A common heritable factor influences prosocial obligations across multiple domains

Gary J. Lewis* and Timothy C. Bates

1. INTRODUCTION

The ability to behave in a prosocial manner is a prerequisite for large-scale social living. The presence of empathy and helping behaviour even in infancy [1] is suggestive of an innate capacity to behave in a prosocial manner. Furthermore, twin studies capable of decomposing behaviour into additive genetic, shared- or family environmental, and unique-environmental influences have shown heritable components for both empathy [2] and prosociality [3–5] (but see [6]) with evidence for cross-culture generality in these effects [4].

While a biological basis for prosociality has been established, important domains of prosociality, such as civic obligations, obligations in work [7] and redistribution of wealth/welfare obligation [8], have not previously been addressed in a genetically informative study. In particular, it is unclear whether these specific prosocial obligations are, first, individually heritable, and, second, are underpinned by a single, genetically influenced, mental faculty [9].

To address these issues, we report a twin study examining the genetic and environmental structure of self-reported prosocial obligations across the three domains mentioned above. We hypothesized that a common mechanism underpinned each of the measured obligations, and that this common factor would be genetically influenced, in line with research demonstrating significant positive correlations between broad constellations of prosocial actions [10,11] and previous work demonstrating aspects of prosociality contain heritable variance [3–5].

2. MATERIAL AND METHODS

(a) Participants

Phenotypic data were available for 958 pairs of twins contacted by the MacArthur Foundation Survey of Midlife Development in the United States [12]. Of the monozygotic (MZ) pairs, 167 were male (mean age = 44.64 ± 11.32) and 194 were female (mean age = 43.69 ± 12.20). Of the dizygotic (DZ) pairs, 136 were male (mean age = 44.64 ± 12.42), 210 were female (mean age = 45.78 ± 12.61), and 251 were opposite-sex pairs (mean age = 45.86 ± 11.73). The excess of females over males is comparable to previous twin research [13].

(b) Prosocial obligation measures

Participants completed three scales measuring different forms of prosocial obligations: civic obligation (four items), work obligation (seven items) and welfare obligation (three items) [7], with responses on a 10-point scale from 0 to 10. An example item assessing civic obligation was: ‘how much obligation would you feel to testify in court about an accident you witnessed?’, for work obligation: ‘how much obligation would you feel to do more than most people would do on your kind of job’, and for welfare obligation: ‘how much obligation would you feel to pay more for your healthcare so that everyone had access to healthcare?’. Cronbach’s alpha [14] for the three prosocial domains was acceptable (civic, 0.78; work, 0.71; welfare, 0.81). For the purpose of examining an omnibus univariate model, the three prosocial obligations scales were summed to form a composite prosocial obligations measure. Prior to analysis, the effects of age and sex were regressed out, and standardized residuals were used in subsequent analyses [15].

(c) Analysis

All analyses used full-information maximum-likelihood modelling, and structural equation modelling was conducted using OpenMx [16,17] and R [18]. The modelling used to test our predictions is outlined graphically in figure 1. The prediction of heritable and/or environment effects specific to each of the three prosociality measures is shown in the lower portion of the figure, where each obligation is accounted for by a combination of additive genetic (A), shared- (or familial) environment (C), and unique-environment (E) effects. The upper portion of figure 1 shows the predicted latent mechanism for domain-general prosociality, labelled here as ‘prosociality mechanism’. This functions as a common pathway affecting all obligation measures, and through which genetic and environmental influences must be mediated. If the fit of this common pathway model does not differ significantly from that of the saturated model, this would provide support for a model of prosocial obligations as involving a general psychological mechanism influencing each of the three measured prosocial domains.

3. RESULTS

For each of the obligation domains, same-sex DZ twins were more highly correlated than were opposite-sex DZ twin pairs, suggestive of sex-limitation. Equating male and female DZ pairs, and DZ same-sex twin pairs to DZ opposite-sex pairs, did not significantly worsen model fit for any of the variables; however, to avoid biases in our model estimates, we analysed males and females separately.

Intra-class twin correlations are detailed in table 1. The full results of the univariate modelling for each domain are presented in table 2. For males across each obligation domain, including the general prosocial obligation scale, additive genetic and shared-environment effects were individually non-significant, although removing both paths simultaneously significantly worsened the model fit indicating familial influences on
As such, we retained both of these sources of influence for further analyses. Nested tests indicated that the specific genetic effects on civic and work obligation, and the shared-environment effects on civic, work, and welfare obligation were non-significant, and so were removed from the model ($\Delta \chi^2 = 2.13, p = 0.83$). All other paths were significant and so we retained this reduced common-pathway model as our preferred final model for males (figure 2).

For females, the additive genetic effect on the common prosocial obligations factor was significant ($\Delta \chi^2 = 8.55, p < 0.01$); however, the shared-environment effect to the common factor could be dropped without significantly worsening fit ($\Delta \chi^2 = 0, p = 1$). At the domain-specific level, both additive genetic and shared-environment effects were non-significant ($\Delta \chi^2 = 2.13, p = 0.55$; $\Delta \chi^2 = 1.84, p = 0.61$, respectively); however, these influences could not be dropped simultaneously without significantly worsening fit ($\Delta \chi^2 = 57.62, p < 0.01$). Therefore, in line with the pattern of MZ–DZ intra-class correlations, we included genetic paths to civic and work obligation (reflecting the higher MZ to DZ correlations), and a shared-environment path to welfare obligation (reflecting the similar MZ to DZ correlations). The final model for females is presented in figure 2.

