GENETIC ADVANTAGE AND EQUALITY OF OPPORTUNITY IN EDUCATION:

Rita Dias Pereira

TWO DEFINITIONS AND AN EMPIRICAL ILLUSTRATION

MOTIVATION

- Large education earnings premium in developed countries
- As of 2019, earnings premium of a bachelor or above (OECD, 2019):
- U.S. 194%
- EU 163%
- OECD 158%
- Well documented health-education gradient
- Fairness in education is considered important



Source: U.S. current population survey, the Hamilton project

MOTIVATION

- There is an ongoing debate about fairness in education
- This fairness usually has to do with pupils' socioeconomic background disadvantage
- But there is another important factor that leads to inequality in educational outcomes: Genetic inequality



LITERATURE REVIEW



- Literature of social-science genetics quantifies genetic components (e.g. Lee et al., 2018), but without a measure of equality of opportunity
- Literature of Equality of Opportunity (EOp) tries to quantify EOp (e.g. Roemer & Trannoy, 2016), but without a measure of genetic components
- This work attempts to bridge this gap

ESTIMATING EOP WITHOUT A MEASURE OF GENETIC COMPONENTS

• Two main ways of decomposing outcome variance



DIFFERENT CLASSIFICATIONS OF GENETIC ADVANTAGE

Equality of Opportunity (EOp) literature:

• Some authors think that talents should be considered a fair (e.g., Rawls, 1971; Nozick, 1974), unfair (e.g. Roemer, 2004; Trannoy, 2019) or even partly fair and partly unfair (e.g. Lefranc et al., 2009; Lee and Seshadri, 2018) source of advantage.

Social-Science Genetics literature:

• Some authors support the view inequalities driven by genetic differences are fair (e.g. Rimfeld et al., 2018; Lin, 2020) or unfair (e.g. Kweon et al. 2020; Conley and Fletcher, 2018; Harden, 2021)

DEFINITIONS

Circumstances: factors that an individual cannot possibly affect.

Luck: random events which the individual affects, even if inadvertently.

Effort: choices that do not involve a random factor.











TESTABLE IMPLICATIONS DEF.1

Genes are an unfair source of advantage in education

$$EA_i = \alpha + \beta$$
. Circumstances $_i + r_i \longrightarrow \eta = R^2 = 0$



TESTABLE IMPLICATIONS DEF.2

Genes are a fair source of advantage in education

 $EA_i = \alpha + \beta . IAbility_i + r_i \longrightarrow R^2$

 $EA_i = \alpha + \beta.IAbility_i + \phi.Circumstances_i + r_i \longrightarrow R'^2$

$$\eta = R'^2 - R^2 = 0$$



THE EDUCATIONAL ATTAINMENT POLYGENIC SCORE

- 4 Genome Wide Association (GWAS) studies that study educational attainment (Rietveld et al., 2013; Okbay et al., 2016; Lee et al., 2018; Okbay et al., 2022)
- $R^2 = 16\%$. Lead variants in the Educational Attainment Polygenic Score (EA PGS) are involved in brain development and neuron-to-neuron communication (Lee et al., 2018)
- Within family and mediation studies show that it captures cognitive and non-cognitive abilities (Belsky et al., 2018; Lee et al., 2018; Papageorge and Thom, 2020; Mõttus et al., 2017; Belsky et al., 2016)
- Predicts upward social mobility (Belsky et al., 2016, 2018) and educational attainment within families (Domingue et al., 2015)
- It is not deterministic! But having a high EA PGS gives you an advantage

LIMITATIONS — GENETIC NURTURE

- Controlling for parental PGS decreases the predictive power of PGS by ~50% (Kong et al. 2018; Selzam et al., 2019; Cheesman et al., 2020)
- The indirect effect of the EA PGS is a standard circumstance
- I obtain direct effect estimates using offspring phenotypic information (Wu et al., 2020) and by controlling for childhood SES (Selzam et al., 2019)
- The direct effect estimates on the Health and Retirement Survey (HRS) are 54% (offspring phenotype) and <u>53.5% (childhood SES)</u> for years of education

