

1 Commentary2 **The Determinacy and Predictive Power of**  
3 **Common Factors**

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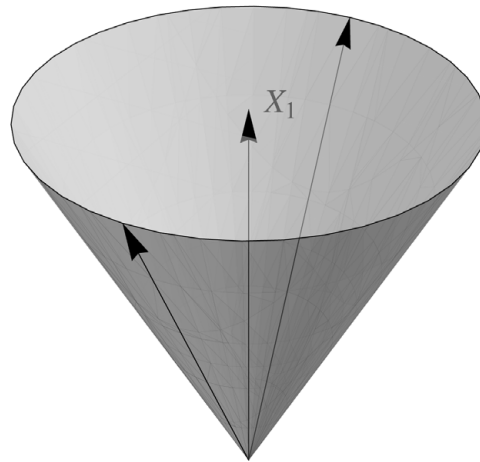
6 Ree, Carretta, and Teachout's (2015) arguments for recognizing the impor-  
7 tance of general factors are mostly on point, but they neglect two broad is-  
8 sues: (a) an important theoretical problem introduced by the presence of  
9 multiple factors (general, group, specific) and (b) the criterion validity of  
10 group factors in certain settings.

11 The theoretical problem is one known in the psychometric literature as  
12 *factor indeterminacy* (McDonald & Mulaik, 1979). Consider Figure 1, which  
13 represents an assignment of scores to a population of  $N$  individuals as a vec-  
14 tor in  $N$ -dimensional space. Suppose that the vector  $X_1$  represents the best es-  
15 timates of general cognitive ability ( $g$ ) in our population. Because no estimate  
16 is perfectly reliable, there is some correlation—smaller than 1—between  $X_1$   
17 and whatever the true population values of  $g$  may be. Suppose that the corre-  
18 lation happens to be .80. In Figure 1, the correlation between two vectors is  
19 represented by the cosine of the angle between them, and therefore a cone is  
20 traced in this  $N$ -dimensional space by all possible orderings of the examinees  
21 whose correlations with  $X_1$  are equal to .80.

22 The question arises: Which of the vectors making up the cone corre-  
23 sponds to the “real”  $g$ ? By standard psychometric theory, as the test is made  
24 more reliable by increasing the number of indicators (subtests, items),  $X_1$   
25 should approach that part of the original cone containing the true  $g$ . If the  
26 domain of indicators measuring  $g$  is not defined in advance, however, there is  
27 no reason to suppose that two independent research teams increasing the  
28 reliability of the same “seed” tests in this way will converge on the same  
29 part of the cone. Suppose that one team decides to add measurements of

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**Figure 1.** The cone representing the locus of all vectors having a fixed angle (correlation) with vector  $X_1$ . Two vectors on opposite sides of the cone are explicitly highlighted. Notice that two vectors can each be highly correlated with  $X_1$  but not with each other.

1 reaction time to the original test battery; as a purely mathematical matter,  
2 this will increase calculated reliability because reaction time is correlated  
3 with IQ. Now suppose that another team, similarly unconstrained, decides  
4 to add anthropometric measurements to the original test battery; after all,  
5 height and similar variables are also correlated with IQ. As two measure-  
6 ments of the same quantity become more reliable, their correlation should  
7 increase, but in this case there is no logical reason to expect that seed tests +  
8 reaction time will become more highly correlated with seed tests + anthro-  
9 pometric measurements as the two sets are extended. In fact, the two vectors  
10 representing these extended sets may veer toward opposite sides of the cone,  
11 in which case a basic trigonometric identity shows that their correlation is  
12 a paltry .28. The calculated reliability of each extension may get closer to 1,  
13 but clearly the extensions are becoming increasingly accurate measures of  
14 different traits.

15 The extension may continue to share the original name but function dif-  
16 ferently as predictors. Not incidentally, this point—that two variables may  
17 show a high correlation with each other while having markedly (even sign  
Q2 18 revered) correlations with a third—is much the same as the one made by  
19 McCornack (1956) in the context of whether two highly correlated vari-  
20 ables can be assumed to be interchangeable for purposes of criterion validity.  
21 Mathematically this is not a safe assumption even when the correlation be-  
22 tween two variables exceed .90. It is possible for two highly correlated sets of  
23 indicators to have external correlations that differ enough to be of practical  
24 significance.

1 This indeterminacy in factors that are empirically rather than conceptually  
2 grounded is an argument for why the domain of permissible indicators  
3 for the measurement of a psychological trait should be defined a priori (Lee,  
4 2012; McDonald, 2003). Thus we only follow Ree et al. so far in their criticism  
5 of “naming [factors by] apparent content ... frequently supported by consen-  
6 sусus rather than by empirical evidence.” The authors appear to envision  
7 cases where empirically observed correlations might trump content valid-  
8 ity in determining whether a candidate indicator measures a certain factor.  
9 But this appears to invite precisely the drift of trait meaning that defines the  
10 problem of factor indeterminacy. In our opinion, the problem is not entirely  
11 fanciful. Some of the divisions between researchers over whose version of the  
12 Big Five is “really” measuring personality may be owed to excessive degrees  
13 of freedom in item selection. We are also somewhat perturbed by a trend in  
14 certain kinds of collaborative research for different groups to claim that their  
15 heterogeneous and often unreliable cognitive tasks are in fact measurements  
16 of the same common factor *g*.

