**Measurement of Constructs**  
Theoretical propositions consist of relationships between abstract constructs. Testing  
theories (i.e., theoretical propositions) require measuring these constructs accurately, correctly,  
and in a scientific manner, before the strength of their relationships can be tested.  
Measurement refers to careful, deliberate observations of the real world and is the essence of  
empirical research. While some constructs in social science research, such as a person’s age,  
weight, or a firm’s size, may be easy to measure, other constructs, such as creativity, prejudice,  
or alienation, may be considerably harder to measure. In this chapter, we will examine the  
related processes of conceptualization and operationalization for creating measures of such  
constructs.  
**Conceptualization**  
Conceptualization is the mental process by which fuzzy and imprecise constructs  
(concepts) and their constituent components are defined in concrete and precise terms. For  
instance, we often use the word “prejudice” and the word conjures a certain image in our mind;  
however, we may struggle if we were asked to define exactly what the term meant. If someone  
says bad things about other racial groups, is that racial prejudice? If women earn less than men  
for the same job, is that gender prejudice? If churchgoers believe that non-believers will burn  
in hell, is that religious prejudice? Are there different kinds of prejudice, and if so, what are  
they? Are there different levels of prejudice, such as high or low? Answering all of these  
questions is the key to measuring the prejudice construct correctly. The process of  
understanding what is included and what is excluded in the concept of prejudice is the  
conceptualization process.  
The conceptualization process is all the more important because of the imprecision,  
vagueness, and ambiguity of many social science constructs. For instance, is “compassion” the  
same thing as “empathy” or “sentimentality”? If you have a proposition stating that  
“compassion is positively related to empathy”, you cannot test that proposition unless you can  
conceptually separate empathy from compassion and then empirically measure these two very  
similar constructs correctly. If deeply religious people believe that some members of their  
society, such as nonbelievers, gays, and abortion doctors, will burn in hell for their sins, and  
forcefully try to change the “sinners” behaviors to prevent them from going to hell, are they  
acting in a prejudicial manner or a compassionate manner? Our definition of such constructs is  
not based on any objective criterion, but rather on a shared (“inter-subjective”) agreement  
between our mental images (conceptions) of these constructs.

While defining constructs such as prejudice or compassion, we must understand that  
sometimes, these constructs are not real or can exist independently, but are simply imaginary  
creations in our mind. For instance, there may be certain tribes in the world who lack prejudice  
and who cannot even imagine what this concept entails. But in real life, we tend to treat this  
concept as real. The process of regarding mental constructs as real is called *reification*, which is  
central to defining constructs and identifying measurable variables for measuring them.  
One important decision in conceptualizing constructs is specifying whether they are  
unidimensional and multidimensional. **Unidimensional** constructs are those that are expected  
to have a single underlying dimension. These constructs can be measured using a single  
measure or test. Examples include simple constructs such as a person’s weight, wind speed,  
and probably even complex constructs like self-esteem (if we conceptualize self-esteem as  
consisting of a single dimension, which of course, may be a unrealistic assumption).  
**Multidimensional** constructs consist of two or more underlying dimensions. For instance, if  
we conceptualize a person’s academic aptitude as consisting of two dimensions – mathematical  
and verbal ability – then academic aptitude is a multidimensional construct. Each of the  
underlying dimensions in this case must be measured separately, say, using different tests for  
mathematical and verbal ability, and the two scores can be combined, possibly in a weighted  
manner, to create an overall value for the academic aptitude construct.

**Operationalization**

Once a theoretical construct is defined, exactly how do we measure it?  
Operationalizationrefers to the process of developing indicators or items for measuring  
these constructs. For instance, if an unobservable theoretical construct such as socioeconomic  
status is defined as the level of family income, it can be operationalized using an indicator that  
asks respondents the question: what is your annual family income? Given the high level of  
subjectivity and imprecision inherent in social science constructs, we tend to measure most of  
those constructs (except a few demographic constructs such as age, gender, education, and  
income) using multiple indicators. This process allows us to examine the closeness amongst  
these indicators as an assessment of their accuracy (reliability).  
Indicators operate at the empirical level, in contrast to constructs, which are  
conceptualized at the theoretical level. The combination of indicators at the empirical level  
representing a given construct is called a **variable**. As noted in a previous chapter, variables  
may be independent, dependent, mediating, or moderating, depending on how they are  
employed in a research study. Also each indicator may have several **attributes** (or levels) and  
each attribute represent a **value**. For instance, a “gender” variable may have two attributes:  
male or female. Likewise, a customer satisfaction scale may be constructed to represent five  
attributes: “strongly dissatisfied”, “somewhat dissatisfied”, “neutral”, “somewhat satisfied” and  
“strongly satisfied”. Values of attributes may be **quantitative** (numeric) or **qualitative** (nonnumeric). Quantitative data can be analyzed using quantitative data analysis techniques, such  
as regression or structural equation modeling, while qualitative data require qualitative data  
analysis techniques, such as coding. Note that many variables in social science research are  
qualitative, even when represented in a quantitative manner. For instance, we can create a  
customer satisfaction indicator with five attributes: strongly dissatisfied, somewhat dissatisfied,  
neutral, somewhat satisfied, and strongly satisfied, and assign numbers 1 through 5  
respectively for these five attributes, so that we can use sophisticated statistical tools for  
quantitative data analysis. However, note that the numbers are only labels associated with  
respondents’ personal evaluation of their own satisfaction, and the underlying variable  
(satisfaction) is still qualitative even though we represented it in a quantitative manner.

