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Evaluation of measurement precision with Rasch-type models:
The case of the short Generalized Opinion Leadership Scale

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Published in *Personality and Individual Differences*, doi:[j.paid.2010.08.021](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.paid.2010.08.021)

This is the pre-peer reviewed version of the article.

The definitive version is available at [sciencedirect.com](http://www.sciencedirect.com).

Abstract

Item response theory (IRT) forms a flexible psychometric modeling approach to construct and evaluate new assessment instruments. This paper demonstrates how to evaluate the measurement precision of personality scales by assessing their test-retest error and their convergence across different raters within an IRT framework. The first study ($N = 1575$) reports on the construction of a new personality scale to assess generalized opinion leadership by fitting a polytomous Rasch model to the data. Furthermore, in two independent samples the psychometric properties of the scale are evaluated by applying the linear partial credit model. In a retest design the amount of transient error, that is, systematic measurement error specific to a single measurement occasion, is quantified within an IRT framework (study II, $N = 586$) as well as the convergence of self-and observer-ratings of the trait (study III, $N = 400$).

Keywords: measurement error; item response theory; partial credit model; transient error; repeated measurement design; opinion leadership

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Item response theory (IRT) represents a stringent framework for the construction and evaluation of new measurement instruments (cf. Reise, Ainsworth, & Haviland, 2005).

Although item response theory is primarily used in large-scale cognitive assessments – for example for the ongoing PISA studies (Adams, Wu, & Carstensen, 2007) - its potential for personality research is increasingly acknowledged as well. A growing number of researchers relies on IRT models when developing new assessment instruments by selecting high-quality items according to stringent model tests (cf. Ansher, Weatherby, Kang, & Watson, 2009; Meads & Bentall, 2008). However, specific forms of measurement error (e.g., transient error) that are typically used in classical test theory (CTT) to evaluate the measurement precision of self-report scales are rarely studied with IRT methods. In other words, while IRT is readily used for the creation of new scales less attention is given to the evaluation of the measurement qualities of those scales. Hence, the aim of the present article is twofold: First, a new personality scale, the short generalized opinion leadership scale (S-GOLS), will be developed by applying a polytomous Rasch-type item response model. Second, it will be demonstrated how to conduct in-depth psychometric analyses of this new scale by assessing its test-retest error and its convergence across different raters within an IRT framework.

Measurement precision of self-report scales

In personality research, different approaches are used to assess an instrument's measurement precision. An easy to compute indicator of the average amount of measurement error in CTT is usually captured by measures of internal consistency that estimates the mean inter-correlations of an item set. Transient error is another form of systematic measurement error, which reflects distortions within a respondent specific to a

certain measurement occasion (e.g., due to a current mood). Although it may produce consistent responses during a single measurement occasion, it results in different responses across different assessments (Chmielewski & Watson, 2009). A third approach represents the assessment of self-other agreements. Self-reports frequently provide distorted measures of the true traits, as they can be affected by, for example, a limited ability for introspection or deliberate impression management. Hence, some authors (e.g., Hofstee, 1994; Vazire & Gosling, 2004) argue that it is important to assess the convergence of self-and observer-ratings of traits, as the combination of both perspectives usually captures true traits more accurately.

Under CTT, all three forms of measurement precision are routinely evaluated through various correlational approaches (e.g., Cronbach's Alpha, test-retest or self-other correlations). Within IRT, however, authors focus primarily on an instrument's measurement error as IRT models generate different standard errors of measurement depending on an individual's latent proficiency. In contrast to CTT that measures an average measurement error across all individuals within a sample IRT models estimate a proper measurement error for each proficiency level (Reise & Henson, 2003). Other types of measurement precision, transient error and self-other agreement, are not commonly analyzed within an IRT framework. However, linear extensions of the ordinary Rasch model, like the polytomous linear partial credit model (LPCM; Fischer & Ponocny, 1994), provide a viable approach to these forms of measurement precision as well.

Linear extensions of Rasch-type models

Rasch-type models such as the polytomous partial credit model (PCM; Masters, 1982) pose a logistic relationship between the latent proficiency θ_v of individual v and the probability of a response $h \in [0, m_i]$ (with m_i as the number of response categories minus one) on item i with m_i item-category difficulties β_{ih} . The formal representation of the PCM in the parameterization by Andersen (1995)¹ is given in equation 1.

