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The concept of authoritarianism first emerged with the rise of fascist movements in the 1930s, but it was not until the well-known Studies in Prejudice conducted by Adorno et al. (1950) that the concept was empirically tested. Based on their results, they developed a number of questionnaires to measure political attitudes of which the F-Scale became the best known (F as an abbreviation for fascism). It was conceptualized as an instrument to measure authoritarianism, defining it as a character trait consisting of nine distinct dimensions. Following psychodynamic theory, they claimed that authoritarian character traits were formed mainly in early childhood and were largely dependent on the parent’s overly strict and harsh child rearing behavior. Even though the studies in general and the F-Scale in particular were criticized for various reasons, the idea of social and political attitudes being “ideologically organized along a single dimension that was a direct expression of personality” (Duckitt, 2015, p. 256) remained and so did the aim of finding adequate measurements. In social science today, there is no homogeneous concept of authoritarianism. The phenomenon is still defined as a personality trait (e.g., Oesterreich, 2005) that mirrors social authoritarian dynamics (Decker, 2019). While the empirical findings evaluate the correlation between authoritarianism and prejudice, the concept was also adopted in social cognition. The double process model by Duckitt defines authoritarianism as a set of “social attitudinal or ideological expressions of basic social values or motivational goals that represent different, though related, strategies for attaining collective security at the expense of individual autonomy” (Duckitt and Bizumic, 2013). This definition focuses on the attitudinal and behavioral aspects as well as its effect on group processes rather than its etiology. Furthermore, it abandons a social theory approach to understand the social origins of authoritarian dynamics. In his notion of right-wing authoritarianism (RWA), Altemeyer (1981, 1988, 1996) reduces the original nine dimensions of the F-Scale to three, i.e., authoritarian aggression, authoritarian submission, and authoritarian conventionalism. Individuals with a high score in authoritarianism are thus expected to act aggressively toward an out-group or individuals showing socially deviant behavior, they prefer to follow the rule of a leader, and they are drawn to traditional values that are not to be scrutinized. In the present study, we rely on this definition to investigate the properties of our three-item, ultrashort screening scale Authoritarianism -Ultra Short (A-US). Using the well validated Short Scale for Authoritarianism (Kurzzskala Autoritarismus; KSA-3; Beierlein et al., 2014) as a basis, the A-US is aimed to measure the full range of authoritarianism, covering all three dimensions as defined by Altemeyer. Authoritarianism can predict right-wing political attitudes as well as voting behavior (Decker and Brähler, 2006; Decker et al., 2016, 2018; Dunwoody and Plane, 2019). The concept shows overlap with the idea of conservatism as used, e.g., in a meta-analysis by Jost et al. (2003). Furthermore, when compared to the Big Five and Social Dominance Orientation, it has been shown to be one of the best predictors of generalized prejudices, especially when the out-group is perceived as threatening toward the social order and/or showing dissident behavior (Ekehammar et al., 2004; Duckitt and Sibley, 2007, 2009). It is thus associated with racism and sexism, as well as prejudice toward homosexuals and mentally disabled people (Ekehammar et al., 2004). Moreover, there is a correlation between acceptance of corporal punishment, violent educational methods and authoritarianism (Clemens et al., 2019). Authoritarianism fires the cycle of violence by approving child abuse and physical violence by parents and transmitting violence to the next generation (Clemens et al., 2020). Authoritarian attitudes are known to increase when the perceived threat on social and individual security is high (Asbrock et al., 2010; Asbrock and Fritzsche, 2013; Dunwoody and Plane, 2019), making it an individual variable that is sensitive to changes to a given social situation. With anti-democratic parties and movements on the rise throughout the world and increasing violence against migrants and minorities, understanding and monitoring authoritarianism has become an issue of great political relevance. A reliable and efficient way of assessment lays the necessary foundation to work against these tendencies. Altemeyer’s original scale, the Right Wing Authoritarianism (RWA), was designed to measure authoritarianism as a one-dimensional