# TWINS: <br> <br> Black and White 

 <br> <br> Black and White}

## R. TRAVIS OSBORNE

International Standard Book Number: 0-936396-00-8
Library of Congress Catalog Number: 79-92757
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Foundation For Human Understanding
Box 5712, Athens, Ga, 30604
Printed in the United States of America

To the memory of Henry E. Garrett

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## Acknowledgments

This book includes information that was gathered over a period of eight years and has been in preparation for more than four years. Publication would not have been possible without the cooperation of scores of professional assistants, personal friends, skilled secretaries, and most of all the twins who gave up two days of Saturday vacation to take part in the study.

Many specialists have contributed to the book. Steven Vandenberg designed the original Cooperative Twin Study and supervised the testing of twins in Kentucky. Robert Nichols' invited address to the American Psychological Association Meeting, September, 1976, constitutes the major portion of Chapter III. Arthur Jensen suggested the cross-racial factor analytic study of the twin data. James Fortson was the statistical consultant and wrote the original computer programs used in the analysis of the twin data.

While work on the book was in progress, I relied on the help of many other people, without whose careful and loyal assistance in checking references, verifying computer printouts and quotations, testing, scoring, typing and retyping, proofing, etc., the book would have been less well written. I am indebted to Melinda Lay, Melanie Hammond, Dorothea Reid, Judy Allison, Edna Lee, and many others whose dedication to the work was an encouragement to me.

I am especially indebted to Wilma Sanders and Frank Miele, personal friends and professional associates, for their expert advice at every step in planning the research and preparing the manuscript. Their consistent encouragement and enthusiasm during periods of no perceptible progress are acknowledged with appreciation.

While acknowledging the assistance of these specialists, any errors of fact or interpretation, however, are my own responsibility.

## Preface

The study brings together for the first time in one volume an analysis of psychological test results and biometric measurements of large samples of black and white twins-in all, 496 pairs of twins, ranging in age from 12 to 20. In addition to the heritability estimates reported previously (Osborne, 1978), important new analyses of personality, socio-economic status, culture fair and primary mental ability tests, and neurological findings are presented.

In the body of the survey, the reader will find independent chapters dealing with heritability of mental ability, school achievement, and personality by race and by sex. In the appendixes will be found all raw data, including psychological test results and the biometric measurements used in zygosity determination. From the printouts in the appendixes, studies in the body of the text may be verified or unreported relationships among the variables may be investigated. Tapes of the appendixes are available from the author.

## I

## Introduction

A decade before he published the first scientific twin study in 1875 Sir Francis Galton (1865) stated, "the general resemblances in mental qualities between parents of offspring, in man and brute, are every whit as near as the resemblance of their physical features" (p. 158).

Galton (1869) predicted that native ability, like stature, is distributed approximately normally in any given population. He was, however, not satisfied with his statistical evidence:
"The persons whom you compare may have lived under similar social conditions and have had similar advantages of education, but such prominent conditions are only a small part of those that determine the future of each man's life. It is to trifling accidental circumstances that the bent of his disposition and his success are mainly due, and these you leave wholly out of account-in fact, they do not admit of being tabulated, and therefore your statistics, however plausible at first sight, are really of very little use." No method of enquiry which I have been able to carry out-and I have tried many meth-ods-is wholly free from this objection. I have therefore attacked the problem from the opposite side, seeking for some new method by which it would be possible to weigh in just scales the respective effects of nature and nurture, and to ascertain their several shares in framing the disposition and intellectual ability of men. The life history of twins supplies what I wanted. (Galton, 1875, p. 566)

Since 1875 over 100 scientific studies of the cognitive ability of twins have been published. With few exceptions all support Galton's original thesis that mental ability is inherited, the ratio of variance attibutable to environmental and hereditary factors being approximately one to four.

The work of Sir Cyril Burt, one of the foremost proponents of the inheritance of intelligence, became suspect two years after his death in 1971. In reviewing kinship correlations reported by Burt, Arthur Jensen (1974) noted misprints and inconsistencies, involving invariant correlations from unknown or ambiguous sample sizes. After an unsuccessful attempt to resolve the discrepancies in Burt's work, Jensen proposed a strategy for future researchers to make their data more useful and more easily verifiable. Totally ignoring these constructive suggestions, the popular press used Jensen's criticism of Burt as an excuse to headline: CRUCIAL DATA WAS FAKED BY EMINENT PSYCHOLOGIST . . . THEORIES OF IQ PIONEER COMPLETELY DISCREDITED . . . THE FRAUD REOPENED THE DEBATE ABOUT RACE AND INTELLIGENCE. ${ }^{1}$

The Burt controversy is best summarized by Bernard Rimland and Harry Munsinger (1977) who point out that the data demonstrating the heavy dependence of IQ on genetic factors are far too solid to be shaken by the work of any single investigator, even Sir Cyril Burt.

Nicholas Wade (1976), in reviewing Burt's experiments, says:
The only sure evidence of error, the invariant correlations, is a curious mistake for a cunning forger to make. Perhaps, when old and ill, Burt was too proud to ask for help in doing the calculations and, as Eysenck suggests, carried over the results from earlier papers. (p. 919)

Not all biologists agree with Rimland and Munsinger. Harvard Professor Richard Lewontin believes:

There is not one jot or tittle of evidence of any genetic basis for any behavioral trait, except schizophrenia-whether it be intelligence or nastiness or aggressiveness. And given the finite resources which support scientists in their playgrounds, it is a waste of taxpayers' money to study IQ heredity or other genetic components of human personality. ("We're all the same under the skin," 1976)

The present study is the first to include test scores, biometric data, and personality profiles of a sizable group ( 123 pairs) of black twins. It also provides a comprehensive analysis of over 125 different intellectual, biometric, and personality characteristics for 496 pairs of twins and makes available the raw test data and anthropometric measures which can be used by other investigators to verify reported findings or to explore addi-

[^0]tional hypotheses. In addition to the above, this study has a strictly practical aspect, the importance of which should not be overlooked. Increasing restrictions on the use of human subjects in research involving psychological tests, blood typing, and anthropometric measurements virtually preclude in the foreseeable future the possibility of locating and testing sizable numbers of twins. ${ }^{2}$ The problem is compounded by the scarcity of twins, which occur only once in 88 live births.

In summary, this study has added significance not only because it is the first of its kind; if present trends prevail, it may also be the last of its kind.

[^1]
## II

## History of Twin Studies

Perhaps no other natural phenomenon stimulates so much interest among so many different types and classes of individuals (physicians, geneticists, dramatists, poets, artists, and parents) as human twinning. Although multiple births occur among all ethnic groups, the birth of twins elicits reactions that range from riotous celebrations by Western African tribes to the ostracism or death of both mother and offspring elsewhere in Africa and in parts of India and Japan. "The fear of producing twins," write Strong and Corney (1967), "was so great that Hottentots about to marry were said to amputate one testicle in the belief that this would prevent such a misfortune!" (p. 1).

Some twins, even those of the same sex, are so dissimilar that even a blind father can easily distinguish between them; others so nearly alike that parents, teachers, and close friends often have difficulty telling them apart.

That there are actually two types of twins was not established until late in the 19th century. About the same time Sir Francis Galton was undertaking his first investigation of twins, "physicians and biologists in several different countries independently developed the concept that 'identical' twins resulted from a single fertilised ovum, whereas 'fraternal twins' occurred when two separate ova were fertilised" (Strong \& Corney, 1967, p. 14).

In his long search for statistical evidence to prove the inheritance of mental ability, Galton found that the life history of twins was a veritable treasure house of information. The results of his initial research were published in Fraser's Magazine in 1875 under the title "The History of Twins, as a Criterion of the Relative Powers of Nature and Nurture." Galton's scientific insight and writing skill can be appreciated from a few excerpts:

My materials were obtained by sending circulars of enquiry to persons who were either twins themselves or the near relations of twins. The printed questions were in thirteen groups; the last of them asked for the addresses of other twins known to the recipient who might be likely to respond if I wrote to them. This happily led to a continually widening circle of correspondence, which I pursued until enough material was accumulated for a general reconnaissance of the subject.

I have received about eighty returns of cases of close similarity, thirty-five of which entered into many instructive details. In a few of these not a single point of difference could be specified. In the remainder, the colour of the hair and eyes were almost always identical; the height, weight, and strength were generally very nearly so, but $I$ have a few cases of a notable difference in these, notwithstanding the resemblance was otherwise very near.

I have only one case in which nobody, not even the twins themselves, could distinguish their own notes of lectures, \&c.; barely two or three in which the handwriting was undistinguishable by others and only a few in which it was described as closely alike. On the other hand, I have many in which it is stated to be unlike, and some in which it is alluded to as the only point of difference. . . .

Enough has been said to prove that an extremely close personal resemblance frequently exists between twins of the same sex; and that, although the resemblance usually diminishes as they grow into manhood and womanhood, some cases occur in which the resemblance is lessened in a hardly perceptible degree.

Hitherto we have investigated cases where the similarity at first was close, but afterwards became less; now we will examine those in which there was great dissimilarity at first, and will see how far an identity of nurture in childhood and youth tended to assimilate them. As has been already mentioned, there is a large proportion of cases of sharply contrasted characteristics, both of body and mind, among twins. I have twenty such cases, given with much detail. It is a fact, that extreme dissimilarity, such as existed between Esau and Jacob, is a no less marked peculiarity in twins of the same sex, than extreme similarity. On this curious point, and on much else in the history of twins, I have many remarks to make, but this is not the place to make them.

The impression that all this evidence leaves on the mind is one of some wonder whether nurture can do anything at all beyond giving instruction and professional training. It emphatically corroborates and goes far beyond the conclusions to which we had already been driven by the cases of similarity. . . . There is no escape from the conclusion that nature prevails enormously over nurture when the


#### Abstract

differences of nurture do not exceed what is commonly to be found among persons of the same rank of society and in the same country. My only fear is that my evidence seems to prove too much and may be discredited on that account, as it seems contrary to all experience that nurture should go for so little. But experience is often fallacious in ascribing great effects to trifling circumstances. (pp. 566576)


Galton's pioneering study is remarkable because it was made without knowledge of the now standardized division of twins into two principal types, and without the help of modern statistical procedures. The nineteenth century genius' model could hardly be improved today.

Despite such a promising beginning, progress in twin research was slow. No new study of importance was published until E. L. Thorndike's celebrated monograph appeared in 1905. It was as carefully planned and as well written as Galton's landmark paper. Although the concept of two twin types had been developed a quarter of a century earlier, Thorndike defended with some strong statistical support his belief in the classical theory that twins only come in one variety. R. A. Fisher (1919), after reviewing Thorndike's data, also rejected the idea that there were two types of twins, thereby making it clear that the idea was still not universally accepted.

Thorndike did, however, introduce two new techniques for the study of twins in his 1905 paper: structured psychological tests and the correlation coefficient, the latter corrected for attenuation. In regard to this procedure Thorndike (1905) acknowledges, "I take Mr. Spearman's method of correction for attenuation on trust, as I do not possess the mathematical knowledge necessary to derive his formulae" (p. 4).

Although conducted a quarter of a century apart and on two different continents, the results of the first two methodical twin studies are remarkably similar-even to the extent that both Galton and Thorndike were somewhat apologetic about their findings. Compare Galton's words to these from Thorndike's (1905) study:

Doubtless we all feel a repugnance to assigning so little efficacy to environmental forces as the facts of this study seem to demand; but common opinion also feels a repugnance to believing that the mental resemblances of twins, however caused, are as great as the physical resemblances. Yet they are. (p. 10)

The next milestone in twin studies was reached in 1924. In a study reported in Psychological Monographs, Curtis Merriman (1924) was the first to employ standardized individual and group IQ tests to test the intellectual similarities of twins. The results of his investigation finally
convinced psychologists that there are two types of twins, fraternal (two eggs) and identical (one egg). Merriman's other findings were not too different from those of Galton and Thorndike. Environment, he stated, appears to have no important influence on the degree of twin resemblance. He also asserted that twins do not suffer from any particular deficiency in mental capability.

The next significant development in this field was the work of Karl Holzinger. Relying on data assembled at the University of Chicago in collaboration with H. H. Newman and F. N. Freeman, Holzinger (1929) developed two formulas for determining the relative effect of nature and nurture on twin differences. The first measures the relative effectiveness of nature and nurture in determining mean twin differences. The second (Holzinger's well-known $H$ index or $H$ ratio), which measures the variability of twin differences, was written by Holzinger as $h^{2}=\frac{i r-f^{r}}{1-f^{r}}$.
Although the $H$ index is being replaced by more dependable statistical methods, it was used uncritically for over 30 years. To appreciate Holzinger's contribution, the reader is referred to his original paper published in 1929.

With the advent of high-speed computers and large data banks, provided for the most part by National Merit Study and Project Talent Study, twin research was accelerated in the early 60s. Robert C. Nichols was among the first to recognize the weakness of Holzinger's Index and to suggest an improved method of estimating heritability from twin data. Since Nichols' heritability estimate is one of several used in this study, a summary is quoted from his 1965 paper.

The particular power of the twin method lies in the fact that the difference between the intraclass correlations for identical and fraternal twins is equal to the proportion of the total variance due to hereditary differences between fraternal twins. Since fraternal twins have on the average half their genes in common, this is half the heredity variance in the trait. This fact can be used to construct heritability coefficients from twin correlations which give estimates of the proportion of the variance in a trait attributable to heredity. The coefficient $h^{2}$ proposed by Holzinger (1929) is the ratio of half the hereditary variance to the variance within sets of fraternal twins.

$$
h^{2}=\frac{\sigma^{2} \mathrm{DZ}-\sigma^{2} \mathrm{MZ}}{\sigma^{2} \mathrm{DZ}}=\frac{r \mathrm{MZ}-r \mathrm{DZ}}{1-r \mathrm{DZ}}=\frac{D H}{D H+D E+E}
$$

Since error of measurement enters into the within-set variance the correlations are usually corrected for attenuation. Another coefficient which we have developed for use in our twin study is called $H R$.

$$
H R=\frac{2(r \mathrm{MZ}-r \mathrm{DZ})}{r \mathrm{MZ}}=\frac{2 D H}{C H \mathrm{MZ}+C E}
$$

This is the ratio of the hereditary variance to variance due to heredity and environment common to both twins of a set. If one is willing to assume that the major environmental influences on a trait, at least those which might be measured or manipulated, are common to both twins of a set, this ratio is the proportion due to heredity of the variance attributable to heredity and major environmental variables. This ratio also offers the advantage of not including error variance and thus not requiring correction for unreliability of the measuring instruments.
Figure 1 shows a schematic representation of the sources of variance in twin data. The left-hand vertical line represents the total variance of a trait in identical twins and the right-hand line the total variance in fraternal twins. The possible sources of variation are listed between the two lines. Both hereditary and environmental variance is divided into that common to twins of a set and that which is different for the two twins of a set.
The schematic representation in Figure 1 and the logic behind the heritability coefficients make certain assumptions which may or


Figure II-1. Schematic representation of sources of variance in twin data.
may not hold in a given study or with respect to a given trait being investigated. The four major assumptions are the following: (a) that the similarity of environmental influence is the same for fraternal and identical twins; (b) that for the trait in question there is no correlation between parents due to assortive mating (although if the correlation between parents is known it can be corrected for); (c) that hereditary variance in a continuous trait being studied shows no dominance or interaction effects; (d) that hereditary and environmental influences are not correlated (although small correlations make little difference). (pp. 232-234)

In his chapter in Methods and Goals in Human Behavior Genetics, Steven Vandenberg (1965) proposed a third heritability formula, the F ratio, which compares within-pair variance of DZ twins with that of MZ's, and then tests the significance of this ratio by the $F$ test:

$$
F=\frac{\sigma^{2} \mathrm{wDZ}}{\sigma^{2} \mathrm{wMZ}}
$$

The limitations of the three heritability formulas of Holzinger, Nichols, and Vandenberg were summarized by Jensen in a paper presented to the National Academy of Sciences in 1967.

The prevailing method of estimating heritability from MZ and DZ twins has been by means of the $H$ index devised by Holzinger. That Holzinger's $H$ index is not a satisfactory estimate of $\boldsymbol{h}^{2}$ is now generally recognized in behavior genetics, but the precise nature of the inadequacy of the $H$ index and the problem of estimating $h^{2}$ from MZ and DZ twin data have remained conceptually obscure. Nichols proposed an improvement on the $H$ index, called the $H R$ index, but it, too, is unsatisfactory as an index of $h^{2}$. One serious criticism of $H$ and $H R$ is that one is not a monotonic function of the other, and neither is a monotonic function of $\boldsymbol{h}^{2}$. Vandenberg has proposed using $F$ (the variance ratio) as a test of the significance of $\sigma \mathrm{w}_{\mathrm{Dz}}{ }^{2} /$ $\sigma \mathrm{w}_{\mathrm{Mz}}{ }^{2}$ (DZ within-pair variance/MZ within-pair variance), but this is as faulty as an index of heritability as the $H$ index itself, since $F$ is a linear function of $H$. Determining the variance ratio $F$, however, is an essential step prior to computing $h^{2}$; if $F$ is not statistically significant, $h^{2}$ cannot be presumed to differ significantly from zero. (p. 149)

Since 1929 the intraclass correlation coefficient rather than analysis of variance has been the method of choice for most investigators studying the resemblance between pairs of twins and other relatives. It has recently
been pointed out by Krystyna Last (1977) that the correlational approach is useful only when performing straightforward analysis and when the causes of variation are simple. Since behavior traits are complex in origin, Last warns us it is often misleading to use the correlational approach.

Using correlations rather than variance components assumes equality of the total variances between groups. Therefore, we must assume that all effects leading to inequality of the total variances are absent. If this is not the case then estimates obtained from the data will be biased, and we will lose information about effects leading to unequal variances. Jinks and Fulker (1970) have enumerated several factors producing inequality of the total variances:

1. The genetical components differ between groups.
2. Between and within pairs environmental components differ between groups.
3. Genotype-environment covariance is present. (Last, 1977, pp. 1-2)

The present paper uses the correlational methods of Holzinger, Nichols, and Vandenberg, despite their recognized weaknesses. However, while the analyses reported in this volume were being prepared, Basic Battery test data were made available to Last for analysis by methods originally proposed by Jinks, Fulker, and Eaves and recommended by her. This analysis will comprise portions of her dissertation written under the direction of Lindon Eaves at the University of Birmingham.

Last uses both the intraclass correlation approach and the method of analysis of variance components, a dual approach which makes it possible to compare results of the two different methods applied to the same data. All the findings of her 730-page dissertation cannot be reviewed here, but conclusions applicable to the present study will be summarized briefly (Last, 1977).
(a) Last found the usual pattern of sex differences and race differences in mean performance. Mean scores for blacks were lower than those for whites. Males performed better than females on spatial tests (p. 298).
(b) There was no evidence of a difference in heritability between the races (p. 161).
(c) Although Last did not have the best data set for detection of sex linkage, there was no evidence whatsoever to suggest its presence in these data ( p . 169).
(d) There was a marked difference between MZ and DZ correlations. This confirmed previous work suggesting heritable variation for measures of ability (p. 170).
(e) For the seven tests whose total variances were homogeneous and
for which an adequate model was found, the results were broadly consistent with those obtained by analyzing the correlations (p. 192).
(f) In the analysis of intraclass correlation coefficients, a heritable component of variation was demonstrated for most tests. No heritable component was found for the more unreliable tests (p. 298).
(g) A general mental factor was extracted and analyzed. Environmental models could not explain the observed pattern of variation. Assuming the between-families component to be produced entirely by assortative mating, Last decided as much as $90 \%$ of the variation could be attributed to genetical differences (p. 299).

From this review of the development of the twin method in the study of heritability, it is clear that there is no one perfectly reliable procedure for determining the exact proportion of mental test variation attributable to genetical or enviornmental differences. Even for the same method, heritability estimates of intelligence vary according to the nature of the task.

In subsequent chapters, tests of general intelligence, culture fair intelligence, primary mental abilities and personality, as well as electroencephalographic records, will be analyzed by the classical methods of Holzinger, Nichols, and Vandenberg.

# Twin Studies of Ability, Personality, and Interests ${ }^{1}$ 

Nancy Breland (1972) reviewed twin literature from the time of Galton up to 1971, extracting 756 pairs of intraclass correlations. Robert C. Nichols and Breland assigned the traits to the broad domains of ability, personality, and interests, then narrowed the classification within each domain according to the specific trait. In those instances in which an unfamiliar test was used or in which the trait could not be unambiguously grouped with other studies of the same trait, the correlations were temporarily discarded. This provided a means of organizing a large body of data, although tests with similar names, which were grouped together, were no doubt in many instances measuring quite different traits.

Although our research design did not include the measurement of interests, Nichols and Breland's review of twin studies on the topic will be included in this chapter since it adds important information to the study of human behavior genetics.

The results for the ability domain are shown in Figure III-1, which demonstrates considerable variation among studies, as well as a striking overall consistency. The correlations were predominantly high and positive, demonstrating that twins tend to be quite alike in a variety of abilities. Identical twins tended to be more similar than fraternal twins on all 12 traits of ability. If the weighted averages represented by arrows are considered to be one large composite study based on several thousand sets of twins, the difference between identical and fraternal intraclass

[^2]

Figure III-1. Intraclass correlations from twin studies of various abilities. Correlations obtained in each study for MZ (identical) and DZ (fraternal) twins are indicated by dots; the mean correlation, weighted by the number of cases, is indicated by an arrow below the horizontal line representing the range of correlations for each trait.
correlations range from .25 for general intelligence to .11 for divergent thinking.

Figure III-2 shows the analogous results for the interest domain. The picture is quite similar to that for abilities, except that the correlations


Figure III-2. Intraclass correlations from twin studies of various interests. Correlations obtained in each study for MZ (identical) and DZ (fraternal) twins are indicated by dots; the mean correlation, weighted by the number of cases, is indicated by an arrow below the horizontal line representing the range of correlations for each trait.
are somewhat lower. The difference between weighted averages for identical and fraternal twins ranges from .22 for artistic interests to .11 for business or enterprising interests.

Figure III-3 shows analogous results in the personality domain, which are similar to those for interests except the horizontal lines tend to be somewhat longer, indicating greater variation among studies. The difference between weighted averages for identical and fraternal twins ranged from .27 for extroversion to .19 for masculinity-femininity.

Confronted with the remarkable similarity of results for ability, interests, and personality as well as for the more specific traits within the three domains, the reader might well ask whether this survey of the twin literature reveals any significant difference between traits or between domains.

The weighted composite results of all twin studies are not appropriate for answering this question because different traits were investigated by different studies using different samples of twins. Thus, the large differences noted between different studies of the same trait could produce


Figure III-3. Intraclass correlations from twin studies of various personality dimensions. Correlations obtained in each study for MZ (identical) and DZ (fraternal) twins are indicated by dots; the mean correlation, weighted by the number of cases, is indicated by an arrow below the horizontal line representing the range of correlations for each trait.
spurious differences between composite results for different traits. The best evidence on this issue, then, comes from considering each study as an independent attempt to estimate population values for a given trait. We can then ask whether studies of different traits produce results that cannot reasonably be attributed to the variation among studies observed when investigating the same trait. For this analysis each study was an equal unit and was not weighted by its sample size.

Table III-A shows the unweighted mean correlations for the various traits dealt with in the previous three figures. The basic data are the same as in the figures, but the results are slightly different because the studies were given equal weight regardless of sample size. It can now be

TABLE III-A
Mean Intraclass Correlations from Twin Studies of Various Traits

| Trait | Number of studies | Mean Intraclass Cor. |  | Difference$r_{M Z}-r_{D Z}$ |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  | $\mathrm{r}_{\mathrm{Mz}}$ | $\mathrm{r}_{\mathrm{Dz}}$ | Mean | SD |
| Ability |  |  |  |  |  |
| General Intelligence | 30 | . 82 | . 59 | . 22 | . 10 |
| Verbal Comprehension | 27 | . 78 | . 59 | . 19 | . 14 |
| Number and Mathematics | 27 | . 78 | . 59 | . 19 | . 12 |
| Spatial Visualization | 31 | . 65 | . 41 | . 23 | . 16 |
| Memory | 16 | . 52 | . 36 | . 16 | . 16 |
| Reasoning | 16 | . 74 | . 50 | . 24 | . 17 |
| Clerical Speed and Acc. | 15 | . 70 | . 47 | . 22 | . 15 |
| Verbal Fluency | 12 | . 67 | . 52 | . 15 | . 14 |
| Divergent Thinking | 10 | . 61 | . 50 | . 11 | . 15 |
| Language Achievement | 28 | . 81 | . 58 | . 23 | . 11 |
| Social Studies Achievement | 7 | . 85 | . 61 | . 24 | . 10 |
| Natural Science Ach. | 14 | . 79 | . 64 | . 15 | . 13 |
| All abilities | 211 | . 74 | . 54 | . 21 | . 14 |
| Interests |  |  |  |  |  |
| Practical Interest | 20 | . 50 | . 37 | . 13 | . 15 |
| Science Interest | 15 | . 54 | . 29 | . 25 | . 11 |
| Business Interest | 22 | . 45 | . 30 | . 15 | . 14 |
| Clerical Interest | 10 | . 44 | . 26 | . 18 | . 09 |
| Helping Interest | 18 | . 48 | . 30 | . 18 | . 14 |
| Artistic Interest | 16 | . 50 | . 32 | . 18 | . 13 |
| All interests | 116 | . 48 | . 30 | . 18 | . 13 |
| Personality |  |  |  |  |  |
| Extraversion-Introversion | 30 | . 52 | . 25 | . 27 | . 14 |
| Neuroticism | 23 | . 51 | . 22 | . 29 | . 21 |
| Socialization | 6 | . 49 | . 23 | . 27 | . 17 |
| Dominance | 13 | . 53 | . 31 | . 23 | . 18 |
| Masculinity-Femininity | 7 | . 43 | . 17 | . 27 | . 21 |
| Hypochondriasis | 9 | . 37 | . 19 | . 18 | . 28 |
| Conformity | 5 | . 41 | . 20 | . 22 | . 15 |
| Flexibihty | 7 | . 46 | . 27 | . 19 | . 27 |
| Impulsiveness | 6 | . 48 | . 29 | . 19 | . 12 |
| All personality | 106 | . 48 | . 29 | . 19 | . 12 |

Note: Mean correlations are unweighted averages of the studies involved. Because most twin studies employ multiple measures, the same twin sample may be represented in several traits.
asked whether the observed variation among traits in the average difference between identical and fraternal correlations can be attributed to chance. A one-way analysis of variance showed the differences among the traits in the ability domain to be not significant at the five percent level. Similar analyses in the interest and personality domains showed even greater likelihood that the observed differences among traits are due to chance. Thus, the difference in similarity between the two kinds of twins does not differ significantly among traits within the three domains. The mean difference between identical and fraternal correlations for the three domains-ability, personality, and interests-
were $.21, .19$, and .18 respectively. These three numbers are clearly not significantly different from one another. It follows that a twin study is likely to find a difference between identical and fraternal correlations of about .20 regardless of the domain or the trait that is being investigated!

The tendency for both the identical and fraternal correlations to be higher in the ability domain than in the personality and interest domains was highly significant statistically. The average correlation involving ability measures was higher by about .25 than that involving interest or personality measures.

Without attempting to interpret these correlations precisely at this point, their most obvious implications are that individual differences in all traits of behavior, from general intelligence to fingernail biting, are due in roughly equal parts to genetic differences and to environmental differences. The environmental factors that influence abilities tend to affect members of the same family in the same way, while the environmental factors that influence personality and interests tend to affect members of the same family differently.

## The National Merit Twin Study

During the 1960s the National Merit Scholarship Corporation conducted an annual, nationwide testing program in which a three-hour test of educational development was given to selected eleventh grade students in most high schools in the United States. The test form asked whether or not each of the roughly 600,000 students who took the test in 1962 was a twin.

By pairing twins who attended the same school and who had the same last name and home address about 1500 sets of same-sexed twins were identified. These twins were each sent a questionnaire asking for detailed reports on a number of hereditary physical characteristics, which were used for diagnosis of zygosity. Subsequently, blood samples were obtained from 124 sets of these twins, and the questionnaire diagnosis agreed with the diagnosis based on extensive blood typing in 93 percent of the cases (Nichols and Bilbro, 1966). Usable questionnaires were received from about 1200 sets.

These twins were then sent an additional packet of questionnaires concerning their behavior, attitudes, goals, interests, and personality and a separate questionnaire to be completed by a parent. The packet contained the California Psychological Inventory and a long questionnaire developed specifically for the study. Complete data were obtained from 850 sets of twins, of which 60 percent were diagnosed identical and 42 percent were male.

This procedure yielded data on a large number of sets of same-sexed twins, all about the same age with each set raised in the same family.

Though these twins are not representative of any specific group to which statistical generalizations can be made, comparison with available norms suggests that they are not particularly unusual except that they qualified for the National Merit Test. Like other National Merit Test participants, they averaged about one standard deviation above high school students on measures of scholastic aptitude. They showed about the same variability as most students on tests of ability, personality, and interests. Except for the ability tests all data were obtained via mailed questionnaires. Checking internal consistency of the responses and comparing the information supplied by the twins and their parents indicate that the questionnaires were carefully completed. The data appear to be about the same quality as data usually obtained in group testing of college students.

Three years later, in 1965, a second twin sample was obtained. The twins among the almost 800,000 participants in the 1965 National Merit testing program were identified as part of a broader question about birth order. The same-sexed twins from this testing were sent a revised form of the physical similarity questionnaire from which 1300 identical sets and 864 fraternal sets of twins were diagnosed. About two years later David P. Campbell, then at the University of Minnesota, mailed these twins the form of the Strong Vocational Interest Blank appropriate for their sex. Usable Strong tests were obtained from 669 male and 949 female sets of twins of which 61 percent were identical. As in the 1962 sample, females and identical twins were somewhat more cooperative in providing data than males and fraternal twins.

The diverse data on these two large twin samples lead themselves to a number of different analyses, but here our attention is limited to the relative similarity of identical and fraternal twins on the various measures. All told, data were available on the 1962 sample for over 1600 test scores and questionnaire items, and the computer obediently spewed out intraclass correlations for all of them.

## Differences Among Traits

When the correlations for the major scores representing ability, personality, and interests are plotted on the figures showing the results of past studies they blend in so well that Nichol's investigation could well serve as the modal twin study. Attention was then directed to a more detailed investigation of the striking implication of the literature that the difference between identical and fraternal correlations, and thus the heritability, is about the same for all psychological traits.

To study this question, John Loehlin performed a series of analyses that took advantage of the relatively large sample of twins and the diversity of variables in this study. Loehlin's innovative method was to compute
correlations for a variety of variables separately in random halves of the twins of each sex and to look for agreement between random halves and between sexes in the rank order of differences between the correlations for the two kinds of twins. In this way, any tendency for some traits to show consistently larger differences between identical and fraternal correlations than do other traits could be detected. Traits with high heritabilities should show large differences and those with low heritabilities should show small differences in both random half-samples.

This method cannot be applied to the entire list of 1600 variables, because of the large differences among them in reliability. Unreliable variables would tend to have consistently low correlations with correspondingly small differences between them simply because of their low reliability.

The random-half method was first applied to the 18 standard scales of the California Psychological Inventory, which do not differ greatly in reliability. The scales were ranked according to the difference between identical and fraternal correlations in random half-samples of each sex. There was no agreement in these ranks between sexes or between random half-samples. The average Spearman rank correlation was -.05 . There was also no agreement between the rank order of the CPI scales in this study with that reported in a previous twin study of the CPI conducted by Irving Gottesman (Gottesman, 1966; Nichols, 1969).

Using the 1965 sample, a similar random-half analysis was performed with 88 Strong Vocational Interest Blank scales for males and 69 scales for females. Again there was little agreement between random halves in the rank order of the scales in terms of the difference between identical and fraternal correlations.

There was also no agreement between the rank order of identicalfraternal differences for the five subtests of the National Merit Scholarship Qualifying Test either for the two sexes or for the 1962 and 1965 samples. However, this may not be especially surprising, since these subtests are highly intercorrelated.

To give any differences among traits the maximum chance to show themselves, one should use as diverse a set of variables as possible. For this purpose John Loehlin performed a series of cluster analyses on all of the 1500 or so questionnaire items available on the 1962 sample to develop a set of diverse clusters, each with reasonable internal consistency. This process yielded 70 clusters in which no variable was in more than one cluster and every variable in a cluster correlated at least .30 with every other. The number of variables in the clusters ranged from 3 to 13 with a median of 4 . Although the clusters were formed on an entirely statistical basis, in almost all cases the content was fairly homogeneous and readily interpretable. There was great diversity of content among
the 70 clusters, which included abilities, interests, life goals, selfconcept ratings, ideal-self ratings, activities, descriptive adjectives, physical complaints, attitudes, and CPI items.

Differences between identical and fraternal intraclass correlations were computed for the 70 clusters for random halfsamples of males and females. There was no agreement between sexes or random half-samples in the rank order of these differences. The average Spearman rank order correlation was .02 .
Thus, it seems that it is quite difficult to find evidence of greater genetic involvement with some psychological traits than with others, even with the relatively large sample of twins available for this study.
In a final attempt to find such evidence, differences were checked between identical and fraternal twin correlations of individual CPI items in random half-samples. To avoid the difficulties presented by low item reliability, only those CPI items that could stand alone psychometrically were selected. Goldberg and Rorer (1964) obtained 3- to 4 -week testretest data for the CPI item pool for three samples of college students ranging in size from 95 to 179 . Only those items that had test-retest reliability coefficients of at least .50 in each of the three samples were retained. There were 179 such highly dependable items.

Next, there were sorted out from among these reliable items those in which the intraclass correlation between identical twins was at least .20 higher than that between fraternal twins ("high-difference" items) and those in which either the correlation between identicals was no more than .02 above that between fraternals or the fraternal correlation was higher ("low difference" items). This procedure was carried out separately in the two random halves of the total sample. The question was simply: "Are high and low identical-fraternal differences consistent properties of particular items, or are we screening chance sampling fluctuation?"

Fifty-five and 54 items met the criterion of high difference in the two half-samples; 38 and 31 items met the criterion of low difference. There was a significant tendency for the low-difference items to be the same in the two half-samples, however, there was no such tendency for the high-difference items. Eleven items had low differences in both half samples. Only 6.6 would be expected by chance.

Among the 11 items showing a low difference in both half samples were several expressing social attitudes, a content which did not occur among the high-difference items. These items were: "A person who doesn't vote is not a good citizen," "I do not like to see people carelessly dressed," "I believe women should have as much sexual freedom as men," and "People have a real duty to take care of their aged parents, even if it means making some pretty big sacrifices."
With this hint it was noticed that elsewhere in the questionnaire individual items concerned with attitudes toward racial integration and federal
welfare programs and with belief in God also showed low differences.
Thus, there is some evidence that specific social attitudes are less dependent on the genes than are most other psychological traits. It is somewhat reassuring to find that identical twins were not consistently more similar than were fraternal twins. Otherwise it might have been necessary to entertain a hypothesis about ESP at work or, even worse, collusion on answering the questionnaires. In this vein it might be noted with some feeling of relief that the identical twins were not noticeably more alike than the fraternals on such items as reports of the size of their high school class, the size and urbanization of their home towns, or the presence of various items in their home.

Although there were practically no dependable differences among psychological traits in the difference between identical and fraternal correlations, the size of the correlations did differ reliably among trait domains. As in previous studies, correlations tended to be higher for abilities than for personality and interests.

## Interpretation of Twin Correlations

Table III-B shows the median correlations obtained for several major groups of variables. A random half-sample analysis showed that the difference between identical and fraternal correlations for the various classes of variables was not dependably different, although the varying size of the correlations (e.g., the mean correlation for the two kinds of

Table III-B
Median Intraclass Correlations for Various Trait Domains

| Trait | Intraclass Correlation |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | Identical | Fraternal | Difference (I-F) |
| General Ability <br> (NMSQT total score) ${ }^{1}$ | . 86 | . 62 | . 24 |
| Special Abilities ( 5 NMSQT subtests) | . 74 | . 52 | . 22 |
| Activities <br> (17 activities clusters) | . 64 | . 49 | . 15 |
| Interests <br> (88 Strong scales, male) <br> (69 Strong scales, female) | . 53 | . 27 | . 26 |
| Personality <br> (27 CPI scales) | . 50 | . 28 | . 22 |
| Goals and Ideals (31 clusters of life goal, ideal-self and interest items) | . 37 | . 20 | . 17 |
| Self Concept ( 15 clusters of self concept ratings) | . 34 | . 10 | . 22 |

${ }^{1}$ NMSQT is National Merit Scholarship Qualifying Test.
twins) was dependable. An attempt may now be made to interpret these correlations in more detail.

First an adjustment should be made for the correlations for two known sources of error in the study-the variables were not measured with complete reliability and the zygosity of the twins was not diagnosed with complete accuracy. Table III-C shows the correlations corrected for these attenuating influences. The reliability estimates used for these corrections are shown in the first column of the table. The best estimate from the blood studies mentioned above is that about 7 percent of the twins of each kind were misdiagnosed, and the correlations were adjusted for the effect of these errors in diagnosis of zygosity. The effect of both of these corrections was to increase the observed correlations. The difference between the corrected identical and fraternal correlations is now about .30 , which implies a heritability of about .60 . Because the heritability estimate is subject to sampling fluctuation and is fairly sensitive to the estimate of the reliability of the test, one should probably not state this more precisely than to say that about half the variance in these traits seems to be attributable to genetic differences.

Additional correction for assortative mating would not change very much the heritability estimate for personality and interest measures, where quite low positive correlations between spouses are typically found. However, husband-wife correlations on the order of .40 to .50 are generally reported for general intelligence (Vandenberg, 1972), and allowance

## Table III-C

Median Intraclass Correlations for Various Trait Domains Corrected for Unreliability of Measurement and Errors of Diagnosis

| Trait | Reliability of Measurement | Intraclass Correlation |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  | Identical | Fraternal | Difference (I-F) |
| General Ability <br> (NMSQT total score) | . 95 | . 92 | . 63 | . 29 |
| Special Abilities (5 NMSQT subtests) | . 88 | . 86 | . 57 | . 29 |
| Activities <br> (17 activities clusters) | . 70 | . 93 | . 68 | . 25 |
| Interests (88 Strong scales, male) (69 Strong scales, female) | . 85 | . 64 | . 29 | . 35 |
| Personality ( 27 CPI scales) | . 80 | . 65 | . 33 | . 32 |
| Goals and Ideals (31 clusters of life goal, ideal-self and interest items) | . 65 | . 59 | . 29 | . 30 |
| Self Concept ( 15 clusters of self concept ratings) | . 65 | . 55 | . 13 | . 42 |

for this would increase the heritability estimate for abilities to about .70 .

There are additional qualifications that should be placed on heritability calculated from twin correlations. Non-additive genetic effects (dominance and epistasis) are included in the heritability figure. Thus, it is often described as "heritability in the broad sense," the total genetic effect, in contrast to "heritability in the narrow sense," which is the heritability that would be realized in selective breeding. Variance attributable to the correlation of genetic and environmental influences is also included in the heritability figure. This correlation might be either positive (those with the more favorable genes are exposed to the more favorable environment), negative or curvilinear (those genetically extreme on a trait are influenced by the environment to be less extreme). Other complications, such as differences in the intrauterine environment for the two kinds of twins, have also been suggested.

Some observers have cautioned that the greater behavioral similarity of identical twins may be due in part to a greater similarity of their environment rather than of their genes. Reports by the twins and their parents indicate that identical twins do in fact spend more time together, have more similar early experiences, and are treated more alike by parents than are fraternal twins. However, this does not seem to be a reasonable explanation for their greater psychological similarity. Within twins of the same type, greater similarity of experience was not associated with greater similarity on the psychological traits with which this study is concerned. In other words, the difference in similarity of environment that has been noted for the two kinds of twins does not appear to result in corresponding differences in psychological similarity. Thus, the best explanation for the twin data in this study and in the literature is that about half of the variation among people in a broad spectrum of psychological traits is due to differences among the people in genetic characteristics.

There is at least one theory which suggests that under long-term evolutionary conditions one might expect traits to tend toward roughly equal (and moderate) heritabilities. The theory derives from arguments outlined by Allen (1970). It holds that, if the heritability of a trait is low, gene mutations affecting the trait will tend to accumulate, increasing its genetic variance. Once the genetic variance becomes large enough relative to environmental variation so that the heritability of the trait is appreciable, stabilizing natural selection will begin to operate on the trait to slow and eventually to stop further increase in its genetic variability and hence to hold heritability at a stable level. If relevant environmental variation were to decrease, the trait heritability would temporarily rise, permitting selection to act more effectively on the genetic variation of the trait, bringing the genetic variation (and thus the heritability) back down again.

Generally speaking, under this hypothesis all traits tend toward moderate levels of heritability because the genetic component of variation of any trait tends to increase until the process of natural selection can "see it" against the background of environmental variation present and hold it stable. This suggests that differences in the importance of different traits for reproductive fitness will be reflected principally in the total amount of variation present, not in the relative proportions of this variation that are genetic and environmental. A trait that is critically important for reproduction will show little variation among individuals and a trivial trait a lot, but their heritabilities will be about the same.

For this mechanism to work, the general level of environmental influence on any given trait must remain fairly constant on the scale of tens of thousands or hundreds of thousands of years on which human biological evolution takes place. The specific environmental influences need not always be the same, but their general level of impact must remain fairly constant. On the face of it, this does not seem very reasonable. The tremendous changes in the human environment that industrialization has produced over the past several hundred years must certainly have changed the environmental impact on human behavior, if only by reducing the privations and noxious circumstances that seem to characterize life in the wild. But we must remember that we are unable to identify the major environmental events that produce differences in human personality. If the critical events are prenatal biological factors or basic parent-child emotional relationships, and if they occur in some relatively short critical period, it may be reasonable to assume that their impact has remained fairly constant over millennia.

It has been customary when discussing the heritability of human behavior to point out that the heritability coefficient is a population statistic specific to a given group at a given time, and it has been suggested that heritability may vary widely even among sub-cultures in the United States. The current line of argument, on the other hand, implies that the genetic and environmental factors responsible for individual differences are rather basic properties of the human condition, and that one would expect to find roughly similar heritabilities over a fairly wide range of circumstances.

## Environmental Influences

Another perspective on the character of relevant environmental factors may be obtained by considering the different levels of twin correlation prevailing in different trait domains. Assuming that the degree of genetic influence causing twins to be alike is roughly the same for all trait domains, the differences in the level of correlation (the average of the correlations for both kinds of twins) in the various domains can be attributed
to differences in the similarity of environmental influences on the twins of a set. Thus, although it is not known specifically what the environmental factors are, something can be said about the degree to which they affect twins raised together in the same family in the same way. More precisely, if the heritability is known, we can calculate the correlation between twins of the salient environmental influences implied by the intraclass correlations. These environmental correlations for the various domains are shown in Table III-D. Separate estimates of the same environmental correlation were obtained from the intraclass correlations for identical and fraternal twins. The third column in the table shows the average of these two estimates. These environmental correlations indicate the degree to which the environmental influences that produce individual differences in the trait have the same effect on both twins of a set.

These environmental correlations are subject to sampling fluctuation, as shown by the different estimates obtained from the two kinds of twins. They are also somewhat sensitive to the estimate of reliability used in correcting the correlations for attenuation. Thus, small differences between traits should not be taken too seriously. There was a very clear tendency, however, for abilities and activities to have high environmental

Table III-D
Correlation of Twin Environments Implied by the Corrected Intraclass Correlations Shown in Table III-C

| Trait | Environmental Correlation |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | Identical | Fraternal | Average ( $\mathbf{I}+\mathrm{F}$ )/2 |
| General Ability (NMSQT total score) ${ }^{1}$ | . 73 | . 77 | . 75 |
| Special Abilities (5 NMSQT subtests) | . 65 | . 68 | . 66 |
| Activities (17 activities clusters) | . 83 | . 95 | . 89 |
| Interests <br> (88 Strong scales, male) <br> (69 Strong scales, female) | . 10 | -. 02 | . 06 |
| Personality <br> ( 27 CPI scales) | . 13 | . 08 | . 10 |
| Goals and Ideals (31 clusters of life goal, ideal-self and interest items) | -. 02 | -. 02 | -. 02 |
| Self Concept ( 15 clusters of self concept ratings) | -. 12 | -. 42 | -. 27 |

[^3]correlations and for personality and interests to have low environmental correlations, a finding consistent with previous twin studies.

It is not difficult to accept the high environmental correlation for abilities and activities, since one might reasonably expect that the relevant environmental inputs would be associated with the characteristics of the parents, the home, the school, and the community, all of which are the same for both twins of a set.
But what about the very low or even negative correlation between twins in the environmental influences on personality and interests? Can this possibly be true? Surely such factors as the parents' child-rearing philosophies and the psychological ambience of the community and the home have some influence on the development of personality-factors that are the same for twins reared together. In fact, almost all of the environmental antecedents of individual differences in personality that have been suggested by psychologists and others are similar for twins reared together.

One possible explanation of this paradox lies in the special environmental situation of twins and in our reliance on self-report measures of personality. Each twin has the other twin as a major part of his environment, and this may lead to competition or to contrast effects between them. If a twin's reference point for self-definition is the other twin, and if others around him are continually contrasting the pair members, it seems plausible that they might end up seeing themselves as much less similar in personality and interests than they actually are. Since our personality and interest measures were all based on some form of self report, such a contrast effect could mask the similarity produced by the common environment. This hypothesis obtains some support from the fact that the somewhat indirect self-report measures, such as the CPI and Strong scales, show low positive environmental correlations, while the more direct ratings of self concept show negative environmental correlations.

