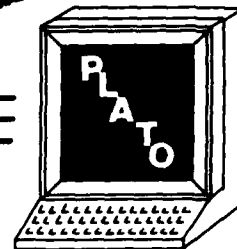


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EXTRACTING UNIDIMENSIONAL CHAINS FROM MULTIDIMENSIONAL DATASETS: A GRAPH THEORY APPROACH

YONEO YAMAMOTO

STEVEN L. WISE

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This research was sponsored by the Personnel and Training
Research Program, Psychological Sciences Division, Office
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Contract Authority Identification Number NR 150-415.

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COMPUTERIZED ADAPTIVE TESTING AND MEASUREMENT

RESEARCH REPORT 80-2

FEBRUARY 1980

80 11 04 010

Unclassified

14 / CERL-E-14,
RR-80-2

SECURITY CLASSIFICATION OF THIS PAGE (When Data Entered)

REPORT DOCUMENTATION PAGE		READ INSTRUCTIONS BEFORE COMPLETING FORM
1. REPORT NUMBER Research Report No. 80-2 ✓	2. GOVT ACCESSION NO. AD-A091693	3. RECIPIENT'S CATALOG NUMBER (16) RR 042 04
4. TITLE (and Subtitle) 6 Extracting Unidimensional Chains from Multidimensional datasets: A Graph Theory Approach		5. TYPE OF REPORT & PERIOD COVERED Aug. 21 - Nov 20, 1979
7. AUTHOR(s) 15 Yoneo Yamamoto & Steven L. Wise		6. PERFORMING ORG. REPORT NUMBER CERL Report E-14
9. PERFORMING ORGANIZATION NAME AND ADDRESS Computer-based Education Research Laboratory University of Illinois Urbana, IL 61801		8. CONTRACT OR GRANT NUMBER(s) N00014-79-C-0752 New
11. CONTROLLING OFFICE NAME AND ADDRESS Personnel and Training Research Programs Office of Naval Research (Code 458) Arlington, VA 22217		10. PROGRAM ELEMENT, PROJECT, TASK AREA & WORK UNIT NUMBERS 61153N; RR042-04; RR042 04 01 NR154-445
14. MONITORING AGENCY NAME & ADDRESS (if different from Controlling Office) 11 12 13 14		12. REPORT DATE February 1980
		13. NUMBER OF PAGES 28
		15. SECURITY CLASS. (of this report) (12) 38
		15a. DECLASSIFICATION/DOWNGRADING SCHEDULE
16. DISTRIBUTION STATEMENT (of this Report) Approved for public release; distribution unlimited		
17. DISTRIBUTION STATEMENT (of the abstract entered in Block 20, if different from Report)		
18. SUPPLEMENTARY NOTES		
19. KEY WORDS (Continue on reverse side if necessary and identify by block number) order analysis, dimensionality, graph theory, internal consistency, testing		
20. ABSTRACT (Continue on reverse side if necessary and identify by block number) Reynolds (1976) described an order-analysis procedure for extracting unidimensional chains of items (or persons) from multidimensional datasets. It is an exhaustive method, using one of Cliff's consistency indices to extract all possible chains which maintain a given level of consistency. A practical problem with this method is that the number of computer calculations needed for chain extraction can become very high.		

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S/N 0102-LF-014-6601

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This paper outlines a procedure which uses graph theory to extract nonredundant chains efficiently, rather than exhaustively generating all chains, as with Reynold's procedure. It also uses chain consistency as a criterion for chain membership. The dominance matrix can be reconsidered as a labelled digraph. From this digraph, all subgroups with perfect consistency are generated, and these in turn are used as starting points in the chain extraction process. The original dominance digraph is then reduced until the chain is found from each subgraph. This graph-theoretic algorithm may be carried out using a series of matrix manipulations performed on the dominance matrix.

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ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

We wish to acknowledge the services rendered by the following people:

Kumi and Maurice Tatsuoka, for their helpful editorial comments and suggestions.

Robert Baillie, whose expert computer programming was invaluable in the operationalization of our algorithm.

Wayne Wilson for his talented artwork.

Louise Brodle for her clerical assistance.

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ABSTRACT

Reynolds (1976) described an order-analysis procedure for extracting unidimensional chains of items (or persons) from multi-dimensional datasets. It is an exhaustive method, using one of Cliff's consistency indices to extract all possible chains which maintain a given level of consistency. A practical problem with this method is that the number of computer calculations needed for chain extraction can become very high.

This paper outlines a procedure which uses graph theory to extract nonredundant chains efficiently, rather than exhaustively generating all chains, as with Reynold's procedure. It also uses chain consistency as a criterion for chain membership. The dominance matrix can be reconsidered as a labelled digraph. From this digraph, all subgroups with perfect consistency are generated, and these in turn are used as starting points in the chain extraction process. The original dominance digraph is then reduced until the chain is found from each subgraph. This graph-theoretic algorithm may be carried out using a series of matrix manipulations performed on the dominance matrix.

EXTRACTING UNIDIMENSIONAL CHAINS FROM MULTIDIMENSIONAL
DATASETS: A GRAPH THEORY APPROACH

Yoneo Yamamoto & Steven Wise¹

INTRODUCTION

Many psychometricians have investigated the problem of extraction of factors or dimensions from a data matrix. Ordering theory (Airasian and Bart, 1972) is one such method. Order analysis (Krus, Bart, & Airasian, 1975) was developed to examine the logic-based dimensions in binary data matrices. It makes use of the dominance relations (Coomb, 1964) in data to determine simple orders.

Cliff (1977) developed several order consistency indices from the dominance relation. He shows his indices to be comparable to classical measures of internal consistency such as the Kuder-Richardson formula and Loevinger's index of homogeneity.

Reynolds (1976) developed an order analysis procedure which uses one of Cliff's consistency indices to recover all possible chains (i.e., all possible dimensions that maintain a given level of consistency). A practical problem with this method is that the number of computer calculations needed for chain extraction can easily become very high.

This article is concerned with presenting an efficient algorithm to extract all possible chains using a general consistency index. Our extraction procedure is an interactive method using the PLATO computer system at the University of Illinois. The main algorithm uses graph theory to extract nonredundant chains efficiently, rather than

¹The authors wish to acknowledge the contribution of Robert Baillie, who wrote computer programs for the routines developed in this paper.

exhaustively generating all chains as with Reynolds' (1976) procedure.

ORDER ANALYSIS

The methods described in this paper are based on the concepts of order analysis (Krus, Bart, & Airasian, 1975; Krus, 1975). One advantage of using order analysis is that it is more easily restated in terms of graph theory concepts than are other multivariate procedures such as factor analysis and cluster analysis. In the following section, we will explain the notation to be used in describing the extraction algorithm.

Simple Orders

Mathematically, simple orders are defined as follows. Let R denote a simple order relation between elements of a set A . The following three properties hold for all elements a , b , and c of set A :

1) Asymmetry property

aRb implies $b\bar{R}a$, where \bar{R} means "not R ".

2) Transitivity property

aRb and bRc implies aRc .

3) Connectedness property

either aRb or bRa .

An example of simple order is shown by the concept "less than". Let A be the set $\{1, 2, 3, 4\}$. Then the set R of all ordered pairs of elements from A which maintain the relation "less than" is given by $R_1 = \{(1,2), (1,3), (1,4), (2,3), (2,4), (3,4)\}$.

Directed Graphs

Graph theory is a useful tool for helping one to better understand complicated sets of relationships (particularly logical

relationships). We will show that graphs can also be useful in developing algorithms. We will use directed graphs to extract elements from sets which maintain the properties of simple orders.

Let us denote a directed graph G by $G = (V, E)$, where V is the set of vertices and E the set of edges (ordered pairs of vertices). For example, if we let V_1 be the set A described earlier,

$$G_1 = (V_1, E_1)$$

$$V_1 = A = \{1, 2, 3, 4\}$$

$$E_1 = R_1 = \{(1, 2), (1, 3), (1, 4), (2, 3), (2, 4), (3, 4)\}$$

G_1 can be represented graphically, as shown in Figure 1.

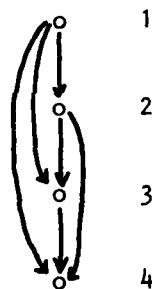


Figure 1. Graph for G_1

Notice that the three properties of simple orders (asymmetry, transitivity, and connectedness) are shown graphically.

