Boben, D., Dobrean, A., Raven, J., & Raven, J. (2011, July 14). Slovenian and Romanian Norms for the Raven Progressive Matrices in a Cross-Cultural Context. WebPsychEmpiricist. Retrieved July 14, 2011 from http://wpe.info/papers_table.html.



WebPsychEmpiricist

Slovenian and Romanian Norms for the *Raven Progressive Matrices* in a Cross-Cultural Context July 14, 2011

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Abstract

The paper illustrates some of the difficulties involved in generating reliable cross-cultural data and the value of generating meaningful data. Specifically, it illustrates (a) the dependence of what appear to be significant differences between cultural groups on variation in sampling and testing procedures; (b) the importance of examining such differences within age and ability categories; and (c) the irrelevance of the most commonly proffered explanations of cross-cultural differences in *Raven Progressive Matrices* scores. It also documents a major discrepancy between the reference data obtained in Romania – and especially that relating to less able young people – and those obtained in other countries.

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It is particularly useful to use the normative data collected with *Raven's Progressive Matrices*⁴ tests in Slovenia to illustrate some of the problems involved in making cross-cultural comparisons because data have been collected with all four Raven tests, namely the *Coloured Progressive Matrices*, the Classic *Standard Progressive Matrices*, the *Advanced Progressive Matrices*, and the *Standard Progressive Matrices Plus*. The basic data, along with descriptions of the samples etc., were originally published in Boben (2003, 2008).

Nevertheless, it is useful, before doing so, to illustrate some of the problems which arise in this kind of work by summarising some results. (Flynn, 1991, 2008; Flynn & Rossi-Casé, 2011).

As a result of the conspicuous and well documented over-performance of Asians in American Universities, it came to be believed that they had extraordinarily high IQs. This idea seemed to be supported by a number of studies of their IQs. However, because of the less-than-well-known difficulties involved in testing representative samples of such populations, those responsible for conducting such studies often compare the data they have collected with those collected by others ... and then make what seem to be appropriate adjustments to bring their results into line with what they believe to be the better studies. An illustrative case study is provided by Flynn (1991, 2008).

In 1966, the 1954 version of the Primary Mental Abilities test was administered to 253 children born in the most northwestern island of the Hawaiian chain. Their scores were then compared with those reported in the 1954 test Manual.

⁴ For a brief description of the *Raven Progressive Matrices* see Wikipedia entry.

However, believing that the scores they had obtained in research actually conducted in 1954 were too high, the researchers who prepared the Manual had equated them with those obtained in a 1932 standardisation of the Binet test.

The result was that when the scores of the 1966 sample of Asians were compared with the general population norms published in the Manual the authors were, in effect, and without their knowing it, comparing them, not with 1954 data but with 1932 data.

The resulting "high" scores were therefore, in reality, to be attributed to something unknown at the time – namely the now well-documented intergenerational increase in scores (the so-called "Flynn effect") – and not to differences in ethnicity. Flynn (1991, 2008) has shown that the outstanding life performances of Chinese in America are *not* due to superior "intelligence" but to other factors commonly overlooked by psychologists.

Such adjustments to raw data in an effort to compensate for such things as deficiencies in samples arising from the absence of adequate sampling fames or lack of adequate funds are, in reality, quite common.

In fact, sampling problems bedevil work in this area to a much greater extent than is often realised. Thus there is a prolific literature on gender differences ... including much theory building ... which is (as Flynn, 2011, has, as a result of a Herculean effort, also shown [Flynn & Casé, 2011]), to all intents and purposes, not merely useless but also extremely misleading.

There are always huge gender differences within pre-selected samples – such as university students specialising in engineering, biological sciences, and arts. These differences are often in opposite directions and problems arise when they are used to try to estimate overall gender similarities and differences in the age groups from which they are drawn – and for whom it is inherently almost impossible to construct a sampling frame from which to select a representative sample of the population to test.

Similarities and differences between RPM scores in Slovenia and the UK.