There are, however, at least three arguments against this explanation. 1) Twelve twin studies in the literature have used non-self-report measures of personality such as hypnotic susceptibility, musical preferences, flicker fusion, autokinetic movement, speed of decision, free association, social intelligence, and color-form movement. The unweighted average intraclass correlations for the more objective personality measures from these studies were .47 for identical and .30 for fraternal twins. These correlations show the usual difference between correlations for identical and fraternal twins near .20 , but yield near zero estimates of environmental correlation. 2) The contrast effect would be expected to vary in some systematic way across personality traits and for the two sexes, but no such pattern was observed. 3) The degree to which twins of the same kind tended to associate with each other was unrelated to personality differences between the twins, although one might expect a strong contrast effect to be sensitive to the amount of contact between the twins.

Another possible explanation for the paradoxically low twin correlations observed for personality and interest measures is that the direction of environmental influence may vary depending on the strength or level of the particular trait. It seems likely that a major purpose of social influences on many traits is to make people more alike. The shy person, for example, is helped and encouraged to be more sociable, while attempts are made to calm down the overpowering extravert. Cattell, Stice, and Kristy (1957), in interpreting a similar finding, referred to this effect as "coercion to the biocultural norm." An individual who deviates from the community norm, as set by the biological and cultural central tendencies of his group, will experience a cultural or educational constraint toward the mean. Thus, the major systematic effect of the environment on traits of personality and interest may be to restrict variation, to make the measures less variable than they would otherwise be. Such an environmental effect could produce the observed pattern of twin correlations. The phenotypic manifestation of genetic differences between fraternal twins would be reduced somewhat by coercion to the biocultural norm, but its major effect would be to reduce differences between families, i.e. between twin sets. If the variance-reducing effects of coercion to the biocultural norm were equivalent to the variance-producing effects of systematic between-family environmental influences, only within family environmental effects would show up in the twin correlations.
A third, although unlikely, explanation is that the major environmental influences on personality are actually highly specific situational factors. If the ways in which environment affects personality are sufficiently complex, contingent and subtle, they could appear random in their effects on individuals, and the similar environmental ambiance of twins raised together might have different effects on the individual twins.

## Conclusion

Twin studies are remarkably consistent in two major findings: 1) identical twins are more similar than are fraternal twins to about the same degree for a very broad range of traits of ability, personality, and interest, and 2) both identical and fraternal twins are considerably less similar in personality and interests than they are in ability. Both of these findings are startling in that neither was anticipated and both pose problems of interpretation within current theories of individual differences.

## Summary

A review of the twin literature and analyses of two large twin samples found identical twin correlations higher than fraternal twin correlations
by about .20 for a variety of traits of ability, personality, and interests. This was interpreted as indicating that about half of the variation among people in a broad spectrum of psychological traits is due to differences among the people in genetic characteristics. The data also suggest that the environmental influences on ability affect twins raised together in the same way, while the environmental influences on personality and interests affect twins in the same family differently.

# Purposes, Goals, and Definitions 

It is manifest that man is . . . subject to much variability.
-Darwin: The Descent of Man

This study has four primary goals: 1) To determine the differences in average performance of U.S. blacks and whites on mental ability tests purporting to measure IQ. Such tests cover a broad spectrum of intellectual factors ranging from nonverbal culture-fair performance tasks to sophisticated tests of verbal reasoning. Black-white comparisons on over 25 separate measurements will be reported. 2) To examine the hereditarian proposition that there is a positive correlation for intelligence among members of the same family, the closer the relationship the higher the correlation. Differences between individuals and groups in general intelligence (IQ) are the results of inherited differences, 60 to 80 percent of the variance in IQ test scores being attributable to genetic factors. 3) To ascertain if there is any difference in heritability for general intelligence (IQ) for U.S. blacks and whites. 4) Finally, and perhaps most importantly, to make available to other investigators all test data, biometric measures, and blood test results on the 496 pairs of twins in the study.

In addition to these four primary goals, we will undertake numerous secondary or auxiliary research programs to answer fundamental questions raised by environmentalists. For example, efforts will be made to test the assertion that Binet IQ-type tests are culture biased against members of lower socio-economic groups and minorities. The claim is that standardized intelligence tests do not meet the criteria for valid and reliable tests and that test items are slanted in favor of the white middle class. Cattell's Culture Fair Intelligence Test and other nonverbal instruments will be used to test this assumption.

A second auxiliary research program will test the hereditarian prediction of filial regression. According to the hereditarian view, the correlation for intelligence between parent and offspring will be about .50. Since the variability of IQ remains constant from generation to generation, it follows that children on the average have IQ's halfway between the midparent IQ and the average IQ of the general population. The hereditarian thesis also predicts that children, black and white, will have sibs whose average intelligence has regressed toward the population mean of their respective race in accordance with Galton's Law of Filial Regression.

A third auxiliary topic will deal with the claim that the confounding of age and IQ seriously contaminates the correlation between twins. If length of time spent in the same environment has a significant effect on intelligence test performance (IQ), then younger individuals who are genetically identical (MZ twins) should resemble their twins less closely than older identical twins; that is, as age increases, mean difference in IQ between twin pairs should decrease. The same trend would be expected for fraternal (DZ) twins except that initial and final differences would be greater than for MZ twins. We would also expect the correlation between age and IQ difference for both MZ and DZ twins to be negative if environmental influences are cumulative. IQ stability will be examined with 427 pairs of like-sexed twins ranging in age from 12 to 20.
The results of numerous small studies are reported as sections of various chapters. For example, the environmentalist claim that MZ and DZ twins cannot be representative of the population because DZ families come from significantly lower socio-economic levels than MZ families will be discussed in the chapter reporting the analysis of Cattell's Culture Fair Intelligence Test.

The environmentalist hypothesis that within-pair IQ variance of male DZ's is significantly larger than that for female DZ's is examined in Chapter VII.

The claims and questions raised above represent serious challenges to the hereditarian research position. With the new twin data contained in this book, an attempt will be made to respond to these and numerous other arguments of the culture determinists.

Since some terms referred to in earlier sections and used later in the book have special meanings in psychology, they will be defined here.

Intelligence: A hypothetical construct used to describe individual differences in ability to learn, to perceive and understand relationships, to perform tasks requiring logical, spatial, verbal, and numerical reasoning and to recall associated meanings. Intelligence is also called academic aptitude, scholastic aptitude, mental capacity, mental ability, and mental maturity.
IQ: An operational, observable, and measurable representation of intelligence. It is a measure of potential rate of mental growth up to 16 , or
in some cases, 18 years of age. The formula is $\mathrm{IQ}=$ mental age $\div$ chronological age $\times 100$. Mental age is the chronological age for which a given score on an intelligence test is average or normal. Chronological age, of course, is the actual age of the subject taking the test. When referring to IQ's, derived from tests, the psychologist usually modifies the term by the name of the test yielding the IQ or by the mental factor measured; for example, Binet IQ; verbal IQ. Figure IV-1 compares the IQ tests used in this book with Wechsler and Stanford-Binet IQ's in relation to the normal curve.

Deviation IQ: A measure of intelligence based on the extent to which an individual's score deviates from the score that is normal for the individual's age. Wechsler IQ's are deviation IQ's. In this study deviation IQ's were obtained for Basic Battery mental tests by standardizing scores for each age to a mean of 100 and a standard deviation of 15 (Figure IV-1).

Heritability: A population statistic describing a property of a given trait in a given population at a given time. It is usually designated as $H, H R$, or $h^{2}$, and it may be determined by a variety of statistical methods (see Chapter II). Technically, heritability is the genetic variance divided by the total phenotypic variance. It is generally expressed as a percentage and decreases with an increasing environmental component of variance for the characteristic under study. For example, an intelligence heritabil-
 Contaminated I.Q.s
Figure IV-1. The theoretical normal or Gaussian curve showing the relationship of various IQ tests.
ity of .70 does not mean that the intelligence of any individual is determined 70 percent by heredity. What it does mean is that 70 percent of the variation of intelligence in the population is produced by genetic differences between its members.

Monozygotic Twins: Twins derived from one egg fertilized by one spermatozoan. Monozygotic (MZ) twins are sometimes called identical twins.

Dizygotic Twins: Fraternal twins derived by fertilization of two different ova by different spermatozoa. The term is usually abbreviated DZ.

Race: A biological grouping within the human species distinguished or classified according to genetically transmitted differences such as blood gene frequency, skin color, hair type, lung capacity, etc. Only members of two races, Negroid (Negro or black) and Caucasoid (white), will be studied in this book. How membership in a race is determined for this study is described in the following defintion of subpopulation.

Subpopulation: Although this term is widely used and generally understood and accepted in studies of individual differences, Jensen's clearcut definition, which follows, will be used in this study.

Subpopulation has the advantage of being a theoretically neutral term. Unlike such terms as social class and race, a subpopulation does not connote more than its bare operational defintion. Thus, the term subpopulation does not beg any questions with the answers. And it can help to forestall fallacious thinking about social classes and races as Platonic categories. A subpopulation is simply any particular subdivision of the population which an investigator chooses to select for whatever purpose he may have. The only requirement is operational defintion, that is to say, clearly specified objective criteria for the inclusion (and exclusion) of individuals. The reliability of the classification procedure is strictly an empirical question and not a matter for semantic debate. It can be answered in terms of a reliability coefficient, which can take any value from 0 (no reliability whatsoever) to 1 (perfect reliability). A subpopulation can consist of redheads, or females, or owners of a Rolls Royce, or persons with incomes under $\$ 4000$ per annum, or whatever criterion or combination of multiple criteria one may choose. All other questions follow, their relevance depending on the purposes of the investigator. (Jensen, 1973a, pp. 28-29)

The subpopulations examined in this study are Negroes and whites, boys and girls, MZ and DZ twins, and certain socio-economic groups. Negroes are defined as those individuals who identify themselves or are identified by their parents as Negro and are so identified by others. Whites are those who call themselves white, or Caucasian, and are usually of European ancestry. The white subpopulation does not include Orientals,

Mexican-Americans, and American Indians. Boys are those individuals who identify themselves as boys and are so identified by others. The same classification process is applied to girls. MZ and DZ twins have been defined earlier in this chapter. Socio-economic status is determined by a modified version of Warner's scale (Warner, Meeker, \& Eells, 1949).

In the following chapters, subpopulation differences will be examined in a wide range of psychological tests covering the primary mental abilities, school achievement, personality, and Culture Fair IQ. Each chapter represents an independent study involving different tests or different groups of twins in the data pool.

## V

## Sample and Zygosity Diagnosis

## The Sample

Subjects for the Twin Study were drawn from public and private schools in Louisville, Kentucky, and Jefferson County, Kentucky; from public schools in Atlanta, Georgia, and the Georgia counties of Cobb, Fulton, Chatham, Walton, Madison, and Clarke; and from a small number of public schools in Indiana. All together 496 pairs of twins were studied. Most of the analyses will be concerned with the 427 pairs of like-sexed twins. Test scores of 50 pairs of unlike-sexed twins are reported but referred to only occasionally. Nineteen sets of twins, ranging in age from 11 to 20, participated in the EEG study but were not involved in any other aspect of the Twin Study. They are not included in Tables V-A, V-B, or V-C, although their test scores are given in Appendix G.

Table V-A shows the distribution of same-sexed twins by sex, race, and zygosity. In Table V-B the group is broken down by age, race, and sex. In Table V-C the 50 pairs of unlike-sexed twins are shown by age and race.

Table V-A
Distribution of Like-sexed Twins By Race, Sex, and Zygosity

|  | MZ |  |  |  |  | DZ |  |  |
| :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | ---: | :---: |
| Race | Male | Female | Total |  | Male | Female | Total |  |
| Black | 26 | 50 | 76 |  | 14 | 33 | 47 |  |
| White | 84 | 87 | 171 |  | 51 | 82 | 133 |  |
| Total | 110 | 137 | 247 |  | 65 | 115 | 180 |  |

Table V-B
Distribution of Like-sexed Twins by Age, Race, and Sex

| Age | White |  |  | Black |  |  | Total |  |  | Twin Pairs |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | Male | $\mathrm{Fe}-$ male | Total | Male | Fe male | Total | Male | Fe male | Total | No. | \% |
| 12 |  | 2 | 2 |  | 2 | 2 |  | 4 | 4 | 2 | . 5 |
| 13 | 30 | 46 | 76 | 14 | 30 | 44 | 44 | 76 | 120 | 60 | 14.1 |
| 14 | 46 | 52 | 98 | 24 | 36 | 60 | 70 | 88 | 158 | 79 | 18.5 |
| 15 | 54 | 76 | 130 | 18 | 34 | 52 | 72 | 110 | 182 | 91 | 21.3 |
| 16 | 54 | 74 | 128 | 16 | 32 | 48 | 70 | 106 | 176 | 88 | 20.6 |
| 17 | 56 | 52 | 108 | 6 | 24 | 30 | 62 | 76 | 138 | 69 | 16.2 |
| 18 | 22 | 34 | 56 | 2 | 8 | 10 | 24 | 42 | 66 | 33 | 7.7 |
| 19 | 6 | 2 | 8 |  |  |  | 6 |  | 8 | 4 | . 9 |
| 20 | 2 |  | 2 |  |  |  | 2 |  | 2 | 1 | . 2 |
| Means | 15.59 | 15.41 | 15.49 | 14.78 | 15.01 | 14.93 | 15.41 | 15.28 | 15.33 |  |  |
| SD | 1.60 | 1.56 | 1.58 | 1.29 | 1.50 | 1.44 | 1.58 | 1.55 | 1.56 |  |  |
| No. Twin Pairs | 135 | 169 | 304 | 40 | 83 | 123 | 175 | 252 | 427 | 427 |  |

## Table V-C

Distribution of Unlike-sexed Twins by Age and Race

|  | Number of Pairs |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Age | White | Black | Total |
| 13 | 1 | 6 | 7 |
| 14 | 5 | 7 | 12 |
| 15 | 5 | 6 | 11 |
| 16 | 8 | 4 | 12 |
| 17 | 4 | 2 | 6 |
| 18 | 1 | 1 | 2 |
| Total | 24 | 26 | 50 |
| Mean | 15.50 | 14.69 | 15.08 |
| SD | 1.22 | 1.38 | 1.37 |

## Zygosity Diagnosis

Since it was not practical to take blood samples from all participants in the Georgia Twin Study, a combination of blood-typing and other methods of twin diagnosis was used. For a detailed explanation of the zygosity determination, see Osborne (1978).

Twins of the cooperative twin studies of Vandenberg (1967a) and Osborne and Gregor (1967) were blood-typed by the following factors: A, B, O, M, N, S, s, $\mathbf{P}_{1}$, Rho, rh", rh', Miltenberger, Vermeyst, Lewis, Lutheran, Duffy, Kidd, Sutter, Martin, Kell, Cellano and occasionally some others. All pairs concordant for all blood types must be MZ while all pairs discordant for any one of the blood types must be classified dizygotic. Some DZ's may be concordant for all blood types and therefore classified as MZ's. When this misclassification occurs, it produces a bias
which reduces the proportion of variance ascribable to genetic factors. Thus any obtained estimate of the heritability of a factor will be lower than it would be if it were possible to correctly determine the zygosity of every twin pair.

Smith and Penrose (1955) give tables for determining the probability of misdiagnosis for frequently tested blood groups. Ninety-seven percent accuracy is claimed for MZ diagnosis. Both the Vandenberg and Osborne samples from the cooperative twin studies reported a considerably higher proportion of MZ's than expected.

Two hundred thirty-nine pairs of twins tested by Vandenberg were classified as MZ or $\mathbf{D Z}$ using the results of serological tests alone. There were 20 more pairs classified MZ in the Vandenberg sample than would have been expected by chance. The proportion of all twins of questionable classification is relatively small; nevertheless, misclassification of even a small number will lead to the underestimation of the proportion of variance due to genetical causes.

For the twins tested by Osborne, both anthropometric and serological test results were available. The anthropometric measures were: face length, head length, head breadth, head circumference, height and weight. Three other measures were computed: Cephalic index, Kaup's Index (body weight in grams/(height in cm$)^{2}$ ) and Rohrer's Index of body structure (body weight in grams $\times 100 /(\text { height in } \mathrm{cm})^{3}$ ). Data on color blindness and handedness were also available. Twins concordant for all blood types were then classified as similar (MZ) or dissimilar (DZ) using the nine physical measures described above. Six of 45 pairs of twins concordant for blood type were classified as dissimilar on the basis of physical measures and called DZ's. It was hoped that this procedure would pick out DZ twins who would otherwise be classified as MZ because they were concordant for all blood types by chance. Reclassification of the six pairs on the basis of physical measures would indicate higher misclassification by blood-typing than reported in other studies.' Nevertheless, the absolute number of twins involved was relatively small and unlikely to have produced a large bias. This procedure would cause misdiagnosis of the type where true MZ's are mistakenly called DZ's because their physical characteristics differ more than would be expected in MZ twins. But they will not necessarily differ more than expected for abilities being studied here, and therefore the within-pair variance of DZ twins will be reduced. This means that the within-family genetical effect and the proportion of variance due to genetical influences will be underestimated. Thus, the possible sources of misclassification of Vandenberg's sample and Osborne's sample of the cooperative twin studies both lead to underestimation of the genetical components of variance.

Twins tested by Osborne in 1972 were not blood-typed. Physical measures and characteristics were used in conjunction with two question-
naires to determine zygosity. One questionnaire was developed by Nichols for use in the National Merit Twin Study (Nichols, 1965; Nichols \& Bilbro, 1966); the other was a modification of the questionnaire used by Schoenfeldt in the Project Talent Twin Study (Schoenfeldt, 1968). On the basis of these data, two computer programs were used to classify the pairs as monozygotic or dizygotic. The Automatic Interaction Detector (AID) Program is explained in detail by Schoenfeldt (1968). The other program was the Discriminant Analysis Program (BMDO7M) from the Package of Biomedical Computer Programs (Dixon, 1973). The latter program utilized the nine physical measurements described in Osborne's cooperative twin studies (Osborne et al., 1978). This group, for which both serological results and anthropometric measures were available, was used as the criterion group for determining the accuracy of diagnosis using the discriminant scores of the 1972 group. The results of the two programs were compared; where these agreed, the twin pair was classified accordingly. Of the 143 pairs in the 1972 group, 61 pairs were classified as monozygotic and 35 as dizygotic. This total of 96 pairs had been classified the same by both programs.

For the 47 pairs of twins remaining, a second discriminant analysis was undertaken using the 96 pairs of twins already diagnosed as the criterion group. Seventeen variables were employed in this analysis: the nine measures from the first analysis plus nose length, eye color, hair color, other hair differences, color blindness (two variables), handedness, and mistaken identity variables from the Project Talent Questionnaire.

Three judges classified the 47 pairs of twins as monozygotic or dizygotic, using front and profile photographs and statements of likenesses and differences reported by the twins in their own assessment of their zygosity. The zygosity of 36 of the 47 pairs were diagnosed the same by the second discriminant analysis and by the judges and were classified as 20 MZ pairs and 16 DZ pairs.

At this point only 11 pairs remained in the doubtful classification. To reach a decision on these, the complete files, except psychological test results, were examined by the principal investigator with the following results:

Twin Pair No. 233: These 16 -year-old white girls were called MZ by the discriminant analysis program and DZ by AID. The girls were exactly the same height but differed in weight by $14.5 \%$. Differences in head length and breadth were also significant. One sister was right-handed, the other ambidextrous. The twins reported they were rarely misidentified and believed they were DZ. Twin A said, "There is no resemblance. Everything is unlike." Final classification, DZ.

Twin Pair No. 277: In terms of biometric measurements, these 14-year-old black girls appeared to be identical. They were the same height and had the same head length and head breadth. There were only slight
differences in the other physical measurements. However, Twin A was right-handed; Twin B was not. The test for color blindness probably convinced the investigator. Final classification, DZ.

Twin Pair No. 282: These 14 -year-old black boys were classified MZ by AID and DZ by the discriminant analysis program. Weight difference was $6 \%$; face length difference $8 \%$. Twin A was color blind; Twin B was not. A was left-handed; B right-handed. Final classification, DZ.

Twin Pair No. 284: These 15 -year-old black girls were not classified the same way by the computer programs. Examination of their files convinced the investigator they were DZ. The twins said they were fraternal. A was left-handed; B right-handed. Both said they do not look alike and that Twin A was darker skinned and heavier. Both agreed that their noses, mouths, and eyes looked alike. Teachers, parents, and friends sometimes mistook one for the other. Differences in head length and breadth were significant at the .01 level from Verschuer tables. Final classification, DZ.

Twin Pair No. 309: This pair of 17 -year-old white girls was classified DZ by AID and MZ by discriminant analysis. The girls differed by $8 \%$ in height and $27 \%$ in weight. Twin A was right-handed, B lefthanded. The attending physician said they were DZ. The girls believed they were fraternal. Final classification, DZ.

Twin Pair No. 317: These were 14 -year-old white girls. A said she knew she was an MZ twin; B was just as confident she was DZ because the attending physician had said so. In the questionnaire, B said their noses were not alike, which was true since their noses differed in length by $9 \%$. Height difference was $5 \%$; weight $13 \%$. A was right-handed; B left-handed. Final classification, DZ.

Twin Pair No. 347: This pair of 14 -year-old white girls said their attending physician had told them they were identical. However, Twin B said, "We look nothing alike." A's hair was brown; B's auburn. They never, or only rarely, were mistaken by teachers and parents. Differences in nose length, face length, head length, and height all supported the final diagnosis of DZ.

Twin Pair No. 362: These 13 -year-old black boys "know we are identical" but Twin A said that B's hair grew faster than his. They were only occasionally mistaken by teachers, friends, and parents. Differences in five biometric measurements, height, weight, head breadth, nose length, and face length, convinced the investigator they were DZ.

Twin Pair No. 373: These 13-year-old black girls knew they were fraternal. A was right-handed; B left-handed. They were rarely mistaken by friends, teachers, or parents. A's hair was lighter and thinner than B's. Both twins reported their faces, legs, and heads were different. The AID Program called them DZ; the discriminant analysis, MZ. Final classification, DZ.

Twin Pair No. 375: These 17 -year-old white girls said they were identical but were rarely misidentified. They indicated their noses, fingers, hands, stomachs, and busts were similar. The discriminant analysis program classified the girls as DZ; the AID Program as MZ. Rohrer's Index of Body Structure and Kaup's Index both supported the diagnosis of DZ. Differences in nose length and face length confirmed the final DZ classification.

Twin Pair No. 379: These 16 -year-old black boys said they looked alike and knew they were identical because their attending physician had told them they were. They were seldom misidentified. Face-length difference was the only biometric measure that supported a DZ diagnosis. Other measurements were within MZ limits. Final classification, MZ.

To classify the 19 pairs of twins who participated in the EEG study, the two questionnaires were used in conjunction with physical measurements and photographs. In this group there were 13 MZ and 6 DZ pairs of twins.

The results of the AID Program agreed with the final results in $81.2 \%$ of the cases. For the 9 - and 17 -variable discriminant analysis programs, the diagnoses agreed with the final classification in 85.3 and $76.6 \%$ of the cases, respectively. Assuming the final classification to be correct, the reliability of all these methods is not high. However, in the 47 cases where judges were used, the consensus always agreed with the final classification. Of the 11 cases where no decision could be made and the principal investigator decided the issue, 10 pairs were classified as dizygotic. These comments on the zygosity determination are especially interesting if we consider several studies of zygosity diagnosis. Cederlof et al. (1961) recorded an accuracy of $98.6 \%$ for 145 pairs of twins, using data which had been obtained from two mailed questionnaires asking for the subjects' own opinions about their similarities or dissimilarities.

More recent work by Kasriel and Eaves (1976) showed an accuracy of $\mathbf{9 6 . 1 \%}$ using only responses to two questions on physical similarity and mistaken identity in childhood. The "true" zygosity of the twins was determined by blood-typing 178 pairs of twins for 15 different systems. Of 94 pairs of twins diagnosed as monozygotic by blood-typing, 92 pairs agreed that they were alike and had been mistaken for each other in childhood. Kasriel and Eaves accordingly classified them as monozygotic. If they said they were not alike and not mistaken for each other or if they failed to agree on these two questions, they were classified as dizygotic. Using these criteria only 7 of the 178 pairs were misdiagnosed.

In the Georgia Twin Study (Osborne, 1978), the judges and the principal investigator used responses to questions on similarity and mistaken identity in childhood to help reach their decision. Kasriel and Eaves
point out that disagreement between the twins as to their zygosity is usually a good indication that the pair in question is dizygotic. In this study we note that of the final 11 doubtful pairs, 10 pairs were classified as dizygotic.

Zygosity was determined differently in the three subsample studies, leading to misclassification of dizygotic pairs as monozygotic in Vandenberg's cooperative twin study, misclassification of monozygotic pairs as dizygotic in Osborne's cooperative twin study subsample, and to errors in both directions in Osborne's 1972 subsample. However, in each case the bias introduced by the misdiagnosis is predictable and results in the underestimation of the proportion of the variance due to genetical causes.
By way of summary, there are 496 pairs of twins in the Twin Survey427 pairs of like-sexed twins ranging in age from 12 to 20; 175 boys, 252 girls; 247 MZ's, 180 DZ's; $29 \%$ black, $71 \%$ white. Of the 50 pairs of unlike-sexed twins, ranging in age from 13 to $18,48 \%$ are white, $52 \%$ black. In the small EEG sample of 19 pairs ( 13 MZ 's, 6 DZ 's) only 1 set is black.

## VI

## Psychological Tests

Psychological tests used in this study represent a broad spectrum, including global IQ, spatial ability, culture fair mental ability, primary mental abilities, spelling, numerical ability, and personality. Complete references for all tests are listed in Appendix B. Since several tests are not well known or readily available, they are here presented in some detail. For each test in the Basic Battery for which a reliability coefficient is not reported in the literature, an estimate of the reliability was made by using the split-half method corrected by the Spearman-Brown formula.

All tests were not administered to all 496 pairs of twins. The tests given to the 427 sets of same-sexed and the 50 sets of unlike-sexed twins are described fully in this chapter. Psychological tests given to the EEG group are described in Chapter XV.

In the Calendar Test, developed by Remondino (1962), the examinee is given 50 statements about the days of the week. In a factor analysis, Remondino found that this test loaded on the number factor. The splithalf reliability coefficient, corrected by the Spearman-Brown formula, is .78 . The Calendar Test, scored number right minus number wrong, yields a single test score. Two sample questions follow:

| If today is Sunday, then tomorrow will be Monday. | T | F |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| If yesterday was Wednesday, then today is Saturday. | T | F |

The Cube Comparisons Test was developed from Thurstone's Cubes. Each question presents two drawings of a cube. Assuming no cube can have two faces alike, the subject has to decide whether the two drawings can represent the same cube or must represent different cubes. The right answer can be found: (1) by mentally turning one of the cubes so that its face is oriented in the same way as the similar face of the second
cube and then comparing the sides one by one; (2) by noting whether two faces that are side by side have the same letters or numbers in the same relative position. Obtaining the answers by the second method is largely accomplished by verbal reasoning, although it does require a "static" awareness of three-dimensional relations as opposed to a more "dynamic" moving around of the blocks in space. The Cube Comparisons Test, scored number right minus number wrong, yields two part scores and a total score. The reliability coefficient is .58 . Two sample items are shown below.


The Simple Arithmetic Test, taken from an unpublished study by Mukherjee (1963), contains seven parts, each consisting of a number of simple arithmetical problems. Part I has 15 problems; Part 2, 20 problems; and Parts 3-7, 25 problems each. Speed is an important factor since the examinee is allowed only 2 minutes per part. Problem complexity decreases from Part 1 to Part 7. There are five choices for each item on the Simple Arithmetic Test, scored number right minus one-fourth number wrong. The seven subtest scores are summed to obtain the total score. Correlating Part 4 with Part 5 and correcting with the SpearmanBrown formula yields an estimated reliability coefficient of .85 . Examples from each subtest are given below:

| Part 1: | $4(77+39-4) / 7=60$ | 68 | 74 | 64 | 84 |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Part 2: | $5(69+18-3)=420$ | 400 | 410 | 415 | 425 |
| Part 3: | $69+25-9=85$ | 95 | 90 | 89 | 80 |
| Part 4: | $640 \div 5=120$ | 128 | 88 | 136 | 126 |
| Part 5: | $8 \times 91=738$ | 728 | 732 | 739 | 737 |
| Part 6: | $19-7=12$ | 13 | 14 | 15 | 16 |
| Part 7: | $83+17=90$ | 110 | 100 | 109 | 101 |

The Wide Range Vocabulary Test, adapted from the Cooperative Vocabulary Test, is a five-choice synonym test ranging from very easy to very difficult. It is scored number right minus one-fourth number wrong. There are no part scores. The reported test-retest reliability coefficient for the Wide Range Vocabulary Test is .88 . Samples:

JOVIAL: 1. refreshing 2. scare 3. thickset 4. wise 5. jolly DULLARD: 1. peon 2. duck 3. braggart 4. thief 5 . dunce

The Surface Development Test is a modified version of Thurstone's Primary Mental Abilities Test. Here the examinee has to imagine or visualize how a piece of paper can be folded to form some kind of object. Each item consists of a drawing of a piece of paper that can be folded on the dotted lines to form the object drawn at the right. The subject is to imagine the folding, to figure out which of the lettered edges on the object are the same as the numbered edges on the piece of paper at the left, and to identify the letters of the answers in the numbered spaces at the far right. He is told that the side of the flat piece marked with the X will always be the same as the X side of the object. This task apparently requires mental movement of the parts of the pattern and probably cannot be performed by verbal reasoning only. The test, scored number right, yields two part scores and a total score. Reliability coefficient is .80 . Sample problem:


Each item of the Form Board Test presents five shaded drawings of pieces, some or all of which can be put together to form a figure depicted in outline form. The task is to indicate which of the pieces, when fitted together, will form the drawing. The test is scored number right, with the two parts added to yield the total score. The reliability coefficient is .73 . A sample item is shown below:


The Self-judging Vocabulary Test, developed by Heim (1965), contains two parts. The first contains 128 words, each of which is to be marked $\mathrm{A}, \mathrm{B}$, or $\mathbf{C}$. ( $\mathbf{A}=\mathrm{I}$ know this word and could explain it to someone unfamiliar with it, B=I am doubtful as to what this word means, C $=$ I have never seen this word before and have no idea what it means.) The second part of the test consists of the first 80 words of the 128word list presented as a six-choice test. This part of the test combines the advantages of multiple-choice and creative-answer techniques. It allows the examinee, who thinks he knows the word but is dubious about all the choices, to write his answer in his own words. The test is scored number right minus one-fifth number wrong. In this study, only the second part of the test is used. The Kuder-Richardson reliability coefficient for age 15 is .801 , with a median coefficient of .83 for ages 12 , 13,14 , and 15 . Two examples:
$\left.\begin{array}{cllll}\text { AUTHENTIC: } & \text { 1. writer 2. to allow } & \text { 3. respectful } & \text { 4. a } \\ \text { bargain 5. antique } & \text { 6. genuine }\end{array}\right]$

The Paper Folding Test was suggested by Thurstone's Punched Holes. For each item, successive drawings illustrate two or three folds made in a square sheet of paper. A drawing of the folded paper shows where a hole is punched in it. The subject selects one of five drawings to show how the sheet would appear completely unfolded. While the problems can probably be solved more quickly by imagining the folding and unfolding, verbal reasoning can also provide a solution. The latter method, however, is more likely to lead to incorrect answers. The items are scored number right minus one-fourth number wrong. The two subtests are summed to obtain the total score. Reliability coefficient is .73. Sample question follows:


In the Object Aperture Test, a spatial visualization test developed by Philip H. DuBois and Goldine C. Gleser (1948), a three-dimensional object is shown, followed by outlines of five apertures or openings. The subject is to imagine how the object looks from all directions, then to
select from the five apertures the opening through which the solid object would pass directly if the proper side were inserted first. This usually requires mentally turning the object into other positions. The test is scored number right minus one-fourth number wrong. It yields two part scores that are added for the total score. Reliability coefficient is . 58 . A typical item follows:


The Identical Pictures Test was another adaptation from Thurstone. For each item, the examinee is asked to check which of five geometrical figures or pictures is identical to a given figure at the left end of the row. The test is scored number right minus one-fourth number wrong. Two subtests are summed for the total score. Reliability coefficient is .87. A sample item follows:


The Newcastle Spatial Test, developed by I. McFarlane Smith and J. S. Lawes (1959) for the National Foundation for Educational Research in England and Wales, consists of six different subtests ranging in difficulty from simple recognition of regular solids to the more complex problems of surface development.

Subtest 1 consists of 10 sets of drawings in which the end views and middle section of a solid object are shown. The task is to determine which one of 12 solid objects on the opposite page fits each set of drawings. This test requires some idea of perspective drawing but no strongly developed spatial ability.

Subtest 2 asks which of four choices is a view from above of the solid model shown at the left of the row. This test also calls for only a modest amount of spatial visualization.

In each item for Subtest 3, the examinee is given three sides of a cube in a flat pattern and a drawing of a solid cube, part of which is shaded. The subject is to draw lines on the pattern to indicate where he would cut to remove the shaded parts on the solid model. Spatial visualization helps to solve this problem, although it seems possible to perform the task by verbal reasoning.

In Subtest 4, each item shows a block of wood. The examinee must imagine a cut made along the dotted lines and indicate which of the three drawings on the right shows the shape of the cut face. Here it is obvious no highly developed ability to visualize three-dimensional objects is needed.

In each item on Subtest 5, there is a drawing of a solid object, called Shape, and a place to copy it, called Framework. The examinee is to put circles around the crosses in the Framework that could be joined to make the Shape. It is not necessary to visualize the Shape in three dimensions to copy it. In fact, the task may be easier if one regards the Shape as a flat pattern and merely counts units of distance.

Each item in Subtest 6 shows a model built from the shapes shown beside it. The subject is required to indicate the number of times each shape was used to make the model. Although the examinee could rely largely on verbal reasoning to solve these problems, visualization probably contributes to the speed of solution.

For each subtest, the score is the number of correct answers. Total score is the sum of the six subtest scores. The test-retest reliability coefficient reported in the test manual is .94 . Samples of each of the six subtests follow:


Subtest 1


Sublest 2


SHAPE
Subtest 3

model




Subtest 5

FRAME WORK F



Subtest 6


$b$

c

The Spelling Achievement Test is taken from the Metropolitan Achievement Test (Allen, Bixler, Connor, and Graham, 1946). Each word is pronounced by the examiner, who then uses it in a sentence, then pronounces it again. The student is then told to write the word. The test, consisting of 60 words, is administered to small groups of subjects by trained examiners. There are no parts scores. Total score is the number of words spelled correctly. Test-retest reliability reported in the test manual is .93 . Examples are given below:

| garage | I keep my car in a garage. | garage |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| instructor | One who teaches is an instructor. | instructor |
| tuberculosis | Tuberculosis is a serious lung disease. | tuberculosis |

The Mazes Test is taken from a laboratory manual by McKinnon and Henle. The task, typical of earlier maze problems, is to draw a line from the entrance to the exist of the maze without crossing any line or entering blind alleys. Although this test does not require visualizing a three-dimensional or even a two-dimensional figure, the proper solution is probably facilitated by the ability to remember briefly sections of the correct path before drawing a line. A sample maze follows:


The Logical Reasoning Test was originally developed by Hertzka and Guilford in 1955 and later adapted by French, Ekstrom, and Price (1963) for use in the ETS Kit of Reference Tests. It consists of 40 items. As shown in the sample below, the examinee must indicate which of the four conclusions can be drawn from the two statements.
12. All loans are profitable.

Some loans are investments.
Therefore:
A. All profitable things are investments.
B. Some profitable things are loans.
C. Some investments are profitable.
D. Some investments are not profitable.

The Cancellation Test is considered to be a test of perceptual speed. The examinee is asked to draw a vertical line through each group of five dots and a horizontal line through each group of four dots, while ignoring the group of three dots. The task involves eye-hand coordination. Differences in motor speed probably play an appreciable role in the score. Samples are shown below:


The Social Perception Test was developed by Martin Whiteman (1954) to investigate the hypothesis that the social perceptual performance of schizophrenics falls below that of normal subjects. The test consists of 20 sets of 4 or 6 drawings. The examinee must indicate the drawing which does not belong with the others in the set. A sample set of drawings follows:


The Card Rotation Test is taken from the ETS Kit of Reference Tests. Here the examinee has to decide which of the eight figures on the right show the same side as the model on the left and which ones are mirror images. While this task is usually performed by mentally sliding the figures around, it can be done by verbal reasoning or by naming, such as saying "Is it a 'b' or a 'd'?" or "If the little knob is on top, is the larger bulge toward the right or the left?" Occasionally one notices a subject tilting his head or turning the test paper. It would appear that this is a weak test of spatial ability. It is divided into two parts, 14 items per part. Sample figure:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& G \text { ( ) C D ( D U D } \\
& B \Rightarrow B A B A
\end{aligned}
$$

The Ship Destination Test, thought to be a measure of logical reasoning, was developed by Christensen and Guilford in 1955. It consists of 48 items. Questions are asked about a diagram such as the one shown below. Part of the instructions follows:


Each circle in the diagram above represents a point on the ocean. Consider the distance along a line from one point to the next to be two miles. That is, point $L$ is two miles from point $H$. Point $M$ is four miles from point $\mathbf{H}$. The only pathways are along the lines.

Consider that you are the captain of a ship that is located at one of the points on the diagram. Other points represent possible ports to which the ship can go. In each of the items below, you will be given the location of your ship and the location of a port. Your task is to figure the distance from your ship to the port. For item 1 below, how many miles is the
journey from ship N to port O ? For item 1 on your answer sheet blacken the " 2 " space to indicate that port $\mathbf{O}$ is 2 miles from ship N. Next indicate on your answer sheet the number of miles from the ship to the port for item 2 and for item 3.

## 1. Ship N—Port O <br> 2. Ship J-Port G <br> 3. Ship U—Port M

For the situations below, the wind direction must be considered in figuring the number of miles from ship to port. If your ship must travel against the wind for any part of the journey, this will have the effect of increasing the distance to the port. For every two miles traveled against the wind, add one mile. For every two miles your ship travels with the wind, subtract one mile. For example, if your ship travels with the wind for six of the eight miles to a port, the total distance to the port becomes eight minus three, or five miles. That part of the journey in which the wind strikes your ship from the side is not affected by the wind.

The arrow shows the wind direction for each set of three items. Mark on your answer sheet the number of miles from ship to port for items 4,5 , and 6 ; then for items 7,8 , and 9.
Wind: \(\left|\begin{array}{rl}4. \& Ship F-_Port J <br>
5. \& Ship J_Port O <br>

6. \& Ship P—Port L\end{array}\right|\) Wind: $\longrightarrow$| 7. | Ship R—Port U |
| ---: | :--- |
|  | 8. | Ship L—Port G

There are 12 items of this kind in which the wind velocity has to be considered. In the next 12 items the subject has to consider wind velocity and current, in the next 12 the effect of the wind velocity or current is doubled, while in the last 12 items added time may be required for the journey if turns have to be made, depending on the direction in which the ship is heading when the choice of port is given.

To make the test battery more interesting to the subjects, we used the Mooney's Faces Test, a closure or perceptual ability test that features human faces. Using item difficulty as reported by Mooney (1957), the 10 easiest and 10 most difficult items were selected. To make group administration possible, examinees were asked to indicate the sex of the person shown and the direction in which the person is looking. Examples:


For picture E, you should have circled MAN and RIGHT. For picture F, you should have circled MAN and FRONT.

The test of Primary Mental Abilities was developed by L. L. and Thelma Gwinn Thurstone. The rationale of the research technique underlying "primary mental abilities" is explained in Multiple-Factor Analysis (L. L. Thurstone \& T. G. Thurstone, 1947).

Thurstone once maintained that each primary factor was largely independent of the others. Later research convinced him that in addition to the primary abilities a "second-order general factor" was at work. Scores on the Primary Mental Abilities Test were, consequently, combined into a single quotient score, which provides a reliable estimate of intelligence comparable to estimates obtained by the Stanford-Binet and the Wechsler Intelligence Scale for Children. The five primary mental abilities measured by the PMA Test are, briefly:
$V$-Verbal Meaning: Ability to understand ideas expressed in words.
$N$-Number Facility: Ability to work with numbers.

R-Reasoning: Ability to solve logical problems.
P-Perceptual Speed: Ability to recognize likenesses and differences between objects or symbols quickly and accurately.
$S$-Spatial Relations: Ability to visualize objects and figures rotated in space and the relations between them.

According to the test manual for Cattell's Culture Fair Intelligence Test, most current intelligence tests are looking backward instead of forward. Instead of measuring a child's capacity to learn in the future, they are recording what he has had the opportunity to learn in the past. Cattell and Cattell (1965) say, "The Culture Fair Tests are figural and geometrical in content . . ." (p. 3). They are not, however, limited to measuring mechanical or spatial abilities.

The Culture Fair tests consist of two parallel forms, each totaling 46 items arranged in four subtests and each requiring 12.5 minutes of actual testing time. One relatively easy sample from each subtest is shown below:

SERIES


CLASSIFICATION


MATRICES


5


CONDITIONS


## Personality Tests

The Twin Survey test battery includes two personality tests in addition to the Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory which was administered only to the 19 sets of twins in the EEG study. The MMPI will be discussed in Chapter XV.

The other two personality scales are similar in that each attempts to measure factorially independent dimensions of personality. Cattell's High School Personality Questionnaire contains 14 dimensions or scores. Jenkins' How Well Do You Know Yourself? measures 17 personality factors. Predictably, the two tests overlap on some dimensions. For example, both have scores measuring submissiveness, persistence, and emotional control. Other factorial scales are similar but the authors have different names for them. The Cattell scale has an intelligence factor not found in Jenkins' test. Factors measured by the two personality tests are shown below:

High School Personality Questionnaire Factors
A. Reserved-warm-hearted
B. Less intelligent-more intelligent
C. Emotionally less stable-emotionally stable
D. Inactive-over-active
E. Submissive-dominant
F. Serious-happy-go-lucky
G. Weak superego-strong superego
H. Shy-bold
I. Tough-minded-tender-minded
J. Zestful-restrained
O. Secure-insecure
$\mathrm{Q}_{2}$. Group-dependent-self-sufficient
$\mathrm{Q}_{3}$. Uncontrolled-controlled
Q4. Relaxed-tense

How Well Do You Know Yourself? Factors

1. Irritability 10. General morale
2. Practicality
3. Punctuality
4. Novelty-loving
5. Vocational assurance
6. Persistence
7. Cooperativeness
8. Ambitiousness
9. Hypercriticalness
10. Nervousness
11. Seriousness
12. Submissiveness
13. Dejection

The Twin Study test battery is composed of 31 different cognitive tests representing the full range of both verbal and nonverbal measurements of the primary mental abilities. In addition to the mental tests, three personality scales and a test of creativity were administered. Altogether 79 psychological test variables will be analyzed and discussed in subsequent chapters.

## VII

## Basic Test Battery: Subpopulation Differences

In this chapter we shall examine subpopulation differences in performance and in heritability of mental abilities as measured by the Basic Test Battery, which represents the unique primary mental abilities identified by Thurstone and Thurstone (1938), Cattell (1957), and Guilford (1967). These are called Level II abilities by Jensen (1973a) and "gc" by Cattell (1971).

Jensen says Level II abilities include mental manipulation and transformation of information in order to arrive at a satisfactory output. Level II is much the same as the ability which Spearman termed $g$ (Jensen, 1973a).

Cattell's crystallized general mental ability "gc" emerges strongly in such primary mental abilities as verbal factor, numerical ability, reasoning, mechanical information, and experimental judgment (Cattell, 1971).

The 12 tests in the Basic Battery are the Calendar Test, Cube Comparisons, Surface Development, Wide Range Vocabulary, Form Board, Arithmetic, Heim Vocabulary, Paper Folding, Object Aperture, Identical Pictures, Spelling, and Newcastle Spatial Relations (all of which have been described fully in Chapter VI).

