

Multivariate Analysis of the Scarr-Rowe Interaction Across Middle Childhood and Early
Adolescence

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Abstract

Numerous studies have found interactions between socioeconomic status (SES) and the heritability of cognitive ability in samples from the United States, with individuals from lower SES backgrounds showing decreased heritability compared to those reared in higher SES environments. However, nearly all published studies of the Scarr-Rowe interaction have been univariate and cross-sectional. In this study, we sought to increase statistical power by fitting multivariate models of gene (G) x SES interaction, including longitudinal models. Cognitive ability data collected at up to five time points between ages 7 and 15 years were available for 566 twin pairs from the Louisville Twin Study. We used hierarchical and latent factor models to pool intelligence subtest scores cross-sectionally. To examine interactions longitudinally, we fit latent growth curve models to IQ scores. G x SES interactions were significant more often in multivariate analyses than in univariate analyses, suggesting that the multivariate approach increased power. The predicted interaction effect was observed at most ages in cross-sectional multivariate analyses. In longitudinal analyses, we found significant G x SES interactions on mean-level (intercept) full scale IQ and performance IQ ($ps < .001$), but not verbal IQ intercept ($p = .08$). SES did not significantly moderate the heritability of change in IQ over time (slope). Interaction appeared to be driven by DZ twin correlations declining at a faster rate than MZ correlations as a function of SES.

Keywords: intelligence; SES; gene-environment interaction; multivariate methods

Highlights

- G x SES interaction on intelligence is found across mid-childhood/early adolescence
- The interaction appears to be driven by divergence in DZ twins
- Multivariate methods may boost power to detect G x SES interaction

Multivariate Analysis of the Scarr-Rowe Interaction Across Middle Childhood and Early Adolescence

Low socioeconomic status (SES) is associated with negative outcomes in a variety of important domains, including cognitive ability (Bradley & Corwyn, 2002). Turkheimer, Haley, Waldron, D'Onofrio, and Gottesman (2003) observed an interaction of SES and the heritability of IQ in 7-year-old U.S. twins, wherein children from lower SES families showed reduced heritability compared to more affluent peers. This finding supported the Scarr-Rowe hypothesis, which holds that environmental disadvantage hinders the ability of individuals reared in lower SES households to realize their intellectual potential (Rowe, Jacobson, & Van den Oord, 1999; Scarr-Salapatek, 1971).

Modification of cognitive performance heritability by SES has since been observed in most studies using U.S. samples, and a recent meta-analysis of such studies found a moderately sized interaction effect (Tucker-Drob & Bates, 2016). Significant gene (G) x SES interaction has been observed across the life span, including in early childhood (Rhemtulla & Tucker-Drob, 2012; Tucker-Drob, Rhemtulla, Harden, Turkheimer, & Fask, 2011), middle childhood (Turkheimer et al., 2003), adolescence (Harden, Turkheimer, & Loehlin, 2007; Rowe et al., 1999), and adulthood (Bates, Lewis, & Weiss, 2013). Several U.S. studies, however, have failed to find significant moderation (Grant et al., 2010; Kremen et al., 2005), including a recent study by Figlio, Freese, Karbownik, and Roth (2017). G x SES interaction is not typically present in samples from Western Europe and Australia, where factors associated with environmental enrichment (e.g., quality education and healthcare) are more widely accessible (Grasby, Coventry, Byrne, & Olson, 2017; Tucker-Drob & Bates, 2016). There are, however, exceptions

to this pattern as well, especially in cohorts from previous generations (Fischbein, 1980; Turkheimer, Beam, Sundet, & Tambs, 2017).

Despite the growing body of work on G x SES interaction on cognitive ability, existing studies have been limited in several important ways. First, many studies have lacked sufficient statistical power, decreasing the likelihood of detecting interaction effects (Tucker-Drob & Bates, 2016). Second, few studies have examined G x SES interaction longitudinally. Tucker-Drob and colleagues (2011) observed significant interaction on change in mental ability between ages 10 months and 2 years. Rhemtulla and Tucker-Drob (2012) found that individual differences in mathematics skills (but not reading) among four-year-olds were moderated by SES, and that this interaction was not explained by interaction effects on mental ability at age 2. However, Rhemtulla & Tucker-Drob (2012) did not test for SES moderation of change in cognitive ability between 2 and 4 years. We are unaware of previous studies that have examined G x SES interaction longitudinally at later ages.

In the present study, we sought to address these limitations by investigating heritability x SES interaction across middle childhood and early adolescence using cross-sectional and longitudinal multivariate techniques. Compared to univariate twin models, both cross-sectional and longitudinal multivariate models offer increased power, as long as observed measures are sufficiently correlated (Schmitz, Cherny, & Fulker, 1998). Data were drawn from the recently revived Louisville Twin Study (LTS; Rhea, 2015; Wilson, 1983). A preliminary univariate study found a trend-level ($p < .07$) G x SES interaction in 7-year-old LTS twins (Turkheimer, Beam, & Davis, 2015). Since that report, additional cognitive data for other ages (up to 15 years) have been recovered, increasing the overall sample size by approximately 100 twin pairs. Furthermore, although preliminary analyses used index-level cognitive performance scores (i.e.,

full scale IQ, performance IQ, and verbal IQ), subtest scores are also available for all LTS twins at all measurement occasions, making it possible to conduct multivariate analyses of the common variance across subtests. Finally, a large subset of LTS twins participated in cognitive testing at multiple time points, enabling us to perform longitudinal analyses of cognitive performance heritability x SES interaction across middle childhood and early adolescence. We hypothesized that we would observe modest interaction effects at all ages, and that multivariate results would be more consistently significant than univariate results due to greater power. Specifically, we expected the proportion of variance in cognitive performance attributable to additive genetic factors (A) and shared environmental factors (C) to increase and decrease, respectively, as a function of SES.

Method

Participants

Data collection for the LTS ran from 1957 until the late 1990s, generating one of the most comprehensive data sets on the early cognitive development of U.S. twins ever collected (Rhea, 2015; Wilson, 1983). Participants were all from the Louisville, Kentucky area. Twin pairs were included in the current analyses if 1) both twins in a set participated in at least one cognitive assessment at ages 7, 8, 9, 12, or 15; and 2) family-level SES was available. We analyzed data from 566 twin pairs in total (Table 1; 282 monozygotic (MZ), 284 dizygotic (DZ); 236 same sex female, 210 same sex male, 120 opposite sex). Zygosity was determined by blood serum analysis. The sample was of average intelligence and SES (Table 1; Table 2) and 90.37% Caucasian. Age 12 data were omitted from cross-sectional analyses due to insufficient sample size. 80.04% of the sample participated in data collection at three or more ages. Missing data information for longitudinal analyses is presented in Table 3.