construct with three aspects. There is an ongoing debate about the dimensionality of authoritarianism though; Funke (2005) developed a three-dimensional, balanced scale that is among the most frequently used in German populations. Its items were criticized with regard to contents, involving questions about related concepts like prejudice, religiousness and conservatism. The same holds true for the recently published Very Short Authoritarianism Scale (VSA) by Bizumic and Duckitt (2018). Their attempt to provide a short alternative to established measures builds on the well-validated, 18-item ACT-scale (Duckitt et al., 2010). It is made up of six items to capture the three aforementioned dimensions of authoritarianism using balanced two-item sets. While the ACT was developed to rid the RWA of its content overlap with criterion variables, the items operationalizing traditionalism or conventionalism are still likely to be culturally sensitive and show large overlap with religiousness. While religiousness generally shows highs correlations with authoritarian attitudes, it is plausible that in certain subgroups or countries, there may be a different connection or no connection at all to authoritarian attitudes (e.g., in former socialist countries). In fact, Lee et al. (2018) found that the correlations of religiousness and political orientation largely vary across countries. Mixing the two constructs, authoritarianism and religiousness, in a single questionnaire may thus obscure the relationship between them. Moreover, with its six items, the VSA may still be unfit for some large-scale purposes. Another widely used method of assessing authoritarianism efficiently applies questions regarding child-rearing values. The most prominent scale in this realm is the four-item Authoritarian Child Rearing Values (ACRV) and its adaptation, the ACRV-2, that has been used in the American National Election Survey (ANES). Participants are asked to choose between two item pairs of desirable qualities when raising a child, one representing authoritarian, the other non-authoritarian values. Even though correlations with the RWA and ACT can be considered acceptable, findings regarding reliability have been inconsistent (according to Bizumic and Duckitt, 2018, reported alpha range between 0.54 and 0.66 while they report an $\alpha = 0.71$ themselves). Most importantly, it is doubtful that the ACRV-2 is capable of capturing all facets of authoritarianism as conceptualized by Altemeyer. Bizumic and Duckitt (2018) argue that while it might be used to operationalize authoritarian submission, authoritarian aggression may not be captured at all. Moreover, MacWilliams (2016) points out that there is an unsettled issue regarding cross-racial validity of the scale, as African-Americans might interpret the questions differently. Another substantial flaw regards the force-choice answering format. Opposition in meaning as well as equal social desirability of paired items in these formats is only assumed (Ray, 1990). Beierlein et al. (2014) tried to eliminate some of these shortcomings by developing an unbalanced, nine-item short scale to measure authoritarianism in its three dimensions, the KSA-3. Unlike other short scales (e.g., Schmidt et al., 1995; Aichholzer and Zeglovits, 2015) its psychometric properties proved to be more than satisfactory. An ultrashort screening scale that covers the full spectrum of authoritarianism and is tested and validated using a representative sample has yet to be developed. It is needed in order to provide a more efficient way to screen for authoritarian tendencies within a society. In the present study, we evaluate the three item, ultrashort version of the authoritarianism scale, based on the concept of Altemeyer (1988), and compare it to the original short scale by Beierlein et al. (2014). After an item analysis, an exploratory factor analysis (EFA) is used to analyze the dimensionality. It is then followed by a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA). As differences in authoritarianism and the support of right-wing extremist positions are often reported between certain groups (e.g., sex and age groups) and factors like employment status and educational background are used to explain mean differences, it is important to inspect measurement invariance as a prerequisite for comparing mean scores. To this end, measurement invariance is tested for these socio-demographic factors and their influence on mean and factor score is evaluated. Finally, construct validity is assessed using the original version of the scale and convergent validity is demonstrated using measures of right-wing attitudes, self-assessment of left/right positioning, as well as generalized and group specific prejudices. Materials and Methods