The first step in the analysis was to examine mean raw scores by age and test for all 427 sets of like-sexed twins. Since, on the average, older children are expected to outperform younger children on mental ability tests (see definition of IQ, Chapter IV), it would not be unreasonable to find a monotonic increase in the means of the Basic Battery test scores with age. In Table VII-A, in which test scores are broken down by age, it is seen that the mean scores for all tests-increase with age. The increases from age 12 through 18 are steady and in most cases fairly uniform from year to year. The Form Board Test is one exception.
Table VII-A
Means and SD's for Basic Battery by Age Groups (Raw Scores)

|  | $\begin{gathered} \text { Ages } 12 \& 13 \\ (\mathrm{~N}=124) \end{gathered}$ |  |  | $\begin{gathered} \text { Age } 14 \\ (\mathrm{~N}=158) \end{gathered}$ |  |  | $\begin{gathered} \text { Age 15 } \\ (\mathrm{N}=182) \end{gathered}$ |  |  | $\begin{gathered} \text { Age } 16 \\ (\mathrm{~N}=176) \end{gathered}$ |  |  | $\begin{gathered} \text { Age } 17 \\ (\mathrm{~N}=138) \end{gathered}$ |  |  | $\begin{gathered} \text { Age } 18 \\ (\mathrm{~N}=66) \end{gathered}$ |  |  | $\begin{gathered} \text { Ages } 19 \& 20 \\ (\mathrm{~N}=10) \end{gathered}$ |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Name of Test | No. | Mn | SD | No. | Mn | SD | No. | Mn | SD | No. | Mn | SD | No. | Mn | SD | No. | Mn | SD | No. | Mn | SD |
| Calendar | 122 | 8.3 | 6.0 | 158 | 9.0 | 6.8 | 180 | 9.7 | 6.3 | 175 | 12.1 | 7.0 | 138 | 13.2 | 7.6 | 66 | 14.7 | 6.9 | 10 | 9.8 | 4.8 |
| Cube Comparisons | 122 | 2.4 | 6.6 | 157 | 3.5 | 8.5 | 178 | 6.1 | 8.7 | 175 | 6.8 | 9.1 | 138 | 7.8 | 9.8 | 66 | 8.8 | 7.2 | 10 | 5.6 | 7.8 |
| Arithmetic | 123 | 45.6 | 24.3 | 157 | 49.9 | 28.8 | 182 | 56.5 | 23.9 | 175 | 63.8 | 24.3 | 138 | 69.9 | 31.9 | 66 | 75.4 | 27.5 | 10 | 49.2 | 18.4 |
| Wide Range Vocabulary | 124 | 2.4 | 2.7 | 158 | 3.3 | 3.2 | 182 | 3.7 | 3.1 | 176 | 4.1 | 3.1 | 138 | 5.8 | 4.1 | 66 | 6.9 | 3.6 | 10 | 3.5 | 2.5 |
| Surface Development | 124 | 16.5 | 7.6 | 158 | 18.7 | 11.4 | 182 | 21.9 | 11.2 | 176 | 21.9 | 10.4 | 138 | 26.0 | 13.6 | 66 | 27.5 | 13.4 | 10 | 22.6 | 12.3 |
| Form Board | 124 | 7.5 | 5.7 | 155 | 7.8 | 6.4 | 181 | 9.5 | 6.1 | 176 | 10.9 | 6.6 | 137 | 12.1 | 7.5 | 66 | 11.8 | 6.6 | 10 | 13.2 | 9.1 |
| Heim Vocabulary | 124 | 20.0 | 14.6 | 158 | 27.9 | 18.0 | 178 | 30.6 | 19.1 | 176 | 37.2 | 17.9 | 138 | 43.2 | 21.1 | 66 | 47.7 | 18.8 | 10 | 17.5 | 9.8 |
| Paper Folding | 124 | 4.3 | 4.2 | 158 | 5.2 | 4.8 | 180 | 6.2 | 4.4 | 176 | 7.0 | 4.7 | 138 | 7.5 | 5.0 | 66 | 8.4 | 4.7 | 10 | 6.1 | 4.9 |
| Object Aperture | 123 | 1.4 | 4.9 | 158 | 2.2 | 6.0 | 181 | 3.3 | 5.1 | 176 | 3.3 | 5.1 | 138 | 5.6 | 7.2 | 65 | 5.9 | 6.8 | 9 | 6.9 | 6.9 |
| Identical Pictures | 119 | 47.8 | 15.9 | 153 | 50.9 | 16.3 | 181 | 52.3 | 16.1 | 174 | 55.0 | 15.6 | 136 | 56.6 | 15.0 | 64 | 58.2 | 16.2 | 9 | 50.6 | 12.9 |
| Spatial Relations | 118 | 38.7 | 18.3 | 146 | 42.8 | 20.2 | 172 | 47.1 | 19.0 | 175 | 51.7 | 19.7 | 136 | 54.3 | 21.2 | 64 | 57.0 | 18.6 | 5 | 50.0 | 11.7 |
| Spelling | 124 | 23.7 | 12.3 | 158 | 25.6 | 15.6 | 182 | 29.1 | 14.8 | 175 | 34.7 | 14.0 | 138 | 36.1 | 15.9 | 65 | 41.3 | 12.4 | 9 | 30.8 | 17.6 |

Note. All twins did not take all tests. Number represents individuals, not twins, in this table.

It follows the usual pattern through age 17 but then shows a slight decline between ages 17 and 18.

The mean scores for age group 19-20 show a decline from age group 18 for all tests except Form Board and Object Aperture, each of which shows a slight increase. Examination of the scores for the ten students in the 19-20 age level reveals that these older students have not progressed normally. Their average Arithmetic and Spelling scores are like those of boys and girls of 14 and 15, children five years younger. All ten students were from the Kentucky sample. All were white-eight boys and two girls; two pairs DZ, three MZ.

With two exceptions, mean scores of twins at any age from 12 through 18 are greater than scores of children a year younger, less than those of children a year older. At ages 15 and 16, mean Surface Development scores are identical. The mean of Form Board scores for age 17 is 12.1 ; for the 18 -year age group, the mean is 11.8 .

Although in this study we are primarily interested in twins, Table VII-A reflects scores for all subjects, including a very small number of twins whose co-twins for some reason did not take a particular test. For example, in the 12-13 age group one twin did not take the Arithmetic Test; six students failed to take the Spatial Test; whereas all subjects took the Spelling Test. The purpose of Table VII-A is to give the reader an overview of the range of abilities and ages covered in the Basic Test Battery.

In order to compare the tests in the Basic Battery on score change with age, raw scores for each test were converted to T-scores with means of 50 and standard deviations of 10 . Figure VII-1 shows for each test the score change curves, which are strikingly similar and each of which seems to follow the typical growth curve. The obvious exception is the point representing mean scores for the ten overage students.

Since we have demonstrated that, as expected, age is a significant factor in determining average scores on each of the tests in the Basic Test Battery, our next step was to adjust all scores by age so that further analyses of the data could be made without the necessity of age classification. Subjects were divided into five age groups (12-13, 14, 15, 16, 1720). Within each group scores on all tests were standardized to a mean of 100 and a standard deviation of 15 , thereby making these scaled scores comparable to deviation IQ's used in the Wechsler intelligence scales. These age-adjusted scores are used in all of the analyses of the Basic Test Battery reported in the remainder of this chapter.

Since all subjects are classified by race, sex, and zygosity, a threeway analysis of variance was used to determine if score variances of the 12 tests (as well as an average of the 12 tests) are attributable to any or all of these three classifications. Race, sex, and zygosity differences may well be significant sources of variation in the overall score, as well


Figure VII-1. Score change with age for tests of the Basic Battery.
as of interesting interactions. For example, an earlier analysis (Last, 1977) found that on the Arithmetic test white MZ boys earned higher scores than white MZ girls. The situation was reversed for blacks. If significant, this interaction would be important in the study of variation in the different racial and sex groupings.

In addition to the three classifications discussed above, 142 pairs of twins or 284 individuals were also classified by socio-economic status. A separate analysis of variance, therefore, was used to determine if such status contributed to score variances.

Since a small number of twins did not take all tests in the battery, there are unequal numbers in some of the classifications. Because of the unbalanced design, an analysis of variance procedure based on least squares fitting of multivariable models was employed. The program, described in A User's Guide to SAS (Barr, Goodnight, Sall, \& Helwig, 1976, pg. 127), also yields least squares means which are estimates of arithmetic means that would be expected if equal subclass numbers had been obtained. Tables VII-B and VII-C show the results of the two analyses of variance. From these tables it can be determined that race, sex, zygosity, and socio-economic status all significantly contribute to score variances on some or all of the 13 test variables. Consequently, it seems appropriate to divide the total group into subpopulations based on race, sex, and zygosity and, additionally, to divide the smaller group for which socio-economic status is available into three subpopulations.

Table VII-D shows the least squares means for age-adjusted standard

## Table VII-B

Effects Contributing to Differences in Means of Various Subpopulations: Race, Sex, and Zygosity

| Test |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| (Age-adjusted Standard Scores) | Race | Sex | Zygosity | $\mathbf{Z} \times \mathbf{R}$ | $\mathbf{Z} \times \mathbf{S}$ | $\mathbf{R} \times \mathbf{S}$ |
| Z $\times \mathbf{R} \times \mathbf{S}$ |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Calendar | $* *$ |  | $*$ |  |  |  |
| Cube Comparisons | $* *$ | $* *$ |  |  |  |  |
| Surface Development | $* *$ |  |  |  |  |  |
| Wide Range Vocabulary | $* *$ |  | $* *$ |  |  |  |
| Form Board | $* *$ | $* *$ |  |  |  |  |
| Arithmetic | $* *$ | $* *$ |  |  |  |  |
| Heim Vocabulary | $* *$ |  |  |  |  |  |
| Paper Folding | $* *$ |  | $*$ |  |  |  |
| Object Aperture | $* *$ | $* *$ | $*$ |  |  |  |
| Identical Pictures | $* *$ | $*$ |  |  |  |  |
| Spelling | $* *$ | $* *$ | $*$ |  |  |  |
| Spatial Relations | $* *$ | $* *$ |  |  |  |  |
| Average | $* *$ |  | $* *$ |  |  |  |

* $p<.05$.
** $p<01$.

Table VII－C
Effects Contributing to Differences in Means of Various Subpopulations：Race， Sex，Zygosity，and Socio－economic Status

| （Age－adjusted Standard Scores） | 罢 | 爻 | W W | $\begin{aligned} & \lambda \\ & \text { B } \\ & \text { O} \\ & \text { N } \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & x \\ & 山 \\ & \tilde{y} \\ & \times \\ & \times \\ & \tilde{y} \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \text { س } \\ & \text { N } \\ & \times \\ & \times \\ & \text { N } \end{aligned}$ |  |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Calender | ＊ |  | ＊＊ |  |  |  |  |  | ＊ |  |  |
| Cube Comparisons | ＊ | ＊ | ＊＊ |  | ＊ |  |  |  | ＊ |  |  |
| Surface Development | ＊＊ |  | ＊＊ |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Wide Range Vocabulary |  |  | ＊＊ | ＊ |  |  |  |  | ＊ |  |  |
| Form Board | ＊ |  | ＊＊ |  |  |  |  |  |  |  | ＊ |
| Arithmetic | ＊ | ＊ | ＊＊ |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Heim Vocabulary | ＊＊ |  | ＊＊ |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Paper Folding |  | ＊ | ＊＊ | ＊ |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Object Aperture |  | ＊＊ | ＊＊ | ＊＊ | ＊ |  | ＊ |  | ＊＊ |  |  |
| Identical Pictures | ＊ |  | ＊＊ |  |  | ＊ |  |  |  |  |  |
| Spelling |  | ＊＊ | ＊＊ |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Spatial Relations | ＊＊ | ＊＊ | ＊＊ |  |  |  | ＊ |  |  |  |  |
| Average | ＊＊ |  | ＊＊ |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |

Table VII－D
Least Squares Means for Age－adjusted Standard Scores by Sex，Zygosity，and Race（Deviation IQ＇s）

| Test | Male |  |  |  | Female |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | MZ |  | DZ |  | MZ |  | DZ |  |
|  | White | Black | White | Black | White | Black | White | Black |
| Calendar | 104.6 | 93.1 | 100.9 | 88.8 | 103.2 | 91.5 | 101.7 | 90.4 |
| Cube Comparisons | 105.0 | 94.6 | 103.8 | 97.6 | 100.7 | 92.0 | 100.4 | 89.9 |
| Surface Development | 104.5 | 92.6 | 102.7 | 91.7 | 102.6 | 93.2 | 100.0 | 90.8 |
| Wide Range Vocabulary | 103.2 | 98.4 | 99.4 | 91.8 | 103.2 | 93.3 | 100.1 | 92.7 |
| Form Board | 106.8 | 93.5 | 103.1 | 93.6 | 101.3 | 90.4 | 100.5 | 89.2 |
| Arithmetic | 102.0 | 90.9 | 100.5 | 88.8 | 103.1 | 94.9 | 101.8 | 94.8 |
| Heim Vocabulary | 102.3 | 95.1 | 101.3 | 91.0 | 104.1 | 93.4 | 99.4 | 94.0 |
| Paper Folding | 104.7 | 93.1 | 102.8 | 90.8 | 103.8 | 90.9 | 101.5 | 86.9 |
| Object Aperture | 107.5 | 97.5 | 105.8 | 94.6 | 99.2 | 92.4 | 98.0 | 88.6 |
| Identical Pictures | 100.2 | 94.5 | 100.1 | 93.0 | 101.0 | 101.9 | 99.6 | 96.3 |
| Spelling | 99.4 | 90.6 | 97.2 | 86.1 | 105.2 | 96.5 | 103.9 | 94.6 |
| Spatial Relations | 106.7 | 95.3 | 106.9 | 92.4 | 102.0 | 89.0 | 100.2 | 86.7 |
| Average | 103.9 | 94.1 | 102.0 | 91.7 | 102.5 | 93.3 | 100.6 | 91.3 |

scores for the 13 test variables for subpopulations by race, sex, and zygosity. Differences in the means are in the same direction and of about the same magnitude as those reported by Eysenck (1975), Jensen (1973b), Shuey (1966), and others.

For every test there is a significant race effect. The difference is about ten IQ points for both MZ and DZ twins and for boys and girls (Table VII-D). The question of whether genetic factors are implicated in the race differences in test performance must be delayed until heritability estimates are discussed later in this chapter. Suffice it to say now that least squares means of the two races differ significantly on all 12 tests and also for the average of the 12 tests. In response to the question, "Are there racial differences in IQ?," Jensen (1973b) has this to say:

In the United States persons classed as Negro by the common social criteria obtain scores on the average about one standard deviation (i.e., 15 IQ points on most standard intelligence tests) below the average for the white population. One standard deviation is an average difference, and it is known that the magnitude of Negro-white differences varies according to the ages of the groups compared, their socio-economic status, and especially their geographical location in the United States. Various tests differ, on the average, relatively little. In general, Negroes do slightly better on verbal tests than on nonverbal tests. They do most poorly on tests of spatial ability, abstract reasoning and problem solving (Shuey, 1966; Tyler, 1965). Tests of scholastic achievement also show about one standard deviation difference, and this difference appears to be fairly constant from first grade through twelfth grade, judging from the massive data of the Coleman study ("Equality of Educational Opportunity," 1966). The IQ difference of $1 S D$, also, is fairly stable over the age range from about 5 years to adulthood, although some studies have shown a tendency for a slight increase in the difference between 5 and 18 years of age. (p. 362)

Jensen's position is not shared by all other workers in the field (Kamin, 1974; Ehrlich, 1977; and Layzer, 1975). Probably the most outspoken on the question is Harvard professor David Layzer who asserts, "Published analyses of IQ data provide no support whatever for Jensen's thesis that inequalities in cognitive performance are due largely to genetic differences. . . . Under prevailing social conditions, no valid inferences can be drawn from IQ data concerning systematic genetic differences among races or socio-economic groups. Research along present lines directed toward this end-whatever its ethical status-is scientifically worthless" (p. 216).

In addition to the consistent differences in means for the two races,
there are significant sex differences for 7 of the 12 Basic tests. Four of the seven load on the spatial factor. Cube Comparisons, Form Board, Object Aperture, and Spatial Relations all show a significant sex effect; that is, on all four spatial tests in both racial groups boys earned higher scores than girls. This finding is not too surprising since Maccoby (1966) reported higher scores for boys on all visual, spatial ability tests beginning at about six or eight years of age. Keogh (1971) also reported higher spatial test scores for 8 - and 9 -year-old boys. Droege (1967) and Flannagan, Dailey, Shaycoft, Gorham, Orr, Goldberg, \& Neyman (1961) found boys superior on the spatial factor throughout liigh school, their scores exceeding girls' by at least .4 standard deviation at the end of high school. The question of whether or not genetic factors are implicated in the visual-spatial factor, as suggested by Maccoby and Jacklin, will be discussed later.

The Spelling and Arithmetic tests show consistent and significant mean differences in favor of girls, whose superior verbal achievement on the Spelling Test is not unexpected. Maccoby and Jacklin (1974) found that girls have higher verbal ability than boys. "At about age eleven, the sexes begin to diverge with female superiority increasing through high school and possibly beyond" (p. 351).

The arithmetic superiority of girls is somewhat of a surprise because Maccoby and Jacklin and other workers report significantly higher male performance on tests involving mathematical factors. Examination of the Arithmetic Test might offer some clue for the elevated scores for girls. The test is short and requires no reasoning or problem solving, only the fundamental operations of addition, subtraction, multiplication, and division. Verbal processes would seem to be needed to answer most test questions. In an earlier factor analytic study of these data (Osborne, 1978), arithmetic was found to load with vocabulary on a verbal factor.

The last test of the battery showing significant main effects sex differences is Identical Pictures, significant at the .05 level. The score difference between white boys and girls is small, less than one point for both MZ and DZ twins. Black girls are consistently above the black boys. White DZ boys score about one-half point above white DZ girls. Since the scores obtained by those who took the Identical Pictures Test differ only slightly, barely significant at the .05 level, and there is no significant interaction of any type, no effort will be made to explain the sex differences for this test.

Consistent and significant zygosity differences, however, were found for 5 of the 12 Basic tests. Three load on the verbal factor, Calendar, Wide Range Vocabulary, and Spelling; two load on spatial, Paper Folding and Object Aperture. MZ twins of both races and MZ's of both sexes outperform comparable DZ twins on these tests. The reason is not clear. Using a design similar to that of the present study, Koch (1966) found

Primary Mental Ability scores for MZ twins to be significantly lower than those of DZ's. For all but one PMA subtest, MZ's were below matched singletons.

Husen (1960) anticipated that DZ's would test higher than MZ's because identical partners tend to spend more time together and have more contact with each other. For this reason, we would expect verbal retardation to be greater in MZ's than in DZ's. Husen found just the opposite. Identical twins exhibited throughout his study a tendency toward higher means.

Since findings from other studies are contradictory and the present study is only suggestive of significant MZ-DZ performance differences for selected tests, the question of MZ-DZ differences will be examined with additional biometric, social, and psychological data in later chapters.

In spite of the report by Tyler (1965), Shuey (1966), and Jensen (1973a) that the relationship of measured intelligence to socio-economic status is one of the best documented findings in mental test history, this section of the Twin Study offers a new analysis of SES differences as they relate to mental test performance. Because the subjects are twins and the test battery covers a wide array of mental tests, the present study is unlike others designed to investigate SES parameters primarily because it enables comparisons to be made by race, sex, zygosity, and SES for separate verbal and spatial tests. For example, the environmentalist prediction that subjects from low SES classes do not perform as well on verbally loaded tests as they do on culture fair scales will be examined by race, sex, and zygosity. The environmentalist program also predicts that since general cultural and socio-economic status are important IQ determinants high SES blacks should outperform low and middle SES whites on tests of mental ability.

The first step in our analysis is to determine the main effects contributing to the differences in means between the various subpopulations. Confidence levels are shown in Table VII-C. This analysis of the smaller group of twins for whom SES data were available enables us: (1) to compare the main effects of race, sex, and zygosity shown by the least squares analysis of the sample with a similar analysis made for the total group; (2) to determine if socio-economic status contributes significantly to the differences in means between subpopulations.

Table VII-C shows that for every test there is a significant race effect. The same finding was reported in the analysis of the total group (Table VII-B). Significant sex effects are common to five tests in each analysis. Only three tests in the SES sample show significant zygosity effects.

Although Tables VII-B and VII-C are not perfectly congruent, the pattern of significant main effects in the two tables suggests the smaller group is not very different from the base group in respect to the effects due to race, sex, and zygosity.

Since the levels of confidence of interaction for the three subpopulations were shown in Table VII-B, they will not be repeated in Table VII-C. However, confidence levels for the main effects and for SES interactions are shown in Table VII-C.

Socio-economic status makes a significant difference in means for 8 of the 12 Basic tests. Scores on two verbal and two spatial tests are not influenced significantly by SES. The question raised earlier concerning differential performance for high and low SES groups can now be answered in Table VII-E which reports least squares means by SES level for race, sex, and zygosity. To make the comparison easier, mean scores for the 5 tests which loaded on the verbal factor and the 6 tests which loaded on the spatial factor, along with the one-test perceptual speed factor and the average of all 12 tests, are shown in Table VII-F for each SES level by race.

There is no apparent difference in mean IQ's between the average of the culturally loaded verbal scales and the nonverbal spatial tests. Race and SES differences are obvious, but for any SES level within race there is no consistent pattern of verbal-spatial difference. Low SES whites show verbal greater than spatial by one IQ point but low SES blacks show spatial greater than verbal by two IQ points.

The second environmentalist claim that, since general cultural and socio-economic factors are important IQ determinants, higher SES blacks should outperform middle or low SES whites on tests of mental ability is answered clearly in Table VII-F. The claim is simply not supported by the evidence. Verbal, spatial, and full scale IQ's all show that low SES whites outscore the highest SES blacks.

It is clear from the above discussion that there are significant race differences for all tests of the Basic Battery. Several tests show significant sex differences which follow the usual pattern, boys excel girls in the tests that load the spatial factor; girls are better at verbal tasks. Zygosity differences were found for five tests. The MZ's of both sexes and of both races outscore DZ twins on 5 of the 12 tests. Eight of the 12 Basic tests show significant SES differences.

In summary, the data so far presented strongly support the hypotheses that sex, race, zygosity, and socio-economic status all contribute significantly to score variances on some or all of the components of the Basic Test Battery. It should also be noted that, for the total group, only 1 of the 52 interactions among sex, race, and zygosity is significant (Table VII-B). When SES is added to the analysis of variance, making a fourway classification, we find that there are now 91 chances for interaction. Table VII-C shows that only ten of these interactions are significant and that the significant ones are not clustered under any one interaction variable or any one test. We are able to state, then, that the significant effects on test scores of the four classifications are, in'general, consistent
Table VII-E
Least Squares Means for Age-adjusted Standard Scores by Socio-economic Status Group (Deviation IQ's)

| Test | White |  |  | Black |  |  | MZ |  |  | DZ |  |  | Male |  |  | Female |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| Calendar | 104 | 103 | 102 | 97 | 93 | 85 | 101 | 97 | 95 | 99 | 99 | 92 | 101 | 98 | 91 | 99 | 98 | 9 |
| Cube Comaprisons | 102 | 102 | 99 | 102 | 93 | 91 | 103 | 97 | 96 | 101 | 99 | 94 | 107 | 98 | 96 | 96 | 97 | 95 |
| Surface Development | 106 | 104 | 95 | 95 | 95 | 91 | 102 | 100 | 94 | 99 | 99 | 91 | 102 | 98 | 90 | 99 | 102 | 96 |
| Wide Range Vocabulary | 104 | 103 | 105 | 95 | 94 | 92 | 102 | 99 | 101 | 97 | 98 | 96 | 99 | 100 | 102 | 100 | 98 | 95 |
| Form Board | 108 | 109 | 101 | 94 | 92 | 90 | 102 | 101 | 99 | 100 | 100 | 92 | 105 | 101 | 95 | 96 | 100 | 96 |
| Arithmetic | 104 | 104 | 101 | 102 | 98 | 87 | 103 | 98 | 96 | 102 | 105 | 93 | 104 | 98 | 90 | 102 | 105 | 99 |
| Heim Vocabulary | 110 | 112 | 103 | 103 | 94 | 90 | 107 | 103 | 98 | 106 | 103 | 96 | 108 | 103 | 96 | 105 | 103 | 97 |
| Paper Folding | 106 | 106 | 102 | 93 | 90 | 89 | 103 | 98 | 99 | 96 | 98 | 92 | 103 | 99 | 97 | 96 | 96 | 94 |
| Object Aperture | 103 | 103 | 104 | 90 | 95 | 91 | 101 | 98 | 102 | 92 | 100 | 93 | 100 | 105 | 97 | 93 | 94 | 98 |
| Identical Pictures | 118 | 107 | 103 | 100 | 98 | 101 | 110 | 102 | 105 | 108 | 103 | 99 | 106 | 103 | 102 | 112 | 102 | 103 |
| Spelling | 101 | 102 | 100 | 98 | 93 | 88 | 99 | 97 | 95 | 100 | 97 | 93 | 98 | 92 | 92 | 101 | 102 | 96 |
| Spatial Relations | 107 | 107 | 103 | 96 | 93 | 86 | 105 | 99 | 97 | 98 | 102 | 93 | 106 | 104 | 96 | 98 | 97 | 94 |
| Average | 106 | 105 | 102 | 97 | 94 | 90 | 103 | 99 | 98 | 100 | 100 | 94 | 103 | 100 | 95 | 100 | 100 | 9 |

[^4]$2=$ Middle SES group
$3=$ Low SES group

Table VII-F
Mean Factor IQ's by Socio-economic Groups for Whites and Blacks (Least Squares Means)

|  | White |  |  |  | Black |  |  |
| :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | High <br> SES | Medium <br> SES | Low <br> SES |  | High <br> SES | Medium <br> SES | Low <br> SES |
| Verbal IQ <br> (Average 5 tests) | 105 | 105 | 102 |  | 99 | 94 | 88 |
| Spatial IQ <br> (Average 6 tests) | 105 | 105 | 101 | 95 | 93 | 90 |  |
| Perceptual Speed IQ <br> (One test only) | 119 | 107 | 103 | 100 | 98 | 101 |  |
| Average IQ <br> Average 12 tests) | 106 | 105 | 102 | 97 | 94 | 90 |  |

among the subpopulations; e.g., race shows a significant effect on all test scores and this effect does not, for most scores, fluctuate between the sexes or zygosities or among the socio-economic statuses.

The next question to be addressed is this: Are the subpopulation differences in test performance due in part to heredity and, if so, is the effect of heredity on test performance equal for all subpopulations?

To determine the heritability of the tests, methods developed by Holzinger, Nichols, and Vandenberg will be used. The rationales for these heritability ratios were discussed in Chapter II. Heritability, it will be recalled, is a population statistic and, technically, is defined as the proportion of total phenotypic variance shown by a trait that can be attributed to genetic variation in the population.

In the heritability computations, raw scores were first adjusted for age for each race separately. Holzinger, Nichols, and Vandenberg heritability ratios were computed for each test and for the average of the 12 tests. In Table VII-G, intraclass correlation coefficients, heritability ratios, and within-pair variances for black and white twins are shown for all tests and the average of the 12 tests. The $F$ tests shown in the next to the last column in Table VII-G refer to Vandenberg's $F$ ratio. To test the significance of the difference between two $F$ 's, they are transformed to a unit normal variate after the method described by Paulson (1942), whose $U$ statistic is entered in a $Z$ table to determine its probability level. The probability levels that the F's of the two races are significantly different are shown in the last column of Table VII-G.

Previously we learned that differences in black and white means were uniform over the whole range of tests. Means differed by about ten devia-
Table VII-G
Heritability Coefficients on 12 Mental Tests for Black and White Twins: Classical Methods of Analysis Using Age-race

| Variable | MZ |  | DZ |  | T(Cor) | Heritability Ratios |  | Within-pair Variances |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | r | N | r | N |  | H | HR | MZ | DZ | F | $\mathbf{U}^{\text {a }}$ |
| Calendar |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| White | . 48 | 170 | . 40 | 130 | . 91 | . 14 | . 36 | 119.09 | 125.78 | 1.06 |  |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| White | . 43 | 168 | . 29 | 129 | 1.34 | . 19 | . 65 | 117.54 | 176.04 |  |  |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| White | . 72 | 171 | . 36 | 133 | 4.65 | . 57 | 1.02 | 62.44 | 138.94 | 2.23** |  |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| White | . 52 | 171 | . 23 | 133 | 2.95 | . 38 | 1.12 | 106.98 | 165.88 | 1.55** |  |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| White | . 59 | 168 | . 44 | 133 | 1.77 | . 27 | . 52 | 98.86 | 112.01 | 1.13 |  |
| $\begin{array}{lllllllllllllll}\text { Arithmetic } & .21 & & .33 & 47 & -.68 & -.18 & -1.18 & 183.05 & 135.02 & .74 & 1.86\end{array}$ |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| White | . 80 | 168 | . 53 | 133 | 4.29 | . 57 | . 68 | 44.26 | 109.97 | 2.49** |  |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| White | . 85 | 169 | . 57 | 132 | 5.24 | . 66 | . 66 | 33.81 | 89.13 | 2.64** |  |
| Black | . 76 | 75 | . 57 | 47 | 1.86 | . 45 | . 51 | 57.41 | 82.78 | 1.44 | 4.49** |


| Paper Folding |  |  |  |  |  | , | 34 | 10127 | 118.08 | 1.17 |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| White | . 55 | 169 | . 45 | 133 | 1.07 | . 17 | . 34 | 135.04 | 173.27 | 1.28 | . 00 |
| Black | . 45 | 76 | -. 02 | 47 | 2.59 | . 45 | 2.07 | 135.04 | 173.27 | 1.28 | . 00 |
| Object Aperture |  |  |  |  |  |  |  | 114.04 | 13495 | 1.18 |  |
| White | . 49 | 168 | . 39 | 132 | 1.05 | . 16 | . 41 | 114.04 | 134.95 | 1.18 |  |
| Black | . 39 | 76 | . 17 | 47 | 1.24 | . 26 | 1.13 | 141.67 | 154.88 | 1.09 | . 67 |
| Identical Pictures |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| White | . 76 | 164 | . 55 | 128 | 3.20 | . 47 | . 56 | 56.73 | 90.57 | 1.60** |  |
| Black | . 51 | 72 | . 32 | 47 | 1.20 | . 28 | . 75 | 99.57 | 162.63 | 1.63* | . 96 |
| Spelling |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| White | . 85 | 169 | . 54 | 132 | 5.57 | . 68 | . 73 | 32.67 | 99.66 | 3.05** |  |
| Black | . 79 | 76 | . 58 | 47 | 2.14 | . 50 | . 53 | 49.22 | 82.91 | 1.69* | 4.70** |
| Spatial Relations |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  | 95.45 | 2.07** |  |
| White | . 78 | 158 | . 60 | 125 | 2.91 | . 75 | . 47 |  | 74.06 | 1.85* |  |
| Black | . 85 | 75 | . 44 | 47 | 4.13 | . 74 | . 96 | 39.97 | 74.06 | 1.85* | 1.92 |
| Subtest Mean |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| White | . 85 | 171 | . 62 | 133 | 4.58 | . 75 | . 54 | 14.09 | 3.71 | 2.95** |  |
| Black | . 88 | 76 | . 51 | 47 | 4.18 | . 75 | . 85 | 10.64 | 31.34 | 2.95** | 1.48 |

tion IQ points on both the easy, verbal tasks and the more difficult spatial tests. Heritability differences among the tests are not uniform, suggesting that mental abilities, represented by the Basic Battery, are not uniform in their genetic and environmental characteristics. For example, the tasks required in the Simple Arithmetic Test turned out to be highly heritable for both races. Not only are the $F$ tests significant for blacks and whites, but the intraclass $r$ 's are all high, the correlations for blacks slightly exceeding those for whites. For whites, 8 of the 12 $F$ ratios are significant at the .05 level or better; for blacks, 4 are significant. On the other hand, one test, Form Board, yields a negative $H$ value; that is, the intraclass correlation for DZ black twins is greater than for MZ's. In all other cases, $H$ values are positive; that is, MZ $r>$ $\mathrm{DZ} r$, the direction predicted by the hereditarian program.

It will be recalled that the Basic Battery was composed of tests designed to cover the wide range of primary abilities between the ages of 12 and 20. Necessarily some of the tests selected were too easy for many subjects, and several tests may have been too difficult for some. The Calendar Test, for example, was selected to be the first, or buffer, test because it was short and easy. Most subjects over 12 were able to answer questions of the type: Today is Friday. Yesterday was ? . Split-half reliability of the Calendar Test is 80 . On the other hand, Object Assembly is probably the most difficult test in the battery. To adjust scores for guessing, it is scored rights minus one-fourth wrongs. The mean score for black children in the two lowest age groups was at chance level. The corrected split-half reliability of the Object Aperture Test is only .58 . The longer, more stable tests tend to yield the highest heritability ratios. Spelling, Arithmetic, and Newcastle Spatial tests show significant within-pair $F$ ratios for both races. For these tests the MZ intraclass $r$ 's approach the reliability of the tests; that is, MZ twins' scores are as much alike as the scores of the same individual who takes the test twice.

It was established earlier in this chapter that there are significant mean racial differences for all the Basic tests. It was also determined that a significant genetic component is revealed by many of the tests. Some tests yield significant variance ratios for both races, some for neither, and some for one but not the other. We may therefore ask, "Are differences between the heritability variance ratios for the two races significant?" For 8 of the 12 tests, the $F$ 's are not significantly different. Arithmetic, Identical Pictures, and Newcastle Spatial tests show significant heritability ratios for both black and white twins, but the differences between the $F$ 's are non-significant. On the other hand, the heritability ratios for the two vocabulary and the Spelling tests are not quite as convincing as the three tests mentioned above. Nevertheless, in most cases the $F$ 's are significant or approach significance.

The 12 tests, standardized for age and race (mean 100; standard deviation 15), were averaged to get a composite score that would give equal weight to the individual tests. Heritability ratios for the composite or total scores are shown in the last two rows of Table VII-G. When all 12 tests are combined into a general mental test score, $F$ ratios for both blacks and whites are significant at the .01 level, but the $U$ statistic indicates no significant difference in the $F$ 's; that is, when the 12 tests are equally weighted and combined into a general mental ability score, there is no difference in variance ratios between the two races. We conclude, then, that within-race variances on mental ability test scores are due to heredity to a significant degree and that the effect of heredity on test performance is not significantly different for the two races.

Since, by design, tests in the battery represented the broad spectrum of specific primary mental abilities (number, space, verbal, and perceptual speed), it would have been remarkable if all tests had reflected the same degree of within-pair variance for both races. On the other hand, grouping tests with similar factor structure or combining several short tests into one composite score or general factor score should produce a more reliable measure of mental ability than a specific test alone, if for no other reason than that the composite test represents a larger sample of mental test performance than the specific test.

Factor analysis of the 12 individual tests produced three distinctly separate factors: (1) verbal factor, made up of Calendar, Wide Range Vocabulary, Heim Vocabulary, Spelling, and Arithmetic tests; (2) spatial factor, made up of Cube Comparisons, Surface Development, Form Board, Paper Folding, Object Aperture, and Newcastle Spatial tests; (3) perceptual speed factor, represented by only one test, Identical Pictures. The 12 individual tests were standardized for age and race with a mean of 100 and a standard deviation of 15 . The derived factor scores are equivalent to deviation IQ's. $F$ ratios for each of the factor IQ's and the full scale IQ, which represents the average of the three factors, are shown in Table VII-H. With the exception of the spatial IQ, all variance ratios are significant for both races. For whites, all ratios are significant at the .01 level. Full scale IQ variance ratios are significant at the .01 level for blacks, but verbal and perceptual speed reach only the .05 level.

The variance ratios for verbal and spatial IQ's are significantly larger for whites than for blacks. It should be remembered that the four individual tests with significant black-white $F$ within-pair variance differences are included in these factor IQ's. The perceptual speed factor shows no significant difference in $F$ ratios between races; neither does the full scale IQ in which all three factor IQ's are weighted equally and combined.
Table VII-H
Heritability Coefficients for Factor IQ Tests for Black and White Twins: Classical Methods of Analysis Using Age-race Standard Scores

| Variable | MZ |  | DZ |  | T(Cor) | Heritability Ratios |  | Within-pair Variances |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | r | N | r | N |  | H | HR | MZ | DZ | F | $\mathrm{U}^{\text {a }}$ |
| Verbal IQ |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| White | . 82 | 171 | . 59 | 133 | 4.21 | . 57 | . 57 | 24.29 | 52.54 | 2.16** |  |
| Black | . 83 | 76 | . 64 | 47 | 2.19 | . 52 | . 45 | 22.44 | 43.28 | 1.93* | 2.17* |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| White | . 81 | 171 | . 57 | 133 | 3.98 | . 55 | . 59 | 24.25 | 53.98 | 2.23** |  |
| Black | . 77 | 76 | . 45 | 47 | 2.80 | . 58 | . 84 | 28.01 | 39.82 | 1.42 |  |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| White | . 76 | 164 | . 55 | 128 | 3.20 | . 47 | . 56 | 56.73 | 90.57 | 1.60** |  |
| Black | . 51 | 72 | . 32 | 47 | 1.20 | . 28 | . 75 | 99.57 | 162.63 | 1.63* | . 96 |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| White | . 85 | 171 | . 60 | 133 | 4.68 | . 62 | . 58 | 15.49 | 36.57 | 2.36** |  |
| Black | . 80 | 76 | . 34 | 47 | 3.90 | . 70 | 1.15 | 14.84 | 47.79 | 3.22** | . 73 |

In Table VII-I the races are combined, and heritability comparisons are made by sex. For the most part, there are no big surprises since the same subjects are represented as in Table VII-F. Within-pair variance ratios are significant at the .01 level for both boys and girls on the Arithmetic, Spelling, Surface Development, and Heim Vocabulary tests. There are four tests on which variance ratios were different for boys and girls. On the Cube Comparisons, Identical Pictures, and Object Aperture tests, $F$ ratios were significant for boys only. The Wide Range Vocabulary $F$ ratio was significant only for girls. Heritability ratios for the means of the 12 subtests are significant at the .01 level for both sexes.

Only 3 of the 12 boy-girl $F$ ratios are significantly different. The boys' within-pair variance was significantly greater on two spatial tests. The girls' was greater on one. For all other tests, including Arithmetic, Spelling, and Vocabulary, in which heritability differences might be expected to be different, the $U$ statistic shows no significant difference.

In Table VII-J the races are combined, and heritability comparisons are made by sex for the three factor IQ's and the full scale IQ. All variance ratios for factor IQ's are significant at the .01 level except the single-test factor, perceptual speed. The full scale factor IQ variance ratio is significant at the .01 level for both boys and girls.

The differences in $F$ ratios for the verbal and spatial IQ's are insignificant for male and female comparisons. On the one-test factor, perceptual speed, sex difference in the $F$ ratio is significant. Full scale factor IQ's show highly significant $F$ s for both boys and girls, but the within-pair variance difference between the sexes is insignificant.

The 142 sets of twins with both psychological and socio-economic data provide a unique opportunity to examine P. Nichols' (1970) claim that environmental differences are important in determining heritability values and that environmental factors are largely responsible for the observed differences in performance between whites and blacks. The findings of Binet (1895), Tyler (1965), and Jensen (1973a) were confirmed in an earlier section of this chapter where it was established that there are significant differences in mean IQ between socio-economic classes. The pattern of IQ differences for SES is consistent by race, sex, and zygosity (Table VII-E). Using the SES twin group, the claim that environmental differences are important in determining heritability can now be tested by computing general intelligence (IQ) heritability ratios by social class for blacks and whites.

The hereditarian research program predicts that general intelligence (IQ) is inherited; that is, there is a positive correlation for IQ between members of the same family, the size of the correlation being greater the closer the kinship (Galton, 1869). The program also predicts that the relationship is consistent for different subpopulations: rich, poor,
Table VII-I
Heritability Coefficients on 12 Mental Tests by Sex: Classical Methods of Analysis Using Age-race Standard Scores

| Variable | MZ |  | DZ |  | T(Cor) | Heritability Ratios |  | Within-pair Variances |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | r | N | r | N |  | H | HR | MZ | DZ | F | $\mathrm{U}^{\text {a }}$ |
| Calendar |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Male | . 52 | 110 | . 36 | 63 | 1.25 | . 25 | . 62 | 125.38 | 117.01 | . 93 |  |
| Female | . 48 | 136 | . 42 | 113 | . 54 | . 10 | . 23 | 110.45 | 121.56 | 1.10 | -. 84 |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Male | . 45 | 108 | . 28 | 64 | 1.18 | . 23 | . 73 | 123.51 | 185.44 | 1.50* |  |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Male | . 73 | 110 | . 44 | 65 | 2.81 | . 51 | . 79 | 76.30 | 157.23 | 2.06** |  |
| Female | . 56 | 137 | . 23 | 115 | 3.13 | . 43 | 1.19 | 78.09 | 140.47 | 1.80** | . 06 |
| Wide Range Vocabulary 42 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Male | . 52 | 110 | . 31 | 65 | 1.61 | . 31 | . 81 | 96.68 | 132.40 |  |  |
| Female | . 48 | 137 | . 19 | 115 | 2.55 | . 35 | 1.21 | 127.01 | 183.14 | 1.44* |  |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Male | . 60 | 108 | . 54 | 65 | . 51 | . 12 | . 19 | 114.22 | 97.38 | . 85 |  |
| Female | . 30 | 135 | . 32 | 115 | -. 14 | -. 02 | -. 11 | 133.35 | 129.68 | . 97 | -. 54 |










| Arithmetic |
| :--- |
| Male |
| Female |
| Heim Vocabulary |
| Male |
| Female |
| Paper Folding |
| Male |
| Female |
| Object Aperture |
| Male |
| Female |
| Identical Pictures |
| Male |
| Female |
| Spelling |
| Male |
| Female |
| Spatial Relations |
| Male |
| Female |
| Subtext Mean |
| Male |
| Female |

** $p<.01$.
${ }^{\text {a }}$ difference in $U$ 's. Paulson's statistic for determining the significance of difference in $F$ 's.
Table VII-J
Heritability Coefficients for Factor IQ Tests by Sex: Classical Methods of Analysis Using Age-race Standard Scores

| Variable | MZ |  | DZ |  | T(Cor) | Heritability Ratios |  | Within-pair Variances |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | r | N | r | N |  | H | HR | MZ | DZ | F | $\mathrm{U}^{a}$ |
| Verbal IQ |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Male | . 85 | 110 | . 53 | 65 | 4.06 | . 67 | . 74 | 22.76 |  |  |  |
| $\begin{array}{lllllllllllllllllllll}\text { Spatial IQ } & .80\end{array}$ |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Male | . 83 | 110 | . 63 | 65 | 2.87 | . 55 | . 50 | 24.99 | 53.80 |  |  |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Male | . 70 | 105 | . 34 | 63 | 3.12 | . 54 | 1.02 | 63.78 | 149.97 |  |  |
| Female | . 68 | 131 | . 57 | 112 | 1.48 | . 27 | . 34 | 74.63 |  | 1.17 |  |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Male | . 85 | 110 | . 55 | 65 | 3.92 | . 66 | . 70 |  |  |  |  |
| Female | . 83 | 137 | . 54 | 115 | 4.41 | . 62 | . 69 | 15.38 | 34.12 | 2.22* | . 97 |

black, white, male, and female. The SES sample of MZ and DZ twins, although small, provides the first opportunity to test this hereditarian hypothesis by social class for black and white twins. (Koch's (1966) twin study is similar in methodology, but the subjects were all white).

In Table VII-K mean IQ's and heritability coefficients are shown for three SES classes for each race and for the combined group. The table supports the hereditarian hypothesis. High IQ's are associated with high SES classes. For the middle and low SES classes of whites, Holzinger's (1929) and Nichols' (1970) heritability ratios are high and positive. The within-pair variance ratio of the middle SES class is also significant.

Analysis of the black twins is even more convincing. Within the black sample, twins in the highest SES class earned the highest IQ's. Intraclass correlations for the three SES classes are in the predicted direction, MZ $r>$ DZ $r$. The Holzinger (1929) and Nichols (1970) heritability ratios are high. In the high and middle SES classes, within-pair variance ratios are significant at the .01 level.

When the black and white samples are combined and the heritability ratios computed, the results are still more impressive. Twins in the highest SES classes achieved the highest general intelligence (IQ). Intraclass $r$ 's are high for both types of twins at all three SES levels, resulting in high heritability ratios and significant within-pair variance $F$ 's for the high and middle classes. The findings are consistent with the hereditarian hypothesis.

Correlations were computed between social class and IQ for the two races and for the total group. For the 126 whites the $r$ was -.37; for the 158 blacks, -.40 ; for the combined group, -.48 . These correlations are corroborated by the mental test literature from Binet (1895) to Jensen (1973a). Typical correlations reported by Bouchard (1976) are .42, .45, and . 57.

From the above analysis of data on IQ and social class, it is clear that twins of both races from the highest social classes earned highest general mental ability IQ scores. Even when analyzed by race, the high SES classes outperformed the middle and low classes. For neither MZ nor DZ twins did the high SES blacks equal or exceed the low SES whites.

The hereditarian hypothesis says that general intelligence is inherited, $60-80 \%$ of the variance being accounted for by genetic factors. If the hypothesis is correct, then all subpopulations should show similar patterns of general intelligence heritability ratios. In this analysis the intraclass correlations, heritability ratios, and within-pair variance ratios all yield congruent heritability patterns by social class for each race and for total group.

It should be noted that in this section twin study data were factor analyzed before heritability coefficients were computed. The first step
Table VII-K
Heritability Coefficients for Basic Battery Average IQ for Black and White Twins by Socio-economic Status: Classical Methods of Analysis Using Age-adjusted Standard Scores

| Socio-economic Status | MZ |  | DZ |  | Heritability Ratios |  | MZ |  | DZ |  | Within-pair Variances |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | r | N | r | N | H | HR | Mn | SD | Mn | SD | MZ | DZ | F |
| White |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| High | . 48 | 11 | . 57 | 7 | -. 21 | -. 37 | 116.2 | 6.7 | 100.1 | 8.7 | 31.8 |  |  |
| Middle | . 90 | 14 | . 14 | 11 | . 88 | 1.70 | 103.4 | 6.7 10.1 | 105.8 | 8.7 4.8 | 31.8 11.4 | 41.2 35.0 | 1.3* |
| Low | . 77 | 9 | . 54 | 11 | . 50 | . 60 | 103.3 | 10.8 | 105.8 99.8 | 7.8 7.0 | 11.4 | 35.0 29.0 | 3.1 2.4 |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| High | . 90 | 18 | . 58 | 11 | . 77 | . 72 | 97.0 | 7.9 | 96.5 | 7.9 | 6.5 | 34.0 | 5.3** |
| Middle | . 85 | 22 | . 31 | 9 | . 78 | 1.27 | 92.0 | 6.7 | 91.5 | 5.8 | 7.4 | 34.2 | 4.7** |
| Low | . 83 | 8 | . 61 | 11 | . 57 | . 53 | 88.4 | 4.6 | 89.1 | 4.7 | 3.9 | 35.2 10.8 | 2.8 |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| High | . 91 | 32 | . 71 | 18 | . 67 | . 42 | 104.7 | 12.2 | 100.3 | 9.5 | 4.9 |  |  |
| Middle | . 88 | 28 | . 31 | 20 | . 83 | 1.30 | 104.7 97.3 | 12.2 9.4 | 100.3 | 9.5 7.0 | 14.9 11.4 | 30.0 51.2 | 2.0****** |
| Low | . 91 | 22 | . 76 | 22 | . 62 | . 33 | 93.6 | 8.0 | 91.6 | 6.3 | 11.4 6.0 | 51.2 10.8 | 4.5******** 1.8 |

Note: Whites, blacks, and total group were each divided into three SES groups, based on the distribution of SES scores for each respective racial
group. group.
was to eliminate from the base group those individuals who did not have scores on all 29 tests or subtests of the Basic Battery. Seventyseven subjects were dropped, leaving 540 whites and 237 blacks.

