training, must surely be relevant in this context. It is unfortunate that the book shows a major defect precisely in an area of major interest to readers of this journal: the rest of the book presents a reasonable picture of the current knowledge in this field.

H. J. Eysenck

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Race is an interesting concept for anyone concerned with individual differences, and at first sight this book might seem to promise an interesting historical introduction to the topic, written as it is by a historian. Unfortunately, however, she seems to know little about the biological side of the recent intelligence controversy, about which she has much to say in the last few pages of her book, most of it characterized by ignorance. It is not clear, for instance, why she gives much more space to a discussion of Burt’s alleged fraudulence (Burt had nothing to do with race, of course) rather than to a more sensible and detailed discussion of Jensen’s position than this is accorded in her pages. To her, Jensen’s factual arguments, and the theories of E. O. Wilson, are evidence of ‘ideology’; she never seems to consider the possibility that the ideological spectacles may be her own. The historical part of the book is more satisfactory, but even here a better understanding of the biological premises of modern behavioural genetics might have made this a better book.

H. J. Eysenck

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The extensive literature comparing American Negroes with other racial groups, mainly whites, on various tests of mental ability comprises about 750 studies, scattered throughout a great many journals, monographs, research reports and dissertations, ranging over some 70 years. Fortunately for all who have a scholarly interest in this topic, the entire vast research literature has been summarized with painstaking thoroughness and accuracy in the two volumes of the above title. The 1st edition of Volume 1, by Audrey M. Shuey (a Professor of psychology at Macon Women’s College in Virginia) was published in 1958. An enlarged 2nd edition was published in 1966. It surveyed virtually all the research of Negro intelligence before 1966, 380 studies in all. The thoroughness of the survey, in addition to Shuey’s impeccable scholarship, resulted in her work’s becoming the standard and most widely-cited general reference on this topic.

After 1965, studies of Negro scholastic and psychometric test performance increased at a greatly accelerated rate, spurred by the growing national concern with the educational and economic plight of Negroes and other disadvantaged minorities in the U.S. The many federally-funded studies concerned with the causes of the poor scholastic performance of Negroes and certain other cultural minorities usually included standard mental tests. Hence, by 1977 the literature on Negro intelligence had almost doubled in amount since Shuey’s 1966 volume. To update the book, Shuey, in 1977, began working on Volume 2. It was an enormous undertaking, but a serious illness interfered. Shortly before her death, in 1978, Shuey asked her friend, R. Travis Osborne, to take over the task of writing Volume 2. Osborne, a Professor of psychology in the University of Georgia and Director of the University’s Counseling and Testing Center, is a well recognized psychometrician whose numerous publications include several studies of Negro intelligence [e.g. Twins: Black and White (1980)]. Osborne invited Professor Frank C. J. McGurk to help him in this task. McGurk was a pioneer in the study of culture bias in standard intelligence tests as a possible explanation of the observed difference between Negroes and whites—an investigation which led McGurk to conclude that culture bias, as commonly understood, could not account for the racial difference in IQ. Although Osborne and McGurk modestly label themselves merely as ‘editors’ of Volume 2, they themselves have written all but one of the 13 chapters of the book, with each chapter individually credited to Osborne or McGurk. Chapter IX, on race of examinee effects and the validity of intelligence tests in Negro samples, was written by W. G. Graziano, P. E. Varea and J. Levy. (This chapter will also appear soon as an article in the Review of Educational Research.)

Osborne and McGurk, in Volume 2, have tried to maintain the same approach, organization, style, and even the same general appearance, as Shuey’s first volume, with a few exceptions in chapter contents. The text is clearly written, in a terse, economical style, in the effort to pack as much sheer factual and quantitative information into a compendium of only 400 pages, which is small for the great amount of material surveyed. As a result, the text is dense, with few subheadings within chapters, and with very little of what would be termed ‘discussion’ or theoretical ‘interpretation’, or even criticism, beyond bald description of one study after another. It is not the kind of book that anyone (except a reviewer) would be apt to read straight through from beginning to end. (All of the succinctly informative chapter summaries, however, can easily be read in this fashion in less than one hour.) The book is essentially a reference work, more in the nature of an encyclopedia. As befits a reference book, the index is exceptionally thorough and detailed.

The book should certainly find its way into every library used by students of psychology, sociology and education.