Equation 1: Partial credit model (Masters, 1982) and its linear extension (Fischer & Ponocny, 1994)

$$P(X_{vi} = h) = \frac{\text{PCM}}{\sum_{l=0}^{m_i} \exp[l\theta_v + \beta_{il}]} = \frac{\text{LPCM}}{\sum_{l=0}^{m_i} \exp\left[h\theta_v + \sum_{j=1}^p \omega_{ij} \eta_j\right]}$$

The linear extension of the PCM by Fischer and Ponocny (1994) substitutes the item-category difficulties β_{ih} of the PCM by a weighted linear combination of a number of a priori hypothesized basic parameters η_j (see equation 2).

Equation 2: Reparameterization of the item-category difficulties in the LPCM

$$\beta_{ih} = \sum_{j=1}^p \omega_{ij} \eta_j$$

ω_{ih} are fixed and known weights, thus forming the design matrix of the model. As the number of hypothesized basic parameters is usually smaller than the number of item-category parameters, the LPCM is more parsimonious than the ordinary PCM, requiring fewer parameters to be estimated. The latter can be considered a saturated model and represents the reference model for goodness-of-fit tests to evaluate the fit of a given LPCM. By using a likelihood-ratio test, the data's likelihood in the LPCM is contrasted with the likelihood in the PCM. If the more constrained LPCM does not fit significantly worse than the saturated PCM, the hypothesized restrictions of the LPCM are supported.

Although originally developed to describe item difficulties in terms of rules and basic cognitive operations of the item material, its application for psychometric research is much broader, for example, to analyze item position effects or to compare different response formats (cf. Kubinger, 2009). With regard to the measurement precision of personality scales, LPCMs are also an appropriate IRT approach for repeated measurement designs to

assess the amount of change over one or more measurement occasions. In such models, the item-category difficulty parameters of the second measurement point can be expressed as a linear combination of the difficulties at the first measurement point and a change parameter. If the time period between the two measurements is sufficiently small (Cattell, 1986, suggests two to eight weeks), this change parameter can be interpreted as the scale's transient error. A non-significant change parameter indicates negligible transient error, as the item-category difficulties are not different from each other at the two measurement occasions. In case of sufficient theoretical information LPCM designs can address even more complex hypotheses by modeling different change parameters, i.e. different degrees of transient error, for different subsets of items (e.g. negatively and positively worded items) or even different individuals (e.g. men and women). Hence, the LPCM represents a versatile framework to analyze an instrument's measurement precision in terms of transient error and even self-other agreement, when modeling two different informants.

Overview

The identification of exceptionally influential individuals is a central endeavor of numerous research areas. Social psychology aims at identifying individual differences shaping group decisions and performance (Vishwanath, 2006), consumer research incorporates influential consumers as communicators of advertising messages (Shoham & Ruvio, 2008), and applied diffusion research seeks to propagate the dissemination of innovations in, for example, health care (Iyengar, Van den Bulte, & Valente, 2010) or agriculture (Boz & Akbay, 2005). Individuals who informally shape the opinions, attitudes, and behavior of their peers more frequently and more strongly than others are considered opinion leaders (Rogers, 2003). Despite its prominence in different domains, psychometrically sound instruments to assess opinion leadership are still rare. A preliminary scale to assess generalized opinion leadership (GOL) was proposed by Wiesner (2009). With 22 items, however, the scale may be considered rather long, especially for applied

contexts such as market or diffusion research. Hence, a subset of items from the GOL scale is identified that conforms to the partial credit model (study I). Additionally, measurement precision of the new scale is determined by assessing its transient error with the linear extension of the PCM in a test-retest design (study II) and, furthermore, by demonstrating the convergence of self-and observer-ratings (study III).

Study I: Scale construction

Method

Participants and procedure

Participants were interviewed as part of a representative national survey by a German market research institute. The sample included 727 men and 848 women ($N = 1575$), ranging in age from 18 to 88 years ($M = 46.99$, $SD = 16.34$), with different educational levels (from high school to university graduates) and employment statuses (including manual and office workers in public services as well as in the private sector).

| Insert table 1 about here |

Instrument

All participants answered the 22 items of the Generalized Opinion Leadership Scale (Wiesner, 2009) on a five-point response scale from "do not agree at all" to "agree completely".