For the initial factor analysis, the black and white groups were combined, and the first principal component was obtained for the total group. The groups were then separated by race, and the first principal component was computed for each race.

Once weights had been determined by the factor analyses, three factor scores were assigned to each subject: (a) one based on weights from the total group; (b) one based on weights from the white group; (c) one based on weights from the black group. Own-race determined factor scores were then intercorrelated with opposite-race determined scores and total group scores. The purpose here was to obtain a good general factor score for the entire test battery.

To determine if the first principal component factor scores were measuring the same mental factor in the two races, own-race determined factor scores were intercorrelated with cross-race and total group factor scores. All $r$ 's were $.99+$, suggesting that whatever mental factor is measured in the white group is the same as that measured in the black group and in the total sample.

To estimate the reliability of this method of cross-racial comparisons, the two racial groups were randomly split in half. Twins of a pair were always assigned to the same group to avoid spuriously high correlations. The first principal component was then obtained for each of the four new subgroups.

Three factor scores based on the factor analysis were assigned to each subject in the four subgroups. Factor scores obtained for own-race subgroup, opposite-race subgroup, and total racial group were then intercorrelated to test the method of comparing the same group, opposite group, and total group factor scores without introducing the variable of race. Similar factor weights across groups and high intercorrelations would suggest that the first principal component of this complex battery of mental tests is measuring the same general factor in both subgroups of each race. This is exactly what was found. Correlations for own subgroup, opposite subgroup, and total racial group factor scores were $.99+$ for blacks and for whites.

Table VII-L gives the factor loadings for all 29 subtests for each of the seven groups: total group, black and white groups separately, and the four randomly selected subgroups. Similarity of the seven groups with respect to the factor loadings is remarkable. Arithmetic subtests yield especially high loadings across all groups. Spelling and the two vocabulary tests also load heavily on the first principal component.

As an independent check of the validity of the first principal component factor scores, the three scores obtained from the analyses were correlated
Table VII-L
Loadings of the General Factor on 29 Tests or Subtests of the Basic Battery by Various Subgroups

| Test or Subtest |  | White Group |  |  | Black Group |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | Combined Total Group | Random Subgroup A | Random Subgroup B | Total | Random Subgroup A | Random Subgroup B | Total |
| Calendar | . 63 | . 64 | . 65 | . 64 | . 57 | . 60 | . 58 |
| Cube Comparisons-1 | . 48 | . 45 | . 53 | . 49 | . 58 | . 34 | . 46 |
| Cube Comparisons-2 | . 50 | . 54 | . 57 | . 56 | . 37 | . 29 | . 33 |
| Surface Development-1 | . 63 | . 63 | . 74 | . 68 | . 48 | . 47 | . 48 |
| Surface Development-2 | . 67 | . 69 | . 71 | . 71 | . 60 | . 54 | . 57 |
| Wide Range Vocabulary | . 47 | . 46 | . 55 | . 51 | . 23 | . 50 | . 37 |
| Form Board-1 | . 60 | . 63 | . 68 | . 66 | . 49 | . 35 | . 42 |
| Form Board-2 | . 54 | . 56 | . 59 | . 58 | . 57 | . 29 | . 43 |
| Arithmetic-1 | . 53 | . 54 | . 55 | . 54 | . 37 | . 58 | . 48 |
| Arithmetic-2 | . 55 | . 58 | . 49 | . 54 | . 47 | . 68 | . 58 |
| Arithmetic-3 | . 72 | . 73 | . 70 | . 72 | . 70 | . 79 | . 74 |
| Arithmetic-4 | . 71 | . 71 | . 69 | . 70 | . 71 | . 77 | . 74 |
| Arithmetic-5 | . 62 | . 65 | . 58 | . 61 | . 58 | . 70 | . 64 |
| Arithmetic-6 | . 66 | . 66 | . 62 | . 64 | . 77 | . 74 | . 75 |
| Arithmetic-7 | . 65 | . 65 | . 61 | . 63 | . 69 | . 76 | . 72 |
| Heim Vocabulary | . 70 | . 67 | . 71 | . 69 | . 73 | . 72 | . 72 |
| Paper Folding-1 | . 62 | . 66 | . 67 | . 66 | . 65 | . 39 | . 52 |
| Paper Folding-2 | . 57 | . 55 | . 61 | . 58 | . 58 | . 49 | . 53 |
| Object Aperture-1 | . 36 | . 40 | . 42 | . 41 | . 23 | . 24 | . 24 |
| Object Aperture-2 | . 42 | . 46 | . 55 | . 50 | . 32 | . 11 | . 21 |
| Identical Pictures-1 | . 39 | . 34 | . 51 | . 43 | . 26 | . 27 | . 27 |
| Identical Pictures-2 | . 46 | . 41 | . 59 | . 51 | . 40 | . 26 | . 32 |
| Spelling | . 59 | . 60 | . 51 | . 55 | . 72 | . 69 | . 70 |
| Spatial Relations-1 | . 60 | . 57 | . 67 | . 62 | . 62 | . 47 | . 54 |
| Spatial Relations-2 | . 53 | . 52 | . 55 | . 53 | . 50 | . 52 | . 51 |
| Spatial Relations-3 | . 65 | . 58 | . 70 | . 65 | . 68 | . 62 | . 65 |
| Spatial Relations-4 | . 62 | . 59 | . 73 | . 66 | . 55 | . 46 | . 51 |
| Spatial Relations-5 | . 68 | . 69 | . 71 | . 70 | . 68 | . 57 | . 62 |
| Spatial Relations-6 | . 60 | . 57 | . 57 | . 56 | . 70 | . 68 | . 69 |

with results from a standard IQ test, Primary Mental Abilities (Thurstone, 1963).

For whites, the PMA correlates .85 with both own-race and oppositerace factor scores; for blacks, .82 with own-race and .81 with oppositerace factor scores. These $r$ 's are significant and approach the test-retest reliability coefficients for the PMA.

From the above cross-race correlations, it is clear that the same general factor is being measured in each group separately and in the composite group when the two races are combined. When the races are split at random and factor analyzed, the high intercorrelations of the resulting factor scores indicate the significant reliability of the first principal components as a basis for the "cross-racial" correlations. The first principal component yields a general mental ability factor that is indistinguishable between races. Total group principal component factor scores correlate highly with an independent measure of IQ-. 85 for whites and .82 for blacks.

Once it was determined that the mental test factors generated by the first principal component analysis were stable and represented the same factor in each race, the groups were reassembled as twins for the final step in the analysis. Classical heritability ratios were applied to the nine factor scores derived from own-race, opposite-race, and total group factor analyses.

Heritability ratios for white, black, and total groups are shown in Table VII-M. In the top third of the table, factor scores of the subjects' own racial group were used to compute the heritability ratios. The results are clear, and the $F$ ratios for all comparisons are significant at the .01 level.

In the center of the table, opposite-race factor scores indicate no apparent change in heritability ratios from same-race factor scores. When the total group factor weights are used (lower third of Table VII-M), the results are indistinguishable from those obtained from own- and oppositerace analyses.

When a general mental factor, not unlike Spearman's $g$, is used to compute heritability ratios, not only are the $F$ ratios highly significant for own-race, other-race, and total group factor scores, but no significant difference is noted between the heritability ratios of the two races.

There were two main purposes of this chapter: first, to compare performance on a battery of mental ability tests for four subpopulationsrace, sex, zygosity, social class; and second, to examine the IQ heritability ratios by race, sex, and social class.

Three-way analysis of variance (race, sex, zygosity) and the classical heritability methods of Holzinger, Nichols, and Vandenberg were applied to 427 sets ( 304 white, 123 black) of like-sexed twins ranging in age from 12 to 20 . Although the small number of twins in some classes,

## Table VII-M

Heritability Ratios for Factor Scores Based on First Principal Component Analysis of Own-race, Opposite-race, and Total Group

| Score | Factor Weights from Own Racial Group |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | MZ |  | DZ |  | T(Cor) | Heritability Ratios |  | Within-pair Variances |  |  |  |
|  | cor | N | cor | N |  | H | HR | MZ | DZ | F | $\mathrm{U}^{\text {a }}$ |
| White | . 85 | 141 | . 63 | 115 | 3.89 | . 58 | . 50 | 3517.4 | 9335.4 | 2.65* |  |
| Black | . 91 | 70 | . 58 | 46 | 4.45 | . 79 | . 73 | 1619.3 | 6398.3 | 3.95* | . 31 |
| Total | . 91 | 211 | . 71 | 161 | 5.78 | . 67 | . 43 | 2887.7 | 8496.3 | 2.94* |  |

Factor Weights from Opposite Racial Group

| Score | MZ |  | DZ |  | T(Cor) | Heritability Ratios |  | Within-pair Variances |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | cor | N | cor | N |  | H | HR | MZ | DZ | F | $\mathbf{U}^{\text {a }}$ |
| White | . 85 | 141 | . 64 | 115 | 3.83 | . 58 | . 50 | 2839.1 | 7696.9 | 2.71* |  |
| Black | . 91 | 70 | . 56 | 46 | 4.46 | . 79 | . 77 | 1955.7 | 7340.8 | 3.75* | . 62 |
| Total | . 90 | 211 | . 71 | 161 | 5.48 | . 65 | . 42 | 2546.0 | 7595.1 | 2.98* |  |

Factor Weights from Total Group

| Score | MZ |  | DZ. |  | T(Cor) | Heritability Ratios |  | Within-pair Variances |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | cor | N | cor | N |  | H | HR | MZ | DZ | F | $\mathbf{U}^{\text {a }}$ |
| White | . 85 | 141 | . 63 | 115 | 3.88 | . 58 | . 50 | 3302.0 | 8822.3 | 2.67* |  |
| Black | . 91 | 70 | . 56 | 46 | 4.48 | . 79 | . 76 | 1838.9 | 7049.7 | 3.83* | . 47 |
| Total | . 87 | 211 | . 62 | 161 | 5.62 | . 65 | . 57 | 2816.6 | 8315.9 | 2.95* |  |

* $p<.01$.
${ }^{\boldsymbol{a}}$ difference in $U$ 's. Paulson's statistic for determining the significance of difference in $F$ 's.
especially black DZ, lowers the confidence level of heritability estimates, the consistency of the other results corroborates the hereditarian hypothesis.

For all 12 tests in the Basic Battery and for the total IQ, there is a significant race effect of about 10 IQ points ( $2 / 3 S D$ ) for most subtests. Significant sex differences were found for 7 of the 12 subtests. These findings are consistent with Maccoby and Jacklin, except for the higher arithmetic scores for girls than for boys.

The question of zygosity differences in test performance is puzzling. MZ twins of both races and MZ's of both sexes significantly outperformed comparable DZ's on 5 of the 12 Basic tests. The reason for the differential performances of the two types of twins is not clear, and the literature sheds little light on the problem. In a similar study Koch, using the PMA, found higher scores for DZ's than for MZ's. Husen reported the opposite.

The 142 sets of twins with both psychological and social class data provide a special opportunity to reexamine test performance differences
by race, zygosity, sex, and social class and to examine for the first time IQ heritability ratios for different social classes within races.

Socio-economic status explains a significant amount of difference in mean IQ's for 8 of the 12 Basic tests. There is no apparent difference in mean IQ's between the culturally loaded verbal tests and the nonverbal spatial tests. On the verbal, spatial, and full scale IQ tests, low SES whites outscore the highest SES blacks.

Classical heritability methods of Holzinger, Nichols, and Vandenberg were applied to the base group of 427 sets of like-sexed twins and 142 twin sets for whom social class data were available. Taken individually, the 12 tests of the Basic Battery show a wide range of heritability suggesting that the mental abilities tested are not uniform in their genetic and environmental characteristics. However, when subtests are combined, as they usually are to obtain an estimate of " g " or general intelligence (IQ), the results are unequivocal. In whatever manner all individual tests or subtests were pooled, by simply averaging the 12 standard scores, by combining the factor IQ's to get full scale IQ, or by using weighted scores determined from the first principal component factor analysis of either race singly or of both races combined, the results were the same. Heritability variance ratios for both blacks and whites were significant at the .01 level. In no case was the difference between variance ratios of the races significant.

Mental characteristics measured by the pooled scores of our comprehensive test battery correlate significantly with a standard IQ score and show congruent heritability patterns for blacks and whites.

A significant contribution of this chapter is a comparison of the IQ heritability ratios by social class and by race. Intraclass correlations, heritability ratios, and within-pair variance ratios yield similar heritability patterns by social class for each race and for the total group. On the basis of the analysis of the SES twin group, P. Nichols' ad hoc claim that environmental differences are important in determining heritability values should be rejected.

## VIII

## Primary Mental Abilities Test: Subpopulation Differences

The Primary Mental Abilities Test has gone through numerous revisions. The first experimental edition was published in 1938 by L. L. and Thelma G. Thurstone. Later editions were titled the Chicago Test of Primary Mental Abilities. Since 1962, when Science Research Associates assumed publication of the test, it has been called the SRA Test of Primary Mental Abilities.

According to the manual, the PMA Test (T. G. Thurstone, 1963) is designed to provide both multifactored and general measures of intelligence. The profile of primary mental abilities is useful in understanding individual differences in performance among children who appear to be comparable in general intelligence. The PMA general or total score-IQ-is an index of general intelligence which is comparable to scores on tests such as the Stanford-Binet and the Wechsler Intelligence Scale for Children.

The abilities measured by the PMA subtests are briefly:
Verbal Meaning: Ability to understand ideas expressed in words. In the later school years this is the most important single index of a child's potential for handling academic tasks.
Number Facility: Ability to work with numbers, to handle simple quantitative problems rapidly and accurately, and to understand and recognize quantitative differences.
Reasoning: Ability to solve logical problems.
Spatial Relations: Ability to visualize objects and figures rotated in space and the relations between them. The test measuring this ability appears in every level of the PMA.

The PMA subtest scores are reported as quotient equivalents which are functions of raw scores and ages. The total raw score is the sum of the four subtest raw scores and is converted to an intelligence quotient, which is also a function of raw score and age. Norms are based on a nationwide standardization program of 32,393 school children. Participating schools were drawn randomly from the Directory of Public Secondary Day Schools 1958-59, U.S. Department of HEW, Office of Education.

At least five other twin studies used some version of Thurstone's original test. The results of the studies, including one by Thurstone, are summarized in Table VIII-A. Blewett, Thurstone, and Vandenberg (two studies) used the Chicago PMA Test, which had four subtests common to the SRA PMA, but no total IQ. Although Koch was the first to give the SRA PMA to twins, she had no intention of getting into a discussion of the "heredity-environment problem," although she conveniently provided the PMA intraclass $r$ 's for her MZ and DZ twins from which $h^{2}$ can be derived. The within-pair variance ratios were computed by the formula Vandenberg used to obtain $F$ ratios for Blewett's study. When we consider that the five studies were conducted independently over a period of 12 years by different investigators with different sampling techniques, the results are remarkably consistent. Despite the small sample sizes, Verbal and Space tests consistently show significant withinpair variance $F$ ratios. Word Fluency, a Chicago but not a SRA PMA subtest, yielded significant $\boldsymbol{F}$ ratios in the four earlier studies. Although no subtest scores were available for the Koch study, the total IQ withinpair variance $F$ ratio is convincingly significant.

In the present study, 143 sets of twins took the PMA Battery, a relatively small number compared to the 427 sets of twins comprising the Basic Battery sample. As often as possible the same analyses reported for the Basic Battery (Chapter VII) will be used with the PMA Test to compare the two samples and the two test batteries.

It will be recalled that the Basic Battery was not standardized as a test battery. Instead, each subtest was selected to represent one of the primary mental abilities based on the analyses provided in the test manuals or on the information in the ETS Kit of Reference Tests (French, et al., 1963). The PMA, on the other hand, is based on Thurstone's theory that certain mental activities have in common a primary factor that distinguishes them from other groups of mental activities, and that each of these other groups has a different primary factor in common. In addition to the primary abilities, Thurstone found high intercorrelations among the subtests and concluded that a second order general factor existed. This position is now widely held by test theorists.

To compare scores of the relatively unknown tests of the Basic Battery with those of the widely used and standardized Primary Mental Abilities,
Table VIII-A
Fratios of DZ to MZ Within-pair Variances

|  | $\begin{gathered} \text { Blewett }^{\mathrm{a}} \\ (1954) \end{gathered}$ | Thurstone et al. (1955) | $\begin{aligned} & \text { Vandenberg } \\ & \text { (1962) } \end{aligned}$ | Vandenberg (1964) | $\begin{gathered} \text { Kocha }^{\mathrm{a}} \\ (1966) \end{gathered}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Name of Score | $\mathrm{N}_{\mathrm{Dz}} 26 \mathrm{~N}_{\mathrm{Mz}} 26$ | $\mathrm{N}_{\mathrm{Dz}} 53 \mathrm{~N}_{\mathrm{Mz}} 45$ | $\mathrm{N}_{\mathrm{dz}} 37 \mathrm{~N}_{\mathrm{Mz}} 45$ | $\mathrm{N}_{\mathrm{Dz}} 36 \mathrm{~N}_{\mathrm{Mz}} 76$ | $\mathrm{N}_{\mathrm{Dz}} 60 \mathrm{~N}_{\mathrm{Mz}} 66$ |
| Verbal | 3.13** | 2.81** | 2.65** | 1.74** | Not reported |
| Space | 2.04* | 4.19** | 1.77* | 3.51** | "1 |
| Number | 1.07 | 1.52 | 2.58** | 2.26** | " " |
| Reasoning | 2.78** | 1.35 | 1.40 | 1.10 | " " |
| Word Fluency | 2.78** | 2.47** | 2.57** | 2.24** | - |
| Memory | not used | 1.62* | 1.26 | not used | - |
| PMA Total IQ | - | - | - | - | 2.62** |
| * $p<.05$. <br> ** $p<01$. <br> ${ }^{a} \boldsymbol{F}$ ratios calc conclusions arri | $h^{2}$ values by discussion. | $F=\frac{1}{1-h^{2}} . \mathrm{Thi}$ | minor inac | ould not af | trend of the |

Note. Data in this table, except for the Koch study, were taken from a table by Vandenberg (1967c).

Table VIII-B
Correlations of Tests in the Basic Battery with SRA Primary Mental Abilities (143 Sets of Like-sexed Twins)

|  | Primary Mental Abilities |  |  |  |  |
| :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Basic Battery <br> (Age-adjusted Standard Scores) | Verbal | Number <br> Facility | Reasoning | Spatial <br> Relations | Total IQ |
| Calendar | .52 | .53 | .67 | .52 | .64 |
| Cube Comparisons | .37 | .44 | .49 | .49 | .55 |
| Surface Development | .49 | .54 | .64 | .51 | .64 |
| Wide Range Vocabulary | .54 | .44 | .46 | .42 | .53 |
| Form Board | .52 | .61 | .65 | .58 | .69 |
| Arithmetic | .56 | .57 | .70 | .48 | .66 |
| Heim Vocabulary | .74 | .66 | .80 | .57 | .79 |
| Paper Folding | .50 | .60 | .65 | .41 | .69 |
| Object Aperture | .35 | .49 | .46 | .39 | .49 |
| Identical Pictures | .35 | .26 | .32 | .29 | .37 |
| Spelling | .57 | .49 | .66 | .40 | .61 |
| Spatial Relations | .58 | .68 | .74 | .68 | .80 |
| Average (Full Scale IQ) | .73 | .75 | .87 | .71 | .89 |

tests of the two batteries were correlated (Table VIII-B). The table of correlations looks much like the table of Wechsler subtest intercorrelations. Correlation between the Basic Battery Full Scale IQ and PMA IQ is .89 , which approaches the test-retest reliability of most paper and pencil intelligence tests.

The same SAS program used in the analysis of variance for the Basic Battery was applied to the Primary Mental Abilities Test sample. The results of the analysis of variance are shown in Table VIII-C. Race shows the only significant and consistent main effect in the analysis. The Spatial Relations subtest and PMA IQ show significant sex differences. SES effects contributing to mean differences are significant for the Verbal and Reasoning subtests and also for the total PMA IQ. Only 8 of the possible 55 interactions among the four classifications are significant, only one interaction (sex x zygosity) being significant for more than one test variable.

Least squares means are reported in Table VIII-D. Since only 8 of the possible 55 interactions are significant, least squares means are given for major classifications only.

Race differences in test performance revealed by the PMA are much greater than those found for the Basic Battery (Chapter VII). In most instances, the differences approach one full standard deviation. For the PMA total IQ, the white mean is 101.7; the mean for blacks is 85.5 . Subtest differences are somewhat less than for total IQ, but still remain in the 15 IQ point range.

The two significant sex differences favor boys, whose slight superiority on the Number subtest and significant superiority on the Spatial subtest

Table VIII－C
Race，Sex，Socio－economic Status，and Zygosity Effects Contributing to Differences in Means of the Primary Mental Abilities Test

| PMA Scores | 岛 | $\stackrel{x}{4}$ | 岛 | $\begin{aligned} & \overparen{V} \\ & \text { O} \\ & \text { N } \\ & \text { N } \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & x \\ & \text { 山 } \\ & \times \\ & \times \\ & \tilde{y} \\ & \cline { 1 - 2 } \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \text { W } \\ & \text { む } \\ & \times \\ & \times \\ & \text { W } \\ & \text { W } \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \text { U } \\ & \text { d } \\ & \times \\ & \times \\ & \times \\ & \text { 岂 } \end{aligned}$ |  |  |  |  |  |  |  | $\times$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Verbal | ＊＊ |  | ＊＊ |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Number Facility |  |  | ＊＊ |  |  |  |  |  |  | ＊ | ＊ |  |  | ＊ |  |
| Reasoning | ＊＊ |  | ＊＊ |  |  |  |  |  |  | ＊＊ |  |  |  |  |  |
| Spatial Relations |  | ＊＊ | ＊＊ |  |  | ＊ |  | ＊＊ |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Total IQ | ＊＊ | ＊ | ＊＊ |  |  |  |  |  |  | ＊ |  | ＊ |  |  |  |

＊$p<.05$ ．
＊＊$p<.01$ ．
were not unexpected（see Chapter VII）．What was unexpected was the non－significant difference favoring boys on the Verbal subtest（see Mac－ coby \＆Jacklin，1974）．

Although zygosity differences are not significant for any PMA subtest or the total IQ，least squares means are shown by zygosity for the PMA scores．

The PMA test scores for the three SES classes follow the pattern reported by Tyler，a pattern which also appeared in the analysis of the Basic Battery（Chapter VII）．Our reports are compatible with Koch＇s study，＂Twins and Twin Relations＂（1966），which analyzed the PMA scores by SES．Koch found differences to be most uniform in the social

Table VIII－D
Least Squares Means for the Primary Mental Abilities Test by Race，Sex，Socio－ economic Status，and Zygosity

| PMA Scores | Race |  | Sex |  | Socio－economic Status |  |  | Zygosity |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | White | Black | Male | Female | SES 1 | SES 2 | SES 3 | MZ | DZ |
| PMA Verbal | 102.0 | 90.5 | 96.5 | 95.9 | 100.5 | 96.1 | 92.1 | 95.4 | 97.1 |
| PMA Number Facility | 101.5 | 86.0 | 94.5 | 92.9 | 96.7 | 94.3 | 90.3 | 95.0 | 92.5 |
| PMA Reasoning | 103.6 | 89.3 | 96.3 | 96.6 | 102.1 | 98.0 | 89.2 | 96.0 | 96.9 |
| PMA Spatial Relations | 101.7 | 92.0 | 99.9 | 93.9 | 98.7 | 98.2 | 93.7 | 97.1 | 96.6 |
| PMA Total IQ | 101.7 | 85.5 | 95.8 | 91.5 | 98.2 | 94.8 | 87.9 | 93.7 | 93.5 |

[^5]class variable. Subjects from the lowest class performed least well on all subtests of the PMA except the Spatial Test. In this study, however, all subtests, including the Spatial Test, followed the pattern reported by Tyler, with SES effects being significant for Verbal, Reasoning, and Total IQ (Tables VIII-C and VIII-D).

In Table VIII-E, heritability ratios are shown for black, white, and total group. All $\boldsymbol{F}$ ratios are insignificant for whites. On the other hand, Number, Reasoning, and Spatial subtests and total PMA IQ show significant within-pair variance ratios for blacks. The pattern of significant heritability components for blacks is much like that of the five earlier studies reviewed in Table VIII-A. The small numbers of twins in each of the six studies in which the PMA has been used make interpretation of the separate heritability coefficients hazardous. However, the consistency of the findings of significant within-pair variance $F$ ratios indicates a likelihood of a high heritability component in most if not all subtests and in the total PMA IQ. Examination of the three heritability ratios (within-pair variance ratios, Holzinger's $H$ ratios, and Nichol's $H R$ ratios) shown in Table VIII-E suggests higher heritability for blacks than for whites.

Table VIII-E
Heritability Coefficients on SRA Primary Mental Abilities Test by Total Group and by Race

| Variable | MZ |  | DZ |  | T(Cor) | Heritability Ratios |  | Within-pair Variances |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | r | N | r | N |  | H | HR | MZ | DZ | F |
| PMA Verbal |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| White | . 74 | 34 | . 53 | 29 | 1.37 | . 45 | . 57 | 53.68 | 85.97 | 1.60 |
| Black | . 33 | 48 | . 24 | 32 | . 40 | . 11 | . 53 | 112.33 | 96.08 | . 86 |
| Total | . 65 | 82 | . 51 | 61 | 1.25 | . 29 | . 44 | 88.01 | 91.27 | 1.04 |
| PMA Number Facility |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| White | . 58 | 34 | . 70 | 29 | -. 73 | -. 38 | -. 39 | 127.91 | 56.07 | . 44 |
| Black | . 64 | 48 | . 33 | 32 | 1.73 | . 46 | . 97 | 62.08 | 124.67 | 2.01* |
| Total | . 72 | 82 | . 61 | 61 | 1.20 | . 29 | . 32 | 89.38 | 92.06 | 1.03 |
| PMA Reasoning |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| White | . 78 | 34 | . 52 | 29 | 1.76 | . 54 | . 67 | 50.65 | 70.14 | 1.39 |
| Black | . 73 | 48 | . 62 | 32 | . 88 | . 30 | . 31 | 49.15 | 85.72 | 1.74* |
| Total | . 84 | 82 | . 69 | 61 | 2.12 | . 48 | . 35 | 49.77 | 78.31 | 1.57* |
| PMA Spatial Relations |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| White | . 35 | 34 | . 20 | 29 | . 61 | . 19 | . 86 | 137.63 | 145.16 | 1.06 |
| Black | . 60 | 48 | . 36 | 32 | 1.32 | . 37 | . 80 | 59.60 | 111.52 | 1.87* |
| Total | . 59 | 82 | . 36 | 61 | 1.70 | . 35 | . 76 | 91.96 | 127.51 | 1.39 |
| PMA Total IQ |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| White | . 69 | 34 | . 51 | 29 | 1.08 | . 37 | . 52 | 86.46 | 106.50 | 1.23 |
| Black | . 71 | 48 | . 49 | 32 | 1.43 | . 42 | . 61 | 57.41 | 117.97 | 2.06* |
| Total | . 81 | 82 | . 62 | 61 | 2.36 | . 51 | . 48 | 69.45 | 112.52 | 1.62* |

* $p<.05$.


## IX

## Cattell Culture Fair Intelligence Test: Subpopulation Differences

To separate the evaluation of "natural intelligence" from school achievement scores, the Cattell Culture Fair Intelligence Test appears to be an ideal instrument to supplement the Basic Battery and the Primary Mental Abilities Test. The Cattell test is specifically designed to avoid the effects of social, educational, and racial background in estimating the real potential of the individual. According to the CCFIT manual, testing is undergoing steady but profound changes. The new movement began with the demonstration that the general ability factor which runs through intelligence-demanding acts can be measured by perceptual, nonverbal, as well as by verbal tests. Cattell and Cattell (1965) say that most current intelligence tests are looking backward instead of forward.

That is to say, instead of measuring the child's capacity to learn in the future, they are recording what he has had opportunity to learn in the past. Such intelligence tests, depending heavily on learned verbal and numerical skills, correlate well with scholastic achievement in the same year because they themselves consist largely of learned scholastic skills, as distinct from intellective capacity and potential. (p. 3)

It is claimed that the CCFIT gives a more honest evaluation of future potential for school children from diverse homes and cultural backgrounds. The nonverbal aspect of the test has encouraged research with children who do not speak English. The same form of the CCFIT has been given to French, Italian, Chinese, and Japanese children with equal
success. One investigator (Fowler, 1955) found that groups of whites and Negroes of comparable social status do not differ significantly in test distributions. The usual sex differences found on group intelligence tests are not reported on the Cattell scale. "The test, therefore, deals with the core of general 'relation education capacity,' which many researchers have shown to be largely inborn, and a relatively constant characteristic (IQ) for the individual" (Cattell, 1960, p. 6).
Scale 2 of the CCFIT was designed for children aged 8 to 14 and for average unselected adults. It consists of two parallel forms, A and B, each composed of 46 items arranged in four subtests and requiring $121 / 2$ minutes of total working time. Following the suggestions in the manual, both forms of Scale 2 were administered to 143 sets of likesexed twins. The method of analysis is the same as that used with the Basic Battery and the PMA.

Tables IX-A and IX-B show correlation coefficients between the CCFIT and the two other intelligence scales used in the Twin Study. The $r$ 's between the CCFIT IQ's and both the Basic Battery and PMA are consistently high. Whatever the CCFIT measures is also measured by the PMA and by the tests of the Basic Battery. Intercorrelations of the three Cattell IQ's (Table IX-C) are in most cases higher than the reliabilities reported in the CCFIT manual. For Form A, Classical IQ score correlates with the Culture Fair IQ . 95 and with Attainment-Contaminated IQ .98, and Culture Fair IQ vs. Attainment-Contaminated IQ is .97 . For Form B, the $r$ 's are $.96, .98$, and .97 . It would appear

Table IX-A
Correlation of Basic Battery Tests With Cattell Culture Fair Intelligence Test

| Basic Battery <br> (Age Standard Scores) | Cattell Culture Fair IQ's |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | Form A |  |  | Form B |  |  | Forms A + B |  |  |
|  | C | SCF | SAC | C | SCF | SAC | C | SCF | SAC |
| Calendar | . 60 | . 61 | . 60 | . 58 | . 58 | . 57 | . 62 | . 64 | . 62 |
| Cube Comparisons | . 48 | . 50 | . 49 | . 47 | . 49 | . 46 | . 50 | . 53 | . 51 |
| Surface Development | . 60 | . 66 | . 62 | . 55 | . 58 | . 54 | . 60 | . 66 | . 62 |
| Wide Range Vocabulary | . 39 | . 40 | . 39 | . 36 | . 35 | . 35 | . 39 | . 40 | . 39 |
| Form Board | . 63 | . 66 | . 63 | . 59 | . 61 | . 59 | . 65 | . 68 | . 65 |
| Arithmetic | . 54 | . 52 | . 54 | . 51 | . 47 | . 49 | . 55 | . 53 | . 55 |
| Heim Vocabulary | . 66 | . 61 | . 64 | . 63 | . 58 | . 59 | . 68 | . 64 | . 66 |
| Paper Folding | . 66 | . 65 | . 64 | . 61 | . 61 | . 59 | . 67 | . 67 | . 66 |
| Object Aperture | . 53 | . 56 | . 53 | . 47 | . 49 | . 47 | . 53 | . 56 | . 53 |
| Identical Pictures | . 32 | . 29 | . 32 | . 26 | . 24 | . 28 | . 31 | . 28 | . 32 |
| Spelling | . 50 | . 45 | . 50 | . 49 | . 43 | . 46 | . 52 | . 48 | . 51 |
| Spatial Relations | . 75 | . 73 | . 74 | . 70 | . 67 | . 68 | . 76 | . 75 | . 75 |
| Average | . 79 | . 79 | . 79 | . 74 | . 73 | . 73 | . 81 | . 81 | . 81 |

Note. $\mathrm{C} I Q=$ Clasical IQ
SCF IQ = Standard Score, Culture Fair IQ
SAC IQ = Standard Score, Attainment-Contaminated IQ

Table IX-B
Correlations of Primary Mental Abilities Test With Cattell Culture Fair Intelligence Test

| Primary Mental Abilities | Cattell Culture Fair IQ's |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | Form A |  |  | Form B |  |  | Forms A + B |  |  |
|  | C | SCF | SAC | C | SCF | SAC | C | SCF | SAC |
| Verbal | . 55 | . 55 | . 55 | . 50 | . 50 | . 48 | . 56 | . 57 | . 55 |
| Number Facility | . 66 | . 63 | . 64 | . 64 | . 63 | . 62 | . 68 | . 67 | . 67 |
| Reasoning | . 71 | . 69 | . 70 | . 69 | . 66 | . 66 | . 74 | . 72 | . 72 |
| Spatial Relations | . 61 | . 61 | . 59 | . 58 | . 58 | . 57 | . 63 | . 64 | . 62 |
| Total | . 74 | . 73 | . 72 | . 71 | . 69 | . 69 | . 76 | . 76 | . 75 |
| $\begin{aligned} & \text { Note. } \mathrm{C} \mathrm{IQ}=\text { Classical } \\ & \text { SCF IQ }=\text { Standa } \\ & \text { SAC IQ }=\text { Standa } \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \text { Scor } \\ & \text { Scor } \end{aligned}$ | Cultur | Fair IQ <br> ent-Co |  |  |  |  |  |  |

Table IX-C
Correlation Matrix of Nine Intelligence Quotients Derived From the Cattell Culture Fair Intelligence Test

| Cattell IQ's | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Form A |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| $1 \quad$ Classical | .95 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| $2 \quad$ Culture Fair | .98 | .97 |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| $3 \quad$ Attainment-Contaminated |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Form B | .81 | .76 | .79 |  |  |  |  |  |
| $4 \quad$ Classical | .76 | .75 | .75 | .96 |  |  |  |  |
| $5 \quad$ Culture Fair | .78 | .74 | .77 | .98 | .97 |  |  |  |
| 6 Attainment-Contaminated |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Forms A + B | .95 | .90 | .93 | .95 | .90 | .92 |  |  |
| $7 \quad$ Classical | .91 | .94 | .92 | .92 | .93 | .91 | .96 |  |
| $8 \quad$ Culture Fair | .94 | .91 | .94 | .93 | .91 | .94 | .98 | .97 |
| 9 | Attainment-Contaminated |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |

that the CCFIT not only measures the same abilities as conventional intelligence tests, but also that the three CCFIT scores themselves exhibit very small differences.

Another way of comparing tests on the Basic Battery, the PMA test, and the CCFIT IQ's is to factor analyze, using the Varimax method, the 19 subtests representing these three tests of mental ability. Six factors were obtained: (1) Spatial Orientation, (2) Verbal Comprehension, (3) Perceptual Speed, (4) Vocabulary, (5) Visualization 1, and (6) Visualization 2 (Table IX-D).

Factors 5 and 6 are very much alike. The CCFIT IQ's load neither factor significantly. Surface Development, Form Board, and Spatial Relations of the Basic Battery load both visualization factors almost equally. Spatial Relations subtest of the PMA loads Viz-2 but not Viz-1. PMA

Table IX-D
Factor Analysis of Basic Battery, Primary Mental Abilities Test, and Cattell Culture Fair Intelligence Test

|  |  |  | Factor 1 |
| :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |

Number Facility loads Viz-1 but not Viz-2. The two visualization factors are identified by two tests from the Basic Battery, Viz-1 by Object Aperture and Viz-2 by Cube Comparisons. The Object Aperture Test requires the subject to determine how a three-dimensional object looks from all directions and then to select one of five openings through which the object will pass. Cube Comparisons is adapted from Thurstone's cubes. Assuming no cube can have two identical faces, the subject is to decide whether the two cubes can represent the same cube or must represent different cubes. The process of obtaining the correct answer may involve verbal reasoning. Viz-2 may also involve two-dimensional space.

There is little question about factor 4, Vocabulary. The two vocabulary tests from the Basic Battery load this factor as does the PMA Verbal Test. No CCFIT IQ loads factor 4 significantly.

Factor 3, Perceptual Speed, is loaded significantly by only one test, the Identical Pictures Test from the Basic Battery. This factor analysis confirms the analysis of the Basic Battery reported in Chapter VII.

Factor 2 is Verbal Comprehension. Spelling, Heim Vocabulary, and Arithmetic tests of the Basic Battery and PMA Verbal, Reasoning, and

Number subtests all load this factor heavily but not the CCFIT IQ's.
Factor 1, Spatial Orientation, is easily identified by the three CCFIT IQ's all of which load this factor above .80. Calendar, Newcastle Spatial Test, Form Board, and Paper Folding from the Basic Battery and the Spatial and Reasoning tests from the PMA identify factor 1 . This analysis of the tests used in the Twin Study indicates that the three CCFIT IQ's are factorially very much like the spatial tests of the PMA and the Basic Battery.

The CCFIT manual claims there is good evidence that a high degree of independence from particular social skills has been reached in the CCFIT. The user is cautioned, however, not to interpret this to mean that the test has no correlation with social status. The manual points out that we must distinguish between a truly existing positive correlation caused by the natural tendency of people with greater mental capacity to enter more complex occupations and the spurious correlations due to persons of higher social status tending to have educational advantages with regard to those cultural skills which contaminate conventional IQ tests.

Our data show that the CCFIT by no means loses all correlation with social status. In fact, the combined scores of the two CCFIT scales correlate with socio-economic status as follows: Classical IQ, -.36 ; Culture Fair IQ, -.38; and Attainment-Contaminated IQ, -.37. (In the Twin Study low scores represent high SES). These $r$ 's differ insignificantly from those reported between the Basic Battery and SES, and between the PMA and SES.
So far, there appears to be little real difference between scores obtained on an omnibus intelligence test, a factor-pure IQ scale, and a culture fair intelligence test. The subjects are ranked pretty much the same by the three different tests.

From the CCFIT literature it would be expected that sex and race would contribute less to score variances of the CCFIT than to the more conventional tests, such as the PMA. A fourway analysis of variance was used to determine if score covariances of the nine CCFIT scores are attributable to any or all of the four classes-race, sex, zygosity, and social class.

Table IX-E shows that race and SES are the only significant main effects variables. SES effect is discounted for three reasons: (1) it occurs only on Form B; (2) it is only significant at the .05 level; (3) it disappears when Forms A and B are combined before the analysis is made. On the other hand, the race effect is highly significant. On all nine CCFIT IQ's race differences are significant at the .01 level.

Of the 99 possible interaction terms in the analysis, race-zygosity for the Culture Fair IQ on Form B is the only significant one, and it is most likely to be the result of a sampling accident.

Table IX-E
Effects Contributing to Differences in Means of Cattell Culture Fair IQ's Between Subpopulations: Race, Sex, Zygosity, and Socio-economic Status

| IQ | 岛 | $\begin{aligned} & x \\ & \text { w } \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \text { 凹్ } \\ & \text { N } \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \underset{U}{B} \\ & \text { O} \\ & \text { N } \end{aligned}$ |  |  |  |  | E O O N $\times$ $\times$ n |  | $\begin{aligned} & \stackrel{\rightharpoonup}{\sim} \\ & \underset{\sim}{x} \\ & \times \\ & \underset{w}{\sim} \\ & \times \\ & \underset{\sim}{n} \end{aligned}$ |  |  | $\text { SEX } \times \text { RACE } \times \mathbf{Z Y G}$ |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Form A |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Classical |  |  | ** |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Culture Fair |  |  | ** |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Attainment- |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Form B |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Classical | * |  | ** |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Culture Fair | * |  | ** |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  | * |  |  |  |
| AttainmentContaminated | * |  | ** |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Forms A + B |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Classical |  |  | ** |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Culture Fair |  |  | ** |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| AttainmentContaminated |  |  | ** |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |

* $p<.05$.
** $p<.01$.

Least squares means for the Cattell test are shown in Table IX-F. Altogether there are nine IQ's: Classical IQ, Culture Fair IQ, and Attain-ment-Contaminated IQ for both Forms A and B, and three additional IQ's representing the combined scores of the two CCFIT forms. Although race was the only variable showing significant main effects on the CCFIT, means for sex, SES, and zygosity are listed in the table. The whiteblack differences on the CCFIT are by far the largest found on any test used in the Twin Survey. Classical IQ's for Form A differ by over 20 points for the two races. Even means on the Culture Fair IQ's differ by 14 or more points. Only $14-16 \%$ of the blacks earned scores reaching or exceeding the white means. This is not only true for the separate IQ's of each form but for the IQ's of the combined forms. Also shown in Table IX-F are the least squares means for the CCFIT by sex, zygosity, and social class. Differences are not significant. However, the direction of the difference is consistent with that found for tests of spatial ability on the Basic Battery and the Spatial subtest of the PMA. On the CCFIT boys $>$ girls, high SES $>$ middle SES $>$ low SES, and MZ's $>$ DZ's.

Table IX-F
Least Squares Means for Cattell Culture Fair Intelligence Tests By Race, Sex, Socio-economic Status, and Zygosity

| IQ | Race |  | Sex |  | SES |  |  | Zygosity |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | W | B | M | F | 1 | 2 | 3 | MZ | DZ |
| Form A |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Classical | 100.15 | 79.11 | 91.57 | 87.68 | 91.53 | 90.60 | 86.75 | 91.97 | 87.28 |
| Culture Fair | 98.90 | 82.37 | 91.99 | 89.27 | 92.64 | 91.97 | 87.28 | 92.94 | 88.32 |
| AttainmentContaminated | 98.89 | 86.33 | 93.64 | 91.58 | 94.47 | 93.32 | 90.04 | 94.09 | 91.12 |
| Form B |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Classical | 98.84 | 81.49 | 91.22 | 89.11 | 94.33 | 91.43 | 84.74 | 92.54 | 87.79 |
| Culture Fair | 97.22 | 83.61 | 91.42 | 89.42 | 94.62 | 91.54 | 85.09 | 92.73 | 88.10 |
| AttainmentContaminated | 97.89 | 87.58 | 93.51 | 91.96 | 95.98 | 93.14 | 89.09 | 94.53 | 90.94 |
| Forms A+B |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Classical | 99.75 | 80.52 | 91.62 | 88.65 | 93.14 | 91.25 | 86.02 | 92.50 | 87.77 |
| Culture Fair | 98.28 | 83.18 | 91.93 | 89.54 | 93.82 | 91.97 | 86.40 | 93.04 | 88.42 |
| AttainmentContaminated | 98.65 | 87.17 | 93.78 | 92.03 | 95.45 | 93.47 | 89.81 | 94.54 | 91.27 |

Note. $1=$ High SES group
2 = Middle SES group
3 = Low SES group

Since the race effect is highly significant, least squares means are computed for the nine CCFIT IQ's for SES, zygosity, and sex for each race (Table IX-G). Although the interactions are insignificant, interesting trends are observed in Table IX-G. For all nine CCFIT IQ's, blacks follow the pattern: high SES $>$ middle SES $>$ low SES. The pattern for whites is consistent but different: middle SES $>$ high SES $>$ low SES.

White MZ's consistently outperformed white DZ's on all nine CCFIT IQ's with differences ranging from five to ten points. Blacks, on the other hand, show almost no difference in MZ and DZ mean IQ's. On the nine test variables, differences range from zero to one IQ point.