Indicators may be reflective or formative. A **reflective indicator** is a measure that  
“reflects” an underlying construct. For example, if religiosity is defined as a construct that  
measures how religious a person is, then attending religious services may be a reflective  
indicator of religiosity. A **formative indicator** is a measure that “forms” or contributes to an  
underlying construct. Such indicators may represent different dimensions of the construct of  
interest. For instance, if religiosity is defined as composing of a belief dimension, a devotional  
dimension, and a ritual dimension, then indicators chosen to measure each of these different  
dimensions will be considered formative indicators. Unidimensional constructs are measured  
using reflective indicators (even though multiple reflective indicators may be used for  
measuring abstruse constructs such as self-esteem), while multidimensional constructs are  
measured as a formative combination of the multiple dimensions, even though each of the  
underlying dimensions may be measured using one or more reflective indicators.

**Levels of Measurement**  
The first decision to be made in operationalizing a construct is to decide on what is the  
intended level of measurement. **Levels of measurement**, also called **rating scales**, refer to the  
values that an indicator can take (but says nothing about the indicator itself). For example,  
male and female (or M and F, or 1 and 2) are two levels of the indicator “gender.” In his seminal  
article titled "On the theory of scales of measurement" published in *Science* in 1946,  
psychologist Stanley Smith Stevens (1946) defined four generic types of rating scales for  
scientific measurements: nominal, ordinal, interval, and ratio scales.

**Nominal scales**, also called categorical scales, measure categorical data. These scales  
are used for variables or indicators that have mutually exclusive attributes. Examples include  
gender (two values: male or female), industry type (manufacturing, financial, agriculture, etc.),  
and religious affiliation (Christian, Muslim, Jew, etc.). Even if we assign unique numbers to each  
value, for instance 1 for male and 2 for female, the numbers don’t really mean anything (i.e., 1 is  
not less than or half of 2) and could have been easily been represented non-numerically, such as  
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M for male and F for female. Nominal scales merely offer *names* or *labels* for different attribute  
values. The appropriate measure of central tendency of a nominal scale is mode, and neither  
the mean nor the median can be defined. Permissible statistics are chi-square and frequency  
distribution, and only a one-to-one (equality) transformation is allowed (e.g., 1=Male,  
2=Female).  
**Ordinal scales** are those that measure *rank-ordered* data, such as the ranking of  
students in a class as first, second, third, and so forth, based on their grade point average or test  
scores. However, the actual or relative values of attributes or difference in attribute values  
cannot be assessed. For instance, ranking of students in class says nothing about the actual GPA  
or test scores of the students, or how they well performed relative to one another. A classic  
example in the natural sciences is Moh’s scale of mineral hardness, which characterizes the  
hardness of various minerals by their ability to scratch other minerals. For instance, diamonds  
can scratch all other naturally occurring minerals on earth, and hence diamond is the “hardest”  
mineral. However, the scale does not indicate the actual hardness of these minerals or even  
provides a relative assessment of their hardness. Ordinal scales can also use attribute labels  
(anchors) such as “bad”, “medium”, and “good”, or "strongly dissatisfied", "somewhat  
dissatisfied", "neutral", or "somewhat satisfied", and "strongly satisfied”. In the latter case, we  
can say that respondents who are “somewhat satisfied” are less satisfied than those who are  
“strongly satisfied”, but we cannot quantify their satisfaction levels. The central tendency  
measure of an ordinal scale can be its median or mode, and means are uninterpretable. Hence,  
statistical analyses may involve percentiles and non-parametric analysis, but more  
sophisticated techniques such as correlation, regression, and analysis of variance, are not  
appropriate. Monotonically increasing transformation (which retains the ranking) is allowed.