Results

The items for the S-GOLS were identified through an iterative selection process, by removing critical items one at a time. First, the PCM was estimated for the item set with the *eRm* software (Mair & Hatzinger, 2007). Second, model fit was determined for all items as a whole by statistical as well as graphical methods (cf. Kubinger, 2005). Third, in case of an improper model fit in the previous step, residual item fit statistics were calculated (Glas &

Verhelst, 1995), and the item with the worst fit, indicated by a significant χ^2 -statistic, was removed. These three steps were repeated until the best fitting items were identified and the resulting item set exhibited a satisfactory model fit. The items of the S-GOLS and their respective item statistics are summarized in table 1. Model fit of the final scale was considered acceptable. By partitioning the sample according to three criteria (sex, mean age, and random split) in two respective groups, three likelihood ratio tests (Andersen, 1973) were calculated, that did not become significant at a nominal type-I-risk of $\alpha = .01$ (see table 2). Furthermore, graphical model tests plotting the difficulty parameters of the two subgroups against each other did not indicate potential misfitting items departing from the main diagonal. On the item level, the residual-based test statistic proposed by Glas and Verhelst (1995) did not indicate misfitting items (see table 1). Furthermore, the unweighted mean square statistic (outfit) indicated close fit of the nine items, with all outfit values falling within the optimal range of 0.6 to 1.4 (Wright & Linacre, 1994).

| Insert table 2 about here |

An inspection of the difficulty parameters of the item-categories (see table 1), ranging from -2.72 to 4.56, illustrates that the scale is able to differentiate individuals on a wide range of trait levels. However, the test information plot (see figure 1), graphing the area on the θ continuum in which the S-GOLS provides the most information or best discrimination among test takers, is shifted markedly to the right of the latent continuum, indicating that the items discriminate better between higher levels of the trait. Thus, the scale is better in comparing individuals with high levels of opinion leadership than those with low levels. However, test information declines at the lower and upper trait regions and, thus, is less suited to discriminate between the more extreme trait levels.

| Insert figure 1 about here |

Study II: Retest precision

Method

Participants and procedure

The sample consisted of $N = 560$ (353 women) participants from a market research panel, ranging in age from 18 to 76 years ($M = 34.14$, $SD = 11.96$), who finished two online questionnaires identical in content within six weeks.

Instrument

The participants provided two measures of the nine items previously identified as conforming to the PCM on a five-option response scale.

Results

The test-retest correlation between both measurement occasions was .81. Thus, the test-retest correlation of the S-GOLS seemed to point to little transient error. However, these correlations are only of descriptive nature. In contrast, a modeling approach includes explicit model tests to test the hypothesis that the measure exhibits no transient error. Hence, the present study applied the LPCM to explicitly model the items' transient error as a linear combination of a number of basic parameters. The item-category difficulties of the second measurement occasion can be conceptualized as the sum of the original item difficulties at time one and one or more change parameters, in this case representing the amount of transient error. As a precondition for the application of LPCM designs, the PCM must hold for all items at both measurement occasions, that is, for 18 items with 72 category difficulties. If this is the case, this model can be considered a saturated model to which more constrained LPCMs can be compared. Likelihood-ratio tests (Andersen, 1973) for the saturated model 0 partitioning the sample according to sex, $\chi^2_{LR}(71) = 69.22$, mean age,

$\chi^2_{LR}(71) = 75.77$, and random split $\chi^2_{LR}(71) = 48.78$, supported the PCM at an alpha of .01, $\chi^2_{.99}(71) = 101.62$.

| Insert table 3 about here |

To identify the proper LPCM, a series of competing models with fewer effect parameters was derived, which eliminate or combine selected effects (see table 3). By comparing these models to the saturated model 0, the most parsimonious model is identified. Model 1 strongly restricted the originally 71² effect parameters by modeling one change parameter only. The 72 difficulty parameters in model 0 were specified as additive components of the 36 difficulties at time 1 and one change parameter representing the same amount of change for all difficulties. The corresponding model did not fit worse than model 0, $\chi^2_{LR}(35) = 27.82$, $p = .80$. However, the resulting change parameter, $\eta_1 = -.05 [-.12, .02]$, was not significantly different from 0. Hence, model 2 removed the change parameter altogether, assuming no transient error at all. This model did not fit worse than the saturated model 0 either, $\chi^2_{LR}(36) = 39.99$, $p = .75$. As model 2 represents the most parsimonious model fitting to the data and requiring the fewest parameters, it is accepted. Hence, for the S-GOLS transient error seems to be negligible and does not impair the scale considerably.