Matrix Representation of Directed Graphs

In order to represent a directed graph G in a computer, one commonly uses a $V \times V$ adjacency matrix (Deo, 1974) where $g_{ij} = 1$ or 0 depending on whether or not a directed edge exists between vertices i and j in V . The matrix representation for G_1 is shown in Figure 2.

$$G_1 = \begin{array}{cccc} & 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 \\ \begin{array}{c} 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{array} & \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} & \begin{array}{c} 1 \\ 2 \\ 3 \\ 4 \end{array} \end{array}$$

Figure 2. Matrix Representation of G_1

In testing, one is typically dealing with a persons-by-items data matrix. Figure 3 shows a (5 x 4) data matrix, S .

$$\begin{array}{cccc} & \text{Items} & & \\ & a & b & c & d \\ \begin{array}{c} 1 \\ 2 \\ 3 \\ 4 \\ 5 \end{array} & \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} & = & S \end{array}$$

Figure 3. A Persons by Items Data Matrix

The element s_{ij} of S is equal to 1 if person i gets item j correct, and 0 otherwise. In order analysis terms, it is said that when $s_{ij} = 1$, person i dominates item j (Krus, 1975). Conversely, when $s_{ij} = 0$, item j is said to dominate person i . The data matrix S is representative of a perfect Guttman scale. When the items are ordered in terms of difficulty, each person will get each item correct up to a given difficulty level,

and no items correct thereafter. In actual testing, however, perfect Guttman scales are rarely found.

Dominance Matrices

In order analysis, one attempts to determine sets of items (or equivalently, persons) that exhibit the properties of simple orders. To find these orders, one constructs a dominance matrix from the raw data matrix. Following Cliff (1975) a supermatrix A , containing S and \bar{S}' (the transposed complement of S) as its segments, is defined. The elements of S and \bar{S}' contain information regarding the dominances between the sets of persons and items. The lack of initial dominance information about elements within each set is denoted by zero matrices in the supermatrix A , which is known as an adjacency matrix.

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & \bar{S}' \\ S & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

However, we are ultimately concerned precisely with the dominance relations between elements within sets. If we multiply A by itself, we obtain the matrix A^2 , which contains the within-set dominance information.

$$A^2 = \begin{bmatrix} N & 0 \\ 0 & X \end{bmatrix}$$

The submatrix N is the item dominance matrix. Element n_{ij} of N is equal to the number of persons for which item i dominated item j (that is, item i was incorrect and item j was correct). Correspondingly, the submatrix X of A^2 is the person dominance matrix. Element x_{st} equals the number of items for which person s dominated person t (that is, the number of items which person s got correct and t got incorrect).

At this point, the order analysis would concentrate on either N or X and extract chains (subsets) of items or persons which exhibit the properties of simple orders to a sufficient degree of approximation. The number of chains needed to account for all of the elements in the set is interpreted as the dimensionality of the set (Krus, 1975).

GRAPHIC REPRESENTATION OF DOMINANCE INFORMATION

This section outlines the graphic representation of several order-analysis concepts described in the previous section. Labelled directed graphs will be used in a later section to develop an extraction algorithm.

Item-Person Dominance Relations

Recall the binary, items-by-persons data matrix S from the last section. In Figure 4a the arrow from i to j denotes that person i dominates item j ($s_{ij} = 1$). Figure 4b shows that item j dominates person i ($s_{ij} = 0$).

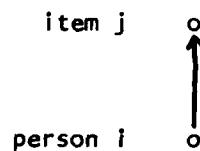


Figure 4a
Person i Dominates Item j

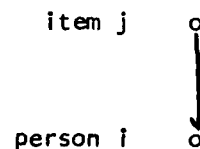


Figure 4b
Item j Dominates Person i

Item-Item Dominance Relations

Consider a person X responding to two items, a and b . Since person X can get each item either right or wrong, there are four possible

response patterns.

item	
<u>a</u>	<u>b</u>
1	1
1	0
0	1
0	0

Only the (1,0) and (0,1) response patterns contain order information, as shown by the graphs in Figure 5. Paths of length 2 are found only for these two response patterns. (A path of length 2 means a succession of two arrows, one starting at the other's endpoint.)

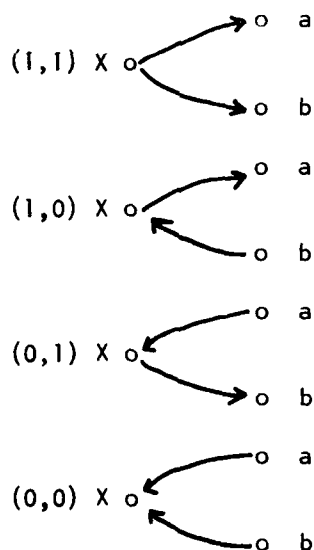


Figure 5. Possible Two Item Response Patterns and their Graphs

For an entire persons-by-items data matrix S , the item-person dominances are easily represented using a bipartite graph. A bipartite graph depicts the relations between the elements of one set and the

elements of another set. Figure 6 shows a data matrix, its adjacency matrix, and its corresponding bipartite graph.

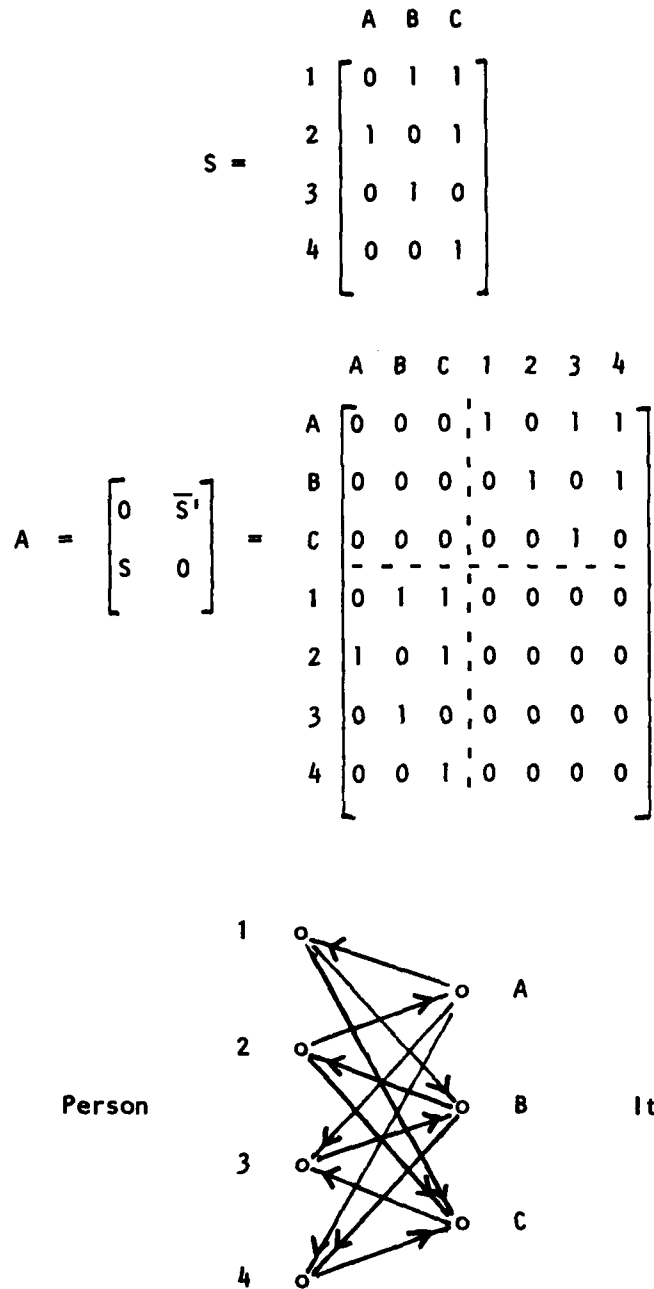


Figure 6. A Data Matrix with its Adjacency Matrix and Bipartite Graph

The item dominance matrix for the data matrix in Figure 6 can also be shown by use of a labelled graph. Figures 7a and 7b show this dominance matrix and its graph. An element n_{ij} represents the number of ij dominances. An element n_{ji} represents the number of ji dominances, and can also be thought of as the number of ij counterdominances. In the graph, the numerals in parentheses are related to these dominances and counterdominances as follows: The second number is the number of dominances in the direction of the referenced arrow, and the first number is the sum of the dominances and counterdominances.

$$N = \begin{array}{c} \text{A} \quad \text{B} \quad \text{C} \\ \text{A} \quad \left[\begin{array}{ccc} 0 & 2 & 2 \\ \text{B} \quad \left[\begin{array}{ccc} 1 & 0 & 2 \\ \text{C} \quad \left[\begin{array}{ccc} 0 & 1 & 0 \end{array} \right] \end{array} \right] \end{array} \right]$$

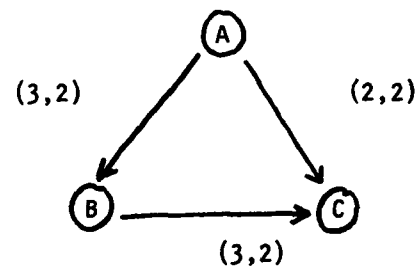


Figure 7a. Item Dominance Matrix for Data Matrix in Figure 6.