**Interval scales** are those where the values measured are not only rank-ordered, but are  
also equidistant from adjacent attributes. For example, the temperature scale (in Fahrenheit or  
Celsius), where the difference between 30 and 40 degree Fahrenheit is the same as that  
between 80 and 90 degree Fahrenheit. Likewise, if you have a scale that asks respondents’  
annual income using the following attributes (ranges): $0 to 10,000, $10,000 to 20,000, $20,000  
to 30,000, and so forth, this is also an interval scale, because the mid-point of each range (i.e.,  
$5,000, $15,000, $25,000, etc.) are equidistant from each other. The intelligence quotient (IQ)  
scale is also an interval scale, because the scale is designed such that the difference between IQ  
scores 100 and 110 is supposed to be the same as between 110 and 120 (although we do not  
really know whether that is truly the case). Interval scale allows us to examine “how much  
more” is one attribute when compared to another, which is not possible with nominal or ordinal  
scales. Allowed central tendency measures include mean, median, or mode, as are measures of  
dispersion, such as range and standard deviation. Permissible statistical analyses include all of  
those allowed for nominal and ordinal scales, plus correlation, regression, analysis of variance,  
and so on. Allowed scale transformation are positive linear. Note that the satisfaction scale  
discussed earlier is not strictly an interval scale, because we cannot say whether the difference  
between “strongly satisfied” and “somewhat satisfied” is the same as that between “neutral” and  
“somewhat satisfied” or between “somewhat dissatisfied” and “strongly dissatisfied”. However,  
social science researchers often “pretend” (incorrectly) that these differences are equal so that  
we can use statistical techniques for analyzing ordinal scaled data.

**Ratio scales** are those that have all the qualities of nominal, ordinal, and interval scales,  
and in addition, also have a “true zero” point (where the value zero implies lack or nonavailability of the underlying construct). Most measurement in the natural sciences and  
engineering, such as mass, incline of a plane, and electric charge, employ ratio scales, as are  
some social science variables such as age, tenure in an organization, and firm size (measured as  
employee count or gross revenues). For example, a firm of size zero means that it has no  
employees or revenues. The Kelvin temperature scale is also a ratio scale, in contrast to the  
Fahrenheit or Celsius scales, because the zero point on this scale (equaling -273.15 degree  
Celsius) is not an arbitrary value but represents a state where the particles of matter at this  
temperature have zero kinetic energy. These scales are called “ratio” scales because the ratios  
of two points on these measures are meaningful and interpretable. For example, a firm of size  
10 employees is double that of a firm of size 5, and the same can be said for a firm of 10,000  
employees relative to a different firm of 5,000 employees. All measures of central tendencies,  
including geometric and harmonic means, are allowed for ratio scales, as are ratio measures,  
such as coefficient of variation. All statistical methods are allowed.  
Sophisticated transformation such as positive similar (e.g., multiplicative or logarithmic) are  
also allowed. Based on the four generic types of scales discussed above, we can create specific rating scales for social science research. Common rating scales include binary, Likert, semantic  
differential, or Guttman scales. Other less common scales are not discussed here.

**Binary scales.** Binary scales are nominal scales consisting of binary items that assume  
one of two possible values, such as yes or no, true or false, and so on. For example, a typical  
binary scale for the “political activism” construct may consist of the six binary items shown in  
Table 6.2. Each item in this scale is a binary item, and the total number of “yes” indicated by a  
respondent (a value from 0 to 6) can be used as an overall measure of that person’s political  
activism. To understand how these items were derived, refer to the “Scaling” section later on in  
this chapter. Binary scales can also employ other values, such as male or female for gender, fulltime or part-time for employment status, and so forth. If an employment status item is  
modified to allow for more than two possible values (e.g., unemployed, full-time, part-time, and  
retired), it is no longer binary, but still remains a nominal scaled item.

**Likert scale.** Designed by Rensis Likert, this is a very popular rating scale for  
measuring ordinal data in social science research. This scale includes Likert items that  
are simply-worded statements to which respondents can indicate their extent of agreement or  
disagreement on a five or seven-point scale ranging from “strongly disagree” to “strongly  
agree”. A typical example of a six-item Likert scale for the “employment self-esteem” construct  
is shown in Table 6.3. Likert scales are summated scales, that is, the overall scale score may be  
a summation of the attribute values of each item as selected by a respondent.

Likert items allow for more granularity (more finely tuned response) than binary items,  
including whether respondents are neutral to the statement. Three or nine values (often called  
“anchors”) may also be used, but it is important to use an odd number of values to allow for a  
“neutral” (or “neither agree nor disagree”) anchor. Some studies have used a “forced choice  
approach” to force respondents to agree or disagree with the LIkert statement by dropping the  
neutral mid-point and using even number of values and, but this is not a good strategy because  
some people may indeed be neutral to a given statement and the forced choice approach does  
not provide them the opportunity to record their neutral stance. A key characteristic of a Likert  
scale is that even though the statements vary in different items or indicators, the anchors  
(“strongly disagree” to “strongly agree”) remain the same. Likert scales are ordinal scales  
because the anchors are not necessarily equidistant, even though sometimes we treat them like  
interval scales.