Table 1
Demographic and Descriptive Information

Age (Years)	n MZ/DZ Pairs	n Same/Opp. Sex Pairs	n Pairs Both Female/Both Male/Opp. Sex	% Female	% Caucasian	FSIQ	SES
7	235/236	374/97	204/170/97	53.61	88.85	98.34 (14.06)	47.99 (26.80)
8	250/253	401/102	215/186/102	52.88	90.95	101.80 (14.02)	47.53 (26.38)
9	191/199	297/94	160/137/94	52.94	88.87	102.82 (14.48)	46.84 (27.15)
12*	71/82	113/40	55/58/40	49.02	81.37	100.76 (14.49)	44.75 (29.11)
15	191/184	304/71	164/140/71	53.20	93.07	99.87 (14.02)	46.41 (26.20)
All Ages	282/284	446/120	236/210/120	52.30	90.37	100.68 (14.25)	47.80 (26.56)

* Cross-sectional analyses were not performed on age 12 data due to insufficient sample size. Opp: opposite. FSIQ and SES presented as mean (standard deviation).

Table 2
Correlations of Full Scale IQ Across Ages and SES

	IQ 7	IQ 8	IQ 9	IQ 12	IQ 15	SES
IQ 7	1	-	-	-	-	-
IQ 8	.88	1	-	-	-	-
IQ 9	.88	.90	1	-	-	-
IQ 12	.85	.88	.88	1	-	-
IQ 15	.78	.82	.83	.91	1	-
SES	.39	.36	.37	.50	.36	1

Pearson's correlation coefficients. All pairwise correlations were significant ($p < .05$).

Table 3
Missing Cognitive Data Information for Longitudinal Analyses

Age (Years)	7	8	9	12	15
7	0.83	-	-	-	-
8	0.74	0.89	-	-	-
9	0.55	0.66	0.69	-	-
12	0.27	0.25	0.25	0.27	-
15	0.54	0.64	0.51	0.19	0.66

Values on the diagonal indicate the proportion of the total sample that had cognitive data at each age. Off-diagonal values represent the proportion of the total sample available to calculate a covariance between cognitive measures at two ages.

Measures

Three versions of the Wechsler Intelligence Scale for Children (WISC) were administered during the LTS: the WISC, WISC-R, and WISC-III (Wechsler, 1949, 1974, 1991). We used index and scaled subtest WISC scores in cross-sectional analyses, and only index scores

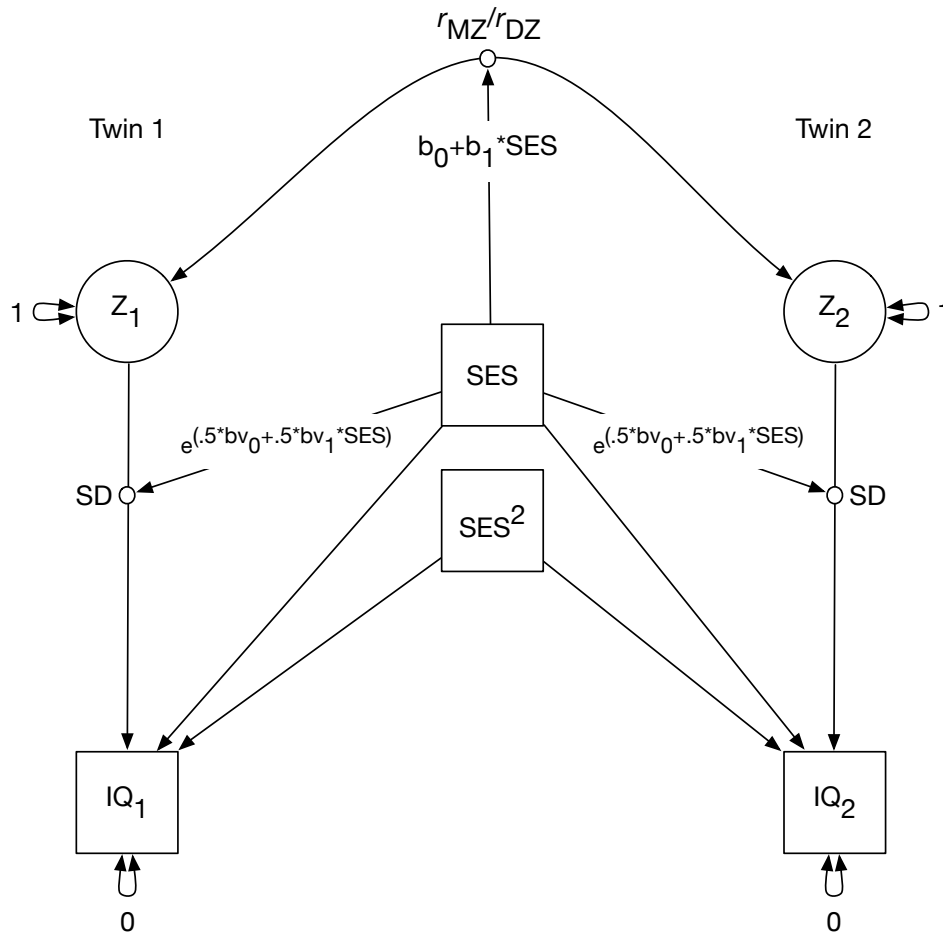
in longitudinal analyses. Paternal SES at birth was measured with the Hollingshead Four Factor Index of Socioeconomic Status, which is a continuous zero to 100-point scale based on parental occupation, education, sex, and marital status (Hollingshead, 1975).

Procedure

We used R to calculate descriptive statistics and prepare the data (R Core Team, 2018). Twin models were fit in Mplus Version 8 (Muthén & Muthén, 2017) using full information maximum likelihood estimation to handle missing data.

Univariate Analyses. To build upon existing univariate, cross-sectional examinations of G x SES interaction, we first modeled MZ and DZ covariances for each index and subtest score as a function of standardized SES at ages 7, 8, 9, and 15. We used a modified twin correlation model (MTCM; Figure 1; Turkheimer et al., 2017), which differs from the commonly used Purcell model (Purcell, 2002) in several important ways. First, cognitive variables are standardized *within* the MTCM, meaning that the twin covariances are correlations. This is done by creating a latent variable (Z) that has a variance of one and is indicated by the observed cognitive measure (e.g., IQ, as depicted in the figure), which has its residual variance fixed to zero. The internal standardization results in a factor loading weight equal to the observed standard deviation of the phenotype (SD), which can then be examined for heteroscedasticity with respect to the moderator using an exponential function.

Figure 1
Modified Twin Correlation Model



IQ: placeholder for the observed cognitive variables we analyzed. Z: latent variable that standardized the cognitive variable to a mean of 0 and standard deviation of 1, thereby transforming the twin covariances into correlations. r_{MZ}/r_{DZ} : monozygotic/dizygotic twin correlations for cognitive ability. SD: standard deviation of the cognitive variable. We fit separate linear models of SES ($b_0 + b_1 * SES$) to r_{MZ} and r_{DZ} to examine whether twin correlations changed as a function of SES. A log-linear model of SES ($e^{(.5*bv_0 + .5*bv_1 * SES)}$) was fit to the phenotypic variance to account for phenotypic heteroscedasticity. The .5 term in the exponential expression for the variance is included because SD is a standard deviation, not a variance.

Second, in the MTCM, SES linearly modifies the MZ and DZ twin correlations (r_{MZ}/r_{DZ}).