Figure 7b. Labelled Graph for Item Dominance Matrix

CONSISTENCY INDEX

We define a general consistency index, C , as

$$C = \alpha(U_a/U) - \beta$$

where $U = \sum_j \sum_k n_{jk}$ (the total number of item dominances)

$U_a = \sum_j \sum_{k>j} n_{jk}$ (the number of dominances above the main diagonal)

α and β are parameters which determine the scale and origin, respectively, of C .

For a given data matrix, the total number of dominances (U) is fixed, while U_a is dependent on the order of the items. When the items are ordered in terms of difficulty, U_a is maximized.

When $\alpha = 2$ and $\beta = 1$, C is equivalent to the index used by Reynolds in his exhaustive method. This is also equivalent to C_{t1} , one of Cliff's consistency indices (Cliff, 1977), since

$$C = \frac{2U_a}{U} - 1 = \frac{2U_a - U}{U} = \frac{U_a - (U - U_a)}{U} = \frac{U_a - U_b}{U} = \frac{v_m}{v} = C_{t1}$$

where $U_b = \sum_j \sum_{k>j} n_{jk}$ (the number of dominances below the main diagonal)

$$v_m = \sum_j \sum_{k>j} (n_{jk} - n_{kj})$$

$$v = \sum_j \sum_k n_{jk}$$

It is also easy to show that with $\alpha = 4$ and $\beta = 3$, C becomes C_{t2} , another index proposed by Cliff.

Although the above equation for C involves two parameters, α and β , it is seen that β is a function of α by considering a dataset which forms a Guttman simplex so that $U_a = U$ and $C = 1$. Thus, $1 = \alpha(1) - \beta$, or $\beta = \alpha - 1$. Hence

$$C = \alpha(U_a/U) - (\alpha - 1)$$

Therefore, we have only one parameter α , and its value is determined so that C will be approximately equal to zero for a dominance matrix based on a random set of data. With appropriate choices of α , C can approximate Cliff's C_{t3} , C_{t4} , or C_{t5} .

$$\text{Let } C' = \frac{U_a}{U} = \frac{C + \beta}{\alpha}. \quad \text{Then :}$$

$$\begin{aligned} C' &= \frac{U_a}{U} = \frac{U_a}{U_a + U_b} = \frac{\sum_j \sum_{k>j} n_{jk}}{\sum_j \sum_{k>j} n_{jk} + \sum_j \sum_{k<j} n_{ik}} = \frac{\sum_j \sum_{k>j} n_{jk}}{\sum_j \sum_{k<j} (n_{kj} + n_{jk})} \\ &= \frac{\sum_j \sum_{k>j} d_{jk}}{\sum_j \sum_{k<j} (c_{jk} + d_{jk})} \end{aligned}$$

where d_{jk} is the number of dominances from j to k .

c_{jk} is the number of counterdominances from j to k ($=n_{kj}$).

Or we can say

$$C' = \frac{\sum_j \sum_{k>j} d_{jk}}{\sum_j \sum_{k<j} d_{jk}} = \frac{\sum_j \sum_{k>j} d_{jk}}{\sum_j \sum_{k>j} a_{kj}}$$

where $a_{jk} = c_{jk} + d_{jk}$.

Krus (1975) showed that dominance matrices can be split into additive matrices according to item or person subsets. From this, letting each person be treated as a subset, we have

$$C^i = \frac{\sum_j \sum_{k>j} \sum_{i=1}^N \overline{s}_{jk}^i s_{ik}}{\sum_j \sum_{k<j} \sum_{i=1}^N (\overline{s}_{ki}^i s_{ij} + \overline{s}_{ji}^i s_{ik})} = \frac{\sum_j \sum_{k>j} \sum_{i=1}^N d_{jk}^{(i)}}{\sum_j \sum_{k<j} \sum_{i=1}^N a_{jk}^{(i)}}$$

$$= \frac{\sum_{i=1}^N \sum_j \sum_{k>j} d_{jk}^{(i)}}{\sum_{i=1}^N \sum_j \sum_{k<j} a_{jk}^{(i)}} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^N d^{(i)}}{\sum_{i=1}^N a^{(i)}}$$

This general consistency index, C , has the advantage of additivity over the above-mentioned indices C_{t3} , C_{t4} , and C_{t5} . Each item or person can be thought of as having an individual C value. When groups of items or persons are combined, both the numerator and denominator of the U_a/U term of C change by an additive amount. This is not the case for C_{t3} , C_{t4} , or C_{t5} , which are further influenced by "chance" consistency in a non-additive fashion.

In the next section we utilize this additive property to extract all possible unidimensional chains in a more efficient fashion.

EXTRACTION PROCEDURE

Our extraction procedure is an interactive method using the PLATO computer system at the University of Illinois. The main algorithm uses graph theory to extract nonredundant chains efficiently, rather than exhaustively generating all chains, as with Reynolds' (1976) procedure. It uses the consistency index C as a criterion for chain membership, taking into account the fact that the numerator and denominator both maintain additivity under addition and deletion of elements in a chain.

The dominance matrix can be interpreted as a labelled digraph. From this graph, all subgroups with perfect consistency are generated, and these in turn are used as starting points in chain extraction. Given a criterion consistency value C_0 , the original dominance digraph is then reduced until a chain is found from each subgraph. After extracting all possible chains, redundant chains can be eliminated and C_0 can be changed to select more or fewer chains, as desired.

As a backdrop, we first briefly review Reynolds' (1976) method, which extracts all possible chains which satisfy the condition that criterion C (which is equivalent to Cliff's consistency index C_{t1}) exceed some cutoff value. His approach is an iterative method generating all chains starting at each item.

For each item, k , a consistency value C_{p+k} is calculated for combining the new item with items already in the chain. The item which produces the smallest decrement in C_{p+k} is added to the chain, producing C'_p :

$$C'_p = \max_k C_{p+k} ,$$

This process of adding the "most consistent" item is repeated using the remaining items until the overall chain consistency drops below the criterion consistency value. At this point the procedure stops and the chain is complete. This method is reapplied using each item as a starting point so that, for m items, m chains are extracted. Duplicate chains are deleted, leaving a unique set of chains that are interpreted as the dimensions of the data matrix (Reynolds, 1976).

Reynolds' procedure tolerates a lot of redundancy in order to ensure that all chains are extracted. That is, for each item in a given chain, using it as a starting point will frequently result in the re-production of an already existing chain.

The total number of possible consistency calculations for a k -item data matrix can be computed. Starting at each item there are

$$(k-1) + (k-2) + \dots + (k-k-1) = \frac{k(k-1)}{2}$$

calculations. Summed across starting points (items), we have a total of

$$k \times \frac{k(k-1)}{2} = \frac{k^2(k-1)}{2}$$

calculations, which is of the order of k^3 . As k increases the number of calculations needed goes up rapidly. For instance, for a 20-item data matrix, as many as 3800 calculations may be needed. Many of these calculations are unnecessary.

* * *

Our algorithm, on the other hand, begins by determining all subsets of items with perfect consistency ($C=1.0$); that is, subsets

which satisfy

$$C_p = \frac{\sum_{p \in I} d_i}{\sum_{p \in I} a_i} = 1.0$$

where p denotes any chain of items with $C = 1$. (A chain consisting of only one item is permissible.) Note that there will likely be more than one starting item chain. At this point, items are added one by one to a given chain in such a way that its consistency stays as high as possible. When its value drops to some predetermined C_0 , we stop adding further items to this chain, but select another chain and repeat the procedure.

We have considered three different strategies for deciding on the successive items to add to a chain:

(1) Take each one of the remaining items in turn, calculate the new consistency index when each is added to the chain, and select that item which yields the largest C value. This is essentially the same as Reynolds' (1976) procedure, and it is time consuming because repetitious calculations have to be done for each item in turn.

(2) Without taking the chain as a whole into consideration, look at the "individual" consistency index

$$C_{ind} = \frac{d_i}{a_i} \quad (i \in I)$$

of each remaining item, and choose the item with the largest C_{ind} to add to the chain. (Note, however, that each time an item is added to a chain, the individual consistency index for each of the remaining items has to be calculated anew.)

(3) Out of the remaining items, take the three with the highest individual consistency values, and add each one of these, in turn, to the chain. Choose the one that produces the smallest decrease in the overall chain consistency to actually add to the chain. (This method is to allow for the possibility -- which we have not experienced so far -- that the item with the highest individual consistency, selected by method (2), may not necessarily produce the smallest decrease in the chain consistency.)

Our computer algorithm can use any of the three strategies just described; moreover, even when method (1) is used, we have made arrangements to keep the repetitious calculations at a minimum. We shall now describe our algorithm in detail, giving an example using the second strategy.