SUMMARY STATISTICS

| | Baseline sample | | 1920-1929 | | 1950-1 | 959 |
|--|-----------------------|---------------------|-----------------------|---------------------|-----------------------|---------------------|
| | mean | sd | mean | sd | mean | sd |
| Years of education | 13.2 | 2.5 | 12.7 | 2.7 | 13.9 | 2.2 |
| Education (categories) | 3.5 | 1.4 | 3.3 | 1.5 | 3.9 | 1.2 |
| Educational attainment polygenic score | -0.2 | 0.1 | -0.2 | 0.1 | -0.2 | 0.1 |
| Childhood financial capital | 0.0 | 1.0 | -0.1 | 1.0 | 0.1 | 1.0 |
| Childhood human capital | 0.4 | 0.8 | 0.1 | 0.8 | 0.8 | 0.8 |
| Childhood social capital | -0.0 | 1.1 | 0.1 | 1.1 | -0.0 | 1.1 |
| Childhood SES index | 0.3 | 0.9 | 0.0 | 0.8 | 0.6 | 0.8 |
| Gender | 0.6 | 0.5 | 0.6 | 0.5 | 0.6 | 0.5 |
| N | 8,197 | | $1,\!622$ | | 1,232 | |

Table 1Descriptive statistics of the baseline sample.

Health and Retirement survey, Cohorts 1920-1959; N= 7087

Outcome: Variance in years of education

NAÏVE ESTIMATION OF INEQUALITY OF OPPORTUNITY

Luck + effort Non-genetic circumstances



EA PGS IS AN UNFAIR SOURCE OF ADVANTAGE

Luck + effort All circumstances

26%

DIRECT EFFECT OF PGS IS A FAIR SOURCE OF ADVANTAGE

Luck+effort

All circumstances - direct effect of EA PGS



 η estimates for EOp Def. 1 and EOp Def. 2

Circumstances: childhood SES, Gender, Genetic nurture and (direct effect of EA PGS)

EOp Def. 1 20.2% to 24.5% (4.3pp increase)

EOp Def. 2 14.7% to 18.% (3.4pp increase)



High school completion

EOp Def. 1 11.9% to 8.7% (3.2 pp increase)

EOp Def. 2 8.5% to 7.3% (1.2 pp increase)

College completion

EOp Def. 1 16.4% to 19.8% (3.4 pp increase)
EOp Def. 2 13.1% to 13.0% (0.1 pp decrease)
Direct effect of the EA PGS 3.3% to 6.8%





CONCLUSION

- Genetic advantage is an important determinant of educational outcomes
- Estimates of inequality of opportunity change considerably depending on whether genetic advantage is considered a fair or unfair source of advantage
- Results suggest that genetic advantage is becoming increasingly important in higher levels of education
- Relevant for policy makers interested in fairness in education and in the economic returns that it warrants
- This work highlights the need for a more open and informed discussion of the true meaning of merit in education

THANK YOU

E-mail: diaspereira@ese.eur.nl Twitter: @RitaDiasPereira

Belsky, D. W., Moffitt, T. E., Corcoran, D. L., Domingue, B., Harrington, H., Hogan, S., ... & Caspi, A. (2016). The genetics of success: How single-nucleotide polymorphisms associated with educational attainment relate to life-course development. Psychological science, 27(7), 957-972.

Belsky, D. W., Domingue, B. W., Wedow, R., Arseneault, L., Boardman, J. D., Caspi, A., Conley, D., Fletcher, J. M., Freese, J., Herd, P., et al. (2018). Genetic analysis of social-class mobility in five longitudinal studies. Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences, 115(31):E7275–E7284.

Cheesman, R., Hunjan, A., Coleman, J. R., Ahmadzadeh, Y., Plomin, R., McAdams, T. A., Eley, T. C., and Breen, G. (2020). Comparison of adopted and non-adopted individuals reveals gene–environment interplay for education in the UK biobank. Psychological Science, 31(5):582–591.

Conley, D. and Fletcher, J. (2018). The Genome Factor: What the social genomics revolution reveals about ourselves, our history, and the future. Princeton University Press.

Davies, G., Marioni, R. E., Liewald, D. C., Hill, W. D., Hagenaars, S. P., Harris, S. E., ... & Deary, I. J. (2016). Genome-wide association study of cognitive functions and educational attainment in UK Biobank (N=112 151). *Molecular psychiatry*, 21(6), 758-767.

Domingue, B. W., Belsky, D. W., Conley, D., Harris, K. M., and Boardman, J. D. (2015). Poly-genic influence on educational attainment: New evidence from the national longitudinal study of adolescent to adult health. AERA open, 1(3):2332858415599972.

Dworkin, R. (1981). What is equality? Part 2: Equality of resources. Philosophy & Public Affairs, pages 283–345.