The twin correlations and their moderation can then be linearly transformed into additive genetic (A), shared environmental (C), and non-shared environmental (E) variance components. This contrasts the Purcell model, wherein SES modifies the paths from the ACE components to the measured outcome. The Purcell model is therefore implicitly a quadratic model of the ACE variances, which are necessarily constrained to be greater than zero. The MTCM's focus on

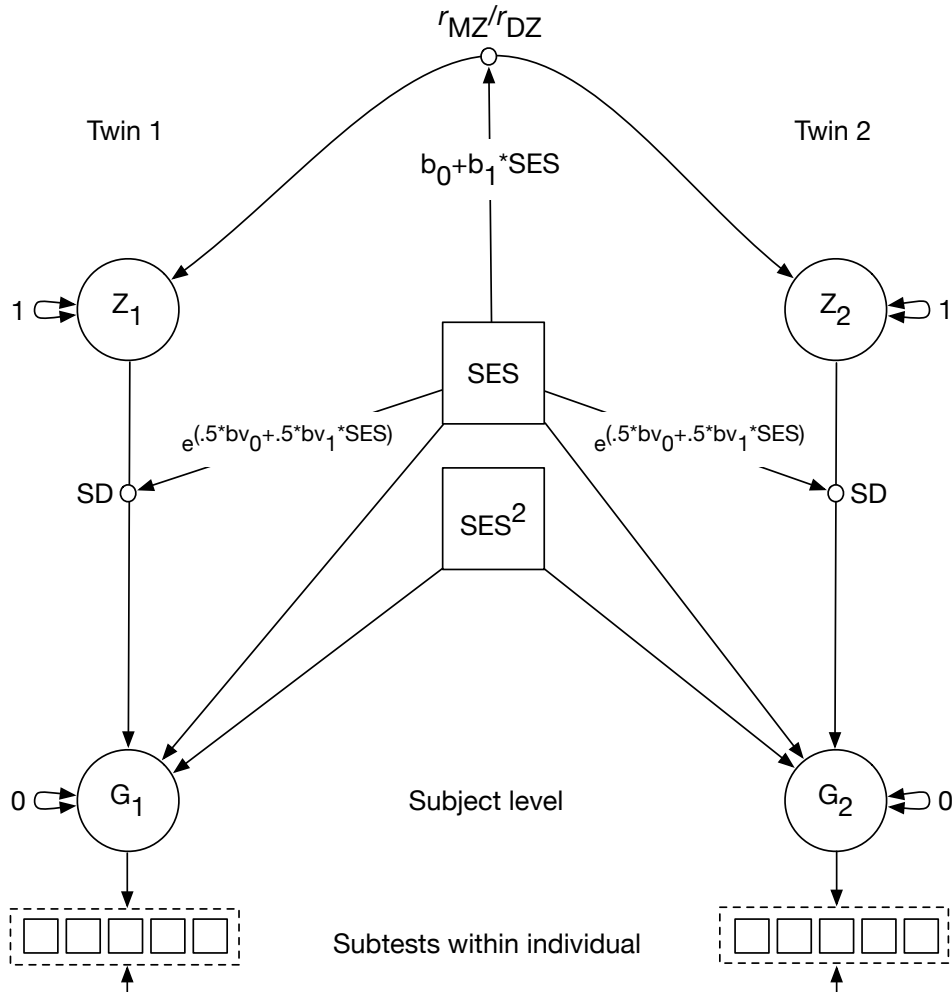
moderation of the twin correlations allows the correlations to assume moderated values that would result in negative C estimates, which violates the ACE parameterization of the classical twin model. Permitting the ACE parameters to be modeled as negative makes it possible to model the twin correlations accurately, particularly when the DZ twin correlation is less than half of the MZ correlation, as has been observed in previous studies of cognitive ability (Turkheimer et al., 2017). Finally, in addition to controlling for linear main effects of SES on cognitive ability as in the Purcell model, we also controlled for quadratic main effects in univariate analyses.

Consistent with the classical twin model, we constrained the means and variances of cognitive measures to be equal across twins in a pair. Expected MZ and DZ covariances were 1 and 0.5, respectively. We tested for significant G x SES interaction (in both univariate analyses and the multivariate models discussed below) using a Wald test with two degrees of freedom, which examined whether the A and/or C moderation parameters differed significantly from zero as a function of linear SES.

Power analysis. Given our sample sizes and the power limitations of previous studies (Tucker-Drob & Bates, 2016), we suspected that our univariate analyses might be underpowered. To test this, and to justify a multivariate approach, we performed a power analysis of the univariate MTCM. We generated 1000 data sets that each included 250 MZ and 250 DZ twins, roughly equivalent to our sample sizes at each age. SES values were randomly drawn from a uniform distribution with a mean of zero and standard deviation of one. MZ and DZ correlations in each data set were calculated as $0.7 - 0.025 * \text{SES}$ and $0.5 - 0.05 * \text{SES}$, respectively, resulting in a b_1 A change of 0.05 per standard deviation of the moderator. Thus, the DZ correlation declined faster than the MZ correlation with rising SES. We then fit our univariate model to the 1000 data sets.

Cross-sectional Multivariate Analyses. Within each age, we pooled information from all 12 WISC subtests using two multivariate models, both of which were extensions of the univariate model described above. The first was a hierarchical model (Figure 2). The top part of the model is the same as the univariate MTCM described above. The 12 observed subtest scores (represented as empty squares) were treated as a repeated measure nested within a subject-level cognitive ability latent variable (G). The MTCM was fit to all available subtest scores simultaneously within each individual, and standard errors were corrected to account for the fact that the subtest scores came from the same individual.