The next step in the analysis of the CCFIT IQ's is to compute the heritability ratios for the nine separate IQ's (Table IX-H). Because of the large significant IQ differences between the races, heritability ratios will be reported for each race separately but not for the combined group. No within-pair $F$ ratio is significant for any CCFIT IQ for the black group. For whites the $F$ ratios for the Classical IQ on Form A and Classical IQ on the A plus B combination are significant. The finding of insignificant heritability ratios for all nine black IQ's contrasts with the PMA analysis which showed significant $F$ ratios for blacks and the combined group but not for whites. The sample size is not a factor since the same twins were subjects for both the PMA and CCFIT anal-
Table IX-G
Least Squares Means for Cattell Culture Fair Intelligence Test for Socio-economic Status and Zygosity for Whites and Blacks

| IQ | White |  |  | Black |  |  | White |  | Black |  | White |  | Black |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | SES 1 | SES 2 | SES 3 | SES 1 | SES 2 | SES 3 | MZ | DZ | MZ | DZ | M | F | M | F |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Classical | 100.5 | 102.2 | 97.8 | 82.6 | 79.0 | 75.7 | 104.4 | 95.9 | 79.6 | 78.6 | 101.0 | 99.3 | 82.2 | 76.0 |
| Culture Fair | 100.0 | 101.4 | 95.3 | 85.2 | 82.6 | 79.3 | 103.1 | 94.7 | 82.8 | 81.9 | 98.7 | 99.0 | 85.2 | 79.5 |
| AttainmentContaminated | 99.4 | 100.5 | 96.7 | 89.5 | 86.1 | 83.4 | 101.6 | 96.2 | 86.6 | 86.1 | 98.8 | 98.9 | 88.5 | 84.2 |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Classical | 99.8 | 103.3 | 93.4 | 88.9 | 79.5 | 76.1 | 103.8 | 93.8 | 81.2 | 81.7 | 99.4 | 98.3 | 83.1 | 79.9 |
| Culture Fair | 99.8 | 100.9 | 91.0 | 89.4 | 82.2 | 79.2 | 102.2 | 92.3 | 83.3 | 83.9 | 97.5 | 97.0 | 85.4 | 81.9 |
| AttainmentContaminated | 99.5 | 100.1 | 94.1 | 92.4 | 86.2 | 84.1 | 101.3 | 94.5 | 87.7 | 87.4 | 98.2 | 97.6 | 88.8 | 86.3 |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Classical | 100.4 | 103.0 | 95.9 | 85.9 | 79.5 | 76.1 | 104.4 | 95.1 | 80.6 | 80.4 | 100.4 | 99.1 | 82.8 | 78.2 |
| Culture Fair | 100.1 | 101.3 | 93.4 | 87.5 | 82.6 | 79.4 | 102.9 | 93.7 | 83.2 | 83.2 | 98.3 | 98.2 | 85.5 | 80.9 |
| AttainmentContaminated | 99.7 | 100.6 | 95.7 | 91.2 | 86.4 | 84.0 | 101.7 | 95.6 | 87.4 | 87.0 | 98.7 | 98.6 | 88.8 | 85.5 |
| $\text { Note. } \begin{aligned} 1 & =\text { High } \mathbf{S} \\ 2 & =\text { Middle } \\ 3 & =\text { Low S } \end{aligned}$ | group ES grou group |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |

## Table IX-H

Heritability Coefficients for Nine IQ's Derived from Cattell Culture Fair
Intelligence Test for Black and White Twins: Classical Methods of Analysis

| Culture Fair Intelligence Test | MZ |  | DZ |  | T(Cor) | Heritability Ratios |  | Within-pair Variances |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | r | N | r | N |  | H | HR | MZ | DZ | F |
| Form A-C IQ |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| White | . 75 | 34 | . 35 | 29 | 2.27 | . 61 | 1.07 | 118.2 | 227.6 | 1.93* |
| Black | . 53 | 48 | . 55 | 32 | -. 08 | -. 08 | -. 05 | 225.7 | 178.8 | . 79 |
| Form A-SCF IQ |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| White | . 66 | 34 | . 27 | 29 | 1.93 | . 53 | 1.18 | 177.7 | 208.4 | 1.17 |
| Black | . 63 | 48 | . 57 | 32 | . 36 | . 13 | . 17 | 107.5 | 69.6 | . 65 |
| Form A-SAC IQ |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| White | . 69 | 34 | . 31 | 29 | 1.99 | . 55 | 1.11 | 84.2 | 104.4 | 1.24 |
| Black | . 54 | 48 | . 48 | 32 | . 32 | . 11 | . 21 | 92.8 | 81.9 | . 88 |
| Form B-C IQ |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| White | . 63 | 34 | . 29 | 29 | 1.64 | . 48 | 1.07 | 142.6 | 189.6 | 1.33 |
| Black | . 61 | 48 | . 52 | 32 | . 55 | . 19 | . 30 | 151.8 | 211.4 | 1.39 |
| Form B-SCF IQ |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| White | . 62 | 34 | . 36 | 29 | 1.29 | . 40 | . 82 | 177.0 | 117.3 | . 66 |
| Black | . 54 | 48 | . 44 | 32 | . 57 | . 19 | . 38 | 135.6 | 118.3 | . 87 |
| Form B-SAC IQ |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| White | . 64 | 34 | . 30 | 29 | 1.66 | . 48 | 1.05 | 78.2 | 76.1 | . 97 |
| Black | . 52 | 48 | . 45 | 32 | . 39 | . 13 | . 28 | 82.0 | 104.8 | 1.28 |
| Forms A + B-C IQ |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| White | . 82 | 34 | . 38 | 29 | 2.84 | . 71 | 1.08 | 67.1 | 161.7 | 2.41** |
| Black | . 66 | 48 | . 58 | 32 | . 55 | . 19 | . 24 | 129.6 | 154.1 | 1.19 |
| Forms A + B-SCF IQ |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| White | . 79 | 34 | . 41 | 29 | 2.44 | . 65 | . 98 | 86.8 | 110.8 | 1.28 |
| Black | . 76 | 48 | . 60 | 32 | 1.20 | . 38 | . 40 | 62.4 | 63.5 | 1.02 |
| Forms A + B-SAC IQ |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| White | . 81 | 34 | . 38 | 29 | 2.78 | . 70 | 1.07 | 38.8 | 66.2 | 1.71 |
| Black | . 67 | 48 | . 52 | 32 | 1.01 | . 32 | . 46 | 52.2 | 74.5 | 1.43 |

* $p<.05$.
** $p<.01$.
Note. C IQ = Classical IQ
SCF IQ = Standard Score, Culture Fair IQ SAC IQ = Standard Score, Attainment-Contaminated IQ .
yses. The black group is about $25 \%$ larger than the white. No explanation is offered for the attenuated heritability ratios on the CCFIT for blacks. However, for what it is worth, it could be pointed out that black DZ twins are much more alike on the CCFIT than on either of the other test batteries. Intraclass correlations for black fraternal twins exceed the theoretically expected $r$ of .50 in two-thirds of the cases; while on all tests the white DZ intraclass $r$ 's are smaller than .42. While intraclass $r$ 's for black MZ's are somewhat smaller than for whites, they are not significantly different from the MZ $r$ 's found on the Basic Battery and
the PMA tests. If anything, both kinds of black twins seem to be more alike on the CCFIT than on any of the other tests of mental ability.

It is obvious from the above discussion that CCFIT differs from other IQ tests more in appearance than substance. Although the CCFIT lacks the verbal, numerical, and reasoning subtests usually found on IQ tests, individuals and groups perform about the same as they do on other standardized paper and pencil IQ tests. Sex, SES, and zygosity differences are insignificant while differences in means for the two races are highly significant on all nine CCFIT combinations.

If culture fairness is equated with identity, no significant differences in mean scores would be expected between subpopulations. In three out of four comparisons (sex, SES, and zygosity), the Cattell test could certainly be called culture fair. In the fourth case (race comparison), mean differences on the CCFIT are greater than found on standard IQ tests. As Thorndike (1971) has pointed out, it hardly seems useful to equate fairness with identity. This type of definition prejudges the reality of differences between groups, ruling them out a priori. Cleary (1968) has proposed another definition of culture fairness which says that a test is culture fair for two populations if a regression equation based on one group neither systematically over or under predicts the level of performance for members of the second group. Using spelling and arithmetic test performance as school achievement criteria and the CCFIT scores as predictors, regression equations were obtained for each race separately. In the case of arithmetic achievement, the regression lines for the two groups almost coincide. For most test scores, the predicted criterion score for an individual is about the same in both groups. Using the Cattell Classical IQ (A+B), a score of 80 predicts an arithmetic achievement score of 95 for a member of the black group and 94 for a member of the white group. For a Classical IQ of 100 , the predicted arithmetic score is 103 for members of both groups. A Cattell Classical IQ of 110 predicts 107.7 for blacks and 107.9 for whites. By Cleary's definition, the A plus B combination of Classical IQ scores on the CCFIT is fair when used to predict arithmetic achievement. The regression equations based on whites neither systematically over nor under predict arithmetic achievement for blacks.

The slopes of the two regression lines differ markedly for spelling achievement. A Cattell Classical IQ of 80 predicts a spelling score of 94 for blacks and 95 for whites. A CCFIT Classical IQ of 88 predicts a spelling score of 97 for both groups. For an IQ of 110, the predicted spelling score for whites is 103, for blacks 107.

Spelling and arithmetic scores for all 286 subjects are predicted from CCFIT IQ regression equations, first using own-race derived equations and then opposite-race equations. The object is to determine if school achievement scores of either race are systematically over or underpre-


Figure IX-1. Regression lines for predicting arithmetic achievement scores for whites and blacks from Cattell's Culture Fair Intelligence Test.
dicted, using the equation for the opposite race. From the regression lines for arithmetic achievement shown in Figure IX-1 it is clear that there is little difference in the own-race/opposite-race equations. Table IX-I shows the difference in percentage of subjects whose arithmetic achievement was overpredicted by the two equations. No difference is significant.


Figure IX-2. Regression lines for predicting spelling achievement scores for whites and blacks from Cattell's Culture Fair Intelligence Test.

Inspection of the regression lines for blacks and whites for spelling achievement predicted from the three CCFIT IQ's (Figure IX-2) suggests greater differences than those for arithmetic achievement. For spelling achievement, a higher percentage of whites and blacks was overpredicted by opposite-race regression equations than by own-race equations. However, spelling achievement for neither race is systematically over or under-

## Table IX-I

Percentage of Blacks and Whites Whose Arithmetic Test Scores Were Overpredicted by the Cattell Culture Fair Intelligence Test: Using Both Own-race and Opposite-race Regression Equations

|  | Whites |  |  |  |  | Blacks |  |  |
| :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Culture Fair Intelligence Test <br> (Forms A + B) | Own- <br> race | Opposite- <br> race | Difference |  | Own- <br> race | Opposite- <br> race | Difference |  |
| Classical IQ | 47 | 48 | 1 |  | 56 | 52 | 4 |  |
| Culture Fair IQ | 50 | 48 | 2 |  | 54 | 57 | 3 |  |
| Attainment-Contaminated IQ | 50 | 50 | 0 |  | 54 | 54 | 0 |  |

Note. No percentage difference is significant.
predicted by the opposite-race prediction equation. Low-scoring blacks are overpredicted by the white formula and low-scoring whites are underpredicted by the black equation. For high-scoring pupils, the opposite is true. In no case, however, are the own-race/opposite-race percentage differences significant (see Table IX-J).

Thorndike points out that Cleary's definition of fairness assumes the available criterion score is a perfectly relevant, unbiased, and reliable measure of job competence or school achievement. If the criterion is biased in an unknown direction, no procedure can be set up for fair use of the test. In the present study, spelling and arithmetic were the only school achievement criteria available. The reliability of the Spelling Test is .93 ; Arithmetic Test, .85. Nothing can be said as to whether the achievement tests are unbiased, although in most school programs spelling and arithmetic scores are relevant criteria of school achievement. In discussing culture fairness, Thorndike makes another point: when two groups differ on both the test and the criterion, the test might not be fair for the group earning the lower mean score. For example, in the case of predicting arithmetic scores from CCFIT Classical IQ's, the two groups differ by .98 standard deviation on the test and by .58 standard deviation on the criterion. If the distributions are normal and the standard

Table IX-J
Percentage of Blacks and Whites Whose Spelling Test Scores Were Overpredicted by the Cattell Culture Fair Intelligence Test: Using Both Own-race and Oppositerace Regression Equations

| Culture Fair Intelligence Test (Forms A + B) | Whites |  |  | Blacks |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | Ownrace | Oppositerace | Difference | Ownrace | Oppositerace | Difference |
| Classical IQ | 44 | 56 | 12 | 47 | 51 | 4 |
| Culture Fair IQ | 44 | 55 | 11 | 46 | 54 | 8 |
| Attainment-Contaminated IQ | 43 | 54 | 11 | 46 | 54 | 8 |

Note. No percentage difference is significant.
deviations equivalent, we would find that about $16 \%$ of the black group would reach the mean of the white group on the test, while $22 \%$ of the black group would come up to the mean of the white on the criterion. If the white group average was set as a cutoff score, $50 \%$ of the whites, compared to only $16 \%$ of the blacks, would meet the criterion. Since only $22 \%$ of the blacks would reach the critical score on the criterion, a slightly larger percentage of the black group would meet the criterion than would have been predicted by the test.

There is still another way of looking at the culture fairness problem. Jensen (1968) says, though two tests may give the same degree of prediction in college or the Armed Services, if the tests differ in heritability, it is quite possible that a candidate screened out in a selection procedure by one of the tests would be retained by a procedure using a different test as predictor. Jensen sees heritability as a criterion of culture fairness in ability testing because
the inventors and developers of intelligence tests-men such as Galton, Binet, Spearman, Burt, Thorndike, and Terman-clearly intended that their tests assess as clearly as possible the individual's innate brightness or mental capacity. If this is what a test attempts to do, then clearly the appropriate criterion for judging the test's "fairness" is the heritability of the test scores in the population in which the test is used. The quite high values of $\mathbf{H}$ for tests such as the Stanford-Binet attests to the success of the test-maker's aim to measure innate ability. The square root of the heritability, $(\sqrt{\mathbf{H}})$, represents the correlation between phenotype and genotype, and, is of the order of .9 for our best standard intelligence tests (1968, p. 94).

To Jensen a test may have the same predictability in two populations but still have different heritability ratios. This is exactly what we find for the Cattell test. There is no significant difference between blacks and whites in the predictability of arithmetic achievement from CCFIT IQ's, but there is a difference in heritability between blacks and whites for CCFIT IQ's.

The true meaning of culture fairness testing has to apply to the fair use of test results by psychologists rather than to the culture fairness of a particular test. Thorndike (1971) has pointed out if the criterion measure is itself biased in an unknown direction and degree, no rational procedure can be set up for "fair" use of the test. To determine, for two different groups, what test scores predict a given criterion is fruitless if the criterion does not mean the same thing in the two groups. By the same token, setting up group quotas based on specified criterion ratings previously achieved by others is fruitless if the criterion rating signifies different things in the two groups.

## X

## Filial Regression of IQ

In Natural Inheritance, published in 1889, Galton summarized the ideas on heredity and regression he had developed over the previous two decades. In the book he offers solutions to three questions: (1) How do characteristics of parents relate to the same characteristics in the offspring? (2) What is the relative correlation of each ancestor to the nature of the offspring? (3) How is it possible to measure nearness of kinship?

Unsatisfied with the qualitative assessments in Hereditary Genius, 1869, Galton sought advice from Darwin, who suggested his cousin should look at less complex forms of life and try breeding sweet peas. The results of his experiments-conducted with the assistance of nine associ-ates-were reported in an 1877 paper, "Typical Laws of Heredity." In this paper, he used weight of seeds as a parental characteristic, noting that daughter seeds were not as extreme as the parent seeds. He speaks of their "reverting" to the average ancestral type. Reversion, he explained, was the tendency of the mean filial type to depart from the parental type reverting to what may be roughly, and perhaps fairly, described as the average ancestral type. The term reversion has now been replaced by the statistical term regression.

For almost a decade Galton published nothing more on this subject. Recognizing that he needed data from human family records to further test his hypothesis, he said:

It was anthropological evidence that I desired, caring only for the seeds as means of throwing light on heredity in man. I tried in vain for a long and weary time to obtain it in sufficient abundance, and my failure was a cogent motive, together with others, in inducing me to make an offer of prizes for family records, which was largely
responded to, and furnished me last year with what I wanted. (Galton, 1885a, p. 1207)

Galton provided a graphical representation of his findings that human offspring tend to regress in stature toward the ancestral average. From Figure $\mathrm{X}-1$, it is seen that children of tall parents on the average are not as tall as their parents nor are the children of short parents as short. Galton found the deviation in stature of the offspring from the average to be two-thirds the deviation of its mid-parentage; i.e., the average of the two parents. In his discussion, he was careful to point out that adjustments for sex differences in stature were made and that he had determined that stature was not a factor in choice of a marriage partner. He explains his findings this way:

The child inherits partly from his parents, partly from his ancestry. Speaking generally, the further his genealogy goes back, the more

## Rate of Regression in Hereditary Stature.



Figure X-1. Regression in hereditary stature. (Reproduced from the Journal of the Anthropological Institute, 1885, 15, 248-249.)
numerous and varied will his ancestry become, until they cease to differ from any equally numerous sample taken at haphazard from the race at large. Their mean stature will then be the same as that of the race; in other words, it will be mediocre. (Galton, 1885b, p. 252)

According to Galton's biographer, D. W. Forrest (1974), Natural Inheritance was apparently written in some haste since there were several errors. Forrest believes the work would have been vastly improved if Galton had delayed publication until his paper on correlation was ready since the major fault was Galton's misinterpretation of regression. Offspring are not forced toward mediocrity by the pressure of remote ancestry but because of the less than perfect correlation between parents and offspring.

The Twin Study provides an opportunity to examine the phenomenon of filial regression from a different aspect. Following Galton's reasoning siblings would be expected to depart from the parental type and revert to the average ancestral type.

In one experiment, Galton used stature of mid-parent to demonstrate the heritability and filial regression of stature in children. The relationship between mid-parent and child for stature also holds true for fingerprint ridges and other polygenetically inherited characteristics, including IQ. Since full sibs share the same relationship to each other as mid-parent to child, like-sexed DZ twins should be ideal subjects for a new and different look at the question of filial regression. DZ's not only have the same age, sex, race, and zygosity, but they also have been reared together and have experienced the same or quite similar environmental influences. The twins we will study in this chapter have lived all their lives at home and attended the same schools, though they were not always in the same grade.

To apply the idea of regression to the sample of DZ twins, we must first determine if the system of identifying twins within a set yields random selection; if not, a bias would be introduced into all further computations in this chapter. For purposes of identification, each set of twins was given a three-digit identification number, twins within a pair being assigned in addition a number 1 or 2 (for example, 234-1 and 234-2). The first three digits identified the pair, the last digit the twins within a pair. The mean stature of twins \#1 was 64.85 inches; twins \#2, 64.73. Mean IQ for twins \#1 was 98.68 ; twins \#2, 98.50 . The fractional differences are not statistically significant.

The next step was to apply the concept of filial regression of stature to the sample. For each race separately and for the total group, height in inches of twins \#1 was correlated with that of twins \#2 (Table $\mathbf{X}-\mathbf{A}$ ). Correlations between DZ twins are higher than the correlation

Table X-A
Comparisons of Stature of DZ Twins

|  | Number | Mean <br> in Inches | Standard <br> Deviation | $r_{\text {T1-72* }}$ | Regression <br> Equation |
| :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| White |  |  |  |  |  |
| Twin \#1 | 41 | 65.71 | 4.15 |  |  |
| Twin \#2 | 41 | 65.85 | 3.50 | .7369 | $\mathrm{Y}=.6215 \mathrm{X}+25.01$ |
| Black |  |  |  |  |  |
| Twin \#1 | 39 | 63.95 | 3.46 |  |  |
| Twin \#2 | 39 | 63.54 | 2.88 | .6671 | $\mathrm{Y}=.5553 \mathrm{X}+28.03$ |
| Total |  |  |  |  |  |
| $\quad$ Twin \#1 | 80 | 64.85 | 3.91 |  |  |
| Twin \#2 | 80 | 64.73 | 3.40 | .7266 | $\mathrm{Y}=.6318 \mathrm{X}+23.76$ |

* Pearson r's, not intraclass correlations.
for sibs reported by Burt and Howard (1956), who found an $r$ of .54 for stature but lower than that reported in the classical study of Newman, Freeman, and Holzinger (1937), who found the correlation for standing height for fraternal twins to be .934 . The theoretical correlation, assuming assortative mating and partial dominance, is .54 .

The purpose of this part of our experiment was not to rediscover what Galton called filial regression but to compare the filial regression of DZ twins on a genetically determined physical measurement, stature, to IQ.

Next we plotted regression lines from the equations in Table X-A. Regressions in stature of twins \#2 on twins \#1 for whites, blacks, and total group are shown in Figure $\mathrm{X}-2$. The DZ twins in the sample demonstrate the same regression in height that Galton found from midparent to child. This was no surprise since DZ twins have the same genetic relationship to each other as mid-parent has to child.

The regression lines in Figure X-2 show the effect clearly. When twin \#1 is shorter than the average of his group, twin \#2 tends to be taller. The reverse is true if twin \#1 is taller than his group average. For subjects near the mean in height, the regression lines are congruent and the effect is less noticeable. By substituting height in inches of twin \#1 in the appropriate formula, it is possible to estimate the height of his co-twin.

Although the number of DZ twin pairs with known stature is less than optimum, our results convincingly demonstrate the filial regression of stature for like-sexed DZ twins.

To compare the regression of stature with that of IQ , we repeated the steps of the experiment, this time using all DZ twins- 133 white and 47 black pairs. IQ's had been obtained previously as part of the psychological testing reported in Chapter VII. Means, standard devia-
tions, and regression equations are shown in Table X-B. The difference in means between pairs amounts to only a fraction of an IQ point for whites, whereas blacks differ by 1.35 points. Neither difference is statistically significant. The IQ correlations in the sample compare favorably

Figure X-2. Regression in height for whites, blacks, and total group of DZ twins. Note: When twin \#1 of a pair is taller than average, twin \#2 tends to be shorter than twin \#1.


Table X-B
Comparisons of Intelligence Quotients of DZ Twins

|  | Number | Mean | Standard <br> Deviation | $r_{\text {T1-T2 }}{ }^{*}$ | Regression <br> Equation |
| :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| White |  |  |  |  |  |
| Twin \#1 | 133 | 101.49 | 9.73 |  |  |
| Twin \#2 | 133 | 100.77 | 9.73 | .6334 | $\mathrm{Y}=.6334 \mathrm{X}+36.49$ |
| Black |  |  |  |  |  |
| Twin \#1 | 47 | 90.74 | 7.25 |  |  |
| Twin \#2 | 47 | 92.09 | 7.46 | .5439 | $\mathrm{Y}=.5597 \mathrm{X}+41.31$ |
| Total |  |  |  |  |  |
| Twin \#1 | 180 | 98.68 | 10.29 |  |  |
| Twin \#2 | 180 | 98.50 | 9.94 | .6839 | $\mathrm{Y}=.6606 \mathrm{X}+33.31$ |

* Pearson r's, not intraclass correlations.
with those in Jensen's (1969) review of 11 studies of same-sexed DZ twins. Assuming assortative mating and partial dominance, the median $r$ for the 11 studies was .54 .

The next task was to plot the regression lines for IQ from the equations shown in Table X-B. The graphs in Figure X-3 are quite similar to those for stature. In the case of IQ, if one twin of a DZ pair has an IQ either above or below his group mean, then the other twin of the pair will, on the average, regress approximately halfway to the mean of his respective population, not to the mean of the combined populations. This regression is in accordance with the genetic prediction.

The regression effect is seen even more clearly in Table X-C where obtained IQ's for all \#2 twins are shown opposite those for \#1 twins. The same table contains the theoretical IQ values for twins \#2, assuming random mating and only additive genes; i.e., the simplest polygenic model. Table X-C should be read this way. For the total group, the \#1 twins with IQ's falling in the $80-81$ interval (midpoint 80.5) would, theoretically, have co-twins with an average IQ of 89.7, which is about midway between 80.5 and 98.6 -the mean for the combined group. The obtained mean for the co-twins was 85.0. Despite the regression not being as great as predicted, it converged toward the group mean exactly as Galton's Law prescribed.

To take another example from Table $\mathrm{X}-\mathrm{C}$, the IQ of twin \#1 is 110. The theoretical IQ of his co-twin is 104.2; his obtained IQ was 106.1. In this case the IQ of twin \#1 was above the group mean. Regression was toward the mean but in the opposite direction of the previous case.

In Table X-D white $\mathbf{D Z}$ twins are arranged like the combined group. The regression phenomenon is as obvious as before, except in this instance regression is toward the white IQ mean, 101.1. When twin \#1 has an

IQ above his own group mean, his co-twin will tend to have an IQ between that of twin \#1 and the group mean. For IQ's around the mean, the differences are only fractions of an IQ point. In Table X-D the regression phenomenon is quite dramatic. Although the obtained

Figure X-3. Regression in intelligence quotient for whites, blacks, and total group of DZ twins. Note: When the IQ of twin \#1 of a pair is greater than average, the IQ of twin \#2 tends to be lower than that of twin \#1.


Table X-C
Distribution of Theoretical and Obtained IQ's for 180 Pairs of Black and White DZ Twins (Mean IQ = 98.6)

| Number of Pairs | IQ Intervals <br> Twin \#1 | Obtained IQ |  | Theoretical IQ* |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  | $\begin{gathered} \text { Twin \#2 } \\ \text { Mean } \end{gathered}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \text { Direction } \\ & \text { of } \\ & \text { Regression } \\ & \hline \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{gathered} \text { Twin \#2 } \\ \text { Mean } \end{gathered}$ | $\begin{gathered} \text { Direction } \\ \text { of } \\ \text { Regression } \\ \hline \end{gathered}$ |
| 3 | 78-79 | 83.7 | + | 88.8 | $+$ |
| 2 | 80-81 | 85.0 | + | 89.7 | $+$ |
| 3 | 82-83 | 84.3 | + | 90.7 | + |
| 11 | 84-85 | 88.4 | + | 91.7 | + |
| 5 | 86-87 | 89.8 | + | 92.6 | $+$ |
| 15 | 88-89 | 90.9 | + | 93.6 | + |
| 11 | 90-91 | 94.3 | + | 94.6 | $+$ |
| 10 | 92-93 | 95.9 | + | 95.5 | $+$ |
| 9 | 94-95 | 95.0 | + | 96.5 | + |
| 15 | 96-97 | 99.6 | + | 97.4 | + |
| 15 | 98-99 | 98.3 | - | 98.4 | - |
| 16 | 100-101 | 99.7 | - | 99.4 | - |
| 10 | 102-103 | 102.4 | - | 100.3 | - |
| 9 | 104-105 | 101.9 | - | 101.3 | - |
| 10 | 106-107 | 103.9 | - | 102.3 | - |
| 7 | 108-109 | 104.0 | - | 103.2 | - |
| 7 | 110-111 | 106.1 | - | 104.2 | - |
| 7 | 112-113 | 108.4 | - | 105.2 | - |
| 5 | 114-115 | 110.0 | - | 106.1 | - |
| 3 | 116-117 | 110.3 | - | 107.1 | - |
| 4 | 118-119 | 106.8 | - | 108.1 | - |
| 3 | 120 \& up | 113.0 | - | 112.2 | - |

* Assuming random mating and only additive genes; i.e., the simplest possible polygenic model, $r=.50$.

IQ's for twins \#2 do not follow the theoretical pattern exactly, the trend is unmistakable.

Black DZ twins are shown in Table X-E. The number of subjects is relatively small, 47 pairs. Nevertheless the regression phenomenon is quite clear. This time regression is toward the black mean, IQ 91.4, not the mean of the combined group. In two different intervals the regression effect does not follow the expected theoretical pattern; that is, the obtained IQ of twin \#2 shows a sign opposite from that expected. In the IQ interval 82-83 there was only one \#1 black twin. In the 94-95 interval two twin pairs were represented. The \#1 twin of pair 034 earned an IQ of 95 ; his co-twin's was 99 . For twin pair 296, however, \#1 had an IQ of 94 ; his co-twin's IQ was 78. This unusually large difference for one set of twins accounts for the apparent shift in the regression effect seen in Table X-E. Otherwise, regression is in the expected direction in accordance with Galton. Blacks regress toward the mean for blacks and not toward the mean of the combined group.

Table X-D
Distribution of Theoretical and Obtained IQ's for 133 Pairs of White DZ Twins (Mean IQ = 101.1)

| Number of Pairs | IQ Intervals <br> Twin \#1 | Obtained IQ |  | Theoretical 1Q* |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  | Twin \#2 Mean | Direction of Regression | Twin \#2 Mean | Direction of Regression |
| 6 | 85 \& below | 85.3 | + | 91.6 | + |
| 2 | 86-87 | 94.5 | + | 93.3 | + |
| 8 | 88-89 | 90.3 | + | 94.3 | + |
| 7 | 90-91 | 92.6 | + | 95.3 | + |
| 4 | 92-93 | 98.8 | + | 96.3 | + |
| 7 | 94-95 | 96.9 | $+$ | 97.3 | + |
| 11 | 96-97 | 100.5 | + | 98.3 | + |
| 14 | 98-99 | 98.5 | 0 | 99.3 | + |
| 12 | 100-101 | 101.3 | + | 100.3 | - |
| 9 | 102-103 | 102.8 | + | 101.3 | - |
| 8 | 104-105 | 103.1 | - | 102.3 | - |
| 10 | 106-107 | 103.9 | - | 103.3 | - |
| 7 | 108-109 | 104.0 | - | 104.3 | - |
| 7 | 110-111 | 106.1 | - | 105.3 | - |
| 6 | 112-113 | 108.3 | - | 106.3 | - |
| 5 | 114-115 | 110.0 | - | 107.3 | - |
| 3 | 116-117 | 110.3 | - | 108.3 | - |
| 4 | 118-119 | 106.8 | - | 109.3 | - |
| 3 | 120 \& up | 113.0 | - | 113.5 | - |

[^6]Table X-E
Distribution of Theoretical and Obtained IQ's for 47 Pairs of Black DZ Twins (Mean IQ = 91.4)

| Number of Pairs | IQ Intervals <br> Twin \#1 | Obtained IQ |  | Theoretical IQ* |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  | $\begin{aligned} & \text { Twin \#2 } \\ & \text { Mean } \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{gathered} \text { Direction } \\ \text { of } \\ \text { Regression } \\ \hline \end{gathered}$ | Twin \#2 Mean | $\begin{aligned} & \text { Direction } \\ & \text { of } \\ & \text { Regression } \end{aligned}$ |
| 2 | 78-79 | 86.5 | + | 85.8 | $+$ |
| 2 | 80-81 | 85.0 | + | 86.8 | $+$ |
| 1 | 82-83 | 81.0 | - | 87.9 | + |
| 8 | 84-85 | 88.8 | + | 88.9 | + |
| 3 | 86-87 | 86.7 | + | 89.9 | + |
| 7 | 88-89 | 91.6 | + | 90.9 | + |
| 4 | 90-91 | 97.3 | $+$ | 92.0 | + |
| 6 | 92-93 | 94.0 | + | 93.0 | + |
| 2 | 94-95 | 88.5 | - | 94.0 | - |
| 4 | 96-97 | 97.0 | + | 95.1 | - |
| 1 | 98-99 | 96.0 | - | 96.1 | - |
| 4 | 100-101 | 94.8 | - | 97.1 | - |
| 1 | 102-103 | 99.0 | - | 98.1 | - |
| 2 | 104 \& up | 100.5 | - | 101.2 | - |

[^7]Newman, Freeman, Holzinger, and many other investigators have found DZ twin correlations for both physiological and mental characteristics similar to those reported here. Needless to say, the findings of this study are not presented as new evidence but to demonstrate with new and original data Galton's Law of Filial Regression, which is consistent for both physical and mental characteristics and which would be difficult to reconcile with any strictly environmental theory of the causes of differences in height or in IQ.

## XI

## Stability of IQ

In his reply to Jensen's Harvard Educational Review article (1969), Arthur Stinchcombe (1969) claimed that environments accumulate in much the same way as interest does when compounded. A modest initial difference of $2 \%$ in environment results after 20 years in a $150 \%$ difference. Johnson (1963) found no evidence of early environmental influence on IQ. Based on his analysis of the classical study of Newman et al. (1937), Johnson asserted "results do not support the idea that similarity in early environmental enrichment or deprivation is related to later IQ similarity in children" (p. 748).

If length of time spent in the same environment has a significant effect on intelligence test performance, then younger individuals who are genetically identical (MZ twins) should resemble their twins less closely than older identical twins. As age increases, mean difference in IQ between twin pairs should decrease. The same trend would be expected for fraternal (DZ) twins except that initial and final differences would be greater than for MZ twins. We would also expect the correlation between age and IQ difference for both MZ and DZ twins to be negative if environmental influences are cumulative.

Four hundred twenty-seven pairs of twins, living together at home with their parents or guardians, were tested in Kentucky and Georgia with a large battery of mental ability tests described by Vandenberg (1970), Osborne et al. (1968), and Osborne (1978). Factor analysis of the 12 Basic Battery tests produced three distinctly separate factors: (1) verbal, (2) spatial, and (3) perceptual speed. The factors were used to generate IQ's. The average of the three factor IQ's is the full scale IQ. Zygosity of the twins was determined by the method described by Osborne (1978).

Among the 427 pairs of twins 123 or $29 \%$ are black. According to
the U.S. census, the population of Georgia in 1970 was $26 \%$ black. The large number of black twins will provide data for the examination of the Stinchcombe hypothesis by race as well as for the total group. In Table XI-A black twins are grouped by age with mean differences in IQ between pairs shown at each age level. With the exception of the 18-20 age level which contains only one pair of $M Z$ twins, the $M Z-D Z$ differences for the full scale IQ were in the expected direction, $M Z<D Z$. Inspection of the IQ difference means for the various age levels shows no discernible trend for any of the four factor IQ's. The full scale IQ difference of 12.4 points for the one set of MZ twins in the 18-20 age group is almost three times the average difference of the other age levels. There were four pairs of DZ twins in the 18-20 age group. The average difference between these twins was smaller than at any other age level for DZ's.

Table XI-B shows mean IQ differences at six age levels for the white twins. The $M Z<D Z$ full scale difference is found in all age groups from 12 to 20 . There is no trend for the IQ difference to be greater at one age level than another.

In Table XI-C the black and white twins are combined. As would be expected the trend of differences is unrelated to age of twins. Although the greatest full scale IQ difference among MZ's is in the oldest age group, the greatest difference for full scale IQ among DZ's is at the youngest age level.

A second test of the cumulative environmental effect on IQ is made by computing intraclass correlations by race at each age level for all four factor IQ's. The intraclass correlation reflects the crucial relationship between the within-family and the between-family variance. The correlation will be 1.0 if co-twins always receive the same score, and 0.0 if co-twins are no more likely to receive the same score than two individuals selected at random (Fuller \& Thompson, 1960).

The cumulative environmental hypothesis would predict a monotonic increase in intraclass $r$ 's with age. Tables XI-D, XI-E, and XI-F show the intraclass $r$ 's for blacks, whites, and the combined group of twins. With the exception of the two extreme age groups for DZ blacks, the findings are remarkably consistent. For the full scale IQ the expected $\mathrm{MZ}<\mathrm{DZ}$ difference in correlation is found at every age level for each race separately and for total group. Since the intraclass $r$ 's in Tables XI-D, XI-E, and XI-F show no systematic change with age, the cumulative environmental hypothesis which would predict a monotonic increase in $r$ 's with age must be rejected.

A further test of the cumulative environmental effects is given by the Pearson correlation coefficient computed between individual pair differences in IQ and age. The purpose of this analysis is to examine the claim that twins living in the same environment would become more
Table XI-A
Mean Within-pair Differences of Four Factor IQ's for Black MZ and DZ Twins at Six Age Levels

| Age | MZ |  |  |  |  | DZ |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | No. | Verbal | Spatial | Perceptual Speed | Full Scale | No. | Verbal | Spatial | Perceptual Speed | Full <br> Scale |
| 12-13 | 14 | 3.79 | 8.10 | 11.35 | 4.59 | 9 | 9.02 | 9.33 | 20.79 | 11.01 |
| 14 | 22 | 5.26 | 6.45 | 8.48 | 4.03 | 8 | 4.78 | 7.01 | 15.09 | 7.65 |
| 15 | 13 | 7.51 | 5.44 | 8.77 | 2.54 | 13 | 7.77 | 4.09 | 12.76 | 6.55 |
| 16 | 17 | 4.12 | 5.02 | 15.04 | 4.13 | 7 | 5.50 | 8.41 | 6.41 | 5.61 |
| 17 | 9 | 5.92 | 3.39 | 9.95 | 4.23 | 6 | 7.08 | 4.38 | 12.75 | 7.25 |
| 18-20 | 1 | 4.10 | 15.90 | 16.90 | 12.40 | 4 | 5.88 | 5.63 | 3.73 | 4.03 |

## Table XI-B

Mean Within-pair Differences of Four Factor IQ's for White MZ and DZ Twins at Six Age Levels

| Age | MZ |  |  |  |  | DZ |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | No. | Verbal | Spatial | Perceptual Speed | Full <br> Scale | No. | Verbal | Spatial | Perceptual Speed | Full Scale |
| 12-13 | 21 | 6.32 | 5.14 | 7.88 | 4.16 | 18 | 8.02 | 10.49 | 10.44 | 8.14 |
| 14 | 28 | 4.88 | 4.54 | 6.11 | 3.40 | 21 | 6.57 | 7.04 | 11.08 | 5.83 |
| 15 | 39 | 6.63 | 6.52 | 9.37 | 4.75 | 26 | 8.18 | 10.33 | 9.49 | 6.39 |
| 16 | 33 | 6.24 | 5.13 | 7.89 | 4.27 | 31 | 10.03 | 7.01 | 12.31 | 7.75 |
| 17 | 32 | 4.74 | 5.37 | 8.72 | 4.01 | 22 | 6.73 | 4.93 | 9.82 | 6.13 |
| 18-20 | 18 | 3.62 | 4.24 | 7.98 | 4.84 | 15 | 8.63 | 8.89 | 7.39 | 5.99 |

Note. All twins did not take all tests. Numbers in this table represent the total number of pairs of twins who participated in the study.
Table XI-C
Mean Within-pair Differences of Four Factor IQ's for all MZ and DZ Twins at Six Age Levels

| Age | MZ |  |  |  |  | DZ |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | No. | Verbal | Spatial | Perceptual Speed | Full Scale | No. | Verbal | Spatial | Perceptual Speed | Full <br> Scale |
| 12-13 | 35 | 5.31 | 6.33 | 9.29 | 4.33 | 27 | 8.36 | 10.10 | 14.02 | 9.10 |
| 14 | 50 | 5.05 | 5.38 | 7.15 | 3.68 | 29 | 6.07 | 7.03 | 12.27 | 6.33 |
| 15 | 52 | 6.85 | 6.25 | 9.23 | 4.19 | 39 | 8.04 | 8.25 | 10.58 | 6.44 |
| 16 | 50 | 5.52 | 5.09 | 10.37 | 4.22 | 38 | 9.19 | 7.27 | 11.20 | 7.36 |
| 17 | 41 | 5.00 | 4.94 | 8.97 | 4.06 | 28 | 6.80 | 4.81 | 10.45 | 6.37 |
| 18-20 | 19 | 3.65 | 4.85 | 8.50 | 5.24 | 19 | 8.05 | 8.20 | 6.58 | 5.58 |

Intraclass Correlations for Black MZ and DZ Twins for Four Factor IQ's at Six Age Levels

| Age | MZ |  |  |  |  | DZ |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | No. | Verbal | Spatial | Perceptual Speed | Full Scale | No. | Verbal | Spatial | Perceptual Speed | Full Scale |
| 12-13 | 14 | . 94 | . 51 | . 27 | . 72 | 9 | -. 22 | -. 20 | -. 51 | -. 69 |
| 14 | 22 | . 77 | . 60 | . 64 | . 79 | 8 | . 87 | . 55 | . 13 | . 68 |
| 15 | 13 | . 75 | . 88 | . 49 | . 91 | 13 | . 43 | . 84 | . 52 | . 49 |
| 16 | 17 | . 85 | . 79 | . 50 | . 78 | 7 | . 80 | -. 33 | . 66 | . 47 |
| 17 | 9 | . 79 | . 97 | . 64 | . 83 | 6 | . 11 | . 56 | . 54 | . 05 |
| 18-20 | 1 | - | - | - | - | 4 | - | - | - | - |

Note. All twins did not take all tests. Numbers in this table represent the total number of pairs of twins who participated in the study.
Table XI-E

| Age | MZ |  |  |  |  | DZ |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | No. | Verbal | Spatial | Perceptual Speed | Full Scale | No. | Verbal | Spatial | Perceptual Speed | Full Scale |
| 12-13 | 21 | . 79 | . 72 | . 76 | . 87 | 18 | . 46 | . 36 | . 44 | . 36 |
| 14 | 28 | . 87 | . 87 | . 86 | . 88 | 21 | . 77 | . 76 | . 49 | . 74 |
| 15 | 39 | . 72 | . 67 | . 65 | . 77 | 26 | . 57 | . 42 | . 68 | . 63 |
| 16 | 33 | . 78 | . 84 | . 80 | . 85 | 31 | . 43 | . 56 | . 39 | . 41 |
| 17 | 32 | . 89 | . 82 | . 73 | . 88 | 22 | . 62 | . 76 | . 67 | . 69 |
| 18-20 | 18 | . 91 | . 88 | . 81 | . 81 | 15 | . 59 | . 57 | . 60 | . 72 |

Note. All twins did not take all tests. Numbers in this table represent the total number of pairs of twins who participated in the study.
alike in mental capacity as they grow older; that is, the correlation between age and IQ differences between twins should become increasingly negative as the twins grow older.

In Tables XI-G, XI-H, and XI-I correlation coefficients are shown between IQ differences and age for blacks, whites, and combined group. Of the 24 correlations only 4 are significant; two were on the perceptual speed IQ which is composed of only one test. For MZ black twins the spatial factor showed a significant negative correlation of -.24 which is barely significant at the .05 level. From the tables it is clear that between ages 12 and 20 , environmental effects are not cumulative for this sample of 427 pairs of twins. Changes in correlations between age and IQ difference for both MZ and DZ twins from age to age appear to be random rather than systematic or suggestive of a trend.

Table XI-G
Correlations Between Age and Within-pair IQ Differences for Black Twins, Ages 12 to 20

|  | No. | Verbal | Spatial | Perceptual <br> Speed | Full <br> Scale |
| :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | ---: |
| MZ Twins | 76 | .09 | $-.24^{*}$ | .07 | .02 |
| DZ Twins | 47 | -.11 | -.19 | $-.36^{*}$ | -.28 |

Note. All twins did not take all tests. Numbers in this table represent the total number of pairs of twins who participated in the study.

* $p<.05$.

Table XI-H
Correlations Between Age and Within-pair IQ Differences for White Twins, Ages 12 to 20

|  |  |  |  | Perceptual | Full |
| :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: | ---: | ---: |
|  | No. | Verbal | Spatial | Speed | Scale |
| MZ Twins | 171 | -.13 | -.02 | .05 | .04 |
| DZ Twins | 133 | .04 | -.15 | -.05 | -.07 |

Note. All twins did not take all tests. Numbers in this table represent the total number of pairs of twins who participated in the study.

## Table XI-I

Correlations Between Age and Within-pair IQ Differences for all Twins, Ages 12 to 20

|  |  |  | Perceptual | Full |  |
| :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | ---: |
|  | No. | Verbal | Spatial | Speed | Scale |
| MZ Twins | 247 | -.06 | -.10 | .03 | .04 |
| DZ Twins | 180 | .01 | $-.15^{*}$ | -.17 | -.14 |

Note. All twins did not take all tests. Numbers in this table represent the total number of pairs of twins who participated in the study.

* $p<.05$.


## XII

## Subpopulation Differences in Personality

Subpopulation differences in personality will be examined by using How Well Do You Know Yourself? (Jenkins, 1959) and High School Personality Questionnaire (Cattell, 1969) to measure the various personality parameters. The task will not be simple because test experts do not agree on a satisfactory definition of personality. Even when a tentative definition is reached, the methods of assessing this elusive construct are frequently in dispute. Eysenck's (1976) definition, "semi-permanent behavior patterns characteristic of individuals and of social importance and relevance" (p. 198), seems to be what most psychologists have in mind when they use the term, personality.

Individual differences are obviously central to the personality concept, but there are many accidental and unexpected differences between individuals which would not be part of personality. While Eysenck's definition may be generally acceptable, the surfeit of personality scales attests to the lack of consensus among designers of personality tests. Eysenck finds the most popular personality scales, the MMPI, Edward's Personality Scale, and the California Personality Inventory, to have face validity but little else to recommend them. Of Cattell's personality test, Eysenck (1972) says, "Cattell's hypothesis of 16 functionally independent factors being measured by his test requires considerable support if it is to continue being accepted by test users" (p. 265).

How Well Do You Know Yourself? was reviewed for the Sixth Mental Measurements Yearbook by no less an authority than Lee J. Cronbach (1965), who found the test to be "a reasonably well-edited and wellgrouped collection of items" but completely unvalidated with respect to practical decisions. The norm group, he adds, is "damnably inadequate."

Despite its drawbacks, Jenkins' How Well Do You Know Yourself?
was administered to 280 sets of twins as part of the battery of the Twin Study. It was replaced by Cattell's High School Personality Questionnaire in the battery given to the extended sample of 142 twin pairs. Since there is no overlap between the two samples, the personality test results will be reported separately in this chapter. Had the reviews mentioned above been available at the time the tests were chosen for the twin studies, different personality scales might have been selected.

## Part I-How Well Do You Know Yourself?

To follow the pattern of analysis used in previous chapters, a threeway analysis of variance was performed with race, sex, and zygosity as the main effects. However, since Jenkins provides only separate norms for boys and girls, additional two-way analyses of variance were computed for each sex with race and zygosity as the main effects variables. Socioeconomic classes were not available for this sample of twins.