Chain Extraction Algorithm

1. Start with a persons \times items data matrix.
 - 1.1 Compute the dominance matrix.

$$N = \left[n_{ij} \right] \quad k, j = 1, 2, \dots, m$$

Note that this matrix is not a binary matrix and that $n_{ii} = 0$.

Reorder the dominance matrix in terms of item difficulties.

- 1.2 Construct a matrix O such that each element in its lower triangle is equal to the sum of the corresponding element of N plus the symmetric element of N . The upper triangle elements are equal to the corresponding element of N and the main diagonal elements are all zero. That is,

$$0 = [o_{ij}] \quad i, j = 1, 2, \dots, m$$

$$\text{where } o_{ij} = \begin{cases} n_{ij} & i < j \\ 0 & i = j \\ n_{ij} + n_{ji} & i > j \end{cases}$$

2. Graph Initialization

2.1 Construct a labelled graph from matrix 0.

$$G = (V, E)$$

$$V = \{1, 2, \dots, m\} \quad (\text{the total set of items})$$

$$E = \{(i, j) \mid i=1, 2, \dots, m; j=i+1, i+2, \dots, m\}$$

2.2 Initialize labels for vertices and edges:

$$e_{ij} = (a_{ji}, d_{ij}) = (o_{ji}, o_{ij}) \quad \text{for } i=1, 2, \dots, m; j=i+1, i+2, \dots, m$$

$$v_i = [p_i, q_i] = [0, 0] \quad \text{for } i=1, 2, \dots, m$$

The graph labels refer to the consistencies both between vertices and "within" vertices. As the algorithm proceeds, some of the vertices will be merged to form new vertices. Each v_i will refer to the consistency of the set of items within vertex i . Hence, each p_i is equal to the sum of the elements in the lower triangle of 0 that correspond to the dominances between elements contained in vertex i . Likewise, q_i is equal to the sum of the corresponding elements of the upper triangle of 0. Thus, each v_i is initialized at $[0, 0]$.

2.3 Initialize a chain matrix (CH)

This will start out as an $m \times m$ binary matrix that will contain the item chains. All elements of CH will be initialized at zero except for the main diagonal elements, which are equal to one. When

the algorithm is finished, ch_{ij} will equal one if item j is a member of chain i ; otherwise, it will be equal to zero. Also, redundant chains will be eliminated during the extraction process, so that the final number of chains (rows) in CH will be less than m .

3. Extraction of maximal chain with a consistency greater than a criterion, C'_0 .

3.1 For a given chain L , merge the vertices and edges included in the chain. For vertices i and j ($i < j$) where $ch_{Li}=1$ and $ch_{Lj}=0$, merge vertices i and j to form vertex $i \cdot j$ with edges

$$\left. \begin{array}{l} (k, i \cdot j) \quad k < i \\ (i \cdot j, k) \quad i < k \end{array} \right\} \text{ for all } k \in V - \{i, j\}.$$

The new labels in the graph are:

$$\begin{array}{l} v_{i \cdot j} = [p_i + p_j + a_{ji}, q_i + q_j + d_{ij}] \\ e_{k, i \cdot j} = (a_{ik} + a_{jk}, d_{ki} + d_{kj}) \quad k < i \\ e_{i \cdot j, k} = (a_{ki} + a_{jk}, d_{ik} + d_{kj}) \quad i < k < j \\ e_{i \cdot j, k} = (a_{ki} + a_{kj}, d_{ik} + d_{jk}) \quad k > j \end{array} \left. \vphantom{\begin{array}{l} v_{i \cdot j} \\ e_{k, i \cdot j} \\ e_{i \cdot j, k} \\ e_{i \cdot j, k} \end{array}} \right\} \text{ for all } k \in V - \{i, j\}.$$

3.2 Look for the candidate vertex (item) which should be merged next.

Find the item with the largest "individual" consistency (strategy 2)

$$C'_k = \begin{cases} \frac{[e_{k, i \cdot j}]_2}{[e_{k, i \cdot j}]_1} & k < i \\ \frac{[e_{i \cdot j, k}]_2}{[e_{i \cdot j, k}]_1} & k > i \end{cases}$$

where $[e_{a,b}]_1$ and $[e_{a,b}]_2$ are the first and second components of $e_{a,b}$, and $i \cdot j$ represents items already in the chain.

3.3 Compute the new consistency (C') with the best candidate item, k , added to the chain.

$$C'_{k,i \cdot j} = \frac{q_{i \cdot j} + d_{i \cdot j, k}}{p_{i \cdot j} + a_{k, i \cdot j}} \quad k < i$$

or

$$C'_{i \cdot j, k} = \frac{q_{i \cdot j} + d_{k, i \cdot j}}{p_{i \cdot j} + a_{i \cdot j, k}} \quad k > i$$

3.4 If $C' \geq C'_0$ then add vertex k to the chain and merge the graph.

Return to step 3.2 .

If $C' < C'_0$, the algorithm is finished.

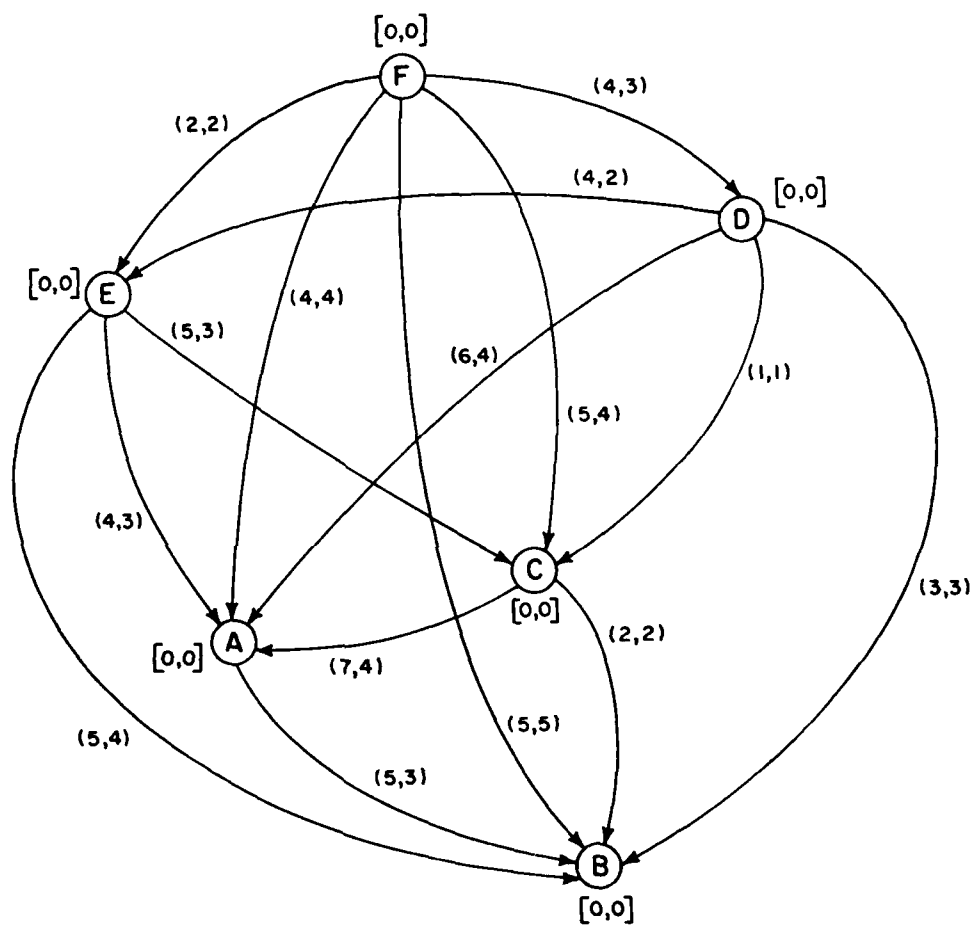


Figure 8. Labelled graph of matrix 0.

2.3 Initialize the chain matrix (CH).

$$CH = \begin{array}{c} \\ \\ \\ \\ \\ \\ \end{array} \begin{array}{cccccc} F & D & E & C & A & B \\ \left[\begin{array}{cccccc} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{array} \right] \end{array}$$

3. Extraction of Perfect Item Chains (C = 1.0) .

3.1, 3.2 Select vertices with perfect consistency (C = 1.0) for each chain, and delete redundant chains.

$$CH = \begin{array}{c} \\ \\ \\ \\ \\ \\ \end{array} \begin{array}{cccccc} F & D & E & C & A & B \\ \left[\begin{array}{cccccc} 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{array} \right] \end{array} \text{ reduce} \begin{array}{c} \\ \\ \\ \\ \\ \\ \end{array} \begin{array}{cccccc} F & D & E & C & A & B \\ \left[\begin{array}{cccccc} 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{array} \right] \end{array}$$

Repeat step 3. for a lower criterion consistency.