Study III: Self-other agreement

As the combination of two or more perspectives usually captures true traits more accurately (Hofstee, 1994; Vaizire & Gosling, 2004), the third study aimed at assessing the convergence of self-and observer-ratings. In addition, it was predicted that a gender difference in systematic error, namely a bias toward over- or underestimation of target influence, would be found. Specifically, it was hypothesized that perceivers would tend to underestimate the influence of female targets while overestimating the influence of men. The following rationale is offered for that hypothesis. Research on gender stereotypes

suggests that people more readily associate characteristics related to opinion leadership (self-confidence, assertiveness, competence, etc.) with men (e.g., Butler & Geis, 1990; Goldin & Rouse, 2000). Moreover, previous research suggests that a norm of modesty influences women's self-presentation (Daubman, Heatherington, & Ahn, 1992), thus underestimating their real influence. Furthermore, it is proposed that an observer's gender moderates the convergence. Cross-cultural research indicates that women are generally more lenient than men and describe others more favorably on a variety of characteristics (e.g., more gregarious and more competent) than male raters (McCrae & Terracciano, 2005). Thus, it is proposed that female and male observers differ in the perceived opinion leadership of their peers.

Method

Participants and procedure

Participants were $N = 400$ (255 women) students of different majors (including economics, psychology, and computer sciences) with a mean age of $M = 24.97$ years ($SD = 6.04$), who participated in exchange for partial course credit. The sample provided self-reports of the S-GOLS. Additionally, peer-ratings on the scale were collected from close acquaintances (231 women).

Instruments

The sample finished a short questionnaire containing the S-GOLS and additional items regarding socio-demographic data. For the peers, the items of the S-GOLS were rephrased to target the person to be evaluated. Apart from that, the self and peer questionnaire were identical in content. The self-and peer-ratings of the S-GOLS correlated on average, $r = .37$, $p < .001$.

Results

An inspection of the responses for each item indicated that respondents tended to primarily choose response options 2 through 4, but hardly used the most extreme response

categories. The proportion of the first and last response option for many items fell below three percent, leading to very low cell counts. As small numbers of responses for extreme response categories can lead to large standard errors of estimation for item parameters and additionally raise problems for goodness-of-fit tests (Andersen, 1973), the response options 1 and 2 as well as 4 and 5 were collapsed, resulting in a three-point response scale.

As in study II, a series of LPCMs was derived (see table 3) that modeled the item-category difficulties of the observer-ratings as a linear combination of the difficulties of the self-ratings and one or more change parameters. To identify the proper LPCM, in the first step, again, a saturated model for all items, that is, for 18 items with 36 difficulties, was estimated (model 0). Likelihood ratio tests (Andersen, 1973) for three partitioning criteria indicated no model misfit at a nominal type-I risk of $\alpha = .01$, $\chi^2_{.99}(35) = 57.34$, thus supporting the PCM for the 18 item set: sex, $\chi^2_{LR}(35) = 56.18$, mean age, $\chi^2_{LR}(35) = 55.24$, and random split, $\chi^2_{LR}(35) = 32.57$. Model 1 restricted these parameters in line with the postulated hypothesis. By cross-classifying the sample according to sex of the respondent and observer's sex, four groups were created. The 36 difficulty parameters in model 0 were then modeled as additive components of the 18 difficulties of the self-ratings and one change parameter in the four groups. For the four groups, different change parameters were assumed. The corresponding model did not fit worse than model 0, $\chi^2_{LR}(14) = 6.91$, $p = .94$, thus corroborating the assumed hypothesis. However, an inspection of the four change parameters in the four groups pointed to potential simplifications of the model. Firstly, for male observers, neither the change parameters for females, $\eta_1 = .02 [-.17, .21]$, nor for male targets, $\eta_2 = -.06 [-.30, .18]$, were significantly different from zero. Secondly, for female observers, the change parameters for women, $\eta_3 = -.38 [-.61, -.14]$, and men, $\eta_4 = -.36 [-.60, -.13]$, did not differ significantly, $p < .05$, from each other, indicating that one change parameter for both sexes might be sufficient. The corresponding model 2, which incorporated one change parameter for female and none for male observers, did not fit