On four scales of the Jenkins test there were significant sex differences (Table XII-A). Table XII-B shows that on three of the four scales girls ranked significantly higher than boys. Girls were higher on Scale 15, Impulsiveness; Scale 12, Nervousness; and Scale 6, Cooperativeness. The test manual states that high scores on Cooperativeness indicate a tendency to work with others to achieve common goals. High scores on Scale

Table XII-A
Effects of Race, Sex, and Zygosity on the Subtests of How Well Do You Know Yourself?

| Factors | Race | Sex | Zygosity | Race $\times$ Sex | Race $\times$ Zyg. | Sex $\times$ Zyg. | $\mathbf{R} \times \mathbf{S} \times \mathbf{Z}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 1. Irritability | * |  | * |  | * |  |  |
| 2. Practicality | ** |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 3. Punctuality | * |  |  |  |  |  | * |
| 4. Novelty-loving | * |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 5. Vocational assurance |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 6. Cooperativeness |  | * |  | * |  |  |  |
| 7. Ambitiousness |  | ** |  |  |  |  |  |
| 8. Hypercriticalness |  |  | * |  |  |  |  |
| 9. Dejection |  |  |  | * |  |  |  |
| 10. General morale |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 11. Persistence |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 12. Nervousness |  | ** |  |  |  | * |  |
| 13. Seriousness |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 14. Submissiveness |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 15. Impulsiveness | * | * |  |  |  |  |  |
| 16. Dynamism |  |  |  |  |  |  | * |
| 17. Emotional control |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 18. Consistency | ** |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 19. Test objectivity | ** |  |  |  |  |  |  |

Table XII-B
Least Squares Means for the Test How Well Do You Know Yourself? By Race, Sex, and Zygosity

| Factors | Race |  | Sex |  | Zygosity |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | White | Black | Male | Female | MZ | DZ |
| 1. Irritability | 13.54 | 12.19 | 12.78 | 12.95 | 13.54 | 12.19 |
| 2. Practicality | 15.07 | 16.77 | 15.85 | 15.98 | 16.03 | 15.81 |
| 3. Punctuality | 17.49 | 16.02 | 16.52 | 16.99 | 16.42 | 17.09 |
| 4. Novelty-loving | 20.71 | 22.25 | 21.29 | 21.67 | 21.63 | 21.33 |
| 5. Vocational assurance | 17.55 | 18.76 | 18.43 | 17.88 | 18.09 | 18.23 |
| 6. Cooperativeness | 20.28 | 20.10 | 19.52 | 20.87 | 20.62 | 19.77 |
| 7. Ambitiousness | 14.92 | 15.09 | 15.93 | 14.07 | 15.16 | 14.84 |
| 8. Hypercriticalness | 11.12 | 12.18 | 11.65 | 11.65 | 12.18 | 11.12 |
| 9. Dejection | 6.81 | 7.44 | 6.85 | 7.40 | 6.76 | 7.48 |
| 10. General morale | 16.27 | 15.81 | 16.09 | 16.00 | 15.78 | 16.30 |
| 11. Persistence | 15.75 | 16.01 | 15.79 | 15.98 | 16.38 | 15.38 |
| 12. Nervousness | 10.22 | 9.87 | 9.23 | 10.85 | 10.17 | 9.92 |
| 13. Seriousness | 13.80 | 14.88 | 14.11 | 14.58 | 14.51 | 14.18 |
| 14. Submissiveness | 14.09 | 13.72 | 13.60 | 14.21 | 13.58 | 14.23 |
| 15. Impulsiveness | 11.38 | 10.23 | 10.23 | 11.38 | 10.31 | 11.30 |
| 16. Dynamism | 16.73 | 16.73 | 17.19 | 16.27 | 16.69 | 16.77 |
| 17. Emotional control | 14.71 | 14.48 | 14.96 | 14.24 | 14.88 | 14.32 |
| 18. Consistency | 6.43 | 8.61 | 8.00 | 7.04 | 7.08 | 7.96 |
| 19. Test objectivity | 22.89 | 17.60 | 20.31 | 20.19 | 20.10 | 20.39 |

Table XII-C
Effects of Race and Zygosity on the Subtests of How Well Do You Know Yourself? for Males


Table XII-D
Effects of Race and Zygosity on the Subtests of How Well Do You Know Yourself? for Females

|  | Factors | Race | Zygosity | Race $\times$ Zygosity |
| :--- | :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 1. | Irritability | $* *$ |  |  |
| 2. | Practicality | $* *$ |  |  |
| 3. | Punctuality | $*$ |  |  |
| 4. | Novelty-loving |  |  |  |
| 5. | Vocational assurance |  |  |  |
| 6. | Cooperativenes |  |  |  |
| 7. | Ambitiousness | $* *$ |  |  |
| 8. | Hypercriticalness |  |  |  |
| 9. | Dejection |  |  |  |
| 10. | General morale |  |  |  |
| 11. | Persistence |  |  |  |
| 12. | Nervousness |  |  |  |
| 13. | Seriousness |  |  |  |
| 14. | Submissiveness |  |  |  |
| 15. | Impulsiveness |  |  |  |
| 16. | Dynamism |  |  |  |
| 17. | Emotional control |  |  |  |
| 18. | Consistency |  |  |  |
| 19. | Test objectivity |  | $*$ |  |

* $p<.05$.
** $p<.01$.

12, Nervousness, reveal tension, restlessness, or inability to relax, sometimes manifested by fidgeting and a display of nervous behavior. High scores on Impulsiveness indicate a tendency to act precipitately or to make hasty decisions without careful consideration or deliberation.

On Scale 7, Ambitiousness, boys scored significantly higher than girls. A high score on this scale demonstrates an inclination for personal preferment or advancement in the sense of seeking marks of success or prestige, honor, money, and influence.

Since separate analyses were made for each sex, race and zygosity main effects will be discussed for each race separately but not for the total group.

Table XII-C shows the results of the analysis of variance for males. Of the 17 clinical or factor scales, race or zygosity differences are significant at the .05 level on four different scales for boys. Both control scales also show significant race differences.

For girls (Table XII-D) race differences on six clinical and both control scales are highly significant, whereas no scale shows a significant zygosity difference.

Rather than chart the least squares means for each sex for the Jenkins test, we prepared personality profiles, using percentile norms from the test manual. Figure XII-1 shows profiles for black and white boys; Figure XII-2 for black and white girls. Only two clinical scales show significant


*p<. 01
Note: For Names of the Factors, See Table XII-A
Figure XII-1. Percentile equivalents of least squares means of personality factors measured by Jenkins' How Well Do You Know Yourself? for white and black males.
race differences for boys. On Scale 4, Novelty-loving, black boys score significantly higher than whites (Figure XII-1). As the name of the scale suggests, students who earn high scores exhibit a tendency to innovate, to become involved in situations requiring new decisions, plans, and goals. They prefer new ways of doing things in contradistinction to mere variety without novelty.

White boys score significantly higher than blacks on Scale 15, Impulsiveness. Only one race-zygosity interaction effect was signficant. On the Punctuality scale white MZ's were superior to white DZ's. The reverse was true for the blacks.

How Well Do You Know Yourself? profiles for black and white girls are shown in Figure XII-2. Here six clinical scales are significantly different, all but one at the .01 level of confidence. On Scale 1, Irritability, white girls as a group show more of a tendency to feel annoyed and irritable than their black counterparts. Students scoring high on this scale often become annoyed or upset when they feel threatened by people or conditions.

Black girls are more practical than white girls (Scale 2). Pupils who score high on this scale deal with the environment in relation to utilitarian needs.

White girls score significantly higher than blacks on Scale 3, Punctuality.

Black girls, significantly more so than whites, are inclined to note


Figure XII-2. Percentile equivalents of least squares means of personality factors measured by Jenkins' How Well Do You Know Yourself? for white and black females.
and point out the faults, mistakes, and shortcomings of others as well as to direct attention to and overemphasize these faults (Scale 8). Black girls are also more likely than whites to feel low-spirited, unhappy, depressed, and disheartened (Scale 9).

Scale 13 is Seriousness. Black girls significantly outscore whites on this scale, which is intended to measure attitudes of earnestness or feelings of personal responsibility toward one's work or environment.

Three race-zygosity interaction effects were significant for girls: Nov-elty-loving, Cooperativeness, and Ambitiousness. For none of these scales were the main effect differences significant. On all three scales white MZ's ranked higher than white DZ's but black MZ's ranked lower than black DZ's.

On How Well Do You Know Yourself? there are two control scalesTest consistency, Scale 18, and Test objectivity, Scale 19. Both blacks and whites scored within the normal range on Scale 18, suggesting that each group tended to mark items of similar or identical content in the same manner.

Test objectivity, Scale 19, identifies those subjects who respond to questions in a socially desirable way. Pupils who score high on this scale may have lower than average scores on Scales 1, 9, and 12 and higher than average scores on Scales 4, 5, 6, 11, and 16. Deviant scores on Test objectivity have no meaning in themselves. They merely assist the counselor to interpret the 17 clinical scales.

The reader is cautioned not to attach too much significance to this analysis of Jenkins' test and is reminded that the norms are "damnably inadequate."

Despite the weaknesses of How Well Do You Know Yourself?, two observations can be made: (1) black and white boys differ significantly on only 2 of the 17 factor scales; and (2) the real race difference in personality seems to be between black and white girls who differed significantly on 6 of the 17 clinical scales.

The question now arises whether any of the personality factors from the Jenkins scale has significant heritability components. The classical heritability ratios used in previous chapters to determine the genetic component of tests of mental capacity were applied to the 17 factors and to the control scales of How Well Do You Know Yourself?.
Because of the relatively small number of blacks in this group, racesex heritability ratios were not computed. In the present analysis black and white girls comprised one subpopulation, and black and white boys the other.

Heritability ratios for the Jenkins personality factors for boys and girls are shown in Table XII-E. It is immediately apparent that factors measured by How Well Do You Know Yourself? show much less of a genetic component than that in the analysis of mental capacity tests. Only 3 of the 17 personality scales yield significant within-pair variance ratios and these only for girls, who demonstrate a significant degree of heritability on Scale 8, Hypercriticalness; Scale 9, Dejection; and Scale 11, Persistence. According to the test manual, high Persistence scores suggest a tendency to resist opposing forces, either outside or within the examinee.

Ten scales indicate a moderate genetic basis for one or both of the subgroups. (Holzinger's heritability ratio $(\mathrm{H})$ is $>.30$.) While a heritability ratio of .30 is not remarkably high, it certainly suggests that some of the personality traits measured by the Jenkins test have a genetic basis. Two scales show high heritability ratios for both boys and girls, Cooperativeness and Persistence. On 5 of the 17 scales only boys show high ( $>$.30) heritability ratios: Scale 1, Irritability; Scale 5, Vocational assurance; Scale 7, Ambitiousness; Scale 9, Dejection; Scale 16, Dynamism. Dynamism indicates an active or energetic state of mind, coupled with a sense of vigorous physical well-being. High scores on Scale 5 signify a belief in one's capability to achieve appropriate financial or occupational rewards.
Heritability ratios were $>.30$ for girls, but not boys, on 3 of the 17 factor scales. In addition to Scale 8, Hypercriticalness, which has already been mentioned, Scale 15, Impulsiveness, and Scale 17, Emotional control, show modest heritability components. Emotional control suggests a tendency to inhibit or restrain socially disapproved emotional reactions,
Table XII-E

Table XII-E (Continued)

| Factors | MZ |  | DZ |  | T(Cor) | Heritability Ratios |  | Within-pair Variances |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | Cor | N | Cor | N |  | H | HR | MZ | DZ | F |
| 11. Persistence |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Males | . 47 | 78 | . 04 | 42 | 2.35 | . 44 | 1.83 | 12.35 | 12.70 |  |
| Females | . 40 | 86 | . 04 | 74 | 2.36 | . 37 | 1.81 | 13.76 | 22.49 | 1.64* |
| 12. Nervousness |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Males | -. 13 | 78 | -. 12 | 42 | -. 01 | . 00 | . 04 | 21.58 | 14.82 | . 69 |
| 13. Females | . 23 | 86 | . 25 | 74 | -. 17 | -. 04 | -. 23 | 13.93 | 16.03 | .69 1.15 |
| 13. Seriousness |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Males | . 14 | 78 | -. 02 | 42 | . 81 | . 16 | 2.30 | 20.37 | 18.61 | . 91 |
| Females | . 42 | 86 | . 28 | 74 | . 98 | . 19 | . 67 | 13.77 | 14.71 | 1.07 |
| 14. Submissiveness |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  | 1.07 |
| Males | . 19 | 78 | -. 06 | 42 | 1.27 | . 23 | 2.60 |  |  |  |
| Females | . 12 | 86 | . 17 | 74 | -. 30 | -. 06 | 2. -.80 | 18.69 | 18.07 | 1.33 .97 |
| 15. Impulsiveness |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  | 18.07 | . 97 |
| Males | . 38 | 78 | . 25 | 42 | . 74 | . 17 | . 69 | 14.14 | 15.88 | 1.12 |
| Females | . 25 | 86 | -. 19 | 74 | 2.79 | . 37 | 3.53 | 15.50 | 20.20 | 1.30 |
| 16. Dynamism |  |  |  |  |  |  | 3.5 | 15.50 | 20.20 | 1.30 |
| Males | . 31 | 78 | -. 11 | 42 | 2.22 | . 38 | 2.73 | 15.07 | 15.00 | 1.00 |
| Females | . 17 | 86 | . 22 | 74 | -. 34 | -. 07 | -. 63 | 18.48 | 15.59 | $\begin{array}{r}1.00 \\ \hline\end{array}$ |
| 17. Emotional control |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  | \% | . 84 |
| Males | . 16 | 78 | -. 16 | 42 | 1.65 | . 28 | 4.02 | 11.53 | 16.43 | 1.43 |
| Females | . 29 | 86 | -. 06 | 74 | 2.21 | . 33 | 2.42 | 11.52 | 13.86 | 1.20 |
| 18. Consistency |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Males | . 33 | 78 | . 16 | 42 | . 89 | . 20 | 1.01 | 19.32 | 22.04 |  |
| Females | . 49 | 86 | . 22 | 74 | 1.86 | . 34 | 1.08 | 10.82 | 10.59 | . 98 |
| 19. Test objectivity |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Males | . 33 | 78 | -. 10 | 42 | 2.20 | . 39 | 2.58 | 53.22 | 55.63 | 1.05 |
| Females | . 17 | 86 | . 17 | 74 | . 01 | . 00 | . 02 | 54.10 | 37.36 | . 69 |

[^8]such as controlling one's temper in disagreeable situations or remaining calm when others become upset.

No other heritability study using How Well Do You Know Yourself? has been located. However, since several of Jenkins' 17 factor scales overlap scales of the other similar test (Cattell's HSPQ) in our study, an attempt will be made at the end of this chapter to assess the heritability of personality factors of adolescent twins as measured by the two scales.

## Part II-High School Personality Questionnaire

We will now examine subpopulation differences in personality by means of the High School Personality Questionnaire (Cattell, 1969). The psychological meanings of Cattell's 14 primary source traits were discussed in Chapter VI. In the HSPQ manual, personality traits are described in two ways, first by their technical, psychological names; second by the idiomatic terminology of the man in the street. For example, the technical name for the low end of Scale A is sizothymia; the high end is affectothymia. In the vernacular, low scorers on Scale A are characterized as reserved, detached, critical, or aloof; high scorers as warmhearted, outgoing, easygoing, and participating. For our purposes, only the common descriptions will be used. (The common descriptions for all 14 scales are shown as a footnote in Table XII-F.)

Since Cattell believed that there might well be significant personality differences within social classes and geographical, regional subcultures, he employed in the main standardization of the $H S P Q$ a proportional, stratified design which was deliberate in regard to (1) socio-economic level of school neighborhood, (2) urban-rural classification, (3) geographical region. Stratification by race was not attempted in the standardization of the 1968-69 edition of the HSPQ.

Although the 1972 edition of the HSPQ manual reports norms for males and females separately as well as for males and females combined, our analyses use only the combined norms. The scales that are strikingly different in distinguishing masculinity and femininity are A, G, and I, on which girls are higher, and $\mathrm{C}, \mathrm{E}$, and $\mathrm{Q}_{2}$, on which boys are higher. Cattell says these differences are identical with those found on the adult 16 P-F scale.

The first step was to perform a four-way analysis of variance of the HSPQ with race, sex, socio-economic status, and zygosity as the main effects variables. Table XII-F shows the level of significance of differences for the four main effects. Since only 4 of the 154 possible interactions were significant, no interpretation of interactions will be attempted.

Significant sex differences for the most part follow the pattern reported by Cattell: girls outscored boys on A, warmheartedness; G, superego strength; and I, tendermindedness. Boys outscored girls on C , ego

## Table XII-F

Effects of Race, Sex, Zygosity, and Socio-economic Status on the 14 Factors of Cattell's High School Personality Questionnaire, Using Sten Scores

| Factors | $\underset{\sim}{*}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \mathscr{O} \\ & \text { 世ू } \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \lambda \\ & \stackrel{\rightharpoonup}{0} \\ & \text { on } \\ & \stackrel{y}{0} \end{aligned}$ | 岛 |  |  | $$ | $$ | $\begin{aligned} & \mathscr{M} \\ & \underset{\sim}{x} \\ & \times \\ & \stackrel{\oplus}{\omega} \end{aligned}$ |  | $\begin{aligned} & \stackrel{\sim}{\omega} \\ & \times \\ & \times \\ & \ddot{\sim} \\ & \stackrel{\sim}{\alpha} \\ & \times \\ & \stackrel{\star}{\oplus} \end{aligned}$ |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| A | ** |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| B |  | ** |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| C | ** | ** |  | * |  |  |  |  |  |  | * |  |  |  |  |
| D |  |  |  | * |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| E | ** | ** |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| F | ** | ** |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| G | ** |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| H | ** |  | ** |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| I | ** |  |  |  | ** |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| J |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 0 |  |  |  |  |  | * |  |  | * |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| $\mathrm{Q}_{2}$ | ** | * | * |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Q ${ }^{\text {a }}$ |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Q4 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |

Note. Factor A: Reserved-warm-hearted
Factor B: Less intelligent-more intelligent
Factor C: Emotionally less stable-emotionally stable
Factor D: Inactive-overactive
Factor E: Submissive-dominant
Factor F: Serious-happy-go-lucky
Factor G: Weak superego-strong superego
Factor H: Shy-bold
Factor I: Tough-minded-tender-minded
Factor J: Zestful—restrained
Factor O: Secure-insecure
Factor $\mathbf{Q}_{\mathbf{2}}$ : Group-dependent-self-sufficient
Factor $\mathrm{Q}_{3}$ : Uncontrolled-controlled
Factor $\mathrm{Q}_{4}$ : Relaxed-tense

* $p<.05$.
** $p<.01$.
strength; E, dominance; $\mathbf{Q}_{2}$, self-sufficiency (Table XII-G). In addition to the six scales showing outstandingly different sex differences in Cattell's standardization, significant sex differences were revealed by our study on two additional scales- F and H , on which boys ranked higher. A high score on Factor F indicates a happy-go-lucky attitude rather than one of slow caution. Factor H represents the shy-bold continuum. Complete High School Personality Questionnaire profiles for boys and girls

Table XII-G
Least Squares Means for Cattell's High School Personality Questionnaire, Using Sten Scores by Sex, Race, Zygosity, and Socio-economic Status

| Factors | Sex |  | Race |  | Zygosity |  | SES |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | Male | Female | White | Black | MZ | DZ | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| A | 4.79 | 5.83 | 5.05 | 5.58 | 5.34 | 5.29 | 5.10 | 5.63 | 5.22 |
| B | 4.98 | 5.25 | 5.94 | 4.30 | 5.18 | 5.05 | 5.45 | 5.25 | 4.65 |
| C | 6.22 | 5.52 | 5.49 | 6.25 | 6.05 | 5.70 | 6.28 | 5.48 | 5.86 |
| D | 5.25 | 5.72 | 5.46 | 5.51 | 5.42 | 5.55 | 5.45 | 5.98 | 5.02 |
| E | 6.53 | 4.90 | 5.34 | 6.09 | 5.60 | 5.83 | 6.03 | 5.75 | 5.38 |
| F | 5.64 | 4.81 | 5.64 | 4.81 | 5.25 | 5.20 | 5.43 | 5.27 | 4.98 |
| G | 4.89 | 5.70 | 5.31 | 5.28 | 5.42 | 5.18 | 5.44 | 5.27 | 5.18 |
| H | 5.67 | 4.95 | 5.10 | 5.52 | 5.68 | 4.94 | 5.35 | 5.55 | 5.03 |
| I | 4.51 | 6.64 | 5.54 | 5.62 | 5.54 | 5.62 | 5.50 | 5.59 | 5.65 |
| J | 5.73 | 5.41 | 5.39 | 5.75 | 5.47 | 5.67 | 5.34 | 5.40 | 5.97 |
| 0 | 4.84 | 5.30 | 5.20 | 4.93 | 5.08 | 5.06 | 4.83 | 5.17 | 5.20 |
| $\mathrm{Q}_{2}$ | 6.34 | 5.18 | 5.41 | 6.11 | 5.41 | 6.10 | 5.57 | 5.81 | 5.89 |
| Q ${ }^{\text {a }}$ | 5.47 | 5.72 | 5.60 | 5.58 | 5.60 | 5.59 | 5.87 5.63 | 5.28 | 5.63 |
| $\mathrm{Q}_{4}$ | 5.65 | 5.95 | 5.90 | 5.70 | 5.56 | 6.04 | 5.63 | 6.08 | 5.70 |

Note. For a description of each factor, refer to footnote 1 of Table XII-F.
$1=$ High SES group
2 = Middle SES group
3 = Low SES group
are given in Figure XII-3. Significant sex differences in least squares means are also indicated.
On five $H S P Q$ scales there were significant mean race differences. Blacks were higher on Scale C, emotional stability; Scale E, dominance; and Scale $\mathrm{Q}_{2}$, self-sufficiency. Whites were significantly higher on Scale B, intelligence, and Scale F, happy-go-lucky. On the other nine scales the differences are nonsignificant. Personality profiles for the two races are shown in Figure XII-4. According to our analysis of the HSPQ scores, blacks as a group are more emotionally stable, dominant, and self-sufficient than whites, while whites are more intelligent and less seri-ous-minded.

With respect to zygosity, only 2 of the 14 scales showed significant differences. On Scale H, MZ's earned higher scores than DZ's; on Scale $\mathrm{Q}_{2}$, DZ's were the high scorers. These results indicate that MZ's are bold and group dependent while DZ's are shy and self-sufficient. Since 12 of the 14 personality scales demonstrated no significant zygosity differences, $H S P Q$ profiles were not prepared for the two types of twins.

The proportional, stratified design for standardization appears to have been effective in attenuating personality differences among the three social classes on the 14 HSPQ scales. On only two factors, C and D , are there significant differences among the three socio-economic groups, although these differences do not follow a regular pattern. High SES groups were high scorers on Scale C, indicating an emotionally stable personality.

** $p<.05$
Note: For Descriptions of the Factors, See Footnote of Table XII-F.
Figure XII-3. Least squares means of personality factors measured by Cattell's High School Personality Questionnaire for males and females.

The middle SES group earned high scores on Scale D, the inactive-overactive continuum. SES differences on the other 12 scales of the High School Personality Questionnaire are nonsignificant.

During the late 50 s and the early 60 s the Cattell personality scales were undergoing developmental revision and standardization. There have


Personality Factors

* $p<.01$
**p<.05
Note: For Descriptions of the Factors, See Footnote of Table XII-F.
Figure XII-4. Least squares means of personality factors measured by Cattell's High School Personality Questionnaire for whites and blacks.
been three previous heritability studies based on some form of Cattell's personality test for adolescents-two using the Junior Personality Quiz, one the High School Personality Questionnaire. Summaries of the three earlier studies and the present study are given in Table XII-H. Cattell, Blewett, and Beloff (1955), relying on the Junior Personality Quiz and numbering the factors 1 through 12, found no within-pair variance ratios significant for any of the 11 personality factors. However, for his Factor 12, intelligence, he reports a significant $F$ ratio. In Vandenberg's study of 36 DZ and 45 MZ adolescent twin pairs, three test factors of the Junior Personality Quiz showed significant within-pair variance ratios: B, nervous tension; C, neuroticism; and D, will control. Finding only 3 of 12 personality scales to yield significant heritability factors, Vandenberg was not enthusiastic about the possibility of continuing research along the same lines. He was fairly sure that our present day measures of personality are inadequate for studies of heritability factors and recommended an open-minded search of all possible test instruments.

The Gottesman study and this study are comparable in two ways. Each used the same form of the $H S P Q$ and the twin samples of the two studies were similar in age and sex distribution. Gottesman's (1963) only reference to socio-economic status was to note "a tendency toward better participation as the economic level of the neighborhood increased" (p. 4). He made no mention of race, but he did indicate that $90 \%$ of his twins were of Scandinavian or Western European extraction.

Table XII-H tells us that in Gottesman's study only Scales F, O, and $Q_{2}$ show significant within-pair variance ratios. In summarizing his data Gottesman (1963) says:
. . . the proportion of scale variance accounted for by heredity gave positive results for six of the HSPQ factors. Factors E, Submissiveness versus Dominance; H, Shy, Sensitive versus Adventurous; and J, Liking Group Action versus Fastidiously Individualistic showed appreciable variance accounted for by heredity but with environment predominating. Factors $\mathrm{F}, \mathrm{Q}_{2}$, and O , Confident Adequacy versus Guilt Proneness, showed about equal contributions of heredity and environment. (p. 19)

Comparing the Gottesman findings with ours, two of the three scales with significant genetic components in his study also had significant genetic variance in the Twin Study. Scale F, the sober-happy-go-lucky continuum, and Scale $Q_{2}$, group dependency, are the two significant factors common to both.

In the present study the additional parameter of race was introduced. Heritability ratios were computed for 63 pairs of same-sexed white twins and 80 pairs of same-sexed black twins. The two subsamples were com-
Table XII-H
Fratios of Within-pair Variances for Fraternal and Identical Twins on Personality Dimensions Measured by Junior Personality Quiz and High School Personality Questionnaire

| Personality Dimensions | Cattell et al. 1955 |  | Vandenberg$1962$ |  | Gottesman 1963 |  | Osbornepresent study |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | JPQ Factor | F ratios | JPQ Factor | F ratios | $\begin{aligned} & \text { HSPQ } \\ & \text { Factor } \end{aligned}$ | F ratios | HSPQ Factor | F ratios |
| Reserved-warm-hearted | 6 | 1.08 | F | 1.30 | A | 1.11 | A | 1.87* |
| Less intelligent-more intelligent | 12 | 1.91* | L | 1.10 | B | 1.05 | B | 1.49 |
| Emotionally less stable-emotionally stable | 3 | 1.60 | C | 3.20 * | ${ }_{\text {C }}$ | 1.03 | $\stackrel{\text { C }}{ }$ | 1.23 |
| Inactive-overactive | 5 | 1.35 | E | . 93 | D | . 62 | D | 1.01 |
| Submissive-dominant | 9 | . 90 | I | . 97 | E | 1.44 | E | 1.19 |
| Serious-happy-go-lucky | 11 | 1.47 | K | 1.45 | F | 2.29* | F | 1.92* |
| Weak superego-strong superego | 8 | 1.39 | H | 1.06 | G | 2. 97 | G | 1.92 1.44 |
| Shy-bold | 7 | 1.34 | G | . 93 | H | .97 1.62 | H | 1.44 1.33 |
| Tough-minded-tender-minded | , | 1.47 | A | .93 1.03 | H | 1.62 1.07 | H | 1.33 1.05 |
| Zestful-restrained | 10 | 1.57 | J | 1.54 | J | 1.41 | J | 1.05 1.30 |
| Secure-insecure Group-dependent-self-sufficient |  |  |  |  | 0 | 1.85* | 0 | . 90 |
| Group-dependent-self-sufficient Uncontrolled-controlled |  |  |  |  | Q2 | 2.28* | $\mathrm{Q}_{2}$ | 1.62* |
| Relaxed-tense | 4 | 1.08 1.56 | D | 1.87* | $\mathrm{Q}_{3}$ | 1.13 | Q ${ }^{\text {a }}$ | 1.36 |
| Number of DZ pairs | 2 | 32 | B | ${ }_{36}{ }^{\text {2.08* }}$ | Q4 | .$^{.53}$ | Q4 | 1.35 |
| Number of MZ pairs |  | 52 |  | 36 45 |  | 34 34 |  | $\begin{aligned} & 61 \\ & 8 \end{aligned}$ |

[^9]bined and heritability ratios computed for the total group. Computing heritability ratios by sex for each race might have produced interesting results, but with only nine pairs of black male DZ's, the statistical confidence would have been in short supply.

In Table XII-I heritability ratios are shown for the 14 scales of the High School Personality Questionnaire by race and for the total group. Five individual scales, A, E, F, G, and $\mathrm{Q}_{3}$, produce significant withinpair variance ratios for the smaller white sample, while for blacks two

## Table XII-I

Heritability Coefficients on the 14 Scales of Cattell's High School Personality Questionnaire by Race and Total Group: Classical Methods of Analysis Using Age-adjusted Raw Scores

| Factor | MZ |  | DZ |  | T(Cor) | Heritability Ratios |  | Within-pair Variances |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | Cor | N | Cor | N |  | H | HR | MZ | DZ | F |
| A |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| White | . 44 | 34 | -. 11 | 29 | 2.18 | . 49 | 2.52 | 7.49 | 17.12 | 2.29* |
| Black | . 36 | 48 | . 09 | 32 | 1.20 | . 30 | 1.49 | 6.44 | 9.03 | 1.40 |
| Total | . 43 | 82 | -. 01 | 61 | 2.69 | . 43 | 2.03 | 6.87 | 12.88 | 1.87** |
| B |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| White | . 35 | 34 | . 55 | 29 | -. 92 | $-.43$ | -1.10 | 1.87 | 1.41 | . 76 |
| Black | . 48 | 48 | . 18 | 32 | 1.44 | . 37 | 1.26 | 1.92 | 4.09 | 2.14** |
| Total | . 54 | 82 | . 44 | 61 | . 73 | . 17 | . 36 | 1.90 | 2.82 | 1.49 |
| C |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| White | . 21 | 34 | . 21 | 29 | $-.01$ | . 00 | -. 02 | 9.47 | 9.50 | 1.00 |
| Black | . 41 | 48 | . 06 | 32 | 1.57 | . 37 | 1.71 | 7.32 | 10.63 | 1.45 |
| Total | . 33 | 82 | . 17 | 61 | 1.01 | . 20 | . 97 | 8.21 | 10.09 | 1.23 |
| D |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| White | . 21 | 34 | . 34 | 29 | -. 53 | -. 20 | -1.22 | 8.71 | 10.05 | 1.16 |
| Black | . 19 | 48 | . 04 | 32 | . 65 | . 16 | 1.58 | 9.54 | 8.50 | . 89 |
| Total | . 20 | 82 | . 23 | 61 | -. 15 | -. 03 | -. 25 | 9.20 | 9.24 | 1.01 |
| E |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| White | . 39 | 34 | . 04 | 29 | 1.40 | . 37 | 1.78 | 4.59 | 9.64 9.03 | 2.10* |
| Black | . 15 | 48 | . 18 | 32 | -. 14 | -. 04 | -. 44 | 10.18 | 9.03 | . 89 |
| Total | . 23 | 82 | . 12 | 61 | . 63 | . 12 | . 93 | 7.86 | 9.32 | 1.19 |
| F |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| White | . 50 | 34 | -. 16 | 29 | 2.67 | .57 .20 | 2.64 73 |  | 13.14 8.25 | $2.52 * *$ 1.44 |
| Black | . 41 | 48 | . 26 | 32 | . 70 | . 20 | .73 1.53 | 5.74 5.52 | 8.25 10.57 | 1.44 $1.92 * *$ |
| Total | . 51 | 82 | . 12 | 61 | 2.54 | . 44 | 1.53 | 5.52 | 10.57 | 1.92** |
| G White |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| White | . 44 | 34 | -. 01 | 29 | 1.81 | . 45 | 2.04 3.71 | 4.99 8.06 | 11.33 8.36 | 1.04 |
| Black | . 13 | 48 | -. 11 | 32 | 1.00 | . 21 | 3.71 2.40 | 8.06 6.79 | 8.36 9.77 | 1.04 1.44 |
| Total | . 26 | 82 | -. 05 | 61 | 1.81 | . 29 | 2.40 | 6.79 | 9.77 | 1.44 |
| ${ }^{\text {H }}$ White |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| White | . 13 | 34 | . 04 | 29 | .33 2.00 | . 09 | 1.35 4.49 | 11.82 8.68 | 13.60 12.91 |  |
| Black Total | . 21 | 48 | -. 26 | 32 | 2.00 1.48 | . 37 | 4.49 2.95 | 8.68 9.98 | 12.91 13.24 | 1.49 1.33 |
| Total | . 17 | 82 | -. 08 | 61 | 1.48 | . 23 | 2.95 | 9.98 | 13.24 | 1.33 |
| I White | . 74 | 34 | . 67 | 29 | . 54 | . 22 | . 19 | 7.27 | 9.28 | 1.28 |
| Black | . 45 | 48 | . 41 | 32 | . 21 | . 07 | . 18 | 8.05 | 7.06 | . 88 |
| Total | . 63 | 82 | . 59 | 61 | . 35 | . 09 | . 12 | 7.73 | 8.11 | 1.05 |

Table XII-I (Continued)

| Factor | MZ |  | DZ |  | T(Cor) | Heritability Ratios |  | Within-pair Variances |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | Cor | N | Cor | N |  | H | HR | MZ | DZ | F |
| J |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| White | . 02 | 34 | . 08 | 29 | $-.23$ | -. 07 | -6.22 | 6.75 | 9.34 | 1.38 |
| Black | . 21 | 48 | . 11 | 32 | . 44 | . 12 | . 97 | 6.71 | 8.14 | 1.21 |
| Total | . 15 | 82 | . 11 | 61 | . 27 | . 05 | . 61 | 6.73 | 8.71 | 1.30 |
| O |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| White | -. 09 | 34 | . 16 | 29 | -. 96 | -. 30 | 5.59 | 12.38 | 10.98 | . 89 |
| Black | . 27 | 48 | . 15 | 32 | . 53 | . 14 | . 89 | 8.41 | 7.30 | . 87 |
| Total | . 12 | 82 | . 16 | 61 | -. 23 | $-.05$ | -. 62 | 10.05 | 9.05 | . 90 |
| $\mathrm{Q}_{2}$ |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| White | . 32 | 34 | . 24 | 29 | . 33 | . 11 | . 50 | 7.88 | 11.48 | 1.46 |
| Black | . 33 | 48 | . 11 | 32 | . 99 | . 25 | 1.34 | 5.89 | 10.33 | 1.76* |
| Total | . 33 | 82 | . 22 | 61 | . 69 | . 14 | . 67 | 6.71 | 10.88 | 1.62* |
| $\mathrm{Q}_{3}$ |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| White | . 29 | 34 | $-.11$ | 29 | 1.54 | . 36 | 2.79 | 7.00 | 14.17 | 2.03* |
| Black | . 14 | 48 | . 06 | 32 | . 35 | . 09 | 1.18 | 8.80 | 8.03 | . 91 |
| Total | . 20 | 82 | $-.04$ | 61 | 1.41 | . 23 | 2.39 | 8.05 | 10.95 | 1.36 |
| $\mathrm{Q}_{4}$ |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| White | . 27 | 34 | . 06 | 29 | . 81 | . 22 | 1.53 | 9.25 | 12.50 | 1.35 |
| Black | . 25 | 48 | . 00 | 32 | 1.09 | . 25 | 2.01 | 8.11 | 10.78 | 1.33 |
| Total | . 26 | 82 | . 03 | 61 | 1.37 | . 24 | 1.75 | 8.59 | 11.60 | 1.35 |

Note. For a description of each factor, refer to footnote 1 of Table XII-F.

* $p<.05$.
** $p<.01$.
scales, $B$ and $Q_{2}$, are significant. The five scales showing significant genetic control of personality factors for the white sample would suggest that such traits as warmth, sociability (A), dominance (E), enthusiasm (F), conscientiousness (G), and strong willpower $\left(Q_{3}\right)$ have significant genetic determination. Of the 14 HSPQ scales only 2 scales, B , general intelligence, and $Q_{2}$, self-sufficiency, indicated significant heritability components for the black group. When the samples of 80 black and 63 white twin pairs were combined and heritability ratios computed, only Scales $A, F$, and $Q_{2}$ showed significant genetic determination. Scales $A$ and $F$ also yielded significant within-pair variance ratios for whites alone.

Since we have reported the results of two separate twin studies of personality-one using Jenkins' How Well Do You Know Yourself? the other, Cattell's High School Personality Questionnaire-two questions arise: (1) are there common personality patterns on the two scales; (2) do the common personality factors reflect similar genetic components? There are 17 personality factors on Jenkins' test and 14 on the Cattell scale, with no two scales being identified exactly the same. Seven scales on Jenkins' test have no common scale on the Cattell test. Of the ten scales that are somewhat alike on the two tests, no comparable scales yielded heritability ratios greater than .30 for the total samples. In these
two studies, two scales on How Well Do You Know Yourself?-General morale and Submissiveness-and three on High School Personality Ques-tionnaire-restraint, insecurity, and tension-were not significantly influenced by race, sex, or zygosity (or socio-economic status for the three HSPQ scales). In addition, all five personality dimensions had non-significant heritability ratios.

Is there a significant genetic component in personality factors measured by the Jenkins and Cattell scales? From our analyses of responses of over 400 sets of same-sexed twins, we find little convincing evidence that these measured personality factors have a significant genetic determination. On most test factors, identical twins are more alike than fraternal. However, our heritability ratios are consistently smaller than those reported by Vandenberg (1967b) and Breland (1972). Summarizing 14 twin studies of personality, Vandenberg reports median $r$ 's of .48 for MZ's and .28 for DZ's. Nichols (1976), reviewing over 30 twin studies which reported 106 dimensions of personality, found mean r's of .48 for MZ's and .29 for DZ's. For the 17 scales of How Well Do You Know Yourself?, we found median MZ $r$ 's of .26 ; DZ's, .04 . For the total group the median MZ $r$ of the 14 scales of the High School Personality Questionnaire was .26 ; the median $\mathrm{DZ} r$, 12 .

Our inability to isolate genetic aspects of personality is not so much a weakness of the twin method of research as it is a weakness of the tests used to measure personality. Such tests are not as reliable as tests of mental capacity. When personality factors are identified and measured with the same dependability as IQ, then and perhaps only then will investigators be able to determine the degree to which personality obeys the laws of genetics.

## XIII

## The Visual Evoked Response: Heritability Estimates

The fact that the brain wave tracing is a heritable trait can hardly be questioned (Dustman \& Beck, 1965; Lennox \& Lennox, 1960). At the risk of engaging in twin-study overkill, this chapter, portions of which are taken from a paper by the author (Osborne, 1970), will investigate monozygotic and dizygotic twin correlations for a unique portion of the brain wave tracing, the cortical potential evoked by a light stimulus, otherwise known as the visual evoked response (VER). The MZ and DZ correlations will be compared with those of known biometric resemblances of twins; i.e., face length, head circumference, standing height, weight, and color blindness. Comparisons of VER correlations for cotwins, for age-matched controls, and for bilateral self-correlation will also be made. The periods of the theta, alpha, and beta components of the VER for MZ and DZ twins will be related to scores on a standard test of mental ability. It is recognized that the small number of twins, especially DZ twins, makes intraclass correlations suspect. Nevertheless, the VER self-correlations, co-twin correlations, and twin correlations with matched controls are impressive.

Adolescent and pre-adolescent twins of the same sex from Northeast Georgia served as paid volunteer subjects. The sample was comprised of 13 pairs of MZ twins and 6 pairs of DZ twins ( 16 girls and 22 boys, age range 11 to 22). One pair of the twins was black. Thirty-eight unrelated control subjects were matched with the twins for sex and age.

Zygosity was established by serological tests performed at the Minneapolis War Memorial Blood Bank. S's were tested for all of the following serological factors: A, B, O, M, N, S, s, $\mathrm{P}_{1}, \mathrm{P}_{2}$, Rho, $\mathrm{rh}^{\prime}$, $\mathrm{rh}^{\prime \prime}$, Miltenberger,

Vermeyst, Lewis, Lutheran, Duffy, Kidd, Sutter, Martin, Kell, and Cellano. Twins whose serological phenotypes were identical were designated MZ. Those differing on one or more of these serological types were designated DZ (Race \& Sanger, 1954). Six pairs of twins were diagnosed as definitely DZ since they differed on at least one independently inherited blood group. Employing only the results of the serological tests it was possible to diagnose the remaining 13 pairs as MZ with a $95 \%$ probability of accuracy.

During the experiment the subjects reclined on a hospital bed. Subdermal electrodes were inserted midway between the ear and the vertex on both sides of the scalp. Dominance was determined by handedness. The ipsolateral ear was used as a reference. The ground electrode was inserted in the mid-occipital area.

A Grass Photo Stimulator, ES3B, was placed 30 cm from the face of the subject, who was instructed to relax comfortably with eyes closed. The Grass amplifier was set to the normal 7.5 mm sensitivity, with the high frequency filter set at 70 and low frequency at 1.

The EEG signals were amplified with the Grass Model 6A5 EEG machine. Signals were then fed to a dual-channel, on-line, active bandpass filter system which separated the VER into the three common EEG bands: Theta 3 to 7 cps ; Alpha 8 to 13 cps ; Beta 14 to 22 cps . The analyzed VER signals were next fed to the four input channels of a computer of average transients, CAT 1000 . The output of the filter system was adjusted to unity gain for the raw EEG and for the alpha band, a gain of 2 for the theta band, and a gain of 3 for the beta band. Figure XIII-1 shows in channel 1 the raw EEG signal from electrode $1-\mathrm{A}_{1}$. Theta, alpha, and beta activities contained in this raw signal are recorded simultaneously on channels 2,3 , and 4 respectively. The second raw signal from $2-\mathrm{A}_{2}$ is recorded on channel 5 with the analyzed portions of this signal recorded on channels 6,7 , and 8.

The CAT was set for 4 milliseconds per address analysis and triggered the photo stimulator after the 64th address of channel 1 or 256 milliseconds after the start of a CAT sweep. Flashes were repeated until the scope tracing was centered in the $10^{4}$ scale, approximately 75 flashes per subject. Each quarter of the memory was plotted separately on a Mosley X-Y plotter allowing one-fourth of the memory for each 14.5 inch graph. Thus for each subject four X-Y plots were obtained from the left hemisphere, one for the VER and one each for the alpha, beta, and theta components of the raw signal. Four plots were also obtained from the right hemisphere.

Visual evoked response tracings of a pair of MZ (ID \#902) girls and a pair of DZ (ID \#916) girls are shown in Figures XIII-2 and XIII-3. (Each tracing represents an average of 75 responses evoked by the flash stimulus.) These tracings were not selected as being representa-


Figure XIII-1. A portion of an analyzed EEG record showing the raw signal from electrode $1-\mathrm{A}_{1}$ (right frontal to right ear lobe) on channel 1 . Theta, alpha, and beta activities contained in the raw signal are shown simultaneously on channels 2,3 , and 4 respectively. A downward deflection denotes a surface positive wave.
tive of all twins in this study but rather to illustrate the subtle similarities and differences that are observed in the visual evoked response.

The concordance of the VER's of twins 902-1 and 902-2 is immediately apparent in Figure XIIII-2. In all four tracings the first significant event after the flash falls within the very narrow range of 10 to 20 ms -remarkable when we consider the VER's in Figure XIII-2 represent four separate experiments: tracing number 1 is the average of 75 flashes from an electrode attached to the mid-parietal area of the left hemisphere of twin $902-1$; tracing number 2 is from the right side evoked by 75 different flashes; the other two tracings are for twin 902-2. Tracings of the twins can hardly be distinguished. The VER's from the two hemispheres of the same subject are concordant. The four tracings of these MZ twins are almost congruent.

The visual evoked responses for twin pair 916-1 and 916-2 (W, F, DZ) are clearly different. These four experiments were conducted as were those with pair 902 , but with significantly different results that


Figure XIII-2. Visual evoked responses for MZ twin pair \#902. Left and right hemisphere recordings were not made simultaneously. There was a short rest period between VER 1 and VER 2 and also between VER 3 and VER 4.
will become understandable in the next section. For the first pair of twins the most significant event after the flash for all four tracings fell within a range of 10 to 20 ms , whereas the range for pair 916 was over 200 ms . Note also the spiky waves, especially on the left side of twin 916-1. For this pair of DZ twins the VER tracings are in no way alike. Differences are clearly noticeable between twins and also between hemispheres of the same subject. Neurological reports from the clinical


Figure XIII-3. Visual evoked responses for DZ twin pair \#916. Left and right hemisphere recordings were not made simultaneously. There was a short rest period between VER 1 and VER 2 and also between VER 3 and VER 4.

EEG's which follow will in part explain the wide differences in the evoked responses.

Twin 902-1, W, F, MZ: There is a well developed alpha rhythm which is slightly spiky at times. Five- to seven-second activity is generalized throughout the record. The tracing is stable on hyperventilation. Flicker adds fast waves. Impression: Quite normal.

Twin 902-2: There is well developed ten cycle per second alpha rhythm. There is a moderate amount of five- to seven-second activity which increases in drowsiness. There is little change in hyperventilation. This is a normal tracing.

Twin 916-1, W, F, DZ: The tracing is characterized by unstable patterns, varying on the two sides with a generally poorly organized pattern of activity. Low voltage fast activity, often spiky, appears throughout the record. There are many sharp waves and a few spikes. With drowsiness, bursts of spiky activity occur. Abnormal slow and sharp patterns build up on hyperventilation. Impression: The tracing is mildly abnormal because of its instability and randomly distributed paroxysmal abnormalities.

Twin 916-2: Tracing begins in the waking state. It is characterized by a great mixture of frequencies in poorly organized patterns and with much difference between the hemispheres. There is a nine per second rhythm. It is often spiky. Four to six per second waves and small sharp waves are common. There are many irregular two to three per second waves present as baseline shifts. Impression: A generally dysrhythmic tracing. One might expect such a record after encephalitis or in a relative of an epileptic.

The wave components of the plot of the raw VER signal are determined by phase change of the evoked response over time. In order to correlate the plots of two subjects, ordinates were erected at one-fourth inch intervals from the base line below the largest positive deflection beginning with the light flash. For each X-Y VER plot, 30 ordinates describing the response were used to compute co-twin, control, and inter-hemispheric correlations for each subject.

For both MZ's and DZ's, Revised Beta Examination (1962) scores and periods of the three major components of the VER were correlated. Intraclass correlations were computed for the Revised Beta Examination and for the periods of the major components of the VER. The periods of alpha, beta, and theta components were determined directly from the X-Y plots (Osborne, 1969).

Table XIII-A shows mean evoked response correlations for MZ's and DZ's with co-twin, with self, and with unrelated age-matched control subjects. The mean $r$ ' $s$ are in the posited direction, $M Z>\mathrm{DZ}>$ controls, but the group differences are not significant. The Duncan multiple range test shows both identical and fraternal twins were significantly more highly correlated with self than with matched controls. The twins were also significantly more highly correlated with their co-twin than with the matched control subjects. VER correlations of twins with controls were at chance level-. 13 for MZ's and .11 for DZ's. Both types of twins were more highly correlated with self than with co-twin. After the experiment was begun one MZ twin was found to have an abnormal

## Table XIII-A

Coefficients of Correlation of Visual Evoked Responses from Dominant Hemisphere Among Monozygotic and Dizygotic Twins: Correlations Between Twin and Co-Twin, Twin and Self (Left vs. Right), and Twin and Matched Control

|  | Number <br> of <br> pairs | Mean <br> Age | Age <br> Range |  | $\overline{\mathrm{Xr}}$ | Range of $r$ 's |
| :--- | :---: | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | ---: |

* See text for explanation of this $r$.
clinical EEG record with spike and sharp wave focus in the left temporal area.