Table 1 gives an example of the format in which it has been found most useful to present normative data for the *Raven Matrices* tests. It shows the scores obtained on the Classic *Standard Progressive Matrices* (SPM) test by what is believed to be a representative sample of young people in Slovenia (Boben, 2003).

One of the advantages of this format is that it shows the scores obtained by people of different ages and ability and thus facilitates detailed study of cross-cultural differences *within* these specific groups. The format is also important because it deters users from making unjustifiable inferences from the data. For example, it is clear that the within-age distributions are *not* Gaussian (i.e. not what is often misleadingly termed "normal").

Thus, in Table 1, the difference between the 50th percentile score (which is approximately equal to the mean) for 8 year olds and the 75th percentile is 9 raw score points, while that between the 50th and 25th percentile is 5 (i.e. the distribution is truncated, skewed, at the lower end). By 18 years of age this is reversed, the relevant figures being 3 and 7. The presentation also discourages attempts to make the kind of fine discriminations encouraged by presentation in terms of deviation-IQs. For example, the difference between the 90th and 95th percentile scores (equivalent to IQs of 120 and 125) for most age groups is only 2 raw score points ... hardly likely to support generalisations – and assignment of life chances – based on small differences. And worse is to come. The total numbers which form the bases on which many of the columns of percentiles in Table 1 are based are around 100. Had the data been presented in terms of six month age groups, the "n's" would have been around 50. That would mean that the scores shown in the table for the 5th and 95th percentiles would be the scores obtained by the 2nd last child at the bottom and top of the distribution respectively. For this reason they would be subject to marked variation arising from sampling "error" and thus hardly provide a basis for confident generalisation about people's future lives!

As an aside we may note that fine discrimination beyond 5^{th} and 95^{th} percentiles – where tests are most used (e.g. for assessing eligibility for "gifted" and "remedial" education) – is usually

unjustifiable. In fact, the figures published for most tests in these ranges are derived from statistical extrapolations derived from fitting curves to the scores obtained in the centre of the distribution and not on empirical data. As a result the published scores depend on the assumptions and decisions (such as whether to fit a Gaussian or bi-modal curve to the raw data) made by the statisticians who calculated them. Thus Dockrell (1989) showed that someone with a scaled score of 24 on the WISC-R would be said to have an IQ of 47 if the statistician who compiled the norms fitted a Gaussian curve to the data (the usual approach) but 60 if he or she extrapolated the true curve derived from the standardisation sample.

One last incidental observation to be made from Table 1 is that there is more variation between the 5th and 95th percentile scores for 8-year-olds than there is in the average scores of children from 8 to 18 years of age. This within-age variation makes any discussion of variation in mean scores between ethnic populations of apparently similar age heavily depended on sampling "error". (This variety also contributes to the practical difficulties teachers encounter in education, although it is not, in reality, the most important source of such variation [Raven, 2008].)

Figure 1 presents the *same* data as were presented in Table 1 in graph form.

Note that these are *not* growth curves ... they are simply the same normative (reference) data for Slovenia as were shown in Table 1 but this time in graph form. Thus we again see that 5% of Slovenian 8-year-olds score below 10 and 5% above 40. And the mean (50th percentile) score is 23.

Figure 2 compares these Slovenian data with similar data from Great Britain.On the whole, the UK and Slovenian norms are very similar.

The lower Slovenian 5th percentile cannot be explained from anything contained within these data but could have something to do with the way the sample was drawn. Note that this difference is not visible in the 50th percentile scores. Presentation in terms of mean scores alone would, therefore, lead to misleading conclusions.

Figure 3 shows similar comparative data for the *Coloured* Progressive Matrices (CPM: Raven, Rust, & Squire, 2008).

It would seem that the more able of the younger Slovenian children do better than the more able Dumfries (UK) schoolchildren. But the norms are similar after the age of nine.

Notice that it would be meaningless to make comparisons of higher percentiles (and therefore "means") above the age eight because of obvious ceiling effect.

Again, these data provide no insight into what might have caused the difference ... but it may be suggested that it might have something to do with the testing arrangements.

At this point it is useful to reiterate something said earlier: To understand what is going on it is essential to examine the data within *both* age and percentile categories.