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17 There seems to exist a strong consensus regarding the a priori contours  
18 of the domains corresponding to certain group factors, such as the verbal  
19 and quantitative abilities measured by the SAT and GRE. The designers of  
20 these tests have produced thousands of items for operational use over the  
21 decades, and the high reliabilities of long but disjoint samples of items from  
22 these vast behavior domains indicate that any indeterminacy in these group  
23 factors is a very remote concern: No two face-valid tests of verbal ability, say,  
24 can show a correlation deviating all that far from unity as their item numbers  
25 go to infinity (Cook, Dorans, & Eignor, 1988). Moreover, two distinct tests of  
26 this kind do indeed show comparable magnitudes and patterns of criterion  
27 validity (e.g., Kuncel, Hezlett, & Ones, 2001, 2004). In this way group factors  
28 may possess a theoretical advantage over the general factor. In a hierarchical  
29 model with a general factor at the top level, it is the number of *group factors*  
30 rather than the number of items that must become large in order to beat  
31 down the indeterminacy of the general factor (Guttman, 1955).

32 Unfortunately, a strong consensus regarding the conceptually appropri-  
33 ate group factors to measure *g*, similar to one implicitly guiding applied psy-  
34 chometricians in their work on operational tests of group factors, does not  
35 yet exist. Psychologists of such stature as Lloyd Humphreys and John Car-  
36 roll would certainly fail to see eye to eye here, if more group factors beyond  
37 a core of verbal, quantitative, and spatial factors were required. There is thus  
38 a worry that a greater focus on *g* rather than group factors is a greater focus  
39 on an object that is not mathematically unique.

40 Having laid out the cause for concern, we now give some reasons why  
41 *g* may be reasonably determinate after all. Upon Schmid-Leiman transfor-  
42 mation of a hierarchical factor model, the loadings of the indicators on the

1 *g* and the group factors obey a certain proportionality constraint. Removal  
2 of this constraint leads to the bifactor model, where indeterminacy may no  
3 longer be as much of a problem. For example, if a certain subset of indi-  
4 cators is characterized by strong loadings on *g* and negligible loadings on  
5 their group factor, then this subset can be given greater weight in the esti-  
6 mation of individual *g* scores. However, because the frequent excellent fit of  
7 the hierarchical model indicates that (for whatever reason) ability tests do  
8 usually come close to satisfying the proportionality constraint, it is desir-  
9 able to seek another means of assuring the determinacy of *g*. In this light  
10 the study of Segall (2001) is quite interesting because one of its simula-  
11 tions of multidimensional computer adaptive testing of verbal and quanti-  
12 tative ability was able to measure the general factor in a hierarchical model  
13 with a reliability of .95, exceeding the figures obtained with more conven-  
14 tional methods. This result hints that certain features of this setting, pos-  
15 sibly including the nonlinearity of the item response theory characteristic  
16 surfaces and the implicit individualized weighting of the item scores, can  
17 drive the reliability to one even when selecting items from a consensus do-  
18 main. This intriguing suggestion is one that we plan to investigate in future  
19 work.

20 Ree et al. may feel that their Table 1 already alleviates any concerns over  
21 the indeterminacy of any general factor. The appropriate measure of deter-  
22 minacy (reliability) when there are multiple factors, however, is not the sum  
23 over indicators of the variance associated with the first principal component  
24 (or Cronbach's  $\alpha$ , also mentioned by the authors). The appropriate measure is  
25 rather McDonald's  $\omega$ , which is the squared correlation between *g* and the ap-  
26 propriate weighted sum of the indicators. (The reliability reported by Segall  
27 was, essentially, McDonald's  $\omega$ .) An especially helpful tutorial regarding the  
28 calculation and interpretation of  $\omega$  has been given by Brunner, Nagy, and  
29 Wilhelm (2012).

30 Even if we take the determinacy of *g* for granted, we must address the  
31 issue of criterion validity. Although *g* may indeed often be the "predominant  
32 source of predictiveness in cognitive tests," a substantial body of work has  
33 shown that certain group factors do predict important outcomes in a manner  
34 affording both practical utility and psychological insight. For instance, even  
35 within the top 1% of SAT scorers at age 13, those whose later achievements  
36 fall within a certain family of criteria (tenure-track faculty positions in the  
37 humanities, literary publications) show higher relative scores on the verbal  
38 subtest. Similarly, those in the top 1% whose later achievements fall within a  
39 contrasting family of criteria (tenure-track faculty in STEM, patents) show  
40 higher relative scores on the mathematics subtest (Park, Lubinski, & Benbow,  
41 2007). This finding dovetails with those reported in a meta-analysis of GRE  
42 criterion validity: The verbal subtest and appropriate subject matter tests

1 show higher correlations with graduate-school grade point average in the  
2 humanities, whereas the quantitative subtest and appropriate subject mat-  
3 ter tests show higher correlations in mathematical/physical science (Kuncel  
4 et al., 2001). We also note that the verbal factor specifically appears to add  
5 more criterion validity to the prediction of performance on comprehensive  
6 exams (Kuncel et al., 2001, 2004). A particularly provocative finding is that,  
7 in a group of individuals with high and comparable levels of *g*, it is those  
8 with *more* spatial ability who find school to be *less* interesting and who are  
9 more likely to *discontinue* education for the sake of entering the workforce  
10 (Gohm, Humphreys, & Yao, 1998).

11 To conclude, because it is intellectually unsatisfying to place a strong  
12 emphasis on a general factor that is in fact ontologically ill defined (Meehl,  
13 1993), more attention should be paid to whether a behavior domain is merely  
14 measuring several correlated things or can justifiably be said to be measuring  
15 *one* thing in a certain limit. At the very least, regardless of whether such a  
16 limit is attainable, the criterion validity of group factors demonstrates that a  
17 psychology of abilities is impoverished if the inherently plural nature of the  
18 abilities is too swiftly bypassed.

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