For this subject the inter-hemispheric correlation was .08 . No other MZ subject had self-correlation below .61 ; several were in the .90 s. Four subjects from the monozygotic sample had higher correlations with their twin than with responses from the two sides of their own scalp. When VER records of twins were correlated with those of age and sex-matched controls, no correlation was as great as that of the twin with his cotwin.

Because of the small number of DZ twins, heritability ratios were not computed, but intraclass $r$ 's were found for the three primary VER components-alpha, beta, and theta-and for the mental test score. From an earlier twin study (Osborne, Gregor, \& Miele, 1968) intraclass $r$ 's for face length, head circumference, height, weight, and color blindness were borrowed for comparative purposes.

From Table XIII-B it is seen that the MZ intraclass $r$ 's for the alpha and beta VER components are higher than the corresponding DZ correlations. For alpha the MZ $r$ is .60 ; DZ, . 12 ; for beta $\mathrm{MZ} r$ is .30 ; DZ , .08. For the slow-wave theta component, the $\mathrm{DZ} r$ is greater than that for identical twins, MZ, 20 and DZ, .46. In Table XIII-B the DZ intraclass $r$ 's for alpha, beta, and theta VER components are smaller than the $r$ 's for biometric data (with the exception of color blindness) but greater than $r$ 's for the mental test data. The psychometric and biometric control data, it might be added, represent heritability estimates of wellestablished polygenetic human characteristics (Huntley, 1966).

With the exception of the reversal of the intraclass $r$ 's for the theta component of the VER the experimental results support earlier studies indicating that the brain wave tracing is a heritable trait. The lowered intraclass $r$ 's for the VER components are a function of the small number

## Table XIII-B

Intraclass Correlations for Psychometric, Biometric, and Visual Evoked Response Parameters

|  | Intraclass <br> $r$ 's for MZ's | Intraclass <br> r's for DZ's |
| :--- | :---: | :---: |
| Visual Evoked Response Components |  |  |
| VER alpha, period in ms | .60 | .12 |
| VER beta, period in ms | .30 | .08 |
| VER theta, period in ms | .20 | .46 |
| Revised Beta Examination | .89 | -.03 |
| Revised Beta score (IQ) |  |  |
| Biometric Resemblance | .84 | .69 |
| Face length (mm) | .81 | .54 |
| Head circumference (in.) | .88 | .68 |
| Standing height (in.) | .84 | .72 |
| Weight (lbs.) | .85 | .04 |
| Color blindness (Dvorine) |  |  |

of twins, especially DZ's, and the less than perfect method of determining periods for the alpha, beta, and theta VER components. Although the $\mathrm{X}-\mathrm{Y}$ plots were read by well-trained judges, it is difficult to determine by visual inspection the periods of VER components when the plots are not sinusoidal.

The mean VER correlation for MZ's was .77, for DZ's, .53. These data compare favorably with Huntley's (1966) MZ of .83 and DZ of .58 for intelligence and MZ $r$ 's of .82 and DZ $r$ 's of .58 reported by Dustman and Beck (1965) for the visual evoked response. The concordance of correlations for biometric, psychometric, and VER data for the several twin samples is remarkable.

Many investigators, Schwartz and Shagass (1962), Kooi and Bagchi (1964), Dustman and Beck (1963), have reported the visual evoked response to be a reliable and stable physical measurement. Questions have been raised, however, by other investigators, Callaway and Buchsbaum (1965), Pampiglione (1967), Bickford, Jacobson, and Cody (1964), concerning the variability of the scalp evoked response. Is the VER stable over time? Can electrode placement and other laboratory techniques be standardized to yield reliable tracings? Does the number of responses averaged affect the stability of the VER? Are some portions of the tracing more stable than others? Inspection of the X-Y plots would suggest that the portion of the tracing immediately following the light flash is highly reliable while the later portions are unstable. VER records taken for the same subject as long as 17 weeks apart yield reliability coefficients ranging from .82 to .84 . For the reliability study the electrodes were removed and replaced as nearly as possible to the original locations. When the electrodes were left in place and the flashes were repeated the same day, the reliability coefficients were all above .90 . Inter-hemi-
spheric correlations for the evoked response are no higher on the average than $r$ 's for the same subjects taken 4 to 17 weeks apart from the same electrode positions.

After 16 flashes the number of flashes comprising the average VER has little effect on the stability of the tracing. The VER produced from the average of 16 flashes correlates .89 with that produced by 64 flashes and .81 with that produced by 128 flashes. The 64 response average correlates .98 with the average of 128 flashes and .85 with the average of 256 flashes.

By dividing the VER tracing after the flash into three equal 250 ms plots and correlating each part with a corresponding part of another tracing of the same subject, the first third of the plot is shown to be highly stable. For ten tracings involving three different subjects the $r$ 's were all above .88 . The median $r$ for the first 250 ms was .94 ; for the middle third of the tracing, .62 ; for the last third of the plot, -.07 . From these results it is clear that the visual evoked response is stable over time, although not all parts of the tracing are equally congruent. For all normal subjects the portion of the response evoked the first 250 ms after the flash is almost perfectly reliable. Some subjects' records appeared to be much more stable than others 500 or 750 ms after the stimulus.

Cortical response patterns evoked by a light stimulus were studied for identical and fraternal twins and for age and sex-matched control subjects. The evoked potential (VER) responses were analyzed with a dual-channel, on-line, active band-pass filter system which separated the raw VER into the three common EEG frequency bands. The signals were next fed to the four input channels of a CAT 1000 computer of average transients. For each subject four X-Y plots representing the raw VER and the three major VER components were obtained.

Comment: The visual evoked response determined from subdermal scalp electrodes is a stable and reliable physical measurement. Using only standard laboratory techniques the first 250 ms of the pattern after the stimulus is almost perfectly reliable for periods as long as 17 weeks.

The hereditary nature of the visual evoked response is shown by the high degree of similarity of response patterns for identical twins and by the predictable decrease in similarity for fraternal twins and for unrelated control subjects. The concordance of the visual evoked response intraclass correlations for MZ and DZ twins with those of well established polygenetic, biometric, and psychometric human characteristics is remarkable.

## XIV

## Electroencephalograms of Twins

In the previous chapter it was shown that the portions of the brain wave tracing known as the visual evoked response yielded intraclass correlations for MZ and DZ twins similar to those of well-established polygenetic, biometric, and psychometric human characteristics. In this chapter the more subjective and clinical aspects of the EEG tracing, including neurological interpretations, will be examined for the twins participating in this phase of the experiment. Heritability ratios will not be computed but records will be compared on the basis of those EEG characteristics known to be reliable indicators of electrical activity of the normal human brain.
The electroencephalogram is made up of electrical rhythms which may be distinguished on the basis of scalp location, amplitude, form, and frequency. Location of the electrical discharge is designated by the scalp placement of the surface electrode which will be fully explained later.

Wave amplitude, measured in microvolts, is determined by comparing peak-to-trough dimensions of a wave form to that of a signal of known voltage. Amplitudes are not always defined exactly. Abnormally high or low voltages are generally indicated in the diagnostic impression, while voltages in the middle ranges are not mentioned or are said to be "within normal limits."

Wave forms are described by technicians to convey important diagnostic information to the neurologist. Except when the wave forms have specific diagnostic significance-for example, positive spikes or spike and wave forms-broad, general, descriptive terms are used. The diagnostic impression may mention such wave characteristics as "small, spiky, sharp waves, low voltage, irregular fast patterns."

Frequency is described in cycles per second (cps) or by the Greek
letters, alpha, beta, or theta, which represent relatively broad wave bands. The alpha wave band covers 8 through 16 cps ; beta, 14 through 22 cps ; and theta, 4 through 8 cps . Occasionally very slow waves, delta waves, are observed in the .5 to 3.0 cps range.

Although the placement of scalp electrodes may vary slightly from one laboratory to another, all systems use standard physiological landmarks as points of reference. Normally a minimum of eight electrodes are placed at symmetrical points in the frontal, temporal parietal and occipital regions. Ear lobes serve as reference electrodes. The system of electrode placement used in this experiment is shown in Figure XIV-


## University of Georgia EEG LABORATORY

Figure XIV-1. System of electrode placement used in the twin study.

1. In addition the technician may vary the entire ensemble of electrodes at the console of the EEG machine.

All areas of the human cortex are able to produce alpha rhythms. However, the amplitude and frequency may differ from one cortical region to the other. For example, occipital areas always show a higher alpha amplitude than the frontal. Furthermore, the alpha rhythm is not the same over the entire scalp. This is demonstrated in Figure 1, Chapter XIII.

Using the system described in Chapter XIII, EEG records of twins were analyzed. Portions of the twin records 910-1 and 910-2 in Figure XIV-2 demonstrate: (1) all areas of the scalp not only produce alpha

| Twin 910-1 | Twin 910-2 |
| :---: | :---: |
|  |  |
| Theto |  |
| Alpha | มัากา |
| Beta |  |
|  |  |
| Theto |  |
| $\frac{\text { Alpha }}{8-13 \text { cps }}$ мunา |  |
|  | - |
| Figure XIV-2. Identical portions of analyzed signal from the right frontal electrode, 2-A2, and beta activities contained in the raw signa 2,3 , and 4 . Note especially that the alpha frontal areas, shows up clearly in the analyzed <br> In the lower half of the figure, the analysi right occipital areas, 6-A $\mathbf{A}_{2}$. Alpha activity is alpha channel. Beta and theta do not show up in the analyzed records. <br> Examination of the left and right halves of th lograms of these twins are remarkably similar amplitude. (See Chapter XIII for a descriptio experiment.) | EEG records of twin pair 910. The raw seen in the first channel. Theta, alpha, are visible simultaneously on channels ctivity, not normally prominent in the record. <br> is repeated using the signals from the clearly in the raw signal and on the early in the raw signal but are prominent <br> figure demonstrates that electroencephain respect to wave form, frequency, and of the frequency analyzer used in this |

rhythms but also beta and theta rhythms; (2) the remarkable similarity of the EEG patterns of MZ twins.

In addition to the frequency analyzer, the EEG technician has other methods of teasing out the information needed by the neurologist to arrive at a valid diagnostic impression. As the subject falls asleep, the electrical activity of the brain goes through a series of changes easily recognized on the EEG tracing. At the beginning of drowsiness in the normal subject, the alpha rhythm is gradually replaced by irregular, mixed frequency activity. As the subject goes from light to moderately deep sleep, bilateral synchronous slow activity is discerned. With the onset of deep sleep the record slows even more, down to .5 cps . MZ twins 906-1 and 906-2 are concordant for most EEG activity except for sleep records, portions of which are shown in Figure XIV-3. Twin 906-1 exhibits a normal sleep record while spike and wave activity in the 906-2 record suggests a convulsive tendency. See Figure XIV-3 and diagnostic impression for twins 906-1 and 906-2 under electroencephalographic findings.

Overbreathing or hyperventilation also alters the normal waking EEG activity. With overbreathing there is a gradual onset of slow waves and a reduction of alpha and beta rhythms. With the cessation of hyperventilation, the record returns to normal within 30 to 60 seconds. The records of DZ twins 917-1 and 917-2 look very much alike except for the hyperventilation runs. In fact, both would be classified normal except that overbreathing by 917-1 elicited paroxysmal abnormalities, especially in the left frontal area. See Figure XIV-4 and the diagnostic impression for this pair of twins.

A third common method used to enhance the EEG activity is a flashing light. Photic stimulation of stroboscopic light produces general cerebral

Twin 906-1


12-6 תя


Twin 906-2




Figure XIV-3. Identical portions of EEG's of MZ twin pair 906 during sleep. The tracing of twin 906-1 reflects a normal sleep pattern. The chart of 906-2 indicates definite and frequent spike activity in sleep, which suggests a minimal convulsive tendency.

Twin 917-1


Twin 917-2






Figure XIV-4. Records of DZ twin pair 917 after 2 min .40 sec . of hyperventilation. Overbreathing elicits paroxysmal abnormalities especially in the temporal area for 917-1 and increases spiky activity for 917-2, though the overall clinical EEG's of both are within normal limits.
activity over a wide range of frequencies. The stimulation is usually presented with the subject's eyes closed, using a system very similar to that described in the evoked response experiment in Chapter XIII. Records of MZ twins 913-1 and 913-2 manifest the normal response to flicker despite the fact that both records show other abnormalities. (See electroencephalographic findings in the following section.) The alpha rhythm of $913-1$ is $9 \mathrm{cps} ; 913-2,10$ to 11 . With the onset of the flashing light, alpha blocking is clearly evident in Figure XIV-5. At higher fre-

Twin 913-1




Twin 913-2





Figure XIV-5. Identical portions of the responses to photic stimulation of MZ twin pair 913. Although records of both twins are abnormal in other ways, their responses to photic stimulation are normal and remarkably similar. At the onset of the flashing light, alpha blocking is clearly visible.
quencies, subharmonics of the flicker frequency are sometimes noted.
Nineteen pairs of twins participated in the EEG experiment. For most subjects, the complete record included frequency analysis, sleep recording, hyperventilation activity, and reaction to variable light flicker. While some tense and anxious subjects were unable to fall asleep, others had to be aroused to get a full waking record. The EEG's were interpreted by a neurologist who was unaware the subjects were twins. Interpretations of the EEG records are given below. Where differences or similarities between the twins are quite apparent, significant portions of the tracings will be shown; otherwise, only the diagnostic impression will be reported.

## Electroencephalographic Findings

Twin 901-1 is white, male, MZ, CA18. There is a spiky 11 cps occipital alpha rhythm with a moderate amount of spiky, fast activity in all areas, together with scattered small, sharp waves and some 6 to 7 cps waves. Voltage is higher on the far left portion. Photic stimulation produced a spiky, fast response, higher on the left especially at 15 flashes per second. Diagnostic impression: Despite the spiky, fast activity this tracing is within normal limits.

The tracing of twin 901-2 generally has a very spiky appearance. There is a 12 cps alpha rhythm which is well sustained. Small spikes and occasional sharp waves are mixed in with it. There is a moderate amount of 6 to 7 cps activity. At times this seems more common on the left in the temporal areas. There is little change on photic stimulation. Hyperventilation adds fast activity. Diagnostic impression: The large amount of spiky, fast activity puts this tracing into the borderline category. Could the subject have been on antihistamines or some other medication which might have produced the fast activity?

Twin 902-1 is white, female, MZ, CA20. This tracing was taken in the waking state only, when subject was said to have been very tense and nervous. There is a well-developed 10 cps occipital alpha rhythm, slightly spiky at times because of some superimposed spiky 18 to 24 cps activity. Some 5 to 7 cps activity is noted. At times active scalp and jaw muscles obscure cortical patterns. The record is stable on hyperventilation. Flicker evokes fast waves. Diagnostic impression: Looks quite normal.

For twin 902-2 there is well-developed 10 cps alpha rhythm. Lowvoltage fast activity gives the alpha a spiky wave form at times. There is a moderate amount of 5 to 7 cps activity which increases in drowsiness. The tracing shows little change in hyperventilation. Flicker adds fast waves. Diagnostic impression: A normal tracing.

Twin $903-1$ is white, female, MZ, CA22. Alpha prevails at $101 / 2$ to 11 cps . Muscle artifact is prominent. Hyperventilation produces little
or no slowing. Photic driving is present at 8 through 15 cps with added first subharmonic at ten. Very mild depression of activity is seen on the right. Diagnostic impression: Normal.

For twin 903-2 alpha rhythm is 11. Fast and slow frontal and central activity occurs when sleepy. Hyperventilation produces little or no slowing. Photic driving is seen at 8 to 15 cps , mostly with subharmonics. Diagnostic impression: Normal.

Twin 904-1 is white, female, MZ, CA18. A spiky-looking 11 to 12 cps occipital alpha rhythm is better maintained and is bigger on the left. Low-voltage spiky, fast activity is prominent. A moderate amount of 4 to 7 cps activity and a few slower waves are apparent. Spikes occur in both hemispheres. Some display fast activity. Sharp waves appear in \#7 and \#11, the left anterior and posterior temporal areas. There is little change on hyperventilation. A marked spiky, fast response to photic stimulation is visible. Diagnostic impression: This is a borderline tracing because of the spiky asymmetrical patterns higher on the left, and the spikes and sharp waves.

Twin 904-2 demonstrates an intermittent 12 cps occipital alpha rhythm. Superimposed fast waves give it a spiky appearance. A good deal of 6 to 7 cps activity is present. Small, sharp and spiky patterns often appear in the left parieto-occipital area. Response to flicker creates bigger and spikier waves on the left. Hyperventilation brings out the spiky patterns. Diagnostic impression: Normal except for some very minor spiky patterns in the left parieto-occipital region. These may be a residual of her childhood injury.

Twin 905-1 is white, female, MZ, CA16. Low-voltage irregular, fast patterns and some 6 to 7 cps waves appear at the outset. Bursts of bigger 6 to 7 cps waves and sharp waves are present, along with occasional high-voltage sharp waves, spikes and spike and wave forms. Spikes and sharp waves increase with drowsiness. There are atypical sharp waves with the vertex hump stage. Fourteen cps spindles appear bilaterally. After arousal an 8 to 10 cps alpha rhythm is noted. Hyperventilation increases abnormalities only slightly. Flicker at 15 cps rate triggers spike and wave forms. Diagnostic impression: Mildly abnormal and compatible with a convulsive disorder. There is no focus, with a very marked photic sensitivity at 15 cps flash.

Twin 905-2 has an intermittent spiky 8 to 9 cps alpha rhythm. Spiky, fast waves also occur in runs. A good deal of 5 to 6 cps activity prevails. Spikes and sharp waves are common, especially in frontal and temporal leads. There are bursts of 14 and 6 cps positive spikes and 6 cps waves and 6 cps spike and wave forms which occur in sleep. Abnormal activity diminishes with arousal. Hyperventilation causes slight increase. Flicker at 15 cps evokes spike and wave forms. Diagnostic impression: This is an abnormal tracing and strongly suggests a seizure disorder.

Twin $906-1$ is Negro, male, MZ, CA18. There is a well-maintained 11 cps occipital alpha rhythm which waxes and wanes. A few brief episodes of 4 cps waves are noted. Drowsy patterns are normal. Overbreathing elicits bursts of 3 to 4 cps waves with sharp waves, and a few spikes begin on the left and recur. Diagnostic impression: This tracing is borderline because of the bursts of slow, spike and sharp wave patterns on hyperventilation.

For twin 906-2 there is a well-developed and maintained 10 cps waking alpha rhythm. Five to 7 cps activity appears especially in anterior leads. With drowsiness larval spike and wave patterns develop. Four to 5 cps waves are prominent. No significant change on hyperventilation is seen. Diagnostic impression: Although the waking record is within normal limits, definite and frequent spike and wave activity in sleep suggests a minimal convulsive tendency.

Twin $907-1$ is white, male, MZ, CA15. Subject displays a well-maintained 10 cps occipital alpha rhythm. Parietally 7 to 10 cps and fast waves are mixed together. Occasional 5 to 6 cps waves are visible. With drowsiness some groups of 5 to 7 cps waves and sharp waves are noted in electrode 7 and in electrode 7-11, dying out on arousal but returning on hyperventilation. Record is stable on flicker. Diagnostic impression: The record of the subject at rest is normal. When the subject is under the stress of hyperventilation or grows drowsy, a sharp wave focus becomes active in the left temporal area. This may be an after effect of trauma, as noted in the subject's history.

For twin 907-2 a 9 to 10 cps waking occipital alpha rhythm is apparent. A great deal of 4 to 7 cps activity takes place, often in brief episodes. The voltage varies and sharp patterns often occur. Sharp waves are displayed in electrode number 11-7 and in 7-8. Drowsiness produces spikes. Bursts of irregular spike and wave and sharp patterns occur at the vertex hump stage of sleep. Sharp waves occur in electrode 5. Sleep patterns are atypical in that the spindle and hump patterns are not well integrated. Hyperventilation evokes sharp waves. Diagnostic impression: This is a mildly abnormal tracing because of the irregular spike and wave bursts in light sleep. Various abnormal patterns are widely distributed in waking and drowsy states as well. They are common in the left temporal area.

Twin 908-1 is white, female, MZ, CA19. Tracing appears to have been taken in waking, drowsy and early sleep stages. There is a 9 cps occipital alpha rhythm but much 6 to 8 cps activity is also present. Low-voltage fast activity often appears spiky. Some runs of spiky 12 cps waves are noted. Four to 5 cps waves and frequent spiky 22 to 24 cps activity appears in early sleep. Some vertex humps are sharp. There are a few questionable spikes. Diagnostic impression: Although fast patterns are very spiky, this tracing can be classed as normal.

Twin $908-2$ is characterized by an 8 cps occipital alpha rhythm. Five
to 7 cps activity increases as the subject becomes drowsy. Low-voltage fast waves are very prominent in the parietal leads. Spikes and larval 6 cps spike and wave forms appear in this drowsy state. Biparietal activity at 30 to 35 cps appears with some positive spikes. Little change occurs on hyperventilation. Diagnostic impression: There is a great deal of fast activity and a few spikes and larval spike and wave activity occur. Not entirely normal. This subject can be classed as borderline. Further abnormality would probably appear in sleep. Shows atypical fast activity which sometimes correlates with headaches. Significant portions of the EEG's of twin pair 908 are shown in Figure XIV-6.

Twin 909-1 is white, male, MZ, CA11. Alpha exists at 9 cps . Theta is prominent at 6 cps , more rhythmic than alpha. No slowing is noticed during hyperventilation. Photic driving occurs down to 7 cps . High-voltage sleep humps have some sharp components. Diagnostic impression: Normal for age.

Twin 909-2 demonstrates a 9 cps occipital alpha rhythm, higher and spikier on the left. A good deal of 4 to 7 cps activity appears with the alpha, and 5 to 7 cps waves are prominent centrally. There is an average

Twin 908-1
3-13






${ }^{2-13}$ inawhwnvort

Twin 908-2






 $I 50 \mu \mathrm{~V} \stackrel{1 \mathrm{sec} .}{\rightleftarrows}$


Figure XIV-6. Identical portions of EEG's of MZ twin pair 908. Although the fast patterns of 908-1 are very spiky, the record is classified as normal. Twin 908-2 manifests spike and wave activity and suggests a borderline abnormal record.
amount of 18 to 24 cps activity. The few sharp waves are greater on the left and continue to occur at the onset of sleep. In light sleep positive spike discharges are noted. The vertex sleep humps are spiky. Overbreathing accentuates the asymmetry and brings out sharp waves on the left. There was no significant change on flicker. Diagnostic impression. Borderline. Alpha asymmetry, positive spikes in sleep. Sharp waves on left and atypical sleep humps.

Twin $910-1$ is white, male, MZ, CA18. There is a well-developed and well-maintained 10 cps occipital alpha rhythm. A good deal of 5 to 7 cps activity also appears. An average amount of low-voltage fast activity is displayed. No significant change takes place on hyperventilation. Flicker adds fast waves. Diagnostic impression: Entirely normal.

Twin 910-2 shows a 10 cps occipital alpha rhythm. A good deal of 6 to 7 cps activity and an average amount of low-voltage fast activity appear. Six to 7 cps activity is also prominent in the temporal leads. After two minutes of overbreathing, a high-voltage build-up of 2 to 4 cps waves and sharp waves occurs. These waves, which subside slowly, are biggest in the anterior leads, and some are notched. Flicker adds fast activity. Diagnostic impression: While subject is at rest, the record is within normal limits for age 18 . The slow and excessive response to hyperventilation does not necessarily correlate with a seizure disorder, but suggests an inefficient homeostatic vasomotor regulation unable to cope with the mild stress of "blowing off" carbon dioxide.

Twin 911-1 is white, female, MZ, CA11. The dominant rhythm is well-established at 9 cps . During drowsiness some 5 to 6 cps waves and some superimposed 12 to 14 cps waves appear. Deeper sleep produces bursts of $31 / 2$ to $41 / 2 \mathrm{cps}$ waves. No focal abnormalities were noted. Hyperventilation evokes only a mild build-up, with a fairly quick return to the resting state. Diagnostic impression: EEG is within normal limits.

The basic background activity for twin 911-2 is a fairly well-developed 9 to $91 / 2 \mathrm{cps}$. During drowsiness and light sleep there are 4 to 6 cps waves and faster 14 to 16 cps super-imposed waves. The record is not technically satisfactory owing to overswitching and excessive eye movement. Hyperventilation is marked by a moderate production of highervoltage 3 to 4 cps waves, which return to the resting state after 40 seconds. Diagnostic impression: EEG is probably a normal one.

Twin 912-1 is white, male, MZ, CA21. There is a $91 / 2 \mathrm{cps}$ alpha with some beta. In the record there is little or no photic driving. High voltage results in some increase in alpha. Diagnostic impression: Normal.

For twin 912-2 there is a 9 cps alpha activity. Some photic driving is noted. Hyperventilation produces some irregular, diffuse, single delta waves with associated sharp waves. Diagnostic impression: Normal.

Twin 913-1 is white, male, MZ, CA19, who displays a well-maintained 9 cps occipital alpha rhythm. A good deal of 6 to 7 cps activity appears
fronto-parietally. There are occasional spikes and sharp waves and a long run of mixed 6 and 10 cps activity. Similar patterns, which continue in drowsiness, occur in short bursts. Hyperventilation elicits mixed 4 to 7 cps waves and sharp waves and some bursts of atypical spike and wave forms. Diagnostic impression: Too much slow activity in the background. The tendency for the 6 to 7 cps waves to be episodic and the abnormal patterns on hyperventilation assign this tracing to the borderline class.

For twin 913-2 there is a well-developed and well-maintained 10 to 11 cps occipital alpha rhythm. At times it increases abruptly in voltage. Low-voltage fast activity appears and with it some 6 to 7 cps activity. A few questionable sharp patterns occur in drowsiness. There is a 5 cps abnormal discharge, which is generalized and consists of 6 to 8 cps sharp waves and some larval spikes. Larval forms of this recur. The tracing is stable on flicker and hyperventilation. Diagnostic impression: Normal when awake; definitely abnormal episode when drowsy. A sleep tracing is indicated.

Twin 914-1 is white, female, DZ, CA11. The first part of the tracing suggests drowsiness. Intermittent 10 cps and much 5 to 7 cps and lowvoltage fast waves appear. There are many small, sharp waves and spiky, fast activity. Alpha is often better maintained on the left. Sharp waves are more common in the left anterior and posterior temporal areas than on the right. Hyperventilation evokes big 2 to 4 cps waves, sharp waves and some atypical spike and wave forms. Photic stimulation gives more regular fast activity. Diagnostic impression: This is a borderline fast tracing of a dysrhythmic type. There is a mild asymmetry and more findings in the left anterior and posterior temporal areas than in the right area.

For twin 914-2 waking patterns, composed of 4 to 6 cps waves and 18 cps sharp waves, are poorly organized. Runs of 9 to 10 cps alpha waves appear on the left but are sparse on the right where they are lower and show more slow activity. Sharp waves appear at random. On overbreathing, sharp waves and spiky patterns start on the left and build up generally. Slow waves are greater on the right. Spike and wave forms occur in the left occipito-posterior temporal region. The response to photic stimulation is greater on the left. Diagnostic impression: This is a poorly organized and asymmetrical tracing. Activity is depressed and slower on the right. The left cortex shows more evidence of irritability and suggests some tendency to seizures. With so much asymmetry some organic problem, damage or malformation may be suspected. See Figure XIV-7.

Twin $915-1$ is white, female, DZ, CA12. The EEG shows very unstable patterns of 8 to 9 cps alpha with an almost equal amount of 5 to 7 cps activity. There is also much 18 to 24 cps activity in the fronto-

Twin 914-1












Twin 914-2

Figure XIV-7. Identical portions of EEG tracings of DZ twin pair 914. Both manifest similar abnormalities with sharp waves and atypical spike and wave forms. The tracing of 914-2 suggests a possible proneness to seizures or to some other organic problem, damage, or malformation.
central regions. Periods of widespread $11 / 2$ to 3 cps underlie the other rhythms. The wave forms are frequently ragged with scattered small, sharp patterns especially in the temporal leads. Runs of sharp waves occur more frequently on the left. Runs of 10 to 14 cps plus sharp waves appear in the drowsy state. Local 2 to 3 cps waves are visible in the right occipital. During counting and mental arithmetic there is very little arousal response. Hyperventilation evokes high-voltage fast and sharp waves and bursts of ragged spike and wave patterns. Diagnostic impression: This is a generally dysrhythmic, slow record with much sharp wave activity in both awake and drowsy states. An abnormal response to hyperventilation suggests a convulsive disorder.

Twin 915-2 has an 8 to 9 cps occipital rhythm with a 7 cps rhythm appearing in the parietals. Waves of 4 to 6 cps are very prominent in all areas, together with much 18 to 24 cps fast activity. Underlying 2 to 3 cps waves appear in the occipitals. Spiky, fast and small, sharp waves are widely noted, often in episodes which persist during drowsiness.

Hyperventilation produces an increase in fast and sharp patterns and generalized ragged spike and wave bursts. Diagnostic impression: This is a mildly abnormal, generally dysrhythmic record with a poorly maintained alpha rhythm, much theta activity and some beta activity. There are prominent sharp waves and bursts of abnormal patterns of hyperventilation. See Figure XIV-8.

Twin 916-1 is white, female, DZ, CA12, whose tracing is characterized by unstable patterns varying on the two sides with a generally poorly organized pattern of activity. Ten cps alpha waves appear in groups alternating irregularly with 4 to 7 cps waves. Low-voltage, often spiky fast activity occurs frequently, with many sharp waves and a few spikes. As the tracing continues, sharp waves and spiky patterns increase. With drowsiness, bursts of spiky waves are noted, as well as larval spike and wave forms. At the onset of sleep definite positive and negative spikes are mixed with the vertex sleep humps. These occur in long runs. Sleep spindles appear bilaterally but are not synchronous. Abnormal slow and

Twin 915-1
3-13 andy MWMng prommeror

 6-13 $N$ W 伨 7-13 noisy fivivimgMfinmoryormor



Twin 915-2


MarMMarmary Mromamoror







Figure XIV-8. Identical portions of the hyperventilation records of DZ twin pair 915. The response to overbreathing for twin 915-1 is abnormal and implies a convulsive disorder. The EEG of 915-2, mildly abnormal because of the prominent sharp waves and bursts of abnormal patterns of hyperventilation, is little better.
sharp patterns build up on hyperventilation. Lower voltage on the right sides produces a mild asymmetry. Diagnostic impression: This tracing is mildly abnormal because of its unstability and the randomly distributed paroxysmal abnormalities. Sleep patterns are more abnormal than waking activity.

The tracing of twin 916-2 begins in the waking state. It is characterized by a large mixture of frequencies in poorly organized patterns, which exhibit a great deal of difference between the hemispheres. The rhythm is 9 cps , often spiky. Four to 6 cps waves and small, sharp waves are common, with many irregular 2 to 3 cps waves present as baseline shifts. Frequent runs of irregular sharp waves occur in several areas but not as synchronous patterns. Some questionable spike and wave forms appear at times. Overbreathing augments the abnormal patterns. Response to photic stimulation is greater on the left. Diagnostic impression: A generally dysrhythmic tracing. One might expect such a record after an encephalitis or in a relative of an epileptic, though no such information appears on the subject's medical history. See Figure XIV-9.

Twin 917-1 is white, male, DZ, CA18, with a well-maintained 10 cps alpha rhythm which waxes and wanes in voltage. A moderate amount of low-voltage fast activity appears. Voltage occasionally increases and waves look sharp. Five to 7 cps activity appears at random. After $11 / 2$ minutes of hyperventilation, sharp waves begin to appear. They are greater on the left. Large 2 to 3 cps waves appear in the left frontal region. A general burst of slow, spike and sharp patterns occurs at the end. The left frontal area is slow to return to normal. Diagnostic impression: The record while the subject is at rest is within normal limits.


Figure XIV-9. Identical portions of the EEG tracings of $D Z$ twin pair 916. The record of 916-1 is unstable with randomly distributed paroxysmal abnormalities. The tracing of $916-2$ is generally dysrhythmic. Such a record might indicate an experience with encephalitis or some form of epilepsy. (See electroencephalographic findings.)

Overbreathing elicits paroxysmal abnormalities especially in the frontal area. All in all, a border-line case.

The tracing of twin 917-2 displays a very high-voltage, almost continuous 10 cps alpha rhythm. At times some associated fast waves give it a spiky wave form. Spiky, fast patterns are also mixed in. A moderate amount of 7 to 8 cps activity is present. Overbreathing increases spiky, fast waves and evokes a few sharp patterns. Diagnostic impression: The record of the subject while awake is within allowable limits although spiky, fast patterns are prominent.

Twin 918-1 is white, male, DZ, CA19. Tracing begins with drowsy patterns of irregular 4 to 6 cps fast waves. There is a mixture of alpha and sleep waves. The vertex hump component is prominent in drowsiness and often looks sharp. Some questionable spikes also appear. An artifact comes and goes and its source is not clearly evident. There are spiky sleep waves and some suspicious sharp waves. Fourteen cps sleep spindles eventually appear bilaterally. A 10 cps alpha follows arousal but slows to 8 cps . Hyperventilation is accompanied by a mild buildup. Flicker produces fast waves and subharmonics. Diagnostic impression: The waking activity seems quite normal. Sleep patterns are not quite typical. They look sharp and spiky with a considerable vertex hump component. The situation is confused by an irregularly appearing artifact.

Twin 918-2 has a well-developed 10 cps occipital alpha rhythm, which waxes and wanes. Low-voltage fast activity is prominent, as is a number of 6 to 7 cps waves. There are occasional sharp waves in the waking state. As subject becomes drowsy, 4 to 5 cps activity appears and the fast patterns become more rhythmic. When sleep begins, some of the bursts of slow waves are ragged-looking, notched slow and spike and wave forms. Runs of sharp waves appear. There was no change on hyperventilation. Flicker adds fast activity especially on the right. Diagnostic impression: The subject is normal awake and while on hyperventilation. Abnormal patterns are mixed with otherwise normal sleep rhythms.

Twin 919-1 is white, female, DZ, CA19. Subject displays an intermittent 11 cps occipital alpha rhythm. Ten cps activity is very prominent and tends to appear as clusters and runs of waves. There is a lot of low-voltage 5 to 7 cps activity. Some small, sharp waves appear at random. After $21 / 2$ minutes of overbreathing little buildup of sharp waves is noted. Diagnostic impression: With the subject at rest, the record is within normal limits. The response of the sharp waves to hyperventilation is abnormal, but nonspecific.

Twin 919-2 shows an 11 to 12 cps occipital alpha rhythm, spikylooking because of the presence of much spiky, fast activity. Much of the time voltage is higher on the left. A moderate amount of 6 to 7 cps activity appears. Sharp waves and spiky patterns are frequent, with less frequent bursts. Overbreathing accentuates the spiky patterns. Diag-
nostic impression: This is a spiky-looking record with a mild amplitude asymmetry. The left side is higher. The record is just within the limits of normal.

Twin studies discussed in previous chapters emphasized comparisons of MZ and DZ twin groupings on a wide range of psychological tests. In this chapter, intra-twin comparisons were made of EEG characteristics known to be reliable indicators of electrical activity of the normal human brain.

Results from the sample of 19 pairs of twins suggest that, while both types of twin pairs are not perfectly concordant for all EEG characteristics, the similarities are remarkable. When one twin has a normal record, so in most cases does the other. Where abnormalities are observed, chances are that the same type of abnormality will also be noted in the twin partner, though not necessarily to the same degree. Although convincing clinical arguments may be made for the diagnostic impressions, the small number of observations would not support the statistical confidence of a much larger sample of EEG twin records.

## XV

## Short Reports on Supplemental Tests

In this chapter subpopulation differences in heritability will be examined for several psychological tests not reported previously. Seven tests were eliminated from the extended sample because they were either too time-consuming or too difficult for the majority of the subjects. One test was not included in the Basic Battery because of scoring difficulties and low reliability. It was also decided that results of psychological tests given to subjects participating in the EEG phase of the Twin Survey would be more appropriately included here than with the neurological findings (Chapter XIV).

To make the battery more interesting for the participants, the Mooney Faces Test was included. This examination is a test of closure or perceptual ability in which human faces are pictured (see Chapter VI). For the Twin Study the original test was reduced to the ten easiest and ten most difficult items. Even in its abbreviated version, it was too lengthy and yielded no new information about the subjects. Heritability ratios for the Mooney Faces Test for black, white, and the total group are shown in Table XV-A. Neither heritability ratios (H) nor within-pair

Table XV-A
Heritability Coefficients for the Mooney Faces Test for Black and White TwinsRaw Scores

| Group | MZ |  | DZ |  | T(Cor) | Heritability Ratios |  | Within-pair Variances |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | r | N | r | N |  | H | HR | MZ | DZ | F |
| White | . 37 | 137 | . 34 | 103 | . 27 | . 05 | . 17 | 12.73 | 12.50 | . 98 |
| Black | . 33 | 28 | . 19 | 15 | . 42 | . 17 | . 84 | 16.32 | 13.50 | . 83 |
| Total | . 38 | 165 | . 34 | 118 | . 36 | . 06 | . 20 | 13.34 | 12.63 | . 95 |

variance $F$ ratios show significant MZ-DZ differences. Whatever ability or aptitude the Mooney Faces Test measures (no validity coefficients were reported), there is no difference in the hereditary variance component for the two races.

The Whiteman Test of Social Perception is another buffer test that was eliminated after the first testing. This test was originally designed "to investigate the hypothesis that social and perceptual performance in schizophrenics is impaired relative to that of a normal group" (Whiteman, 1954, p. 266). The justification for using the Whiteman Test was that it provided a change of pace from the tasks requiring mental alertness, attention, and concentration (see discussion of Whiteman Test in Chapter VI). Despite the lack of face validity of the Whiteman Test, for the purpose of this study heritability ratios deserve comment. The withinpair variance $F$ ratio for whites is insignificant (Table XV-B). Heritability ratios are, however, significant for blacks and for the total group, though there could be some sampling error since the number of black twins is small, 28 MZ and 15 DZ pairs.

Card Rotation was the third test dropped from the second test series (see Chapter VI). Since the Basic Battery was overloaded with well-standardized and reliable spatial tests, it was decided to omit from the Basic Battery the Card Rotation Test, at best a weak test of spatial ability, requiring the subject to decide which of eight figures on the right show the same side as the model on the left (see Chapter VI). The task can be accomplished by mentally sliding the figures around or by verbal reasoning. Despite the low reliability and other weaknesses, the abilities required by the test have significant hereditary variance components for whites and the total group and the within-pair variance $F$ ratio approaches significance for blacks (Table XV-C). On hindsight, Card Rotation should probably have been left in the Basic Battery since it requires only four minutes of working time.

Logical Reasoning is a test originally developed by Guilford for use with subjects in grades 11 to 16 and consists of formal syllogisms. The task is to choose a correct conclusion that can be drawn from two state-

## Table XV-B

Heritability Coefficients for the Whiteman Test of Social Perception for Black and White Twins-Raw Scores

| Group | MZ |  | DZ |  | T(Cor) | Heritability Ratios |  | Within-pair Variances |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | r | N | r | N |  | H | HR | MZ | DZ | F |
| White | . 50 | 136 | . 49 | 103 | . 09 | . 02 | . 04 | 6.26 | 7.93 | 1.27 |
| Black | . 70 | 28 | . 16 | 15 | 1.97 | . 64 | 1.53 | 7.04 | 17.33 | 2.46* |
| Total | . 59 | 164 | . 46 | 118 | 1.43 | . 23 | . 43 | - 6.39 | 9.12 | 1.43* |

[^10]ments (see Chapter VI). The Logical Reasoning Test was much too difficult for our twin sample, many of whom were in the eighth grade. Nevertheless, heritability ratios were computed and are shown in Table XV-D. Although whites show no significant heritability component for logical reasoning, blacks, despite a much smaller sample, show a significant within-pair variance $F$ ratio. Considering the small number of blacks, this could well be another sampling accident.

The Inference Test, Rs-3 in the Educational Testing Service Kit of Reference Tests and another in Guilford's Logical Reasoning series, requires the subject to read one or two statements similar to those found in a newspaper or magazine. The statements are followed by various conclusions which might be drawn from them. The subject is to decide which one of the conclusions can be drawn from the statements without assuming additional information. An item from the Inference Test follows:
13. All human beings fall into four main groups according to the composition of their blood: O, A, B, and AB. Knowledge of these blood types is important for transfusions.

1-The blood type is determined by genes.
2-Persons of group AB can receive blood from any other type.

Table XV-C
Heritability Coefficients for the Card Rotation Test for Black and White TwinsRaw Scores

| Group | MZ |  | DZ |  | T(Cor) | Heritability Ratios |  | Within-pair Variances |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | r | N | r | N |  | H | HR | MZ | DZ | F |
| White | . 69 | 131 | . 53 | 103 | 1.93 | . 34 | . 47 | 790.31 | 1409.09 | 1.78* |
| Black | . 71 | 28 | . 38 | 15 | 1.36 | . 53 | . 93 | 727.34 | 1368.23 | 1.88 |
| Total | . 70 | 159 | . 54 | 118 | 2.15 | . 35 | . 46 | 779.22 | 1403.89 | 1.80* |

[^11]Table XV-D
Heritability Coefficients for the Logical Reasoning Test for Black and White
Twins-Raw Scores

| Group | MZ |  | DZ |  | T(Cor) | Heritability Ratios |  | Within-pair Variances |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | r | N | r | N |  | H | HR | MZ | DZ | F |
| White | . 39 | 135 | . 44 | 103 | -. 46 | -. 09 | -. 26 | 8.27 | 6.72 | . 81 |
| Black | . 65 | 28 | . 17 | 15 | 1.70 | . 57 | 1.47 | 4.14 | 8.90 | 2.15* |
| Total | . 45 | 163 | . 46 | 118 | -. 12 | -. 02 | -. 05 | 7.56 | 7.00 | . 93 |

[^12]3-Blood transfusions between members of the same group are always safe.
4-Certain percentages of all people belong to each type.
5-Blood from persons of group $\mathbf{O}$ can safely be given to persons of any group.

Designed for students in grades 11 to 16, the test was obviously too difficult for average pupils in lower grades. Heritability ratios for the Inference Test are given in Table XV-E. No comparison of twins for either race yields a significant heritability variance component.

The Cancellation Test is another change-of-pace or buffer test which offers the subject a break between more demanding mental tasks. The examinee is asked to draw a vertical line through each group of five dots and a horizontal line through each group of four dots. The test presumably measures differences in eye-hand coordination and motor speed (see Chapter VI). Within-pair variance $F$ ratios are significant at the .01 level for whites and for the total group.

On inspection, the test appears to be the type Jensen would call a Level I test. It involves the neural registration and consolidation of stimulus material and the formation of new associations. Level I abilities are tapped mostly by tests such as the Digit Span, rote learning, trial and error learning, and perhaps certain visually presented material. The Cancella-

## Table XV-E

Heritability Coefficients for the Inference Test for Black and White TwinsRaw Scores

| Group | MZ |  | DZ |  | T(Cor) | Heritability Ratios |  | Within-pair Variances |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | r | N | r | N |  | H | HR | MZ | DZ | F |
| White | . 56 | 137 | . 56 | 102 | -. 02 | -. 004 | -. 006 | 3.73 | 4.64 | 1.24 |
| Black | . 41 | 28 | . 07 | 15 | 1.05 | . 37 | 1.68 | 2.21 | 1.90 | . 86 |
| Total | . 57 | 165 | . 59 | 117 | -. 24 | -. 05 | -. 07 | 3.47 | 4.29 | 1.23 |

Table XV-F
Heritability Coefficients for the Cancellation Test for Black and White TwinsRaw Scores

| Group | MZ |  | DZ |  | T(Cor) | Heritability Ratios |  | Within-pair Variances |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | r | N | r | N |  | H | HR | MZ | DZ | F |
| White | . 67 | 135 | . 52 | 100 | 1.81 | . 32 | . 46 | 1104.15 | 1826.72 | 1.65* |
| Black | . 64 | 27 | . 69 | 15 | -. 29 | -. 19 | -. 18 | 1047.80 | 1736.13 | 1.66 |
| Total | . 67 | 162 | . 55 | 115 | 1.53 | . 26 | . 35 | 1094.76 | 1814.90 | 1.66* |

[^13]Table XV-G
Heritability Coefficients for the Ship Destination Test for Black and White
Twins-Raw Scores

| Group | MZ |  | DZ |  | T(Cor) | Heritability Ratios |  | Within-pair Variances |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | r | N | r | N |  | H | HR | MZ | DZ | F |
| White | . 72 | 136 | . 38 | 103 | 3.79 | . 54 | . 95 | 25.68 | 65.98 | 2.57* |
| Black | . 76 | 27 | -. 12 | 15 | 3.17 | . 79 | 2.31 | 18.96 | 31.40 | 1.66 |
| Total | . 74 | 163 | . 41 | 118 | 4.17 | . 56 | . 89 | 24.56 | 61.58 | 2.51* |

* $p<.01$.
tion Test deserves more study, starting perhaps with a factor analysis with other tests of the Twin Study.

By far the most difficult test in the battery was developed by Christensen and Guilford and called the Ship Destination Test. The task required is to use knowledge of the position of a ship with respect to a port, wind direction, ocean current, and direction of heading to compute the distance to port following given rules. However difficult the test may be, it still yields for white twins the highest heritability ratio $(H)$ of any test discussed in this chapter. The within-pair variance ratio is significant at the .01 level (Table XV-G).

The $F$ ratio for the total group is also significant at the .01 level. For blacks it approaches significance. Ship Destination is another test that was eliminated from the second series (see Chapter V).