4. Extraction Of Maximal Chain greater than a Criterion Consistency ($C_0 = .8$).

4.1 Merge vertices and edges included in the chain.

We get Figure 9. Note that chain 1 is being processed.

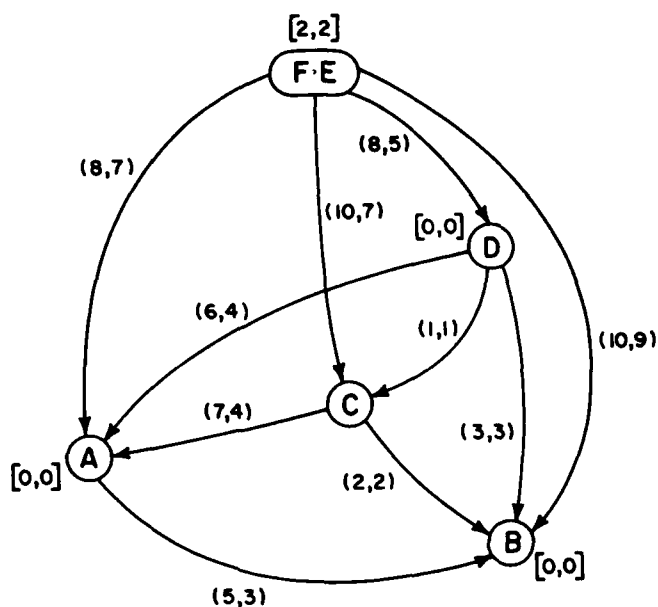


Figure 9. Merging of Vertices for Chain 1

4.2 Determine the next candidate item.

Of these $5/8$, $7/10$, $7/8$, and $9/10$, the value $9/10$ is the largest.

Therefore the vertex B is the candidate.

4.3 Compute C ($\alpha = 2$, $\beta = 1$) for the chain with the candidate added.

$$C = 2(2+9)/(2+10) - 1 = .8333$$

4.4 If $C \geq C_0$ then add candidate item to chain, merge the graph and return to step 3.2. If $C < C_0$, do not add candidate item and chain is complete. $C (.8333) \geq C_0 (.8)$ so we add the candidate, merge the graph and get CH matrix and Figure 10.

$$CH = \begin{array}{c} \\ \\ \\ \\ \end{array} \begin{array}{c} \\ \\ \\ \\ \end{array} \begin{array}{cccccc} F & D & E & C & A & B \\ 1 & [1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1] \\ 2 & [0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1] \\ 5 & [1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0] \\ 6 & [1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1] \end{array}$$

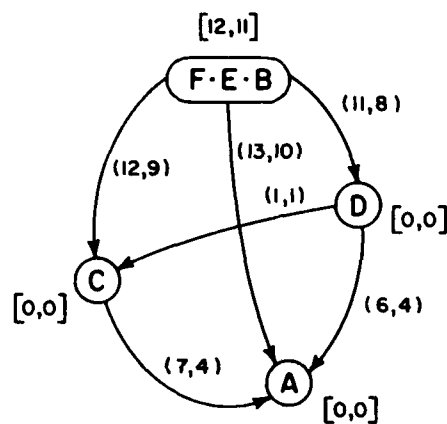


Figure 10. Merging of Vertex F, E and B

We repeat the 4.2 through 4.4. This time vertex A becomes the candidate because $10/13$ is the largest value, but the new $C = 2(11+10)/(12+13) - 1 = .68 < C(=.8)$, so the algorithm then stops.

Repeating the process for the other chains, we get the final chain matrix ($C_0 = .8$).

$$CH = \begin{array}{c} \\ \\ \\ \\ \end{array} \begin{array}{c} \\ \\ \\ \\ \end{array} \begin{array}{cccccc} F & D & E & C & A & B \\ 1 & [1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1] \\ 2 & [1 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1] \\ 5 & [1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 0] \end{array} \begin{array}{c} .5161 \\ .8333 \\ .8000 \\ .8000 \end{array}$$

The value in the upper right-hand corner (.5161) is the C value for a chain containing all of the items. Note that each individual chain represents an improvement over .5161.

The interactive procedure to extract chains is summarized in Figure 11. Each block consists of one or more routines which are implemented on the PLATO system at the University of Illinois.

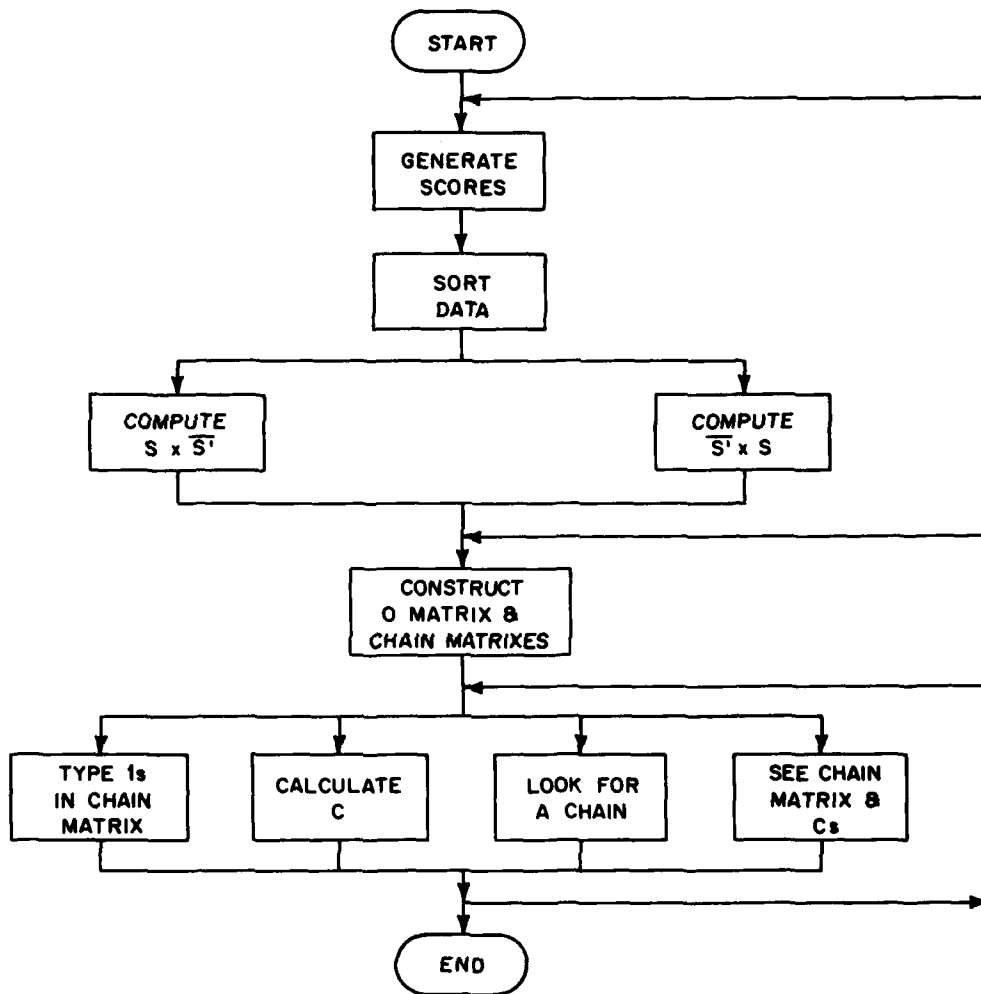


Figure 11. Extracting procedure on PLATO system.

DISCUSSION

We introduced a general consistency index in this paper such that, with parameters values $\alpha = 2$ and $\beta = 1$, it is equivalent to the index which Reynolds (1976) used in his article, and also to one of Cliff's indices, C_{t1} (1977). With $\alpha = 4$ and $\beta = 3$ it becomes C_{t2} , another index by Cliff. With appropriate choice of α (and $\beta = \alpha - 1$) we can approximate others of Cliff's indices, C_{t3} , C_{t4} , and C_{t5} .

One important feature of the general consistency index is that additivity holds in both numerator and denominator. It enables us to use a graphical merging technique. As a result we can give an efficient algorithm to get all possible chains, which were obtained by Reynolds by his exhaustive method.

In the current paper we have picked up the items in order to get item chains. But we can easily extend the technique described here to a method that both picks up items and eliminates persons in order to get highly consistent item chains, because additivity in numerator and denominator holds for persons as well as items. In some cases a few persons "contaminate" our data, therefore elimination of these persons is a good way to get good item chains. Our efficient algorithm ensures the extracting of chains for a large number of items and persons. We can also apply the same technique to get consistent person chains, by picking up or eliminating items or persons.