The authors went to considerable pains to achieve completeness of their coverage of the topic, utilizing all the modern techniques of library research, including computer searches of the psychological and educational literature and dissertation abstracts, and addressing personal inquiries to researchers in the field. They have examined virtually everything that has appeared on the topic between 1965 and 1980. Articles without sufficient factual information or with such small sample sizes as to preclude any reliable conclusions were examined but were usually excluded for these deficiencies. In all, 375 studies are reviewed, involving results on 214 different psychological tests administered to about 2 million subjects. The reviewed studies were selected from 447 references (listed on pp. 323–348). Most are summarized under the same chapter headings established by Shuey: Preschool (49 studies), School Children (126 studies), High School (17 studies), College Students (29 studies), Adults Not in College (i.e. armed forces and industry) (21 studies)
and Delinquents (16 studies). There is also a chapter containing abstracts of 89 doctoral dissertations; in almost every case, Ns, means and SDs of the Negro samples and comparison groups are presented for every mental test used in the study under review. In addition, Chapter XI is a monograph (by Osborne) on the National Longitudinal Study of the High School Class of 1972, a large study (16,000 Ss) supported by the National Center for Education Statistics, which permits examination of racial differences on eight tests of ability and achievement as related to sex, socio-economic status, geographic region and variations in racial balance in school enrollment. Variations in racial balance had negligible effects on the size of the average white-black difference in test scores, which, at grade 12 (ages 17–18) was 0.96 SD. Chapter XII presents a 21-year (1957–1977) analysis of white and black performance on the Scholastic Aptitude Test (SAT), a college admission test, in the college and university system of Georgia. Showing correlations ranging from −0.45 to −0.97 between percentage of blacks enrolled and mean SAT scores over the years, Osborne argues that much of the apparent national decline in SAT scores is explainable in terms of increasing minority enrollments. As one who has personally scoured the research literature for studies on the effects of the race of examiner on black and white test scores, this reviewer draws special attention to Chapter IX (by Graziano et al.), which is decidedly the definitive review on this topic (28 studies since 1966). In brief, race of examiner has no significant or systematic effect on black or white intelligence test scores.

The book also contains an annotated bibliography of 255 prominent articles and books, published since 1966, that deal with the testing of Negro intelligence to the 'IQ controversy'—probably the best compilation of the literature on race and mental ability to be found anywhere.

Chapter XIII, entitled "Summary and Conclusions", presents no new or surprising conclusions that differ in any way from those of Shuey’s in the 1965 volume. Apparently, from the authors’ viewpoint, the nearly 100%, increase in the number of comparative studies of black and white intelligence since 1965 has added virtually nothing to the conclusions of Shuey in 1965. In fact, in their final “Concluding Remarks”, Osborne and McGurk merely quote the final lengthy summary paragraph in Shuey’s book, and simply add that “Volume 2’s documentation of racial differences in mental ability is even more convincing.”

The crucial question is, ‘convincing’ of what? The fact established by Shuey, and reaffirmed in the present review, that the median overlap (i.e. percentage of blacks scoring above the white median) is about 12 or 13%, on most standard psychometric tests is the one point that behavioral scientists have not contested for many years. It is the fine-grained psychological nature of the observed differences in test scores and their causes that is of paramount interest. Shuey’s quoted statement that the many studies reviewed “… all taken together, inevitably [reviewer’s italics] point to the presence of native differences between Negroes and whites as determined by intelligence tests” is, of course, simply false in any rigorous, scientific terms. If we have learned nothing else from the great IQ debate of the past decade, it is that test score differences (and their correlates) by themselves prove nothing about the specific causes of the differences. What the amassing of evidence from many diverse studies, as in the present volume, does firmly establish beyond reasonable doubt is that the intellectual difference between whites and blacks is a remarkably general, reliable, statistically robust and temporally stable phenomenon within the period under study, and is not dependent upon any specific regions, time periods, socioeconomic levels, subpopulations, types of tests, race of examiners, conditions of testing, amount of schooling or school policy on racial balance. The extreme variety of samples, tests and conditions under which a black–white difference of about 1 SD consistently shows up on cognitive tests in studies throughout the past 70 years certainly establishes it as a major psychological phenomenon worthy of a scientific explanation.

Although on the basis of existing evidence it may seem highly plausible that genetic, as well as environmental, factors are involved in the phenomenon, there is nothing in the existing evidence that would constitute rigorous proof of this proposition. proof of the sort that would necessarily compel assent by competent geneticists. The reason is simply that the only empirically feasible evidence that, in principle, could be obtained at the present stage of genetic methodology that would constitute an adequate test of the genetic hypothesis would be a true breeding experiment, a completely balanced design based on random samples of the two racial populations in which half the sample is cross-bred and the offspring of half of these parents are randomly cross-fostered by adoptive parents of each race. Even such an experiment, which could not be performed because of the ethical constraints in our society, might not prove definitive because of the difficulty of controlling the exposure of the experimental subjects to the racial attitudes of the general society, which, it would inevitably be argued, could adversely influence the development of intelligence of black children. However plausible it may seem that the racial IQ difference is largely a result of genetic factors, apparently the most we can reasonably expect to do scientifically at present is to achieve a better understanding of the psychological and psychometric nature of the racial difference in mental abilities.

That this book’s explicit conclusions are very limited in this respect is a result of the authors’ decision to minimize methodological criticism, theoretical interpretation, or any kind of reanalysis of metaanalysis of the massive material reviewed. One can well imagine that had they not observed this restriction, yet tried to summarize the design and results of 375 studies, their Volume 2 would have swelled to a tome of unmanageable size, also probably inviting further acrimonious controversy. As it is, these two volumes, in 1982, should hardly seem any more controversial than the Psychological Abstracts or the Mental Measurements Yearbooks. Thanks to the efforts of Professors Osborne and McGurk, Volume 2 of The Testing of Negro Intelligence extends Shuey’s compendium from 1965 to 1980, maintaining the same qualities of clarity, thoroughness and scholarly accuracy that have established this work as the definitive reference to the research literature on the mental abilities of black Americans.