4. DISCUSSION
The data confirmed the significant role of genetic influences on prosocial obligations, supporting both common and specific mechanisms, and suggesting a distinct pattern of effects between the sexes. For the common prosocial obligations mechanism, additive genetic factors accounted for 48 per cent of the variance for females. In males, however, while familial effects on this common mechanism were apparent, the available power did not allow us to distinguish between additive genetic and shared-environment effects. These findings suggest that further work, perhaps with an extended twin design [19], will be required to tease apart possible mechanisms for these effects. Potential influences include both assortative mating for prosociality, non-additive genetic effects [20] and, importantly, gene–environment interaction ($G \times E$) [20] between the sexes (see below).

**Table 1. Intra-class correlations for MZ, DZ same-sex, and DZ opposite-sex twin pairs for civic, work, welfare and an omnibus summed measure of prosocial obligations.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>civic</th>
<th>work</th>
<th>welfare</th>
<th>prosociality</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>MZ male twin pairs</td>
<td>0.32</td>
<td>0.25</td>
<td>0.35</td>
<td>0.40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MZ female twin pairs</td>
<td>0.49</td>
<td>0.36</td>
<td>0.26</td>
<td>0.37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DZ male twin pairs</td>
<td>0.24</td>
<td>0.13</td>
<td>0.11</td>
<td>0.30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DZ female twin pairs</td>
<td>0.19</td>
<td>0.20</td>
<td>0.30</td>
<td>0.27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DZ opposite-sex twin pairs</td>
<td>0.06</td>
<td>−0.01</td>
<td>0.05</td>
<td>0.06</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**As such, we retained both of these sources of influence for further analyses.** Nested tests indicated that the specific genetic effects on civic and work obligation, and the shared-environment effects on civic, work, and welfare obligation were non-significant, and so were removed from the model ($\Delta \chi^2 = 2.13, p = 0.83$). All other paths were significant and so we retained this reduced common-pathway model as our preferred final model for males (figure 2).

For females, the additive genetic effect on the common prosocial obligations factor was significant ($\Delta \chi^2 = 8.55, p < 0.01$); however, the shared-environment effect to the common factor could be dropped without significantly worsening fit ($\Delta \chi^2 = 0, p = 1$). At the domain-specific level, both additive genetic and shared-environment effects were non-significant ($\Delta \chi^2 = 2.13, p = 0.55$; $\Delta \chi^2 = 1.84, p = 0.61$, respectively); however, these influences could not be dropped simultaneously without significantly worsening fit ($\Delta \chi^2 = 57.62, p < 0.01$). Therefore, in line with the pattern of MZ–DZ intra-class correlations, we included genetic paths to civic and work obligation (reflecting the higher MZ to DZ correlations), and a shared-environment path to welfare obligation (reflecting the similar MZ to DZ correlations). The final model for females is presented in figure 2.

**4. DISCUSSION**

The data confirmed the significant role of genetic influences on prosocial obligations, supporting both common and specific mechanisms, and suggesting a distinct pattern of effects between the sexes. For the common prosocial obligations mechanism, additive genetic factors accounted for 48 per cent of the variance for females. In males, however, while familial effects on this common mechanism were apparent, the available power did not allow us to distinguish between additive genetic and shared-environment effects. These findings suggest that further work, perhaps with an extended twin design [19], will be required to tease apart possible mechanisms for these effects. Potential influences include both assortative mating for prosociality, non-additive genetic effects [20] and, importantly, gene–environment interaction ($G \times E$) [20] between the sexes (see below).
At the domain-specific level, for males, welfare obligation showed a significant additive genetic component (with the other traits driven by unique-environment effects). For females, civic and work obligations showed significant additive genetic effects, with shared-environment influences underlying welfare obligations. The origin of these specific genetic influences on prosocial obligations is an open question. It may be that selection for stable division of work [21], civil conflicts [22] and welfare behaviours such as oblige food sharing [8] have been important in shaping specific adaptations linked to in-group cooperation.

Unique-environment effects were often large. While these effects partly reflect measurement error, they also potentially reflect gene–environment interaction (G X E) [20]. Given the likely differential family and social constraints placed on males and females enforcing compliance versus rewarding independence [23], it seems likely that genetic differences related to prosocial obligations may interact with these differentially experienced social environments. This view would be consistent with contingency models of prosocial obligations supported by research on the moderation of prosocial contributions by social exclusion [24] and knowledge of prosociality levels in the group [25].

In summary, the present data indicate that a common factor underlies prosocial obligations across three important social domains. The results also highlight important avenues for additional study in line with the contrasting observation of moderate-to-large additive genetic factors underlying this general prosocial obligations factor in females, with modest-to-moderate familial factors influencing general prosocial obligations in males. Further research is required to explore these possible gender differences and transmission modes, as well as the possible effects of contingency upon obligations.

This study was approved by the University of Edinburgh Department of Psychology research ethics committee.

3 Rushton, J. P. 2004 Genetic and environmental contributions to pro-social attitudes: a twin study of social