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Navy

- 1 Dr. Jack R. Borsting
Provost & Academic Dean
U.S. Naval Postgraduate School
Monterey, CA 93940
- 1 Dr. Robert Breaux
Code N-711
NAVTRAEQUIPCEN
Orlando, FL 32813
- 1 Chief of Naval Education and Training
Liason Office
Air Force Human Resource Laboratory
Flying Training Division
WILLIAMS AFB, AZ 85224
- 1 COMNAVMILPERSCOM (N-6C)
Dept. of Navy
Washington, DC 20370
- 1 Deputy Assistant Secretary of the Navy
(Manpower)
Office of the Assistant Secretary of
the Navy (Manpower, Reserve Affairs,
and Logistics)
Washington, DC 20350
- 1 Dr. Richard Elster
Department of Administrative Sciences
Naval Postgraduate School
Monterey, CA 93940
- 1 DR. PAT FEDERICO
NAVY PERSONNEL R&D CENTER
SAN DIEGO, CA 92152
- 1 Mr. Paul Foley
Navy Personnel R&D Center
San Diego, CA 92152
- 1 Dr. John Ford
Navy Personnel R&D Center
San Diego, CA 92152
- 1 Dr. Patrick R. Harrison
Psychology Course Director
LEADERSHIP & LAW DEPT. (7b)
DIV. OF PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT
U.S. NAVAL ACADEMY
ANNAPOLIS, MD 21402
- 1 Dr. Norman J. Kerr
Chief of Naval Technical Training
Naval Air Station Memphis (75)
Millington, TN 38054
- 1 Dr. Leonard Kroeker
Navy Personnel R&D Center
San Diego, CA 92152
- 1 Dr. William L. Maloy
Principal Civilian Advisor for
Education and Training
Naval Training Command, Code 00A
Pensacola, FL 32508
- 1 Dr. Keesie Marshall
Scientific Advisor to DCNO(MPT)
OPOIT
Washington DC 20370
- 1 CAPT Richard L. Martin, USN
Prospective Commanding Officer
USS Carl Vinson (CVN-70)
Newport News Shipbuilding and Drydock Co
Newport News, VA 23607
- 1 Dr. James McBride
Navy Personnel R&D Center
San Diego, CA 92152
- 1 Dr. George Moeller
Head, Human Factors Dept.
Naval Submarine Medical Research Lab
Groton, CN 06340
- 1 Dr William Montague
Navy Personnel R&D Center
San Diego, CA 92152
- 1 Dr. William Moonan
Code 303
Navy Personnel R&D Center
San Diego, CA 92152
- 1 LCDR W. Moroney
Code 55HP
Naval Postgraduate School
Monterey, CA 93940
- 1 Commanding Officer
U.S. Naval Amphibious School
Coronado, CA 92155
- 1 Library
Naval Health Research Center
P. O. Box 85122
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NAVY PERSONNEL R&D CENTER
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Navy Personnel R&D Center
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- 5 Technical Director
Navy Personnel R&D Center
San Diego, CA 92152
- 1 Director, Navy Personnel R&D Center
Washington Liason Office
Building 200, 2N
Washington Navy Yard, DC 20374
- 6 Commanding Officer
Naval Research Laboratory
Code 2627
Washington, DC 20390
- 1 Psychologist
ONR Branch Office
Bldg 114, Section D
666 Summer Street
Boston, MA 02210
- 1 Psychologist
ONR Branch Office
536 S. Clark Street
Chicago, IL 60605
- 1 Office of Naval Research
Code 437
800 N. Quincy SStreet
Arlington, VA 22217
- 5 Personnel & Training Research Programs
(Code 458)
Office of Naval Research
Arlington, VA 22217
- 1 Psychologist
ONR Branch Office
1030 East Green Street
Pasadena, CA 91101
- 1 Scientific Director
Office of Naval Research
Scientific Liason Group/Tokyo
American Embassy
APO San Francisco, CA 96503
- 1 Special Asst. for Education and
Training (OP-01E)
Rm. 2705 Arlington Annex
Washington, DC 20370
- 1 Office of the Chief of Naval Operations
Research, Development, and Studies Branch
(OP-102)
Washington, DC 20350
- 1 Long-Range Manpower, Personnel, and
Training Planning Branch (OP-110)
Room G828
Arlington Annex
Washington, DC 20350
- 1 Head, Manpower Training and Reserves
Section (Op-964D)
Room 4A478, The Pentagon
Washington, DC 20350
- 1 Captain Donald F. Parker, USN
Commanding Officer
Navy Personnel R&D Center
San Diego, CA 92152
- 1 LT Frank C. Petho, MSC, USN (Ph.D)
Code L51
Naval Aerospace Medical Research Laborat
Pensacola, FL 32508
- 1 Dr. Gary Poock
Operations Research Department
Code 55PK
Naval Postgraduate School
Monterey, CA 93940
- 1 The Principal Deputy Assistant
Secretary of the Navy (MRAAL)
4E780, The Pentagon
Washington, DC 20350
- 1 Director, Research & Analysis Division
Plans and Policy Department
Navy Recruiting Command
4015 Wilson Boulevard
Arlington, VA 22203
- 1 Dr. Worth Scanland
Chief of Naval Education and Training
Code N-5
NAS, Pensacola, FL 32508
- 1 Dr. Robert G. Smith
Office of Chief of Naval Operations
OP-987H
Washington, DC 20350
- 1 Dr. Alfred F. Snode
Training Analysis & Evaluation Group
(TAEG)
Dept. of the Navy
Orlando, FL 32813

Other DoD

- 12 Defense Documentation Center
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Alexandria, VA 22314
Attn: TC
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1400 WILSON BLVD.
ARLINGTON, VA 22209
- 1 Dr. William Graham
Testing Directorate
MEPCOM/MEPCT-P
Ft. Sheridan, IL 60037
- 1 Director, Research and Data
OASD(MRA&L)
38919, The Pentagon
Washington, DC 20301
- 1 Military Assistant for Training and
Personnel Technology
Office of the Under Secretary of Defense
for Research & Engineering
Room 3D129, The Pentagon
Washington, DC 20301
- 1 MAJOR Wayne Sellman, USAF
Office of the Assistant Secretary
of Defense (MRA&L)
38930 The Pentagon
Washington, DC 20301
- Civil Govt
- 1 Dr. Susan Chipman
Learning and Development
National Institute of Education
1200 19th Street NW
Washington, DC 20208
- 1 Dr. Lorraine D. Eyde
Personnel R&D Center
Office of Personnel Management of USA
1900 E Street NW
Washington, D.C. 20415
- 1 Jerry Lehnus
REGIONAL PSYCHOLOGIST
U.S. Office of Personnel Management
230 S. DEARBORN STREET
CHICAGO, IL 60604
- 1 Dr. Joseph I. Lipson
SEDR W-638
National Science Foundation
Washington, DC 20550
- 1 William J. McLaurin
Rm. 301, Internal Revenue Service
2221 Jefferson Davis Highway
Arlington, VA 22202
- 1 Dr. Andrew R. Molnar
Science Education Dev.
and Research
National Science Foundation
Washington, DC 20550
- 1 Personnel R&D Center
Office of Personnel Management
1900 E Street NW
Washington, DC 20415
- 1 Dr. H. Wallace Sinaiko
Program Director
Manpower Research and Advisory Services
Smithsonian Institution
801 North Pitt Street
Alexandria, VA 22314
- 1 Dr. Vern W. Urry
Personnel R&D Center
Office of Personnel Management
1900 E Street NW
Washington, DC 20415
- 1 Dr. Frank Withrow
U. S. Office of Education
400 Maryland Ave. SW
Washington, DC 20202
- 1 Dr. Joseph L. Young, Director
Memory & Cognitive Processes
National Science Foundation
Washington, DC 20550
- Non Govt
- 1 Dr. Erling B. Andersen
Department of Statistics
Studiestraede 6
1455 Copenhagen
DENMARK
- 1 Dr. John R. Anderson
Department of Psychology
Carnegie Mellon University
Pittsburgh, PA 15213
- 1 Anderson, Thomas H., Ph.D.
Center for the Study of Reading
174 Children's Research Center
51 Gerty Drive
Champaign, IL 61820
- 1 Dr. John Annett
Department of Psychology
University of Warwick
Coventry CV4 7AL
ENGLAND
- 1 DR. MICHAEL ATWOOD
SCIENCE APPLICATIONS INSTITUTE
40 DENVER TECH. CENTER WEST
7935 E. PRENTICE AVENUE
ENGLEWOOD, CO 80110
- 1 1 psychological research unit
Dept. of Defense (Army Office)
Campbell Park Offices
Canberra ACT 2600, Australia
- 1 Dr. Alan Baddeley
Medical Research Council
Applied Psychology Unit
15 Chaucer Road
Cambridge CB2 2EF
ENGLAND
- 1 Dr. Patricia Baggett
Department of Psychology
University of Denver
University Park
Denver, CO 80208
- 1 Ms. Carole A. Bagley
Minnesota Educational Computing
Consortium
2354 Hidden Valley Lane
Stillwater, MN 55082
- 1 Dr. Isaac Bejar
Educational Testing Service
Princeton, NJ 08450
- 1 DezWPs im Streitkraefteamt
Postfach 20 50 03
D-5300 Bonn 2
WEST GERMANY
- 1 Dr. Nicholas A. Bond
Dept. of Psychology
Sacramento State College
600 Jay Street
Sacramento, CA 95819
- 1 Dr. Lyle Bourne
Department of Psychology
University of Colorado
Boulder, CO 80309
- 1 Dr. Robert Brennan
American College Testing Programs
P. O. Box 168
Iowa City, IA 52240
- 1 DR. C. VICTOR BUNDERSON
WICAT INC.
UNIVERSITY PLAZA, SUITE 10
1160 SO. STATE ST.
OREM, UT 84057
- 1 Dr. John B. Carroll
Psychometric Lab
Univ. of No. Carolina
Davie Hall 013A
Chapel Hill, NC 27514
- 1 Charles Myers Library
Livingstone House
Livingstone Road
Stratford
London E15 2LJ
ENGLAND
- 1 Dr. Micheline Chi
Learning R & D Center
University of Pittsburgh
3939 O'Hara Street
Pittsburgh, PA 15213
- 1 Dr. William Clancey
Department of Computer Science
Stanford University
Stanford, CA 94305
- 1 Dr. Kenneth E. Clark
College of Arts & Sciences
University of Rochester
River Campus Station
Rochester, NY 14627
- 1 Dr. Norman Cliff
Dept. of Psychology
Univ. of So. California
University Park
Los Angeles, CA 90007