Figure 4 presents comparative data (for a much narrower range of age groups) for the *Advanced* Progressive Matrices, *Set II*. Again, the impression is of similarity. Figure 5 shows the data for the *Standard Progressive Matrices Plus*. Again, the over-riding impression is one of similarity.

The RPM data in a wider context

The *Manual for the Raven Progressive Matrices* (Raven, Raven, & Court, 2000, updated 2004), *Uses and Abuses of Intelligence* (Raven & Raven, 2008), and various article published on *WebPsychEmpiricis⁵t* all contain a great deal of comparative material for the *Coloured*, *Standard*, and *Advanced Progressive Matrices* tests (Abdel-Khalek & Raven, 2008, June 17; original 2005, September 2 September 2 #174; Boben, 2007, May 23; Deshpande & Patwardhan, 2006, September 4; Dobrean, Raven, Com_a, Rusu, & Balazsi, 2005, October 10; Linstrom, Raven, & Raven, 2006, May 22; Taylor, 2008, June 30).

⁵ http://wpe.info

Less comparative data are available for the Standard Progressive Matrices *Plus* because the test was published more recently.

However, the current publishers of the Raven Matrices tests, Pearson inc., have undertaken a careful standardisation of the SPM*Plus* in the UK (Raven, Rust, & Squire, 2008) and the 2004 Romanian standardisation of that test is based on an excellent sample (Dobrean, Raven, Comsa, Rusa, & Balazsi, 2008).

Having, in Figure 5, compared the Slovenian and UK data, Figure 6 presents data comparing the Slovenian with the Romanian data. There is an unmistakable difference.

Data for the SPM+ had earlier been collected in Poland, Germany, and Fort Bend, Texas (See Raven, Raven, & Court, 2000, updated 2004, for details).

Although these studies are, for one reason or another, less satisfactory, the data from all the available studies are brought together in Figure 7. Although the Figure is rather cluttered, it does make one point very clearly: The lower percentiles for Romania are well below those obtained in the other locations.

One's first suspicion has to be that they are due to the quality of the sample. However, so far as one can judge from the available data (Dobrean et al., 2008) this was excellent. And this conclusion is supported by the fact that the results obtained when the data were used to replicate the item analyses carried out when the test was being constructed confirm, indeed strengthen, the original conclusions. The distributions covered the full range of ability for which the test was constructed and the item analyses suggested that there were few missing data and few deviant results which might have indicated inadequacies in the sample emerged in the course of the analyses (see Appendix 4 to Raven, Raven, & Court 2000, updated 2004).

Far from bringing to light anything which might have suggested some previously unnoticed defects in the sample, the enquiries conducted at this time brought to light unexpected

confirmation of the result: The same long tail had been found in the course of Romanian standardisations of other tests (Dobrean, personal communication).

At this point we can introduce one more set of data. This comes from a study of military conscripts in Hungary (Klein, Klein, Joubert, & Gyenis, 2008) and thus from the total population, not a sample, of Hungarian 18-year-olds.

These data are of more importance than many readers might appreciate. Whereas it is relatively easy to get representative samples of young people in compulsory schooling, it is much more difficult to get representative samples of 18-25 year olds because many are no long in schools, have moved all over the place to different kinds of college and employment, and have not yet set up households through which they could be sampled. (As mentioned earlier, this has major implications for any attempt to investigate gender differences which might be proposed to appear in this group but not at earlier ages.)

So, in Table 2, the strongest data are those from Hungary, the UK, and Romania.

It is clear that, while the Romanian norms for the 50th percentile and above correspond with these two strong data sets, the lower percentiles fall further and further behind.

The conclusion, therefore, seems to be that the Romanian results are real ... not a result of such things as sampling defects ... and merit an explanation.

A Still Wider Context

Figure 8 presents *Classic* Standard Progressive Matrices data for two more countries, Kuwait and urban areas of India (Pune and Mumbay) (Abdel-Khalek & Raven, 2005, 2006; Deshpande & Ojha, 2002; Despande & Patwardhan, 2008) which further underline the significance of the discrepancy between the Romanian and other data. (We have omitted the graphs for most of the percentiles in order to make the picture clearer.) These data confirm our earlier assertion that the

overall impression one gets from these studies is one of stability across cultures rather than variation between them.