Harden, K. P., Domingue, B. W., Belsky, D. W., Boardman, J. D., Crosnoe, R., Malanchini, M., Nivard, M., Tucker-Drob, E. M., and Harris, K. M. (2020). Genetic associations with mathematics tracking and persistence in secondary school. NPJ Science of Learning, 5(1):1–8.

Kathryn Paige Harden. (2021). The genetic lottery why DNA matters for social equality. Princeton Oxford Princeton University Press.

Kong, A., Thorleifsson, G., Frigge, M. L., Vilhjalmsson, B. J., Young, A. I., Thorgeirsson, T. E., Benonisdottir, S., Oddsson, A., Halldorsson, B. V., Masson, G., et al. (2018). The nature of nurture: Effects of parental genotypes. Science, 359(6374):424–428.

Kweon, H., Martschenko, D. O., Harden, K. P., DiPrete, T. A., Koellinger, P. D., et al. (2020). Genetic fortune: Winning or losing education, income, and health. Technical report, Tinbergen Institute.

Lee, J. J., Wedow, R., Okbay, A., Kong, E., Maghzian, O., Zacher, M., Nguyen-Viet, T. A., Bowers, P., Sidorenko, J., Linnér, R. K., et al. (2018). Gene discovery and polygenic prediction from a genome-wide association study of educational attainment in 1.1 million individuals. Nature Genetics, 50(8):1112–1121.

Lee, S. Y. and Seshadri, A. (2018). Economic policy and equality of opportunity. The Economic Journal, 128(612):F114–F151.

Lefranc, A., Pistolesi, N., and Trannoy, A. (2009). Equality of opportunity and luck: Definitions and testable conditions, with an application to income in France. Journal of Public Economics, 93(11-12):1189–1207.

Lin, M. J. (2020). The social and genetic inheritance of educational attainment: Genes, parental education, and educational expansion. Social science research, 86, 102387.

Mõttus, R., Realo, A., Vainik, U., Allik, J., and Esko, T. (2017). Educational attainment and personality are genetically intertwined. Psychological Science, 28(11):1631–1639.

Muslimova, D., Meddens, S. F. W., Rietveld, C. A., Von Hinke, S., Dias Pereira, R., and Van Kippersluis, H. (2020a). The relationship between the predictive power of polygenic scores and the genetic ranking of individuals across PGS construction methods. Mimeo

Nozick, R. (1974). Anarchy, state, and utopia, volume 5038. New York: Basic Books.

Okbay, A., Beauchamp, J. P., Fontana, M. A., Lee, J. J., Pers, T. H., Rietveld, C. A., Turley, P., Chen, G.-B., Emilsson, V., Meddens, S. F. W., et al. (2016). Genome-wide association study identifies 74loci associated with educational attainment. Nature, 533(7604):539–542.

Papageorge, N. W. and Thom, K. (2020). Genes, education, and labor market outcomes: evidence from the health and retirement study. Journal of the European Economic Association, 18(3):1351–1399.

Rawls, A. (1971). Theories of Social Justice. Harvard University Press.

Rimfeld, K., Krapohl, E., Trzaskowski, M., Coleman, J. R., Selzam, S., Dale, P. S., Esko, T., Metspalu, A., and Plomin, R. (2018). Genetic influence on social outcomes during and after the soviet era in Estonia. Nature Human Behaviour, 2(4):269–275.

Rietveld, C. A., Medland, S. E., Derringer, J., Yang, J., Esko, T., Martin, N. W., ... & Preisig, M. (2013). GWAS of 126,559 individuals identifies genetic variants associated with educational attainment. science, 340(6139), 1467-1471.

Howe, L. J., Nivard, M. G., Morris, T. T., Hansen, A. F., Rasheed, H., Cho, Y., ... & Within Family Consortium. (2021). Withinsibship GWAS improve estimates of direct genetic effects. *BioRxiv*.

Becker, J., Burik, C. A., Goldman, G., Wang, N., Jayashankar, H., Bennett, M., ... & Okbay, A. (2021). Resource profile and user guide of the Polygenic Index Repository. *Nature human behaviour*, 1-15.

van Kippersluis, H., Biroli, P., Galama, T. J., von Hinke, S., Meddens, S. F. W., Muslimova, D., Pereira, R., & Rietveld, C. A. (2021). Using Obviously-Related Instrumental Variables to Increase the Predictive Power of Polygenic Scores. *bioRxiv*.

Roemer, J. E. (1993). A pragmatic theory of responsibility for the egalitarian planner. Philosophy & Public Affairs, pages 146–166.