Navy

- 1 Dr. Richard Sorensen
Navy Personnel R&D Center
San Diego, CA 92152
- 1 Dr. Ronald Weitman
Code 54 WZ
Department of Administrative Sciences
U. S. Naval Postgraduate School
Monterey, CA 93940
- 1 DR. H.M. WEST III (OP-01)
Head, Program Development Branch(OP-120)
ARLINGTON ANNEX
WASHINGTON, DC 20350
- 1 Dr. Robert Wisner
Code 309
Navy Personnel R&D Center
San Diego, CA 92152
- 1 DR. MARTIN F. WISKOFF
NAVY PERSONNEL R&D CENTER
SAN DIEGO, CA 92152

Army

- 1 Technical Director
U. S. Army Research Institute for the
Behavioral and Social Sciences
5001 Eisenhower Avenue
Alexandria, VA 22333
- 1 Mr. J. Barber
HQS, Department of the Army
DAPE-ZBR
Washington, DC 20310
- 1 Col Gary W. Bloetorn
US Army TRADOC Systems Analysis Activity
Attn: ATAA-TH
WSMR, NM 88002
- 1 DR. RALPH DUSEK
U.S. ARMY RESEARCH INSTITUTE
5001 EISENHOWER AVENUE
ALEXANDRIA, VA 22333
- 1 Dr. Myron Fischl
U.S. Army Research Institute for the
Social and Behavioral Sciences
5001 Eisenhower Avenue
Alexandria, VA 22333
- 1 Dr. Ed Johnson
Army Research Institute
5001 Eisenhower Blvd.
Alexandria, VA 22333
- 1 Dr. Michael Kaplan
U.S. ARMY RESEARCH INSTITUTE
5001 EISENHOWER AVENUE
ALEXANDRIA, VA 22333
- 1 Dr. Milton S. Katz
Training Technical Area
U.S. Army Research Institute
5001 Eisenhower Avenue
Alexandria, VA 22333
- 1 Dr. Harold F. O'Neil, Jr.
Attn: PERI-OK
Army Research Institute
5001 Eisenhower Avenue
Alexandria, VA 22333

- 1 LTC Michael Plummer
Chief, Leadership & Organizational
Effectiveness Division
Office of the Deputy Chief of Staff
for Personnel
Dept. of the Army
Pentagon, Washington DC 20301
- 1 DR. JAMES L. RANEY
U.S. ARMY RESEARCH INSTITUTE
5001 EISENHOWER AVENUE
ALEXANDRIA, VA 22333
- 1 Mr. Robert Ross
U.S. Army Research Institute for the
Social and Behavioral Sciences
5001 Eisenhower Avenue
Alexandria, VA 22333
- 1 Dr. Robert Sasmor
U. S. Army Research Institute for the
Behavioral and Social Sciences
5001 Eisenhower Avenue
Alexandria, VA 22333
- 1 Commandant
US Army Institute of Administration
Attn: Dr. Sherrill
FT Benjamin Harrison, IN 46256
- 1 Dr. Frederick Steinheiser
U. S. Army Research Institute
5001 Eisenhower Avenue
Alexandria, VA 22333
- 1 Dr. Joseph Ward
U.S. Army Research Institute
5001 Eisenhower Avenue
Alexandria, VA 22333

Air Force

- 1 Air Force Human Resources Lab
AFHRL/MPD
Brooks AFB, TX 78235
- 1 U.S. Air Force Office of Scientific
Research
Life Sciences Directorate, NL
Bolling Air Force Base
Washington, DC 20332
- 1 Dr. Earl A. Alluisi
HQ, AFHRL (AFSC)
Brooks AFB, TX 78235
- 1 Dr. Philip De Leo
AFHRL/TT
Lowry AFB, CO 80230
- 1 Dr. Genevieve Haddad
Program Manager
Life Sciences Directorate
AFOSR
Bolling AFB, DC 20332
- 1 Research and Measurement Division
Research Branch, AFMPC/MPCYPR
Randolph AFB, TX 78148
- 1 Dr. Malcolm Ree
AFHRL/MP
Brooks AFB, TX 78235

- 1 Dr. Marty Rockway (AFHRL/TT)
Lowry AFB
Colorado 80230

- 1 Dr. Frank Schuffletowski
U.S. Air Force
ATC/XPTD
Randolph AFB, TX 78148

- 1 Jack A. Thorpe, Maj., USAF
Naval War College
Providence, RI 02846

- 1 Brian K. Waters, Lt Col, USAF
Air War College (EDV)
Maxwell AFB, AL 36112

Marines

- 1 H. William Greenup
Education Advisor (E031)
Education Center, MCDEC
Quantico, VA 22134
- 1 Director, Office of Manpower Utilization
HQ, Marine Corps (MPU)
BCB, Bldg. 2009
Quantico, VA 22134
- 1 Headquarters, U. S. Marine Corps
Code MPI-20
Washington, DC 20380
- 1 Special Assistant for Marine
Corps Matters
Code 100M
Office of Naval Research
800 N. Quincy St.
Arlington, VA 22217
- 1 Major Michael L. Patrow, USMC
Headquarters, Marine Corps
(Code MPI-20)
Washington, DC 20380
- 1 DR. A.L. SLAFKOSKY
SCIENTIFIC ADVISOR (CODE RD-1)
HQ, U.S. MARINE CORPS
WASHINGTON, DC 20380

CoastGuard

- 1 Mr. Thomas A. Warm
U. S. Coast Guard Institute
P. O. Substation 18
Oklahoma City, OK 73169