Table 3 does, however, round out the picture by documenting some genuine differences between Indians living in urban and tribal areas. But note that, despite the fact that many of those living in tribal areas have no education, no formal monetary mechanisms of exchange, live in mud huts that are annually washed away by the rain, and speak a variety of different languages employing different calligraphies, (a) the differences from the norms for the urban areas are much less than one might have expected under these circumstances; (b) the test still "works" in the tribal group in the sense that it scales in the usual way within this group; and (c) the distribution is not compressed in the way in which one would expect if the socio-economic factors which have been mentioned were exerting the widely expected effect on these abilities and inhibiting their development.

A Substantive Conclusion

A more general conclusion to the paper appears to be that differences in economic circumstances, calligraphy, language, family size, access to TV, and nature of the educational system seem to have much less effect than would commonly be supposed. All of which would seem to make the quest for an explanation of the Romanian results even more difficult!

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Table 1Classic Standard Progressive Matrices

Smoothed 1998 Norms for Slovenia

	Age in Years (Months)										
Percentile	8 7(6) to 8(5)	9 8(6) to 9(5)	10 9(6) to 10(5)	11 10(6) to 11(5)	12 11(6) to 12(5)	13 ¹²⁽⁶⁾ to 13(5)	14 ¹³⁽⁶⁾ to 14(5)	15 14(6) to 15(5)	16 15(6) to 16(5)	17 16(6) to 17(5)	18 17(6) to 18(5)
95	40	46	48	50	52	53	54	55	56	56	56
90	37	42	46	48	50	52	52	53	54	54	54
75	32	39	43	45	47	48	49	50	51	52	52
50	23	31	36	40	42	43	44	45	46	48	49
25	18	22	28	33	37	38	39	40	41	41	42
10	12	16	20	24	30	32	33	35	35	35	36
5	10	11	14	17	23	25	26	26	27	29	30
n	99	128	115	125	123	116	132	144	283	211	80

Table 2

Standard Progressive Matrices Plus

Smoothed 2003 Norms for Romania

In the Context of 2008 UK Norms, Army Conscripts in Hungary, Army Recruits in Poland, and Germany

				• • •	44 1 1						
	Age in Years (Months)										
	18	18.5	18	18	18.5	18.5	18.5	20	25		
	17(9)	18(3)			18(0)	Army	Army	18			
	to	to			to	Conscripts	Recruits	to			
	18(2)	18(8)			18(11)			22			
Percentile	RO	RO	PL	D	UK	Н	PL	RO	PL		
95	46	47	52	52	49	49	44	47	52		
90	45	46	50	50	47	47	42	46	48		
75	40	41	47	46	42	42	38	41	41		
50	36	37	42	43	38	37	34	37	36		
25	30	31	38	39	35	32	30	31	30		
10	20	20	35	36	31	27	25	20	24		
5	17	17	33	34	29	24	21	16	20		
n	37	41	248	184		7588	395	151	248		

Table 3Classic Standard Progressive MatricesSmoothed 2006 Norms for Indian Tribal Areas

In the Context of 1997 Norms for Pune and Mumbai (Bombay)

		Age in Years										
-	9	11		l	13	13		;	17	17		
Percentile	P&M	TR	P&M	TR	P&M	TR	P&M	TR	P&M	TR		
95	44	36	49	39	53	43	55	47	56	49		
50	21	15	33	17	41	23	44	29	45	34		
5	10	8	12	8	17	8	24	10	26	11		
n	592	84	1189	245	1310	320	1108	341	769	243		











Figure 3 Coloured Progressive Matrices Smoothed 1998 Slovenian and 1982 Dumfries Norms



95 UK

90 UK

75 UK

50 UK 25 UK

10 UK 5 UK

14.5



12

11.5

Figure 5



12.5

Age

13

13.5

14



10.5

11



Figure 7
Standard Progressive Matrices Plus