Roemer, J. E. (1998). Theories of distributive justice. Harvard University Press.

Roemer, J. E. (2004). Equal opportunity and intergenerational mobility: going beyond intergenerational income transition matrices. Generational income mobility in North America and Europe, pages 48–57.

Selzam, S., Ritchie, S. J., Pingault, J.-B., Reynolds, C. A., O'Reilly, P. F., and Plomin, R. (2019). Comparing within-and between-family polygenic score prediction. The American Journal of Human Genetics, 105(2):351–363.

Trannoy, A. (2019). Talent, equality of opportunity and optimal non-linear income tax. The Journal of Economic Inequality, 17(1):5–28.

Tropf, F. C., Lee, S. H., Verweij, R. M., Stulp, G., Van Der Most, P. J., De Vlaming, R., ... & Mills, M. C. (2017). Hidden heritability due to heterogeneity across seven populations. *Nature human behaviour*, 1(10), 757-765.

Weale, M. E., Riveros-Mckay, F., Selzam, S., Seth, P., Moore, R., Tarran, W. A., ... & Donnelly, P. (2021). Validation of an Integrated Risk Tool, Including Polygenic Risk Score, for Atherosclerotic Cardiovascular Disease in Multiple Ethnicities and Ancestries. *The American Journal of Cardiology*, 148, 157-164.

POLYGENIC SCORES (OR INDICES)

- The human genome has ~3.2billion pairs of nucleotides (AT or CG)
- 99.6% of nucleotides are identical
- Single Nucleotide Polymorphism (SNP)
- Polygenic scores aggregate several SNPs that associate strongly with a given trait, for example, <u>educational attainment</u>



THE EDUCATIONAL ATTAINMENT POLYGENIC SCORE

Limitations

- PGS capture parental characteristics that shape the rearing environment. ~50% of predictive power vanishes when "parental genetic nurture" is accounted for (Kong et al. 2018; Selzam et al., 2019; Cheesman et al., 2020)
- The predictive power of PGS is smaller than SNP-based heritability estimates; 12 vs 22-28% (Lee et al., 2018; Davies et al., 2016; Okbay et al., 2016; Tropf et al., 2017)
- Different methods of construction yield different ranking of individuals (Muslimova et al., 2020)
- Focus on European-ancestry populations; polygenic scores have limited portability across ancestry-diverse populations

POLYGENIC SCORES

Future directions

 "Trio" data sets, or sibling data sets allow an estimate of polygenic scores free of "parental genetic nurture" (e.g., Howe et al.,2021)

- Methods that improve predictive power of polygenic scores (e.g., Becker et al. 2021; van Kippersluis, 2021)
- Recent shift towards inclusivity of ancestrydiverse populations (Weale et al. 2021)



IMPORTANCE OF GENETIC ADVANTAGE

Cohorts 1926-1953; N= 7087

Outcome: Variance in years of education



SUMMARY STATS



Fig 5 Correlation between the Educational Attainment PGS and childhood SES by cohort.

| | Year | s of educ | ation | H | ligh scho | ol | College | | |
|-----------------------------|-------------|-------------|------------------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|
| | (1) | (2) | (3) | (4) | (5) | (6) | (7) | (8) | (9) |
| Female | -0.29** | | -0.27** | 0.02^{*} | | 0.02^{**} | -0.10** | | -0.09** |
| | (0.05) | | (0.05) | (0.01) | | (0.01) | (0.01) | | (0.01) |
| Childhood financial capital | 0.20^{**} | | 0.17^{**} | 0.03^{**} | | 0.03^{**} | 0.03^{**} | | 0.02^{**} |
| | (0.03) | | (0.03) | (0.00) | | (0.00) | (0.00) | | (0.00) |
| Childhood social capital | 0.06^{*} | | 0.04^{*} | 0.01^{**} | | 0.01^{**} | 0.01^{*} | | 0.01 + |
| | (0.02) | | (0.02) | (0.00) | | (0.00) | (0.00) | | (0.00) |
| Childhood human capital | 1.24^{**} | | 1.11** | 0.13** | | 0.12^{**} | 0.16^{**} | | 0.14^{**} |
| | (0.03) | | (0.03) | (0.01) | | (0.01) | (0.01) | | (0.01) |
| EA PGS (standardized) | | 0.83^{**} | 0.61^{**} | | 0.08^{**} | 0.06^{**} | | 0.13^{**} | 0.10^{**} |
| | | (0.03) | (0.02) | | (0.00) | (0.00) | | (0.00) | (0.00) |
| <i>R</i> -squared | 0.206 | 0.105 | 0.262 | 0.111 | 0.050 | 0.137 | 0.132 | 0.087 | 0.184 |
| N | 8197 | 8197 | 8197 | 8197 | 8197 | 8197 | 8197 | 8197 | 8197 |