Non Govt

- 1 Dr. William E. Coffman
Director, Iowa Testing Programs
334 Lindquist Center
University of Iowa
Iowa City, IA 52242
- 1 Dr. Allan M. Collins
Bolt Beranek & Newman, Inc.
50 Moulton Street
Cambridge, Ma 02138
- 1 Dr. Meredith P. Crawford
American Psychological Association
1200 17th Street, N.W.
Washington, DC 20036
- 1 Dr. Hans Crombag
Education Research Center
University of Leyden
Boerhaavelaan 2
2334 EN Leyden
The NETHERLANDS
- 1 ERIC Facility-Acquisitions
4833 Rugby Avenue
Bethesda, MD 20014
- 1 Dr. Leonard Feldt
Lindquist Center for Measurement
University of Iowa
Iowa City, IA 52242
- 1 Dr. Richard L. Ferguson
The American College Testing Program
P.O. Box 168
Iowa City, IA 52240
- 1 Dr. Victor Fields
Dept. of Psychology
Montgomery College
Rockville, MD 20850
- 1 Univ. Prof. Dr. Gerhard Fischer
Liebiggasse 5/3
A 1010 Vienna
AUSTRIA
- 1 Professor Donald Fitzgerald
University of New England
Armidale, New South Wales 2351
AUSTRALIA
- 1 Dr. Edwin A. Fleishman
Advanced Research Resources Organ.
Suite 900
4330 East West Highway
Washington, DC 20014
- 1 Dr. John R. Frederiksen
Bolt Beranek & Newman
50 Moulton Street
Cambridge, MA 02138
- 1 DR. ROBERT GLASER
LRDC
UNIVERSITY OF PITTSBURGH
3939 O'HARA STREET
PITTSBURGH, PA 15213
- 1 Dr. Ross Green
CTB/McGraw Hill
Del Monte Research Park
Monterey, CA 93940
- 1 DR. JAMES G. GREENO
LRDC
UNIVERSITY OF PITTSBURGH
3939 O'HARA STREET
PITTSBURGH, PA 15213
- 1 Dr. Ron Hambleton
School of Education
University of Massachusetts
Amherst, MA 01002
- 1 Dr. Chester Harris
School of Education
University of California
Santa Barbara, CA 93106
- 1 Dr. Lloyd Humphreys
Department of Psychology
University of Illinois
Champaign, IL 61820
- 1 Library
HumRRO/Western Division
27857 Berwick Drive
Carmel, CA 93921
- 1 Dr. Steven Hunka
Department of Education
University of Alberta
Edmonton, Alberta
CANADA
- 1 Dr. Earl Hunt
Dept. of Psychology
University of Washington
Seattle, WA 98105
- 1 Dr. Huynh Huynh
College of Education
University of South Carolina
Columbia, SC 29208
- 1 Dr. Douglas H. Jones
Rm T-255
Educational Testing Service
Princeton, NJ 08450
- 3 Journal Supplement Abstract Service
American Psychological Association
1200 17th Street N.W.
Washington, DC 20036
- 1 Dr. Arnold F. Kanarick
Honeywell, Inc.
Honeywell Plaza MN12-3166
Minneapolis, MN 55408
- 1 Professor John A. Keats
University of Newcastle
AUSTRALIA 2308
- 1 Mr. Marlin Kroger
1117 Via Coleta
Palos Verdes Estates, CA 90274
- 1 Dr. Jill Larkin
Department of Psychology
Carnegie Mellon University
Pittsburgh, PA 15213
- 1 Dr. Alan Lesgold
Learning R&D Center
University of Pittsburgh
Pittsburgh, PA 15260
- 1 Dr. Michael Levine
210 Education Building
University of Illinois
Champaign, IL 61820
- 1 Dr. Charles Lewis
Faculteit Sociale Wetenschappen
Rijksuniversiteit Groningen
Oude Boteringestraat
Groningen
NETHERLANDS
- 1 Dr. Robert Linn
College of Education
University of Illinois
Urbana, IL 61801
- 1 Dr. Frederick M. Lord
Educational Testing Service
Princeton, NJ 08540
- 1 Dr. James Lumsden
Department of Psychology
University of Western Australia
Medlands W.A. 6009
AUSTRALIA
- 1 Dr. Gary Marco
Educational Testing Service
Princeton, NJ 08450
- 1 Dr. Scott Maxwell
Department of Psychology
University of Houston
Houston, TX 77004
- 1 Dr. Samuel T. Mayo
Loyola University of Chicago
820 North Michigan Avenue
Chicago, IL 60611
- 1 Dr. Mark Miller
Computer Science Laboratory
Texas Instruments, Inc.
Mail Station 371, P.O. Box 225936
Dallas, TX 75265
- 1 Professor Jason Millman
Department of Education
Stone Hall
Cornell University
Ithaca, NY 14853
- 1 Dr. Allen Munro
Behavioral Technology Laboratories
1845 Elena Ave., Fourth Floor
Redondo Beach, CA 90277
- 1 Dr. Donald A Norman
Dept. of Psychology C-009
Univ. of California, San Diego
La Jolla, CA 92093
- 1 Dr. Melvin R. Novick
356 Lindquist Center for Measurement
University of Iowa
Iowa City, IA 52242
- 1 Dr. Jesse Orlansky
Institute for Defense Analyses
400 Army Navy Drive
Arlington, VA 22202

Non Govt

- 1 Dr. Seymour A. Papert
Massachusetts Institute of Technology
Artificial Intelligence Lab
545 Technology Square
Cambridge, MA 02139
- 1 Dr. James A. Paulson
Portland State University
P.O. Box 751
Portland, OR 97207
- 1 MR. LUIGI PETRULLO
2431 N. EDGEWOOD STREET
ARLINGTON, VA 22207
- 1 DR. PETER POLSON
DEPT. OF PSYCHOLOGY
UNIVERSITY OF COLORADO
BOULDER, CO 80309
- 1 DR. DIANE M. RAMSEY-KLEE
R-K RESEARCH & SYSTEM DESIGN
3947 RIDGEMONT DRIVE
MALIBU, CA 90265
- 1 MINRAT M. L. RAUCH
P II 4
BUNDESMINISTERIUM DER VERTEIDIGUNG
POSTFACH 1328
D-53 BONN 1, GERMANY
- 1 Dr. Mark D. Reckase
Educational Psychology Dept.
University of Missouri-Columbia
4 Hill Hall
Columbia, MO 65211
- 1 Dr. Fred Reif
SESAME
c/o Physics Department
University of California
Berkeley, CA 94720
- 1 Dr. Andrew M. Rose
American Institutes for Research
1055 Thomas Jefferson St. NW
Washington, DC 20007
- 1 Dr. Leonard L. Rosenbaum, Chairman
Department of Psychology
Montgomery College
Rockville, MD 20850
- 1 Dr. Ernst Z. Rothkopf
Bell Laboratories
600 Mountain Avenue
Murray Hill, NJ 07974
- 1 Dr. Lawrence Rudner
403 Elm Avenue
Takoma Park, MD 20012
- 1 Dr. J. Ryan
Department of Education
University of South Carolina
Columbia, SC 29208
- 1 PROF. FUMINO SAMEJIMA
DEPT. OF PSYCHOLOGY
UNIVERSITY OF TENNESSEE
KNOXVILLE, TN 37916
- 1 Dr. Alan Schoenfeld
Department of Mathematics
Hamilton College
Clinton, NY 13323
- 1 DR. ROBERT J. SEIDEL
INSTRUCTIONAL TECHNOLOGY GROUP
HUMRRO
300 N. WASHINGTON ST.
ALEXANDRIA, VA 22314
- 1 Committee on Cognitive Research
& Dr. Lonnie R. Sherrod
Social Science Research Council
605 Third Avenue
New York, NY 10016
- 1 Dr. Kazuo Shigemasa
University of Tohoku
Department of Educational Psychology
Kawauchi, Sendai 980
JAPAN
- 1 Dr. Edwin Shirley
Department of Psychology
University of Central Florida
Orlando, FL 32816
- 1 Dr. Robert Smith
Department of Computer Science
Rutgers University
New Brunswick, NJ 03903
- 1 Dr. Richard Snow
School of Education
Stanford University
Stanford, CA 94305
- 1 Dr. Kathryn T. Spoehr
Department of Psychology
Brown University
Providence, RI 02912
- 1 Dr. Robert Sternberg
Dept. of Psychology
Yale University
Box 11A, Yale Station
New Haven, CT 06520
- 1 DR. ALBERT STEVENS
BOLT BERANEK & NEWMAN, INC.
50 MOULTON STREET
CAMBRIDGE, MA 02138
- 1 DR. PATRICK SUPPES
INSTITUTE FOR MATHEMATICAL STUDIES IN
THE SOCIAL SCIENCES
STANFORD UNIVERSITY
STANFORD, CA 94305
- 1 Dr. Hariharan Swaminathan
Laboratory of Psychometric and
Evaluation Research
School of Education
University of Massachusetts
Amherst, MA 01003
- 1 Dr. Brad Sympson
Psychometric Research Group
Educational Testing Service
Princeton, NJ 08541
- 1 Dr. Kikumi Tatsuoka
Computer Based Education Research
Laboratory
252 Engineering Research Laboratory
University of Illinois
Urbana, IL 61801
- 1 Dr. David Thissen
Department of Psychology
University of Kansas
Lawrence, KS 66044
- 1 Dr. John Thomas
IBM Thomas J. Watson Research Center
P.O. Box 218
Yorktown Heights, NY 10593
- 1 Dr. Douglas Towne
Univ. of So. California
Behavioral Technology Labs
1845 S. Elena Ave.
Redondo Beach, CA 90277
- 1 Dr. J. Uhlaner
Perceptronics, Inc.
6271 Variel Avenue
Woodland Hills, CA 91364
- 1 Dr. Howard Wainer
Bureau of Social Science Research
1990 M Street, N. W.
Washington, DC 20036
- 1 Dr. Phyllis Weaver
Graduate School of Education
Harvard University
200 Larsen Hall, Appian Way
Cambridge, MA 02138
- 1 Dr. David J. Weiss
N660 Elliott Hall
University of Minnesota
75 E. River Road
Minneapolis, MN 55455
- 1 DR. SUSAN E. WHITELY
PSYCHOLOGY DEPARTMENT
UNIVERSITY OF KANSAS
LAWRENCE, KANSAS 66044
- 1 Wolfgang Wildgrube
Streitkräfteamt
Box 20 50 03
D-5300 Bonn 2
WEST GERMANY

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