worse than model 1, $\chi^2_{LR}(3) = 0.36, p = .95$. Finally, to demonstrate the importance of the change parameter for female observers, model 3 removed the change parameters altogether, assuming no change at all. This model, however, did fit significantly worse than the previous model, $\chi^2_{LR}(1) = 47.79, p < .01$, thus rejecting the assumption of no change.

As model 2 represents the most parsimonious model, requiring the fewest effect parameters, it is accepted. Hence, for male observers, the difficulty parameters do not differ significantly from the corresponding self-reports. Thus, self-reported and perceived opinion leadership closely match for male observers. Female observers, however, seem to generate a systematic bias. The change parameter of $\eta_1 = -.35 [-.25, -.45]$ indicates that the difficulty parameters for female observers are generally lower than the corresponding self-reports, leading women sooner to endorse the items of the S-GOLS. Compared to the corresponding self-ratings, female observers tend to systematically overestimate the trait of generalized opinion leadership.

Overall discussion

As noted by Borsboom (2006, p. 425), in contemporary psychological testing "one rarely encounters serious psychometric modeling endeavors", although appropriate approaches have been described for years. Instead, many psychologists continue to use primarily various correlation techniques, but rarely explicate underlying response models that relate observed scores to the theoretically assumed latent constructs. In this paper, we used Rasch-type item response models, which specify a logistic function between item responses and the latent trait, to construct a new personality test, a short form of the Generalized Opinion Leadership scale (Wiesner, 2009). We demonstrated that a comparably simple IRT model, the polytomous partial credit model (Masters, 1982), can be validly fitted to questionnaire data as typically found in personality research.

IRT is not limited to the process of item selection, to create new assessment instruments, but can effectively be used for in-depth psychometric research by evaluating

various psychometric properties of an assessment instrument in detail. Hence, in study II, we quantified the amount of transient error of the S-GOLS, a form of systematic measurement error that can distort single measurements of a construct through temporary situational influences. By applying a linear extension of the partial credit model to analyze retest designs, we modeled transient error as a trait change within a short time frame (cf. Chmielewski & Watson, 2009). This approach is comparable to the assessment of an instrument's retest reliability in CTT. Within the IRT framework, however, the analysis of transient error is not limited to the score level, but potentially could be addressed on the item level as well. For the S-GOLS, transient error seemed to be a negligible factor that did not distort the trait estimates considerably. Finally, in the third study, we demonstrated the convergence of self-and observer-ratings of generalized opinion leadership. By applying the LPCM, we provided evidence for marked sex differences in perceived opinion leadership. For male observers, the assessment of GOL closely matched the corresponding self-reports. Female observers, however, rated the trait systematically higher (as compared to the self-reports). In line with a general leniency bias reported previously for women (McCrae & Terracciano, 2005), it can be argued that women generally attribute more favorable characteristics to their peers and thus attribute higher levels of generalized opinion leadership to others.

In conclusion, the presented studies demonstrate the viability of item response theory to evaluate different types of measurement precision of self-report scales, for example, systematic measurement error or the convergence of traits over different perspectives, as is frequently done in personality research. We acknowledge that the application of the ordinary LPCM is subject to rather strict requirements and is only applicable for an item set conforming to the PCM - an assumption often not tenable for tests originally constructed according to CTT. For these cases, however, linear logistic models with relaxed assumptions (Fischer, 1995) represent a flexible IRT approach to conduct

comparable psychometric analysis without the strict unidimensionality requirement stipulated by the Rasch model.