Table 2 Results of the OLS regression explaining educational attainment. Coefficients are displayed with robust standard errors. Columns 1-3 explain years of education. Columns 4-6 explain high school completion, where 1 is having at least a high school diploma and 0 otherwise. Columns 7-9 explain having a bachelor degree, where 1 is having at least a bachelor degree and 0 otherwise.

| | Years of e | Years of education | | $\operatorname{completion}$ | College completion | | |
|-------------|---------------|--------------------|---------------|-----------------------------|--------------------|----------|--|
| | Direct effect | % of PGS | Direct effect | % of PGS | Direct effect | % of PGS | |
| Pooled | 0.057 | 0.536 | 0.026 | 0.506 | 0.053 | 0.603 | |
| 1920 - 1929 | 0.055 | 0.620 | 0.034 | 0.635 | 0.033 | 0.590 | |
| 1930 - 1939 | 0.059 | 0.543 | 0.035 | 0.558 | 0.045 | 0.598 | |
| 1940 - 1949 | 0.064 | 0.489 | 0.021 | 0.387 | 0.069 | 0.581 | |
| 1950 - 1959 | 0.064 | 0.505 | 0.014 | 0.420 | 0.068 | 0.571 | |

Table A2 Estimates of the direct effect of the EA PGS by cohorts. Columns 1-2 depict the estimates for years of education, columns 3-4 for high school completion and 5-6 for college completion. Column 1, 3 and 5 depict the *R*-squared of a regression explaining the outcome variable using the direct effect of the EA PGS. Columns 2, 4 and 6 depict the ratio between the *R*-squared of the direct effect and the *R*-squared of the EA PGS.

ROBUSTNESS

| | l | EOp Definitio | on 1 | EOp Definition 2 | | | |
|----------------------------|--------|---------------|-------------|------------------|-------------|-------------|--|
| | Pooled | 1920 - 1929 | 1950 - 1959 | Pooled | 1920 - 1929 | 1950 - 1959 | |
| | (1) | (2) | (3) | (4) | (5) | (6) | |
| Original specification | 0.262 | 0.203 | 0.245 | 0.206 | 0.147 | 0.182 | |
| Adjusted <i>R</i> -squared | 0.262 | 0.200 | 0.242 | 0.205 | 0.145 | 0.179 | |
| Full Model | 0.282 | 0.274 | 0.288 | 0.225 | 0.219 | 0.224 | |
| Cognition PGS | 0.224 | 0.153 | 0.207 | 0.203 | 0.140 | 0.182 | |
| Principal components | 0.268 | 0.209 | 0.246 | 0.211 | 0.153 | 0.182 | |
| HRS survey weights | 0.267 | 0.204 | 0.245 | 0.208 | 0.151 | 0.180 | |
| Mortality survey weights | 0.270 | 0.199 | 0.278 | 0.212 | 0.145 | 0.203 | |
| Birth year survey weights | 0.265 | 0.197 | 0.270 | 0.209 | 0.144 | 0.197 | |