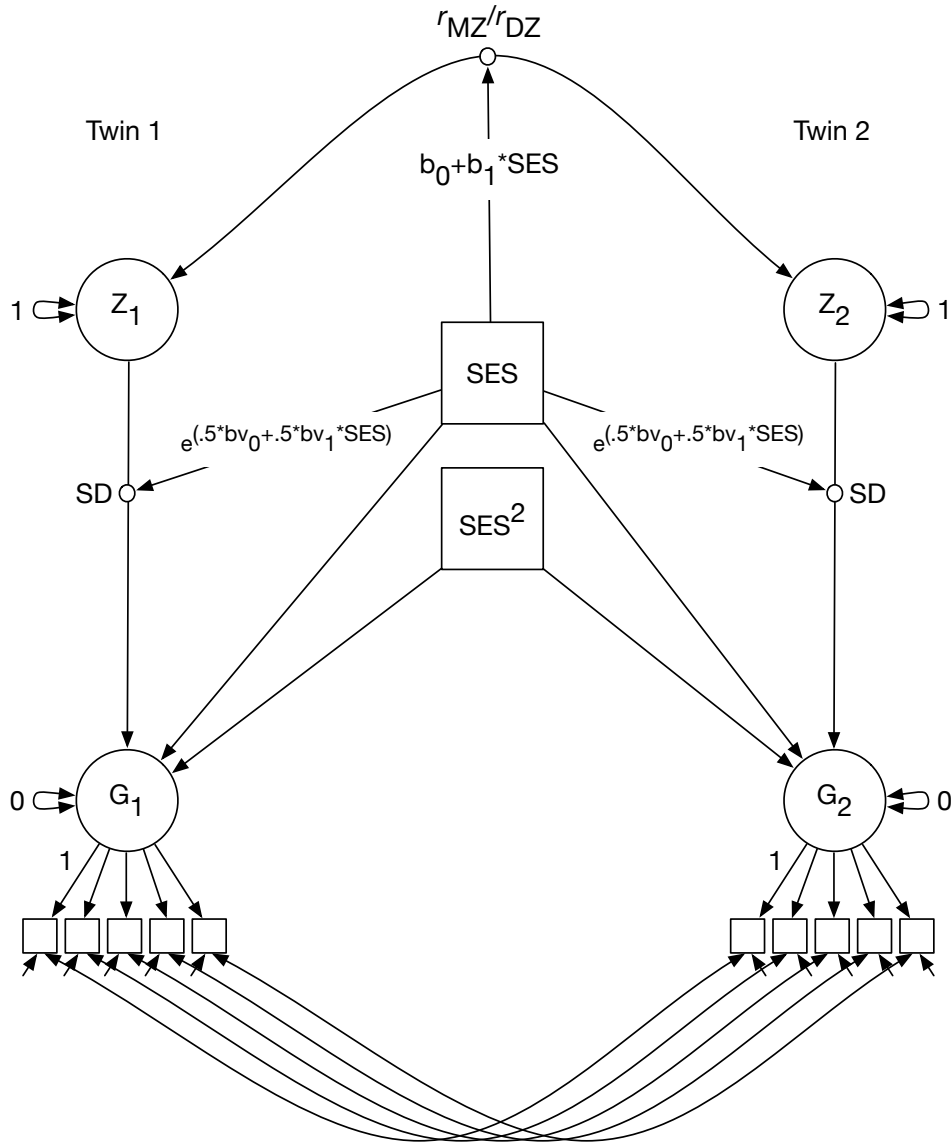
Figure 2
Hierarchical Model



Empty squares represent the 12 WISC subtests. G: general cognitive ability. The top part of the model is identical to the modified twin correlation model (MTCM) presented in Figure 1. For each participant, we fit the MTCM to the 12 subtests simultaneously and adjusted the standard errors.

The second was a latent factor model (Figure 3) in which the MTCM was applied to a common factor (G) that was estimated from the 12 WISC subtests (depicted as empty squares) for each twin. We fixed the loading of the first subtest to one, thereby fixing the variance of the latent factor, and then standardized the latent factor inside the model using the same method as described for the univariate analyses. Residual variances of the subtest scores were correlated across twins. SES modified the MZ and DZ twin correlations for latent cognitive ability in the same manner as in the univariate MTCM.

Figure 3
Latent Factor Model



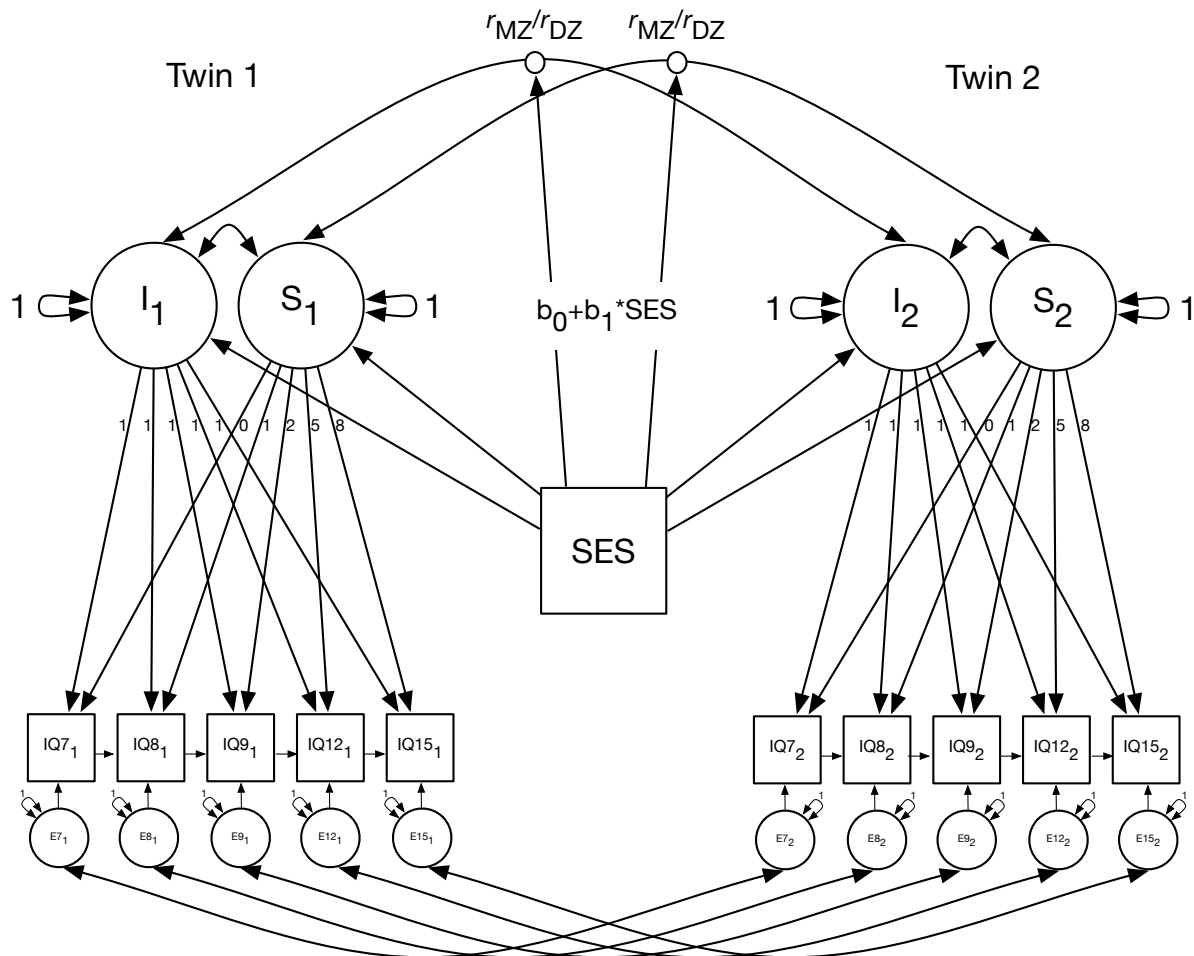
G: latent cognitive factors generated from the 12 WISC subtests, which are represented by empty squares. The top part of the model is identical to the modified twin correlation model (MTCM) presented in Figure 1. We fit the MTCM to each individual's latent factor.

The hierarchical model and the latent factor model differed in that the former analyzed both common and unique error variance across multiple subtests for each participant, whereas the latter only analyzed common variance. Because of this, the hierarchical model was expected to result in smaller twin correlations than the latent factor model. More theoretically, these models represent two ways of handling subtest scores. The hierarchical model treats subtest

scores as multiple observations of a participant's ability. The standard errors of the parameter estimates are corrected to take subject-level covariation among the subtests into account. The latent factor model, in contrast, treats each subtest score as a manifestation of a single underlying ability.