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Footnotes

¹ Originally, Masters (1982) defined the PCM in terms of intersection parameters δ_{ij} that mark the location on the latent proficiency where the item characteristic curves intersect

as $P(X = h) = \frac{\exp\left[\sum_{j=0}^h (\theta_v - \delta_{ij})\right]}{\sum_{l=0}^{m_i} \exp\left[\sum_{j=0}^l (\theta_v - \delta_{ij})\right]}$. The reparameterization by Andersen (1995) in

equation 1 is easily derived by substituting $-\sum_{j=0}^h \delta_{ij}$ with β_{ij} .

² Due to normalization requirement, the effect parameter for the first category difficulty of the first item has to be fixed to 0.

Table 1

Item statistics of the short Generalized Opinion Leadership Scale

Item	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	δ_1	δ_2	δ_3	δ_4	Outfit	$\chi^2(1575)$
1. Among my friends and acquaintances, I often decide which issues are current.	2.96	1.03	-1.89	.76	1.63	4.14	.91	1435
2. My friends and acquaintances often discuss subjects that I brought up.	3.11	.95	-2.68	.21	1.63	4.10	.95	1502
3. I usually succeed if I want to convince someone about something.	3.26	.92	-2.72	-.31	1.31	4.15	.89	1393
4. It is easy for me to influence other people.	2.96	1.01	-2.02	.70	1.73	4.22	.89	1401
5. I am often the one among my friends and acquaintances who approves important decisions.	2.77	1.04	-1.50	1.18	2.01	4.26	.86	1354
6. I am often asked to make decisions for friends and acquaintances.	2.80	.99	-1.86	1.06	2.03	4.56	.85	1330
7. People in my social circle frequently act upon my advice.	3.01	.93	-2.57	.38	1.88	4.43	.87	1364
8. I have the impression that I am regarded by my friends and acquaintances as a good source for tips and advice.	3.15	.96	-2.65	.15	1.51	4.03	.86	1356
9. I often use my persuasive powers during discussions to reach agreements quickly.	3.07	.97	-2.67	.42	1.66	4.02	.88	1389

Notes. $N = 1575$. $\chi^2_{.95}(1575) = 1668$. δ_j ... Category thresholds, Outfit ... Unweighted mean square error, χ^2 ... Item fit test statistic (Glas & Verhelst, 1995).

Table 2

Results of Andersen's likelihood-ratio tests for different partition criteria and samples

Sample	<i>N</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>A</i>	Partition criteria					
					Sex		Mean age		Random split	
					χ^2	<i>df</i>	χ^2	<i>df</i>	χ^2	<i>df</i>
Study I:										
Calibration Sample	1575	3.01	0.72	.89	47.84	35	35.53	35	24.96	35
Study II:										
Time 1	560	2.93	0.56	.85	35.13	35	36.19	35	32.32	35
Time 2	560	2.95	0.55	.86	41.17	35	41.38	35	29.05	35
Study III:										
Self-ratings	400	2.97	0.50	.78	33.41	17	29.44	17	19.66	17
Observer-ratings	400	3.09	0.53	.82	24.76	17	25.75	17	19.19	17

Notes. $\chi^2_{.99}(35) = 57.34$, $\chi^2_{.99}(17) = 33.41$. α ... Cronbach's Alpha; Results for study III are based

upon a three-point response scale.

Table 3

Likelihood-ratio tests for various LPCMs

Model	Parameters	$\log L$	χ^2_{LR}	df	$p(\chi^2_{LR})$	Change parameters			
						η_1	η_2	η_3	η_4
Study II									
0	72	8209.80							
1	36	8223.71	27.82	35	.80	-.05			
2	35	8224.80	29.99	36	.75				
Study III									
0	35	5316.42							
1	21	5319.88	6.91	14	.94	.02	-.06	-.38*	-.36*
2	18	5343.06	7.27	17	.98	-.35*			
3	17	5343.95	55.06	18	< .001				

Notes. $\log L$... Log-likelihood of model, χ^2_{LR} ... Likelihood ratio test statistic comparing the model to the saturated model 0, df ... Degree of freedoms, η ... Basic parameter of the model.

Results for study III are based upon a three-point response scale.

* $p < .05$.

Figure Captions

Figure 1. Test information of the S-GOLS

Figure 1.

