credible intervals. For models with covariates (Adamzyck and Pitt 2009; Gelfand et al. 2011), marginal effects are presented holding all covariates at zero or their reference categories.



Supplementary Figure S5. Posterior estimates of Gaussian process functions mapping spatial autocorrelation onto geographic distance from our reanalyses of economic development (a) and cultural values (b) studies. Estimates are from models additionally controlling for cultural phylogenetic non-independence. The y-axis represents the amount of spatial autocorrelation between data points with increasing distance between those points on the x-axis (logged distance in kilometres). Lines and shaded areas represent median posterior spatial autocorrelation functions and 50% and 95% credible intervals.



Supplementary Figure S6. Posterior estimates of cultural phylogenetic signal from our reanalyses. Estimates are from models additionally controlling for spatial non-independence. Cultural phylogenetic signal is operationalised as the proportion of national-level variance explained by linguistic proximity between nations. Ridges are full posterior distributions, and points are posterior medians, and lines represent 50% and 95% credible intervals.

719 Supplementary References

- Brownrigg, R. maps: Draw geographical maps. (2018).
- Bürkner, P.-C. brms: An R package for Bayesian multilevel models using Stan.
- Journal of Statistical Software 80, 1—28 (2017).
- Eff, E. A. Weight matrices for cultural proximity: Deriving weights from a language phylogeny. Structure and Dynamics 3, (2008).
- Ethnologue: Languages of the world. (SIL International, 2018).
- Hammarström, H., Forkel, R., Haspelmath, M. & Bank, S. *Glottolog 3.0.* (Max Planck Institute for the Science of Human History, 2017). doi: 10.5281/zenodo.4061162
- Hijmans, R. J. geosphere: Spherical trigonometry. (2019).