Longitudinal Multivariate Analyses. Next, we examined G x SES interaction longitudinally by fitting a latent growth curve (LGC) model to full scale, performance, and verbal IQ (FSIQ, PIQ, and VIQ, respectively) data from ages 7, 8, 9, 12, and 15 (Figure 4). As with the cross-sectional multivariate models, our LGC model is largely an extension of the univariate MTCM. In LGC analyses, individual differences in phenotypic change are modeled as random effects using two factors. The intercept factor quantifies performance at the first age of measurement, and the slope factor indexes rate of change from initial performance over time. In this study, we created latent IQ intercept (I) and slope (S) factors for each twin and fixed the intercept at the first time point (7 years). IQ loadings on the intercept factor were all fixed to 1, while slope loadings were weighted to model the time elapsed between observations. SES modified the intercept and slope twin correlations directly, controlling for linear effects of SES, and separate Wald tests were performed on the twin correlations for the intercept and slope factors. As in the univariate MTCM, the modification parameters were linearly transformed into equivalent values of the A and C components. To model autoregressive effects (i.e., the extent to which the variance of one observation explained the variance of subsequent observations), observed IQ at each age was regressed on IQ measured at the previous age. IQ scores had residual variances (E), which correlated across twins for corresponding measurement occasions.

Figure 4
Latent Growth Curve Model



I: latent intercept factor. S: latent slope factor. E: residual variance. r_{MZ}/r_{DZ} : monozygotic/dizygotic twin correlations for cognitive ability. For both I and S, we fit separate linear models of SES ($b_0 + b_1 * SES$) to r_{MZ} and r_{DZ} to examine whether twin correlations changed as a function of SES.

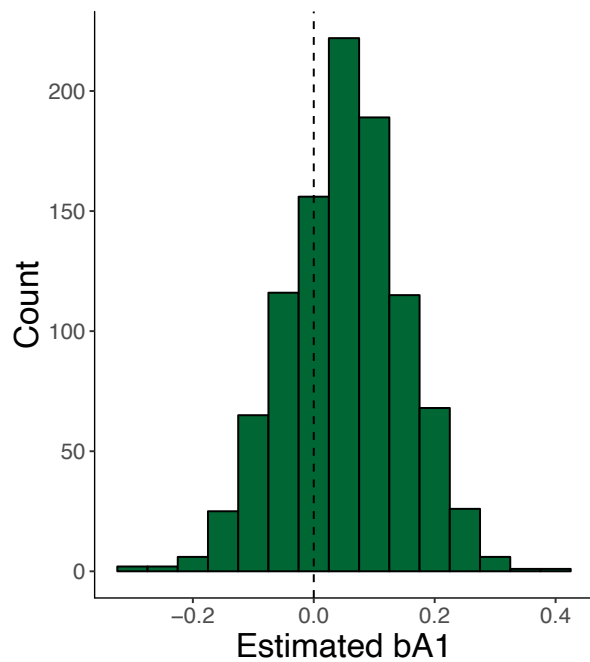
Results

Univariate Analyses. Power analysis results suggested that our univariate model lacked sufficient power to detect significant interaction effects. Although the b_1 A parameter was recovered without substantial bias (mean = 0.05), only 7.9% of the estimated parameters were significant (Figure 5a; Supplementary Table 1). Perhaps because of limited power, significance of the Wald test fluctuated across ages and cognitive measures in a manner that did not follow a discernible pattern (Figure 5b). Despite being underpowered, however, univariate analyses

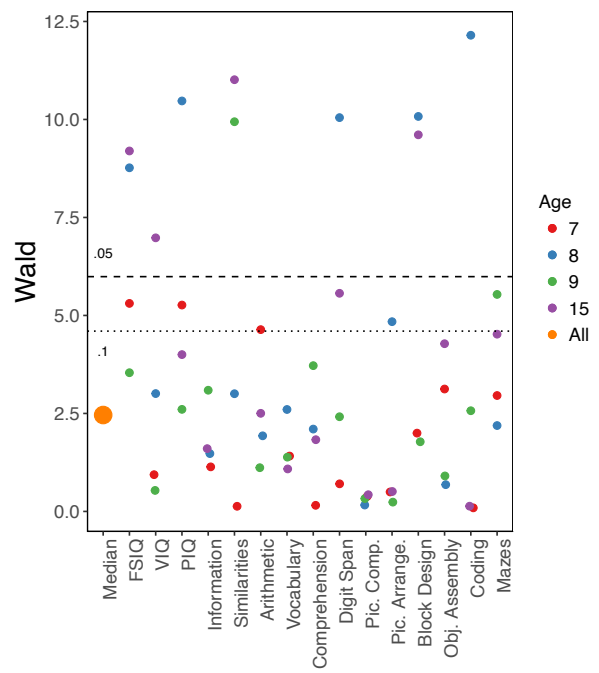
provided tentative evidence of G x SES interaction: modified twin correlations tended to assume values that resulted in A increasing as a function of SES while C decreased (Supplementary Table 1; mean $b_1 A = 0.03$, 57% positive; mean $b_1 C = -0.06$; 72% negative). Overall, the univariate results suggested that increasing power using a multivariate approach may be worthwhile.

Figure 5

5a. Univariate Model Power Analysis Results



5b. Univariate Model Wald Results



5a) Count: frequency that bA_1 parameter estimates took a given value on the x axis. 1000 simulations were performed in total. 5b) Points above hashed and dotted lines: significant at $p < .05$ and $p < .01$, respectively. Values < 2 are jittered slightly. Orange dot: overall median Wald for all measures and ages. Pic: picture. Comp: comprehension. Arrange: arrangement. Obj: object.

Cross-sectional Multivariate Analyses. Complete hierarchical and latent factor model