Although the Mazes Test was given in both sessions, scores were found to be so unreliable that it was not analyzed as part of the Basic Battery. Mazes were among the first nonverbal tests of intelligence and are still basic to individual tests such as the Wechsler or Terman Scales. But difficulties arose when we attempted to adapt an individually administered test for classroom use. After the first testing, scoring problems became apparent. In order to retain the test in the battery, it was decided to use two methods of scoring. The number of half mazes completed was to be one score; the number of errors, the second. The first score measures the speed of response; the second measures accuracy. The younger subjects did not comprehend or did not carefully follow directions of the examiners who were not able to observe all subjects as they marked the mazes. As a result, some children quickly traced a path from start to end, disregarding cul-de-sacs by crossing lines or by retracing their paths. Other children erased their work and started over again. These errors would have been avoided if the test could have been given individually. Even trained psychometrists could not score the mazes consistently. Nevertheless, the Mazes Test results are reported in Table XV-H.

Three psychological tests were given to participants in the EEG phase
Heritability Coefficients for the Mazes Test for Black and White Twins-Raw Scores

| Variable | MZ |  | DZ |  | T(Cor) | HeritabilityRatios |  | MZ |  | DZ |  | T(Mn) | F |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | r | N | r | N |  | H | HR | Mn | SD | Mn | SD |  |  |
| Mazes $1 / 2$ blocks |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| White | . 59 | 168 | . 45 | 127 | 1.58 | . 25 | . 47 | 29.10 | 8.61 | 28.19 | 7.75 | . 94 | 1.18 |
| Black | . 48 | 74 | . 20 | 46 | 1.68 | . 35 | 1.17 | 22.79 | 7.59 | 22.26 | 7.33 | . 38 | 1.78* |
| Total | . 60 | 242 | . 43 | 173 | 2.32 | . 30 | . 57 | 27.17 | 8.80 | 26.62 | 8.08 | . 66 |  |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| White | . 43 | 168 | . 16 | 127 | 2.43 | . 31 | 1.23 | 9.26 | 6.72 | 9.72 | 6.14 | -. 62 |  |
| Black | . 51 | 74 | . 22 | 46 | 1.76 | . 37 | 1.14 | 14.46 | 13.84 | 12.16 | 9.71 | 1.06 | . 97 |
| Total | . 50 | 242 | . 20 | 173 | 3.49 | . 38 | 1.21 | 10.85 | 9.78 | 10.37 | 7.35 | . 57 | 1.14 |

Heritability Coefficients for the Torrance Test of Creativity-Raw Scores

| Variable | MZ |  | DZ |  | T(Cor) | Heritability Ratios |  | Within-pair Variances |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | r | N | r | N |  | H | HR | MZ | DZ | F |
| Fluency-Verbal | . 33 | 11 | . 51 | 6 | -. 33 | -. 38 | -1.13 | 296.32 | 276.67 | . 93 |
| Flexibility-Verbal | . 27 | 11 | . 17 | 6 | . 16 | . 12 | . 75 | 60.00 | 62.42 | 1.04 |
| Originality-Verbal | . 21 | 11 | -. 32 | 6 | . 80 | . 40 | 5.00 | 569.41 | 614.17 | 1.08 |
| Fluency-Figural | . 72 | 11 | . 67 | 6 | . 12 | . 13 | 1.20 | 9.00 | 30.67 | $3.41{ }^{*}$ |
| Flexibility-Figural | . 50 | 11 | . 44 | 6 | . 11 | . 10 | . 23 | 9.27 | 20.58 | 2.22 |
| Originality-Figural | . 39 | 11 | . 25 | 6 | . 22 | . 18 | . 70 | 83.00 | 89.67 | 1.08 |
| Figural Elaboration | . 47 | 11 | -. 45 | 6 | 1.48 | . 64 | 3.92 | 287.73 | 228.33 | . 79 |

of the study. Although the number of subjects is so small that heritability ratios are suspect, the findings deserve brief comment. The Torrance Test of Creativity (1966), another buffer test, is given in a relaxed, casual manner and does not demand too much attention and concentration. The subject is asked to state the causes of an illustrated event, guess about the consequence of an event, suggest ways to improve a toy, and think of unusual uses for cardboard boxes and tin cans. Several subtests are direct modifications of Guilford's work. Other subtests are adaptations of earlier tests of drawing completion. Altogether there are seven subtests, four verbal and three figural, named to match the factors Guilford identified as fluency, flexibility, originality, and elaboration.

Heritability ratios for the Torrance Test are shown in Table XV-I. One of the seven subtests, figural fluency, yields a significant withinpair variance $F$ ratio. Minimal significance should be attached to these findings not only because of the small number of twins involved but also because of the author's comments concerning figural fluency: "The impulsive thinker, the banal thinker, and even the 'non-thinker' can achieve rather easily high scores. . . . More meaning may perhaps be attached to low than to high scores" (Torrance, 1966, p. 74).

The Revised Beta Examination, a short nonverbal intelligence test, was also given to the subjects in the EEG study. The Beta was first developed during World War I for testing draftees unable to read and write. The revised edition is suitable for use with most of the lowerand middle-ability ranges of the general population (Table XV-J). The within-pair variance $F$ ratio is statistically significant for the Beta IQ beyond the .01 level. With such small numbers, only a sampling accident could have yielded such a highly significant $F$ ratio.

The Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory is the last test to be considered (Table XV-K). The within-pair variance ratios for the clinical scales are suspiciously high. However, only the Depression scale suggests that the variance accounted for by heredity is more significant than that accounted for by environment. Within-pair variance ratios for four other scales, Hypochondriasis, Hysteria, Paranoia, and Hypomania, approach significance, but none was found to be significant in a much

## Table XV-J

Heritability Coefficients for the Revised Beta Examination for Black and White Twins-IQ

| Variable | MZ |  | DZ |  | T(Cor) | Heritability |  | Within-pair Variances |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | r | N | r | N |  | H | HR | MZ | DZ | F |
| IQ | . 91 | 13 | . 11 | 6 | 2.16 | . 90 | 1.76 | 17.62 | 92.92 | 5.28* |

[^14]Table XV-K
Heritability Coefficients for the Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory for Black and White Twins-T-scores

| Variable | MZ |  | DZ |  | T(Cor) | Heritability Ratios |  | Within-pair Variances |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | r | N | r | N |  | H | HR | MZ | DZ | F |
| Hypochondriasis (Hs) | -. 20 | 11 | $-.12$ | 6 | -. 11 | -. 07 | . 75 | 100.59 | 243.08 | 2.42 |
| Depression (D) | . 76 | 11 | $-.33$ | 6 | 1.99 | . 82 | 2.87 | 37.68 | 283.83 | 7.53* |
| Hysteria (Hy) | . 19 | 11 | . 10 | 6 | . 14 | . 10 | . 95 | 62.23 | 125.92 | 2.02 |
| Psychopathic deviate (Pd) | . 10 | 11 | . 72 | 6 | -1.21 | -2.26 | -13.05 | 68.91 | 47.42 | .02 .69 |
| Masculinity-femininity (Mf) | . 63 | 11 | . 42 | 6 | . 43 | . 36 | . 67 | 37.32 | 24.08 | . 65 |
| Paranoia (Pa) | . 53 | 11 | -. 43 | 6 | 1.55 | . 67 | 3.64 | 64.18 | 132.50 | 2.06 |
| Psychasthenia (Pt) | . 39 | 11 | -. 06 | 6 | . 70 | . 42 | 2.32 | 98.05 | 165.83 | 1.69 |
| Schizophrenia (Sc) | . 35 | 11 | . 17 | 6 | . 29 | . 22 | 1.03 | 120.45 | 224.08 | 1.86 |
| Hypomania (Ma) | . 56 | 11 | . 06 | 6 | . 84 | . 53 | 1.77 | 40.14 | 110.33 | 2.75 |
| Social introversion (Si) | . 48 | 11 | . 13 | 6 | . 58 | . 41 | 1.46 | 65.68 | 98.00 | 1.49 |

larger twin study by Gottesman (1963). Despite claims to the contrary, personality factors whether measured by the Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory, the Cattell Junior High Personality Questionnaire, or other personality tests seem to show that environment causes more variance than heredity.

The short reports presented in this chapter are offered to round out the analysis of psychological tests given in the twin project. Investigators wishing to explore more fully the tests described here or in other chapters will find the necessary raw data in the Appendix.

## XVI

## Concluding Remarks

In this final chapter we attempt to bring together the major findings reported in the previous chapters and to relate the evidence to the primary goals and purposes of the study. The nature of twins automatically restricts the number of prospective participants and limits considerably the experimental ideal of numbers of subjects neatly balanced by age, race, sex, and zygosity. Occurring only once in about every 88 live births, twins are easily identified by their teachers, friends, and parents, but both twins of a set do not always volunteer in the desired numbers or types for an experiment, especially an experiment which involves bloodtyping and psychological testing, requirements which undoubtedly discourage some prospective volunteers. Because of these practical reasons and because of the ever increasing number of local, state, and federal restrictions on the use of human subjects in experiments involving psychological tests, the data were collected over an eight-year period.

For some reason not known, black male DZ twins did not volunteer for the study in the same proportion as black female DZ's nor as white male DZ's. The black-white proportion, however, of the total group was not appreciably different from the 1970 U.S. census.

No doubt, other aspects of the experimental design may be faulted by J. M. Thoday (1973) who may invoke "environmental factor X" to explain the findings and by Richard Lewontin who believes "it is a waste of taxpayer's money to study IQ, heredity, or other genetic components of human personality" ("We're all the same under the skin," 1976).

Despite the less than ideal experimental conditions, the new and positive aspects of the twin study should not be overlooked. Excepting the Scarr-Salapatic study (1971) in which zygosity was estimated from group data rather than being directly determined by blood tests, this study contains the largest sample of black American twins reported to date.

Anwar Riad A. Rhiem of Minia, Egypt, is at present attempting to replicate our work with Egyptian school children.

Blood-typing for zygosity diagnosis was performed by one of the most highly regarded blood banks in the United States, War Memorial Blood Bank, Minneapolis, Minnesota. Psychological tests in all cases were administered by expert psychometrists according to standard published instructions. To rule out the possibility of examiner bias, approximately one-third of the subjects in the Georgia sample were tested by black examiners. To insure reliability, biometric measurements were made three separate times. The average was used for zygosity determination.

Reliability of the psychological measurements is attested by the significantly high split-half reliability coefficients for both subtests and factor IQ's of the Basic Battery. Reliabilities of the Primary Mental Abilities Test and Cattell's Culture Fair Intelhgence Test meet standards for published group IQ tests.

Validity of mental measurements was determined in two ways: 1) by correlating tests of unreported validity with standardized tests of known validity; for example, subtests and total score of the Basic Battery were correlated with the Primary Mental Abilities IQ; and 2) by correlating Cattell's Culture Fair Intelligence Test and the Primary Mental Abilities Test with measures of school achievement-spelling and arithmetic. In all cases validity coefficients compare favorably with those of published standardized IQ tests such as the Wechsler or Binet.

The socio-economic status of the twins tested in Georgia reflects the cross-section of the State, representing rural areas, small industrial towns, and large metropolitan areas. Since the Kentucky sample was also drawn from public school volunteers, there is no reason to expect it does not reflect a cross-section of the population of that state.

The test battery was designed to make it possible to compare the motivation of black and white twins on tests of different levels of difficulty. Performance on tests requiring mental concentration and attention was compared with the results of nonverbal buffer tests which do not demand a high degree of mental capacity. Black students performed as well on the difficult verbal reasoning tests as they did on the simple repetitive tasks. In the ability range represented by our sample, IQ's 68 to 135 , the level of test difficulty does not appear to impair the motivation of black twins.

Cultural bias of psychological test items is frequently cited as an explanation of performance differences between blacks and whites. The possibility of culture bias of tests in the Twin Study was examined in two ways. Included in the Basic Battery was a broad spectrum of difficult mental ability tests reflecting school learning and verbal reasoning and also easy nonverbal tests requiring only attention and cooperation. If, as claimed by some, the tests are biased in favor of the white middle-
class subject, tests scores of blacks should be relatively higher on the latter than on the former. This is not the case. Black performance is as high and in some cases higher on the culturally loaded tests as on the culture free tests. The idea of cultural bias of test items was also examined in another way. Cattell's Culture Fair Intelligence Test was administered as part of the Twin Study Battery. In the case of the CCFIT, results are even more convincing that standardized mental ability tests are not unfair to blacks. Despite the fact that all items on the CCFIT are nonverbal and all are novel and no subject has specialized training that would transfer to the test, the black-white performance difference was greater on the Cattell Culture Fair Intelligence Test than on any other test in the battery, the difference sometimes approaching 20 IQ points.

Leon Kamin was not the first to claim and to attempt to demonstrate with post hoc correlations a strong effect of age on the IQ of twins. A. L. Stinchcombe (1969) suggested that environments accumulate much as interest does when compounded. By carefully selecting twin studies for review and calculating age-IQ correlations based on groups of seven, three, nine, and three pairs of twins while ignoring groups of 14 and 24 pairs, Kamin (1974) concludes, "The data seem to indicate, however, either that our leading I.Q. tests are very badly standardized, or that general population norms do not apply to twins, or that the twin samples studied by psychologists are bizarre-or all three" (p. 65). Any prudent first year graduate student would reject these conclusions out of hand. The serious reader interested in the age-IQ relationship and the related literature is referred to Chapter XI, Stablility of IQ. The IQ is stable not only for the total group of twins in the study but for both types of twins even when analyzed by race and sex.

Prenatal environment of twins, birth order, and Rh incompatibility are sometimes cited as factors contributing to low mental test performance of minorities. These factors, along with malnutrition and infantile lead poisoning, are beyond the scope of this study.

Regardless of the efforts of the investigator, there is no defense against what one might call the Bodmer paralogism. W. F. Bodmer (1972) has concluded that the difference in average IQ between American blacks and whites "could be explained by environmental factors, many of which we still know nothing about" (p. 112). Peter Urbach (1974) replies: "Professor Bodmer is of course right; everything in the world can be explained by factors about which we know nothing" (p. 253, Part 2).

In spite of the many weaknesses in the twin method, human twins provide the best subjects available for the study of genetic-environmental interactions. The four primary purposes of the present study were stated in Chapter IV and are restated here: 1) to determine the difference in average performance of U.S. blacks and whites on a wide variety of
intelligence (IQ) tests; 2) to examine the proposition that differences in variance in general intelligence are essentially the results of inherited differences; 3) to determine if there are differences between U.S. blacks and whites in heritability of general intelligence; and 4) to make available raw test data, biometric measures, and blood test results for the 496 pairs of twins in the study.

Findings related to the first goal of the Twin Study are summarized in Figure XVI-1 in which means and standard deviations are shown for blacks and whites for the nine IQ tests which were derived from 22 different cognitive tests, representing the full range for both verbal


Figure XVI-1. Comparison of white and black twins on nine measurements of intelligence. The mean and standard deviation for each group are shown. Horizontal lines represent $\pm 1$ standard deviation.
and nonverbal measurements of the primary mental abilities. The pattern of mean differences is remarkably consistent regardless of the nature of the test. The results do not differ appreciably from reports of Shuey (1966), Jensen (1969), Loehlin et al. (1975), nor from data reported in the National Longitudinal Study (Levinsohn, Lewis, Riccobono, \& Moore, 1976), and the HEW report, Equality of Educational Opportunity (1966). "The basic data are well known: on the average, Negroes test about 1 standard deviation ( 15 IQ points) below the average of the white population in IQ" (Jensen, 1969, p. 81). The differences represent overlaps of approximately $15 \%$; that is, $15 \%$ of the black twins reached or exceeded the mean of whites.

To examine the proposition that differences in variance in general intelligence are essentially the results of inherited differences, 120 sets of the three classical heritability ratios were computed for various subpopulations as well as for the total group. Following the method used by Nichols (1969) in his analysis of 100 different twin studies, all MZ and DZ intraclass correlations for the 120 heritability ratios are brought together in Figure XVI-2. Subtest intraclass correlations are shown as closed circles; IQ intraclass correlations are represented as open circles.


Figure XVI-2. Intraclass correlations of various mental ability dimensions from each substudy for MZ (identical) and DZ (fraternal) twins.
Table XVI-A
Comparison of the Heritability of Intelligence of Black and White Twins

| Intelligence Tests | Heritability Ratios |  | Within-pair Variances |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | H | HR | MZ | DZ | F | $\mathrm{U}^{\mathbf{a}}$ |
| Basic Battery Average IQ |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| White | . 61 | . 54 | 14.1 | 35.7 | 2.53** |  |
| Black | . 75 | . 85 | 10.6 | 31.3 | 2.95** | 1.48 |
| Basic Battery Full Scale IQ 62 |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| White | . 62 | .58 1.15 | 15.5 14.8 | 36.6 47.8 | $\begin{aligned} & 2.36^{* *} \\ & 3.22^{* *} \end{aligned}$ | . 73 |
| Black | . 70 | 1.15 |  | 47.8 |  | . 73 |
| Basic Battery Factor IQ |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| White | . 58 | . 50 | 3517.4 | 9335.4 | 2.65** |  |
| Black | . 79 | . 73 | 1619.3 | 6398.3 | 3.95** | . 31 |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| White | . 79 | . 77 | 1955.7 | 7340.8 | 3.75** | . 62 |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| White | . 58 | . 50 | 3302.0 | 8822.3 | 2.67** |  |
| Black | . 79 | . 76 | 1838.9 | 7049.7 | 3.83** | . 47 |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Black | . 42 | . 61 | 57.4 | 118.0 | 2.06* | . 169 |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| White | . 71 | 1.08 | 67.1 | 161.7 | 2.41** |  |
| Black | . 19 | . 24 | 129.6 | 154.1 | 1.19 | 1.88 |
| Cattell Culture Fair IQ (Forms A + B) |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| White | . 65 | . 98 | 86.8 62.4 | 110.8 63.5 | 1.28 1.02 |  |
| Black | . 38 | . 40 | 62.4 | 63.5 | 1.02 | . 61 |
| Cattell Attainment-Contaminated IQ (Forms A + B) |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Black | . 32 | . 46 | 52.2 | 74.5 | 1.43 | . 37 |

[^15]From the figure it is clear that the range of intraclass $r$ 's is wide, indicating a variation in heritability among tests of the battery. However, when only the longer, more reliable IQ tests are considered (open circles) variation among the tests is greatly reduced, particularly for MZ's. Intraclass $r$ 's for IQ tests are generally high and all are positive, showing that both types of twins tend to be alike on the wide range of mental abilities represented in the study. MZ's in virtually all cases are more alike than DZ's. Arrows on the figure indicate weighted average intraclass correlations for subtests and for IQ's for the two types of twins. The difference in intraclass $r$ 's between fraternal and identical twins for IQ is .26 , which is interpreted as indicating that one-half to three-fourths the variation in mental abilities measured in this study is due to genetic factors. Our estimates are statistically conservative since no $h^{2}$ s have been corrected for attenuation. Errors of measurement normally make up about 5 to 10 percent of total phenotypic variance. Numerous other investigators have reported similar findings for Caucasians.

Our relatively large sample of black twins enables us now to compare the heritability estimates of IQ's of blacks and whites. The classical heritability ratios for the nine different IQ's are brought together in Table XVI-A. IQ's derived from all types of mental tests are represented ranging from the Attainment-Contaminated IQ of Cattell's scale to the 12test IQ derived from the Basic Battery. Patterns of heritability ratios for blacks and whites are remarkably congruent, with the longer, more reliable tests yielding the most convincing heritability ratios. In no case are the black-white differences in within-pair variance $F$ ratios significant. Even the short, nonverbal Cattell scales show insignificant between-race differences in $F$ ratios. We interpret these findings as indicating that black and white twins have essentially the same pattern of mental test (IQ) heritability; that is, about one-half to three-fourths of the variance of both ethnic groups is due to genetic factors. While the existence of similar heritability patterns of blacks and whites might be considered self-evident, the fact that it can be demonstrated statistically is of major importance for studies of genetic-environmental interactions.

The fourth goal of the study, to provide all raw data to investigators interested in verifying the findings and examining unreported relationships among the variables, was accomplished by providing Appendixes A through H. Tapes of the appendixes are available from the author.

## Appendix A

Appendix A is a guide to Appendixes B through H.
Appendix B identifies all variables which are listed in Appendixes C through $H$. The methods of obtaining anthropometric measurements, blood tests, and physical observations used to determine zygosity in the Twin Study are described. Although many of the psychological and other examinations are well-known, they are all described briefly and identified by author and publisher in Appendix B. Also included are reproductions of the SES rating scale and the Modified Project Talent Twin Questionnaire (Twin Survey Questionnaire).

Appendixes C through G identify the 123 Twin Study variables and list individual scores and measurements of the twins on the various psychological tests and other variables. For convenience, the variables are grouped to place similar results in the same appendix. For example, blood group genes are shown in Appendix C; all biometric measures are given in Appendix D.

The test raw scores for each twin are reported in the event investigators wish to verify reported findings or to examine new relationships.

In the tables found in the appendixes, rows represent twins identified by their unique numbers while columns refer to individual tests, biometric, and other variables. Column variables are identified in the text and in the appendixes.

Appendix H summarizes the data available in Appendixes C through G for the 496 pairs of twins in the Twin Study.

In the following table, all variables in Appendixes $\mathbf{C}$ through $\mathbf{H}$ are identified by column number and appendix:

| Column \# | Group | Appendix |
| :---: | :--- | :---: |
| 1 | Identification number: first three digits identify twin <br> sets; fourth digit identifies twins within a set. | C-H |
| 2 | Sex: $1=$ Male; 2 = Female |  |
| 3 | Race: $1=$ White; 2 = Black | C-H |
| 4 | Age in years (last birthday) | C-H |
|  |  | C-H |

Column \# Group Appendix
5 Zygosity: $M=M Z ; D=D Z$, same sex; $U=D Z$,unlike sex
6-19 Blood group genes ..... C
20-34 Biometric measurements, physical observations, and ..... Dsocio-economic status
35-66 Psychological tests, except personality ..... E
67-99 Psychological tests, personality ..... F
100-123 EEG Battery ..... G
124-133 Summary of data listed in Appendixes C through G ..... H

## Appendix B

In Appendix B all Twin Study variables are identified or described. The first five variables identify the twins by sex, race, age, and zygosity. The next 28 variables describe the procedures used to obtain blood tests, anthropometric measurements, and physical observations used for zygosity determination. Variable 34 describes the socio-economic index used in this study. Next the psychological tests are identified by author and publisher. Finally, data from the EEG battery and summary variables are listed. Each variable is identified by a unique column number which is constant for all entries for that variable in all appendixes. Appendix $B$ also contains a reproduction of the SES rating scale and the Modified Project Talent Twin Questionnaire (Twin Survey Questionnaire).

Scores or measurements for all variables described in this appendix have been listed in Appendixes C through H.

## Column \#

## Variable

1 Identification number: first three digits identify twin sets; fourth digit identifies twins within a set.
2 Sex: $1=$ Male; $2=$ Female
3 Race: $1=$ White; 2 = Black
4 Age in years (last birthday)
$5 \quad$ Zygosity: $M=M Z ; D=D Z$, same sex; $U=D Z$, unlike sex.
6-19 Blood Group Genes
Serological Tests: Group, M, N, S, s, $\mathbf{P}_{1}, \mathrm{D}, \mathrm{C}, \mathrm{E}, \mathrm{c}, \mathrm{Le}^{\mathbf{a}}, \mathrm{K}$, Fya $^{\mathbf{a}} \mathbf{J k}^{\mathbf{a}}$.
Reference: Serological tests were performed at the Minneapolis War Memorial Blood Bank, Minneapolis, Minnesota.
20 Face length
Measurement: Distance in millimeters from trichion to gnathion measured with a sliding compass.
Reference: M. F. Ashley Montagu, An Introduction to Physical Anthropology. Charles C. Thomas: Springfield, Illinois, 1951.

## Variable

21 Maximum head length
Measurement: The distance in millimeters between the glabella and the farthest point on the midline on the back of the head measured with a spreading caliper.
Reference: M. F. Ashley Montagu, (op. cit.)
Maxim hed breade
Measurement: The greatest transverse distance in millimeters of the head (usually found over each parietal bone) measured with a spreading caliper.
Reference: M. F. Ashley Montagu, (op. cit.)
Head circumference
Measurement: The distance in millimeters from the area between the eyebrows around the maximum projection of the occiput measured with steel tape.
Reference: M. F. Ashley Montagu, (op. cit.)
Standing height
Measurement: Inches in stocking feet.
Weight
Measurement: Pounds in street clothes without shoes.
Nose length
Measurement: Distance in millimeters between nasion and subnasale measured with a sliding compass.
Reference: M. S. Ashley Montagu, (op. cit.)
Color blindness
Score: Number of correct responses to Dvorine Pseudo-Isochromatic Plates.
Reference: George A. Peters, Jr. "The New Dvorine Color Perception Test." The Optometric Weekly, Nov. 11, 1954, 1801-1803. Handedness
Code: The subject's preferred hand for writing and throwing was coded: $\mathbf{R}=$ right; $\mathbf{L}=$ left; $\mathbf{A}=$ ambidextrous.
Reference: M. F. Ashley Montagu, (op. cit.)
Eye color (self-reported)
Code: (1) brown; (2) blue; (3) green, including blue-green; (4) hazel (light brown or yellowish brown); (5) other; (•) no data. Hair color (self-reported)
Code: (1) black; (2) brown, including all shades; (3) blond, including dishwater blond; (4) red, including auburn and reddish brown; (•) no data.
Difference in hair color (self-reported)
Code: (1) no difference; (2) different shade of same color; (3) different color; (•) no data.
Other hair differences (self-reported)
Code: (1) no "other" differences; (2) "other" differences noted; (•) no data.
33 Mistaken Identity (self-reported)
Code: If three of five statements relative to mistaken identity were

Variable
marked frequently or occasionally, the subject was given a score of 1 ; if less than three, a score of 2.
Reference: Modified Project Talent Twin Questionnaire (Twin Survey Questionnaire) items 11-15.

Socio-economic status
Score: Range of 4 to 28 based on parents' education and occupation.
Reference: W. L. Warner, M. Meeker, and K. Eells, Social Class in America: A Manual of Procedure for the Measurement of Social Status. Science Research Associates: Chicago, 1949.
Calendar Test
Score: Number right - number wrong
Reference: C. Remondino. Calendar Test. Revue de Psychologie Appliquee, 1962, 12, 62-81.
Cube Comparisons Test
Score: Number right - number wrong (total score).
Reference: From Kit of Reference Tests for Cognitive Factors by J. W. French, Ruth B. Ekstrom, and Leighton A. Price, 1963. Published by Educational Testing Service, Princeton, New Jersey.
Simple Arithmetic Test
Score: Number right - $1 / 4$ number wrong (total score).
Reference: B. N. Mukherjee. Simple Arithmetic Test. Unpublished Ph.D. thesis, University of North Carolina, 1963.
Wide Range Vocabulary Test-Part I
Score: Number right $-1 / 4$ number wrong.
Reference: From Kit of Reference Tests for Cognitive Factors by J. W. French, Ruth B. Ekstrom, and Leighton A. Price, 1963. Publislied by Educational Testing Service, Princeton, New Jersey.
Surface Development Test
Score: Number right (total score).
Reference: From Kit of Reference Tests for Cognitive Factors by J. W. French et al., (op. cit.)
Form Board Test
Score: Number right (total score).
Reference: From Kit of Reference Tests for Cognitive Factors by J. W. French et al., (op. cit.)
41 Self-Judging Vocabulary Test-Part II
Score: Number riglit - $1 / 5$ number wrong.
Reference: A. W. Heim, "Self-Judging Vocabulary Test." Journal of General Psychology, 1965, 72, 285-294.
Paper Folding Test
Score: Number right - $1 / 4$ number wrong (total score).
Reference: From Kit of Reference Tests for Cognitive Factors by J. W. French et al., (op. cit.)
Object Aperture Test
Score: Number right - $1 / 4$ number wrong (total of Forms A and B).

## Variable

Reference: P. H. DuBois and G. Gleser, "Object Aperture Test." American Psychologist, 1948, 3, 363.

Identical Pictures Test
Score: Number right - $1 / 4$ number wrong (total score).
Reference: From kit of Reference Tests for Cognitive Factors by J. W. French et al., (op. cit.)

Newcastle Spatial Test
Score: Number right (total score).
Reference: I. McFarlane Smith and J. S. Lawes, Newcastle Spatial Test. Bedford England: Newnes Educational Publishing Company, Ltd., for the National Foundation for Educational Research in England and Wales, 1959.

Reference: Steven S. Vandenberg, "A Twin Study of Spatial Ability," University of Louisville School of Medicine, Report No. 26, April, 1967.

## Column \# <br> Variable

54 Card Rotation Test
Score: Number right - number wrong (total score).
Reference: From Kit of Reference Tests of Cognitive Factors by J. W. French et al., (op. cit.)

55 Ship Destination Test
Score: Number right $+1 / 5$ number omitted.
Reference: Paul R. Christensen and J. P. Guildford, 1958. Sheridan Psychological Services, Inc., P.O. Box 6101, Orange, California.

Scores: Five quotient scores-verbal meaning, number facility, reasoning, spatial relations, total.
Reference: Science Research Associates, Inc., 259 East Erie Street, Chicago, Illinois.
61-66 IPAT Culture Fair Intelligence Test (both Forms A \& B administered)
Scores: Form A-Classical IQ, Culture Fair IQ, Attainment Contaminated IQ. Form B-(same as Form A).
Reference: The Institute for Personality and Ability Testing, 160204 Coronado Drive, Champaign, Illinois.
67-85 How Well Do You Know Yourself?
Scores: 19 raw scores-irritability, practicality, punctuality, nov-elty-loving, vocational assurance, cooperativeness, ambitiousness, hypercriticalness, dejection, general morale, persistence, nervousness, seriousness, submissiveness, impulsiveness, dynamism, emotional control, consistency, test objectivity.
Reference: Executive Analysis Corp., 50 East 42nd Street, New York, New York.
86-99 High School Personality Questionnaire-Form A
Scores: 14 factor raw scores-reserved vs. warmhearted, dull vs. bright, affected by feelings vs. emotionally stable, undemonstrative vs. excitable, obedient vs. assertive, sober vs. enthusiastic, disregards rules vs. conscientious, shy vs. adventurous, tough-minded vs. tender-minded, zestful vs. circumspect individualism, self-assured vs. apprehensive, sociable group-dependent vs. self-sufficient, uncontrolled vs. controlled, relaxed vs. tense.
Reference: The Institute for Personality and Ability Testing, (op. cit.)
EEG Visual Evoked Response
See text for explanation.
101 EEG Diagnostic Impression
See text for explanation.
102 Revised Beta Examination
Score: IQ
Reference: The Psychological Corporation, 304 East 45th Street, New York, New York.

| $\begin{aligned} & \text { Column \# } \\ & \text { 103-116 } \end{aligned}$ | Variable |
| :---: | :---: |
|  | Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory (T scores) |
|  | Scores: Four validity scales-?, L, F, K; ten clinical scales-Hs, |
|  | $\mathrm{D}, \mathrm{Hy}, \mathrm{Pd}, \mathrm{Mf}, \mathrm{Pa}, \mathrm{Pt}, \mathrm{Sc}, \mathrm{Ma}$, Si . |
|  | Reference: The Psychological Corporation, (op. cit.) |
| 117-123 | Torrance Tests of Creative Thinking, Research Edition Scores: Seven scores-verbal fluency, verbal flexibility, verbal originality, figural fluency, figural flexibility, figural originality, elaboration. |
|  | Reference: Personnel Press, Education Center, P.O. Box 2649, Columbus, Ohio. |
| 124 | Summary of Blood Group Genes |
|  | Codes: $\mathbf{C}=$ complete data; blank $=$ no data . |
|  | Reference: Appendix C. |
| 125 | Summary of biometric measurements (examiner reported) |
|  | Codes: $\mathbf{C}=$ complete battery; $\mathbf{P}=$ partial battery; blank $=$ no data. |
|  | Reference: Appendix D. |
| 126 | Summary of biometric variables (self-reported) |
|  | Codes: $\mathbf{C}=$ complete battery; $\mathbf{P}=$ partial battery; blank $=$ no data. |
|  | Reference: Appendix D. |
| 127 | Socio-economic index |
|  | Codes: $\mathbf{C}=$ available; blank $=$ no data . |
|  | Reference: Appendix D. |
| 128 | Summary of psychological tests-Basic Battery |
|  | Codes: $\mathbf{C}=$ complete battery; $\mathbf{P}=$ partial battery; blank $=$ no data. |
|  | Reference: Appendix E. |
| 129 | Summary of psychological tests-Secondary Battery |
|  | Codes: $\mathbf{C}=$ complee battery; $\mathbf{P}=$ partial battery; blank $=$ no data. |
|  | Reference: Appendix E. |
| 130 | Summary of psychological tests-Culture Fair Battery |
|  | Codes: $\mathrm{C}=$ complete data; blank $=$ no data |
|  | Reference: Appendix E. |
| 131 | Summary of personality questionnaire-How Well Do You Know Yourself? |
|  | Codes: $\mathbf{C}=$ complete data; blank $=$ no data . |
|  | Reference: Appendix F. |
| 132 | Summary of personality questionnaire-High School Personality Ouestionnaire |
|  | Codes: $\mathbf{C =}$ complete data; blank = no data. |
|  | Reference: Appendix F . |
| 133 | Summary of EEG Battery |
|  | Codes: $\mathbf{C}=$ complete data; blank $=$ no data . |
|  | Reference: Appendix G. |

## TWIN STUDY

Socio-economic Status (after Warner et al., 1949)
SES is the total of four weights: father's occupation, mother's occupation, father's education, and mother's education. If one parent is not employed or if the information concerning the occupation or education of a parent is not available, the total is prorated.

1. Education of mother (see code below).
2. Education of father (see code below).
3. Occupation of mother.
4. Occupation of father.

Code for Education:
$1=$ Professional or graduate school.
$2=1-4$ years college.
$3=$ High school, 11 or 12 years.
$4=$ One or two years of high school.
$5=$ Eight years.
$6=$ Four to seven years.
7 = Three years.
$0=$ Missing data.

## TWIN SURVEY QUESTIONNAIRE

Name (Please print)
Address $\qquad$
(Street) (City)
(State)
Date of birth
School
Grade

1. Do you have a twin? Yes_ No
2. What is the natural color of your hair?
3. If your hair is different in any of the following ways from that of your twin please describe these differences.
Color:
Rate of Growth: $\qquad$
Hairline or pattern of growth: $\qquad$
Thickness or texture:
Curliness:
Other (Please specify):
4. What is the color of your eyes?
5. If your eye color is different from that of your twin please describe the difference.
6. How tall are you? $\qquad$ ft in.
7. What is the difference in your height and that of your twin? I am inches (taller, shorter). Circle one
8. How much do you weigh? $\qquad$ pounds
9. What is the difference in your weight and that of your twin? I am pounds (lighter, heavier). Circle one
10. If you know your blood type and Rh factor indicate them here.
11. As a young child did your parents ever mistake you for your twin? (check one)
___Occasionally

Rarely or never
12. Have your parents mistaken you for your twin recently? (check one)

Yes, frequently
Occasionally
Rarely or never
13. Have your teachers ever mistaken you for your twin? (check one)

Yes, frequently
Occasionally
Rarely or never
14. Have close friends ever mistaken you for your twin? (check one)
_ Yes, frequently
Occasionally
Rarely or never
15. Have casual friends ever mistaken you for your twin? (check one)

Yes, frequently
Occasionally
Rarely or never
16. Do you and your twin look alike? Please explain in what ways.
17. Describe those physical features which most closely resemble those of your twin. (Give details)
18. Describe those physical features most unlike those of your twin. (Give details)
19. Do you know whether you are a fraternal or identical twin?
_I don't know whether I am an identical or fraternal twin.
I think I am a fraternal twin.
I know for sure that I am a fraternal twin. I think I am an identical twin.
I know for sure that I am an identical twin.
20. If you know whether you are fraternal or identical, indicate how and by whom it was determined.
21. If you had any major illnesses or accidents that your twin did not have, please indicate the nature of the illness or accident and your age when it occurred.
22. If you were ever separated from your twin for more than a month at a time before age 18 years, please indicate where each of you was living, what you were doing, and your age at the time.
23. Have you had any important experiences or training that your twin has not had? Please explain.
24. Did you go to any school after high school? Please explain briefly.
25. If you have a paid job:
a) What is this job called?
b) What do you do on it?

## Appendix C

The results of blood group gene tests. Serological test results are available for 48 pairs of twins, including three pairs of boy-girl twins.

The column numbers in the following table correspond to the column headings in the Appendix C printout, where a " + " is to be interpreted as the presence of the indicated blood group gene and a "-" as the absence of the blood group gene.

Column Number
6
7
8
9
10
11
12
13
14
15
16
17
18
19

Blood Group Genes
Group M
N
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\section*{Appendix D}

The biometric measurements and physical characteristics used for zygosity determination in the Twin Study. Also included is the socio-economic index. The column numbers in the following table correspond to the column headings on the Appendix D printout.

Since not all data are available for all twins, the Appendix D printout is divided into two parts. A full discription of each variable reported in the printout can be found in Appendix B.

\section*{Column \#}

20 Face length (millimeters)
21 Head length (millimeters)
22 Head breadth (millimeters)
23 Head circumference (millimeters)
24 Standing height (inches)
25 Weight (pounds)
26 Nose length (millimeters)
27 Color blindness: number of correct responses to Dvorine PseudoIsochromatic Plates.
28 Handedness: the subject's preferred hand for writing and throwing was coded right, left, or ambidextrous.
Self-reported eye color
Code: (1) brown; (2) blue; (3) green, including blue-green; (4) hazel (light brown or yellowish brown); (5) other; (•) no data. Self-reported hair color
Code: (1) black; (2) brown, including all shades; (3) blond, including dishwater blond; (4) red, including auburn and reddish brown; (•) no data.
Self-reported difference in hair color. Code: (1) no difference; (2) different shade of same color; (3) different color; (•) no data.

32 Other hair differences (self-reported). Code: (1) no "other" differences; (2) "other" differences reported; (•) no data. Mistaken identity (self-reported): If three of five statements (items 11 through 15 on the Modified Project Talent Twin Questionnaire) were marked frequently or occasionally, the subject was given a score of 1 ; if less than three, a score of 2.

Score: Range of 4 to 28, based on parents' education and occupation. (SES rating scale is included in Appendix B).









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\section*{Appendix E}

The test scores for all twins who took part or all of the psychological tests (except personality tests) in the Basic (Cols. 35-48, inc.), Secondary (Cols. 4955, inc.), and Culture Fair (Cols. 56-66, inc.) batteries. All twins did not take every test in all three batteries. A decimal character ( \(\cdot\) ) in Appendix E indicates no data available for the test listed. A zero represents an earned score of zero. For some multiple-choice tests, a negative score is possible when the correction for guessing is applied. In the following table, the column numbers correspond to the column heading in the printouts.

Since no subject took all psychological tests, the printout for Appendix E is divided into two parts. Part 1 lists scores for twins who took the Basic and Secondary batteries; Part 2, the Basic and Culture Fair batteries. A full description of each variable reported in the printout can be found in Appendix B.
Column \#Name of Test
35 Calendar
36 Cube Comparisons
37
Simple Arithmetic38
Wide Range Vocabulary
Surface Development
Form Board
Self-Judging Vocabulary
Paper Folding
Object Aperture
Identical Pictures
Newcastle Spatial
Spelling Achievement
Mazes-number of half blocks completed
Mazes-number of errors
Inference (Part I only for twins \#01-48; total for twins \# 500-875)

50 Mooney Faces
51 Logical Reasoning
52 Whiteman Test of Social Perception
53 Cancellation
54 Card Rotation
55 Ship Destination
56 PMA-verbal meaning
57 PMA-number facility
58 PMA-reasoning
59 PMA-spatial relations
60 PMA-total
61 IPAT Culture Fair-Form A-Classical IQ
62 IPAT Culture Fair-Form A-Culture Fair IQ
63 IPAT Culture Fair-Form A-Attainment Contaminated IQ
64 IPAT Culture Fair-Form B-Classical IQ
65 IPAT Culture Fair-Form B-Culture Fair IQ
66 IPAT Culture Fair-Form B-Attainment Contaminated IQ




















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APPENDIX E－PART 2
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\section*{Appendix F}

The raw scores for all twins who took either of the personality questionnaires, How Well Do You Know Yourself? or High School Personality Questionnaire.

In the following table, the column numbers correspond to the column headings in the Appendix F printouts.

Since each twin took only one of the two personality tests, the printout for Appendix \(F\) is divided into two parts. A full description of each variable reported in the printout can be found in Appendix \(B\).

\section*{Column \# HOW WELL DO YOU KNOW YOURSELF?}

67 Irritability
68 Practicality
69 Punctuality
70 Novelty-loving
71 Vocational assurance
72 Cooperativeness
73 Ambitiousness
74 Hypercriticalness
75 Dejection
76 General morale
77 Persistence
78 Nervousness
79 Seriousness
80 Submissiveness
81 Impulsiveness
82 Dynamism
83 Emotional control
84 Consistency
85 Test objectivity
Appendix F ..... 227
HIGH SCHOOL PERSONALITY QUESTIONNAIRE
86
Reserved vs. warmhearted

Dull vs. bright
Affected by feelings vs. emotionally stable
Undemonstrative vs. excitable
Obedient vs. assertive
Sober vs. enthusiastic
Disregards rules vs. conscientious
Shy vs. adventurous
Tough-minded vs. tender-minded
Zestful vs. circumspect individualism
Self-assured vs. apprehensive
Sociable group-dependent vs. self-sufficient Uncontrolled vs. controlled Relaxed vs. tense












































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\section*{Appendix G}

Test scores for the small number (19 pairs) of twins given the EEG battery which not only includes two EEG parameters but also intelligence, personality, and creativity test results.

The column numbers in the following table correspond to the column headings in the Appendix G printout. A full description of each variable reported in the printout can be found in Appendix B.

\section*{Column \# EEG PARAMETERS}

100 Visual Evoked Response: latency to first significant negative peak measured in milliseconds on dominant side (see text)
101 EEG Diagnostic Impression: + sign indicates record available in text

REVISED BETA EXAMINATION: I.Q.
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MMPI-clinical scale Hs
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MMPI-clinical scale Sc
MMPI-clinical scale Ma
MMPI-clinical scale Si

\section*{TORRANCE TEST OF CREATIVE THINKING-FORM A}

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Verbal Fluency
Verbal Flexibility
Verbal Originality
Figural Fluency
Figural Flexibility
Figural Originality
Figural Elaboration






















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\section*{Appendix H}

Not all tests were completed by both members of a twin set nor did all sets take identical test batteries. Virtually all twins, including 50 sets of boy-girl twins, completed the Basic Battery. However, only 19 sets of twins were given the EEG Battery. Appendix H shows at a glance the physiological, psychological, and sociological data available for each twin. All twins participating in the Twin Survey are identified by I.D. number, sex, race, age, and zygosity. A "C" opposite the I.D. number indicates the complete set of data is recorded for the variable indicated by the column heading. \(A\) " \(P\) " in the column indicates the data set is incomplete. If a subject missed one or more of the tests in the battery, he was given a "P", indicating partial battery. A decimal character \({ }^{(\cdot)}\) opposite the I.D. number indicates no data on the variable is available for that subject.

\section*{Column \#}

124 Blood group genes (Appendix C)
125 Biometric variables-examiner reported (Appendix D)
126 Biometric variables-self-reported (Appendix D)
Socio-economic status (Appendix D)
Psychological tests-Basic Battery (Appendix E)
Psychological tests-Secondary Battery (Appendix E)
130 Psychological tests-Culture Fair Battery (Appendix E)
131 Personality questionnaire-How Well Do You Know Yourself? (Appendix F)
132 Personality questionnaire-High School Personality Questionnaire (Appendix F)
133
EEG Battery (Appendix G)

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\section*{TWINS: Black and White}

\title{
FOUNDATION FOR HUMAN UNDERSTANDING SYMPOSIA
}
1. Human Variation
2. Twins: Black and White```


[^0]:    ${ }^{1}$ Sunday Times, London, Oct. 24, 1976; The Observer, London, Oct. 31, 1976; Times, London, Oct. 26, 1976.

[^1]:    ${ }^{2}$ For a sample of such restrictions, see: Institutional Guide to DHEW Policy on Protection of Human Subjects (Revised); The Declaration of Helsinki, 1964, World Medical Association; Ethical Principles in the Conduct of Research with Human Participants, 1973, American Psychological Association; Professional Ethics-Statements of Procedures of the American Anthropological Association, 1973.

[^2]:    ${ }^{1}$ This chapter constitutes the major portion of an invited address presented at the American Psychological Association meeting, Washington, D.C., Sept. 4, 1976, by Robert C. Nichols, professor of educational psychology, State University of New York, Buffalo, N.Y. Some of the introductory and explicatory matter has been omitted. The author, needless to say, is most indebted to Dr. Nichols for his generosity in allowing such important information to be incorporated in a book that is not his own.

[^3]:    Note. Environmental correlations were calculated from the corrected intraclass correlations in Table III-C. The calculation for general ability assumed a heritability of .70 and a genetic correlation for fraternal twins of .57 . The calculation for all other traits assumed a heritability of .60 and a genetic correlation for fraternal twins of . 50
    ${ }^{1}$ NMSQT is National Merit Scholarship Qualifying Test.

[^4]:    Note $1=$ High SES group

[^5]:    Note． $1=$ High SES group
    2 ＝Middle SES group
    3 ＝Low SES group

[^6]:    * Assuming random mating and only additive genes; i.e., the simplest possible polygenic model, $r=.50$.

[^7]:    * Assuming random mating and only additive genes; i.e., the simplest possible polygenic model, $r=.50$.

[^8]:    ${ }^{*} p<.05$.

[^9]:    * $p<.05$.

[^10]:    * $p<.05$.

[^11]:    * $p<.01$.

[^12]:    * $p<.05$.

[^13]:    * $p<.01$.

[^14]:    * $p<.01$.

[^15]:    * $p<.05$.
    ** $p<.01$.
    ${ }^{a}$ difference in $U$ 's. Paulson's statistic for determining the significance of differences in $F$ 's.