ROBUSTNESS

| | Base | eline | 1920- | 1929 | 1930 | -1939 | 1940 | -1949 | 1950 | -1959 |
|--------------------------|------------|------------|------------|-----------|------------|------------|------------|------------|------------|-----------|
| | (1) | (2) | (3) | (4) | (5) | (6) | (7) | (8) | (9) | (10) |
| Female | -0.3** | -0.3** | -0.2+ | -0.2 | -0.3** | -0.3** | -0.3** | -0.3** | -0.3* | -0.3* |
| | (0.1) | (0.1) | (0.1) | (0.1) | (0.1) | (0.1) | (0.1) | (0.1) | (0.1) | (0.1) |
| EA PGS | 0.6^{**} | 0.7^{**} | 0.7^{**} | 0.7** | 0.6^{**} | 0.7^{**} | 0.6^{**} | 0.7^{**} | 0.6^{**} | 0.6** |
| | (0.0) | (0.0) | (0.1) | (0.1) | (0.0) | (0.1) | (0.0) | (0.1) | (0.1) | (0.1) |
| CFC | 0.2^{**} | 0.2^{**} | 0.1^{*} | 0.1^{*} | 0.2^{**} | 0.2^{**} | 0.2^{**} | 0.2^{**} | 0.1^{*} | 0.1^{*} |
| | (0.0) | (0.0) | (0.1) | (0.1) | (0.0) | (0.0) | (0.0) | (0.0) | (0.1) | (0.1) |
| CSC | 0.0^{*} | 0.0^{*} | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.1^{*} | 0.1 + | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 |
| | (0.0) | (0.0) | (0.1) | (0.1) | (0.0) | (0.0) | (0.0) | (0.0) | (0.1) | (0.1) |
| CHC | 1.1^{**} | 1.1^{**} | 1.1^{**} | 1.1** | 1.1^{**} | 1.1^{**} | 1.1^{**} | 1.1^{**} | 0.9^{**} | 0.9^{*} |
| | (0.0) | (0.0) | (0.1) | (0.1) | (0.1) | (0.1) | (0.1) | (0.1) | (0.1) | (0.1) |
| $CFC \times EA PGS$ | | -0.0 | | -0.0 | | 0.0 | | -0.0 | | 0.0 |
| | | (0.0) | | (0.1) | | (0.0) | | (0.0) | | (0.1) |
| $CSC \times EA PGS$ | | -0.0 | | -0.0 | | -0.0 | | -0.0 | | 0.0 |
| | | (0.0) | | (0.1) | | (0.0) | | (0.0) | | (0.0) |
| $CHC \times EA PGS$ | | -0.0 | | 0.0 | | -0.1 | | -0.0 | | 0.1 |
| | | (0.0) | | (0.1) | | (0.1) | | (0.1) | | (0.1) |
| $1.male \times EA PGS$ | | 0.0 | | 0.0 | | 0.0 | | 0.0 | | 0.0 |
| | | (.) | | (.) | | (.) | | (.) | | (.) |
| 2.female \times EA PGS | | -0.1* | | -0.2 | | -0.1 | | -0.1 | | -0.2 |
| | | (0.0) | | (0.1) | | (0.1) | | (0.1) | | (0.1) |
| R-squared | 0.262 | 0.263 | 0.203 | 0.204 | 0.264 | 0.264 | 0.270 | 0.271 | 0.245 | 0.24 |
| Ν | 8,197 | 8,197 | 1,622 | 1,622 | 2,880 | 2,880 | 2,463 | 2,463 | 1,232 | 1,23 |

Table A9 Results of an OLS regression explaining years of education. Column 1 and 2 show the results for the whole sample and the subsequent columns show the results for each cohort. Odd columns include childhood SES, gender and the EA PGS as regressors. CFC stands for childhood financial capital, CSC for childhood social capital and CHC for childhood human capital. Pair columns include all interactions as regressors. Robust standard errors in parenthesis.

ROBUSTNESS

| | Years of education | | | | | |
|--|--------------------|----------------|----------------|----------------|--|--|
| | (non-standardized) | | (standa | ardized) | | |
| | (1) | (2) | (3) | (4) | | |
| Gender | -0.3** | -0.1** | -0.3** | -0.1** | | |
| | (0.1) | (0.0) | (0.1) | (0.0) | | |
| EA PGS | 0.6^{**} | 0.2^{**} | | | | |
| | (0.0) | (0.0) | | | | |
| Childhood financial capital | 0.2** | 0.1** | | | | |
| | (0.0) | (0.0) | | | | |
| Childhood social capital | 0.0* | 0.0* | | | | |
| - | (0.0) | (0.0) | | | | |
| Childhood human capital | 1.1** | 0.4** | | | | |
| • | (0.0) | (0.0) | | | | |
| EA PGS (standardized) | () | () | 0.6** | 0.2** | | |
| | | | (0.0) | (0.0) | | |
| Childhood financial capital (standardized) | | | 0.2** | 0.1** | | |
| | | | (0.0) | (0.0) | | |
| Childhood social capital (standardized) | | | 0.1* | 0.0* | | |
| | | | (0, 0) | (0,0) | | |
| Childhood human capital (standardized) | | | 0.9** | 0 4** | | |
| conteneed numericapital (buildardized) | | | (0,0) | (0.0) | | |
| R squared | 0.262 | 0.262 | 0.262 | 0.262 | | |
| N N | 0.202 9.107 | 0.202 9.107 | 0.202 9.107 | 0.202 9.107 | | |

Table A10Results of an OLS regression explaining years of education. In columns 1 and 2 the stan-
dardized outcome and in columns 3 and 4 the non-standardized.