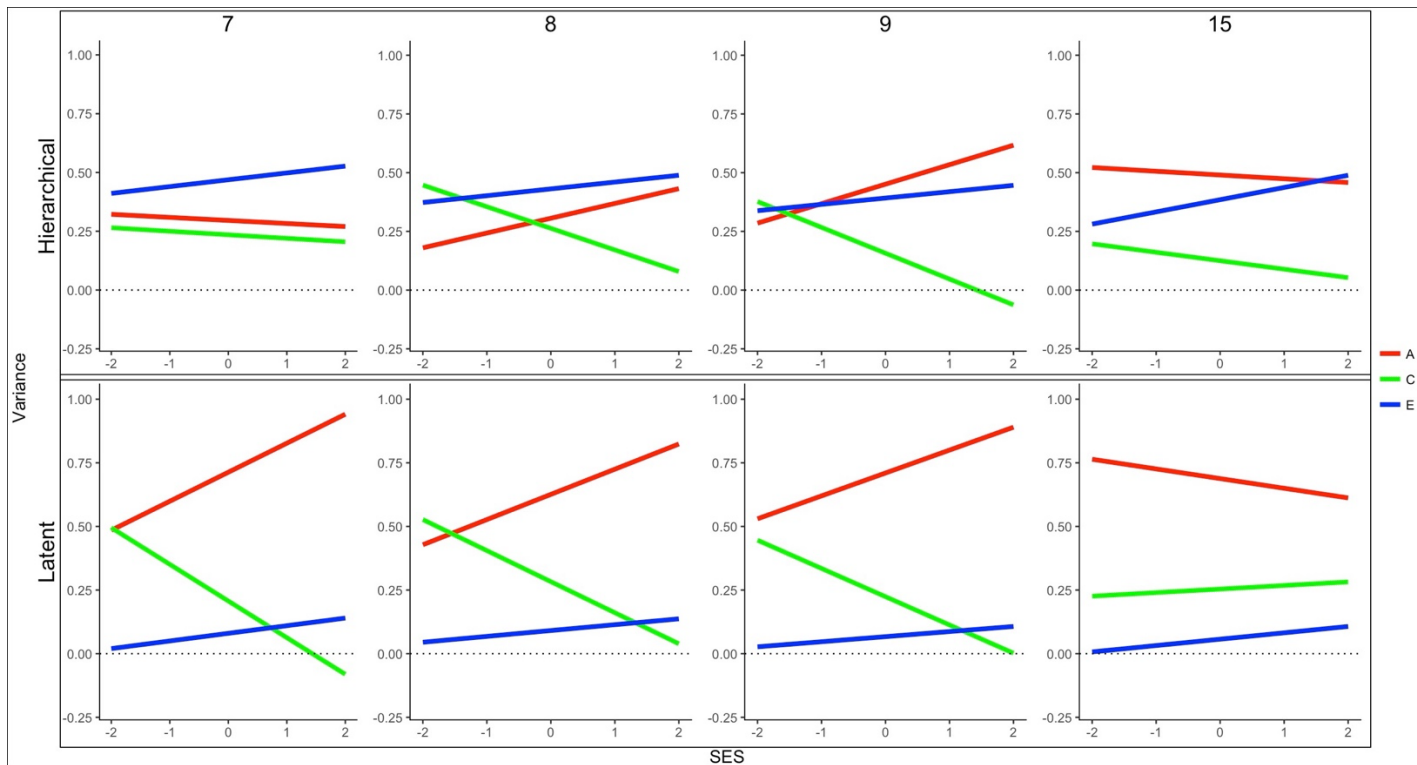
results are presented in Table 4 and Figure 6.

Table 4
Cross-sectional Multivariate Results

Model	Age	Wald	Linear ME	Quad ME	b0 rMZ	b1 rMZ	b0 rDZ	b1 rDZ	b0 A	b1 A	b0 C	b1 C	b0 E	b1 E
Hierarchical	7	4.78	0.24 (0.03)*	-0.07 (0.03)*	0.53 (0.01)*	-0.03 (0.01)*	0.38 (0.03)*	-0.02 (0.03)	0.30 (0.06)*	-0.01 (0.06)	0.24 (0.05)*	-0.02 (0.05)	0.47 (0.01)*	0.03 (0.01)*
	8	11.12*	0.22 (0.02)*	-0.03 (0.03)	0.57 (0.01)*	-0.03 (0.01)*	0.42 (0.02)*	-0.06 (0.02)*	0.31 (0.05)*	0.06 (0.05)	0.26 (0.05)*	-0.09 (0.04)*	0.43 (0.01)*	0.03 (0.01)*
	9	9.18*	0.23 (0.03)*	-0.02 (0.03)	0.61 (0.02)*	-0.03 (0.02)	0.38 (0.03)*	-0.07 (0.03)*	0.45 (0.06)*	0.08 (0.06)	0.16 (0.05)*	-0.11 (0.05)*	0.39 (0.02)*	0.03 (0.02)
	15	12.15*	0.22 (0.03)*	-0.02 (0.03)	0.62 (0.02)*	-0.05 (0.02)*	0.37 (0.03)*	-0.04 (0.03)	0.49 (0.06)*	-0.02 (0.06)	0.13 (0.06)*	-0.04 (0.05)	0.39 (0.02)*	0.05 (0.02)*
Latent	7	6.25*	0.96 (0.10)*	-0.23 (0.11)*	0.92 (0.02)*	-0.03 (0.02)	0.56 (0.05)*	-0.09 (0.05)	0.71 (0.10)*	0.11 (0.10)	0.21 (0.10)*	-0.14 (0.09)	0.08 (0.02)*	0.03 (0.02)
	8	4.91	0.99 (0.10)*	-0.08 (0.11)	0.91 (0.02)*	-0.02 (0.01)	0.60 (0.05)*	-0.07 (0.04)	0.63 (0.10)*	0.10 (0.09)	0.28 (0.09)*	-0.12 (0.09)	0.09 (0.02)*	0.02 (0.01)
	9	3.31	1.06 (0.12)*	-0.09 (0.13)	0.93 (0.02)*	-0.02 (0.02)	0.58 (0.05)*	-0.07 (0.05)	0.71 (0.11)*	0.09 (0.10)	0.22 (0.10)*	-0.11 (0.10)	0.07 (0.02)*	0.02 (0.02)
	15	4.16	1.02 (0.12)*	-0.03 (0.12)	0.94 (0.01)*	-0.03 (0.04)*	0.60 (0.05)*	-0.01 (0.05)	0.69 (0.11)*	-0.04 (0.10)	0.25 (0.11)*	0.01 (0.10)	0.06 (0.01)*	0.03 (0.01)*

* $p < .05$. Wald: result of Wald chi-square test with two degrees of freedom. ME: main effect. Quad: quadratic. Parameter estimates presented as value (standard error).

Figure 6
Cross-Sectional Multivariate ACE Results



Hierarchical: results of hierarchical cross-sectional model. Latent: results of latent factor cross-sectional model. Variance: proportion of variance in cognitive ability attributable to A, C, and E (presented in red, green, and blue, respectively). SES is standardized to a mean of 0 and standard deviation of 1.

Hierarchical model. We did not observe significant G x SES interaction in hierarchical analysis of age 7 data ($p > .05$). However, SES modified twin correlations for cognitive ability at ages 8 and 9 such that DZ correlations decreased more quickly than MZ correlations with rising SES. When twin correlations were transformed into ACE variances, the predicted pattern of A

increasing and C decreasing as a function of SES was observed. Wald tests of the b_1 A and C parameters were significant at both ages 8 and 9 (age 8: $\chi^2(2, n = 503 \text{ pairs}) = 11.12, p = .004$; age 9: $\chi^2(2, n = 390 \text{ pairs}) = 9.18, p = .01$). Although the Wald test was also significant at age 15 ($\chi^2(2, n = 375 \text{ pairs}) = 12.15, p = .002$), the b_1 A estimate was slightly negative, which did not conform to the predictions of our model.

Latent factor model. As predicted, the latent factor model yielded larger twin correlations than the hierarchical model. Results of latent factor analyses suggested that 7-, 8-, and 9-year-old DZ twins diverged in cognitive ability more rapidly with rising SES than MZ twins. As a result, A increased and C decreased as a function of SES at all three ages. The Wald test of the interaction was significant at age 7 ($\chi^2(2, n = 471 \text{ pairs}) = 6.25, p = .04$), but not age 8 or 9 ($ps > .05$). Although age 15 twin correlations and corresponding A and C variances did not follow the expected interaction pattern, neither A nor C was significantly different from zero ($p > .05$).

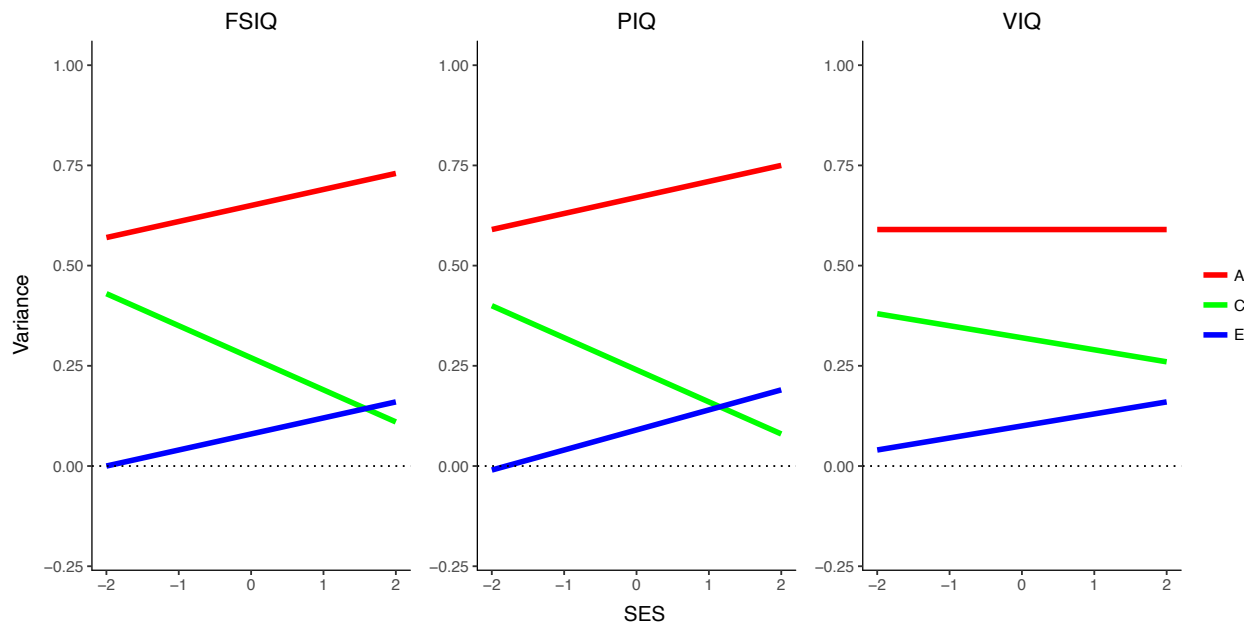
Longitudinal Multivariate Analyses. Results of LGC models are presented in Table 5, Figure 7, and Supplementary Tables 2 and 3. We observed significant SES modification of twin correlations for FSIQ intercept ($\chi^2(2, N = 566 \text{ pairs}) = 17.02, p < .001$) and PIQ ($\chi^2(2, N = 566 \text{ pairs}) = 14.22, p < .001$). As in most of the cross-sectional multivariate results, DZ correlations declined more quickly than MZ correlations with rising SES. This drove the interaction observed after transformation into ACE variances, where A increased and C decreased as a function of SES. SES did not significantly modify twin correlations for VIQ intercept, or twin correlations for FSIQ, PIQ, or VIQ slope ($ps > .05$).

Table 5
Latent Growth Curve Model Results

Index	Factor	Wald	Linear ME	b0 rMZ	b1 rMZ	b0 rDZ	b1 rDZ	b0 A	b1 A	b0 C	b1 C	b0 E	b1 E
FSIQ	Intercept	17.02*	4.94 (0.50)*	0.92 (0.02)*	-0.04 (0.01)*	0.59 (0.05)*	-0.06 (0.04)	0.65 (0.10)*	0.04 (0.09)	0.27 (0.10)*	-0.08 (0.09)	0.08 (0.02)*	0.04 (0.01)*
	Slope	0.93	-0.02 (0.06)	0.82 (0.09)*	0.03 (0.04)	0.63 (0.19)*	0.06 (0.11)	0.39 (0.39)	-0.06 (0.23)	0.43 (0.37)	0.09 (0.22)	0.18 (0.09)*	-0.03 (0.04)
PIQ	Intercept	14.22*	3.63 (0.48)*	0.91 (0.02)*	-0.05 (0.01)*	0.58 (0.05)*	-0.07 (0.04)	0.67 (0.11)*	0.04 (0.09)	0.24 (0.11)*	-0.08 (0.09)	0.09 (0.02)*	0.05 (0.01)*
	Slope	1.13	-0.12 (0.07)	0.90 (0.26)*	0.12 (0.12)	1.06 (0.38)*	0.01 (0.18)	-0.32 (0.78)	0.23 (0.42)	1.23 (0.72)	-0.11 (0.37)	0.10 (0.26)	-0.12 (0.12)
VIQ	Intercept	5.15	5.33 (0.52)*	0.91 (0.02)*	-0.03 (0.01)*	0.61 (0.05)*	-0.03 (0.04)	0.59 (0.10)*	0.00 (0.08)	0.32 (0.10)*	-0.03 (0.07)	0.10 (0.02)*	0.03 (0.01)*
	Slope	0.71	0.00 (0.08)	0.81 (0.10)*	0.03 (0.04)	0.61 (0.17)*	0.04 (0.08)	0.40 (0.36)	-0.02 (0.17)	0.41 (0.33)	0.04 (0.16)	0.19 (0.10)*	-0.03 (0.04)

* $p < .05$. Wald: result of Wald chi-square test with two degrees of freedom. ME: main effect. Parameter estimates presented as value (standard error).

Figure 7
Latent Growth Curve Intercept ACE Results



Variance: proportion of variance in cognitive ability attributable to A, C, and E (presented in red, green, and blue, respectively). SES is standardized to a mean of 0 and standard deviation of 1.

Discussion

The results of this study provide evidence of G x SES interaction on cognitive ability across middle childhood and early adolescence among U.S. twins. In most multivariate analyses, SES modified twin correlations for cognitive ability such that individuals from more affluent families showed increased heritability compared to less privileged peers. Significant interaction effects were nearly all in the expected direction (i.e., A increasing and C decreasing as a function of rising SES), and were observed in both cross-sectional and longitudinal multivariate analyses.

Consistent with the results of Tucker-Drob and Bates' (2016) meta-analysis, which reported an interaction effect of 0.074 for U.S. G x SES studies, we observed effect sizes in a similar range.

Algebraically, G x SES interaction on cognitive ability can arise from MZ twin correlations increasing more rapidly with rising SES than DZ twin correlations, DZ twin correlations decreasing quicker than MZ correlations as SES increases, or a combination of those two mechanisms. The interaction effects that we observed were driven primarily by DZ twin correlations diminishing at a faster rate than MZ correlations as a function of rising SES; there was little evidence of greater phenotypic convergence in MZ twins at higher levels of SES. When twin correlations were transformed into ACE variance components, greater DZ divergence resulted in A increasing more quickly or decreasing less quickly with rising SES than C. In some analyses, greater divergence in DZ twins resulted in C approaching zero or even taking negative values at higher levels of SES. This finding could reflect effects of phenotype-environment correlation (Beam & Turkheimer, 2013); as SES rises, twins are able to self-select into increasingly different environments. Because they are less genetically, and therefore phenotypically, similar, DZ twins select into more discrepant environments than MZ twins. Greater environmental disparity, in turn, causes DZ twins to exhibit larger within-pair phenotypic differences than MZ twins, creating a reciprocal feedback loop between phenotype and environment. Ultimately, this process results in DZ twins being less correlated for cognitive ability than MZ twins as a function of increasing SES, driving G x SES interaction. However, there are other possible explanations, and future studies should work to identify the specific mechanisms that underlie the interaction. Enabling twin correlations to assume values that result in negative ACE components, as we did here using the MTCM, may be an important step towards understanding those mechanisms.

Our results suggest that multivariate models of G x SES interaction are likely superior to more traditional univariate methods due to the substantial increase in power that they offer (Schmitz et al., 1998). Although we observed significant G x SES interaction in some univariate analyses, we did so more consistently in both cross-sectional and longitudinal multivariate analyses, in which we gathered as many cognitive measurements as possible within and between ages, respectively. When thinking about how to boost power, researchers tend to focus on enlarging sample sizes. While that is one solution, recruiting additional participants can be a difficult endeavor when funding is limited and/or data collection has ceased. Therefore, when designing future studies of the Scarr-Rowe interaction, it may be advantageous for researchers to plan on collecting more data per available participant. Using multivariate approaches to re-analyze data sets in which G x SES interaction has previously been examined with univariate models may also be worthwhile.

Results of our two cross-sectional multivariate models were mostly consistent with each other. Although the hierarchical model resulted in more significant effects than the latent factor model, trends of the moderated twin correlations and ACE components were generally comparable across approaches. Thus, our results did not indicate that one model is statistically preferable to the other. Given this, it may be acceptable to base the choice between the models on theory. The hierarchical model could be favorable in applications where subtests are regarded as multiple repeated observations of cognitive ability, whereas the latent factor model may be more appropriate when subtests are treated as indicators of a unitary latent ability.

To our knowledge, this was the first study to investigate G x SES interaction on cognitive ability using a latent growth curve model, the first longitudinal G x SES interaction study to utilize more than two time points, and the first study to examine G x SES interaction

longitudinally beyond early childhood. Pooling IQ measurements from up to five time points between ages 7 and 15 years, we observed significant SES moderation of the heritability of mean-level IQ and PIQ (intercept). These findings are consistent with our cross-sectional multivariate results, and with the results of previous cross-sectional studies that found significant interaction effects in middle childhood (Turkheimer et al., 2003) and adolescence (Harden et al., 2007; Rowe et al., 1999). Also consistent with Turkheimer et al. (2003), we did not observe a significant effect on VIQ intercept. However, significant interaction of verbal performance heritability and SES has been observed in another previous study of American twins (Rowe et al., 1999), and we found a significant VIQ effect at age 15 in univariate analyses. The extent to which SES modifies the heritability of some facets of intelligence more than others therefore remains unclear.

The fact that we did not observe a significant interaction of SES and the heritability of IQ slope could stem from our use of scaled scores, which are standardized to a mean of 100 and standard deviation of 15 at each age. In contrast to the variances of raw cognitive ability scores, which would be expected to increase across development, scaled score variances are by definition held constant over time. This invariance could have obscured slope interaction effects, should they exist, by limiting the extent to which children's scores could change between ages. Alternatively, it is possible that SES modifies the heritability of IQ starting point (intercept), but not the heritability of age-related changes in IQ (slope). This would diverge from the results of a study that observed significant interaction effects on change in mental ability in infancy (Tucker-Drob et al., 2011), and perhaps indicate that G x SES interaction effects on slope are present only in the early stages of cognitive development. Future studies will be needed to resolve this definitively.

In addition to the use of scaled scores in longitudinal analyses, our results should be interpreted in light of several other limitations. First, our sample was of average SES, lacking substantial numbers of children raised in poverty. Given evidence that G x SES interaction may not be present in samples that have more universal access to enriching environmental resources (Tucker-Drob & Bates, 2016), analyzing a lower SES sample may have increased our likelihood of observing significant interaction effects. Second, the SES measure we used is a broad composite measure of environmental quality. The results of this study therefore do not clarify which specific environmental factors drive G x E interaction on cognitive ability. Finally, even with the power boost offered by a multivariate approach, our power might have been less than ideal due to limited sample size, and we were unable to perform cross-sectional analyses at age 12.

This study adds to the substantial body of literature demonstrating significant G x SES interaction on cognitive ability among U.S. samples. It is now clear that merely partitioning the variance of cognitive performance into ACE components does not appreciate the complex interplay of genetic and environmental factors driving cognitive development. Existing G x E interaction studies, however, have not been as statistically robust as desired (Tucker-Drob & Bates, 2016). Multivariate analyses as performed here may help address this limitation and, in the case of longitudinal analyses, provide valuable insight into how G x SES interaction unfolds over the life course.

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Supplementary Tables

Supplementary Table 1
Univariate Results

Table with columns: Age, Index/Subtest, Wald, Linear ME, Quad ME, b0 rMZ, b1 rMZ, b0 rDZ, b1 rDZ, b0 A, b1 A, b0 C, b1 C, b0 E, b1 E. Rows are grouped by Age (7, 8, 9, 15) and include subtests like FSIQ, VIQ, PIQ, Information, Similarities, Arithmetic, Vocabulary, Comprehension, Digit Span, Pic. Comp., Pic. Arrange., Block Design, Object Assembly, Coding, Mazes.

*p < .05. Wald: result of Wald chi-square test with two degrees of freedom. ME: main effect. Quad: quadratic. Parameter estimates presented as value (standard error).

Supplementary Table 2

Autoregressive Parameter Estimates from Latent Growth Curve Model

Measure	8 on 7	9 on 8	12 on 9	15 on 12
FSIQ	0.04 (0.01)*	0.05 (0.02)*	0.06 (0.04)	0.06 (0.07)
PIQ	0.05 (0.01)*	0.09 (0.02)*	0.14 (0.05)*	0.22 (0.08)*
VIQ	0.04 (0.01)*	0.06 (0.02)*	0.08 (0.05)	0.09 (0.08)

* $p < .05$. Parameter estimates presented as value (standard error).

Supplementary Table 3

Residual Variance Twin Covariances from Latent Growth Curve Model

Measure	E7 MZ	E7 DZ	E8 MZ	E8 DZ	E9 MZ	E9 DZ	E12 MZ	E12 DZ	E15 MZ	E15 DZ
FSIQ	0.36 (0.08)*	0.10 (0.10)	0.09 (0.10)	0.13 (0.11)	0.34 (0.08)*	0.15 (0.10)	0.47 (0.11)*	0.20 (0.17)	0.46 (0.19)*	0.14 (0.32)
PIQ	0.32 (0.09)*	0.00 (0.08)	0.05 (0.10)	0.21 (0.09)*	0.25 (0.08)*	0.05 (0.09)	0.39 (0.13)*	0.47 (0.11)*	0.36 (0.16)*	0.05 (0.18)
VIQ	0.29 (0.08)*	0.27 (0.09)*	0.08 (0.09)	0.11 (0.11)	0.26 (0.08)*	0.17 (0.09)	0.46 (0.11)*	-0.21 (0.15)	0.26 (0.39)	0.28 (0.45)

* $p < .05$. E: residual variance. MZ: monozygotic. DZ: dizygotic. Parameter estimates presented as value (standard error).