Participants The present study was part of a regular national representative survey of the general population of Germany. Two samples were analyzed using data collected in 2016 (Sample 1), 2017 (Sample 3), and 2018 (Sample 2), by an independent institute for opinion and social research (USUMA, Berlin). The criteria for inclusion were an age of ≥ 14 years and sufficient ability to understand the written German language. All adult participants provided their informed consent. In case of minors enrolled in the present study, informed consent was also obtained from the next of kin, caretakers, or guardians. After a sociodemographic interview, participants completed self-report questionnaires regarding political attitudes, physical and psychological symptoms in the presence (but without any interference) of the interviewer. A random-route sampling procedure with 258 sample points revealed that 4,902 (Sample 1), 5,418 (Sample 2), and 5,160 (Sample 3) households should be contacted as part of the study. Of these, 4,830 households of Sample 1, 5,316 of Sample 2, and 5,093 of Sample 3 were eligible to participate (i.e., were not vacant or without individuals who met the inclusion criterion). The selection of the target persons within the households was carried out according to the Kish selection grid. In total, there were 2,524 participants in Sample 1, 2,516 in Sample 2, and 2,531 in Sample 3 (participation rate 52.7, 47.5, and 49.7% respectively). Due to the shortness of the scale, only participants that completed all three items of the A-US were included, leading to an exclusion of $n = 79$ (Sample 1) and $n = 38$ (Sample 2). As Sample 3 was used for construct validation, all participants with missing values in the nine-item version of the scale were excluded ($n = 36$). Thus, the final samples consisted of 2,465 (Sample 1), 2,478 (Sample 2) and 2,495 subjects (Sample 3). Sociodemographic characteristics of the study samples are presented in Table 1. While the three samples did not show notable differences, when comparing the sex and age groups to data provided by the Federal Statistical Office of Germany (2019), a slight overrepresentation of female participants as well as an underrepresentation of younger age groups could be observed. As these were minor deviations, the data can be assumed to be representative of the German population. Table 1. Sample description based on A-US scores. The study was approved by the Ethical Committee of the Leipzig University (Az: 452-15-21122015 for Sample 1, Az: 132/18-ek for Sample 2 and Az: 418/17-ek for Sample 3). Measures For the present study, we used a three-item version of the Short Scale for Authoritarianism (Kurzzskala Autoritarismus; KSA-3; Beierlein et al., 2014) that is designed to measure authoritarianism on a five-point scale, with 1 indicating strong opposition and 5 indicating strong agreement. The original scale consists of nine items on three dimensions (i.e., aggression, submission, and conventionalism). The items with the highest factor loadings on each dimension were selected for the ultrashort, three-item version, the Authoritarianism – Ultra Short (A-US). This type of item selection insured that the three original dimensions were best represented in the short scale. An overall score was computed by adding the individual scores of each of the three selected items of the ultrashort scale. Original item wording as well as an English translation are provided in Table A1 in the Appendix. Additionally, for construct validation, a shortened six-item score of the original scale was calculated by adding up the scores of the remaining items not selected for the A-US. The Leipzig Scale on Right-Wing Extremist Attitudes (Fragebogen zur Rechtsextremen Einstellung, FRLEF; Decker et al., 2013) assesses right-wing attitudes using six dimensions. Each dimension consists of three items that are to be rated on a five-point scale ranging from 1 = I fully disagree to 5 = I fully agree. Decker et al. (2013) found the questionnaire showed a very good internal consistency of $\alpha = 0.94$. For this study, the total score was used by adding up all item scores. Political orientation was measured using a single-item left-right-self assessment scale (“Thinking about your own political views, how would you rate them on the following scale?”) ranging from 1 = left to 10 = right. Generalized and group specific prejudices were analyzed using parts of the questionnaire developed by the research group around Heitmeyer (2012). It assesses several forms of group-related hostility (Gruppenbezogene Menschenfeindlichkeit; GMF) on a four-point scale ranging from 1 = I fully agree to 4 = I fully disagree. To make the results more accessible, all necessary items were poled so that high scores indicated high values of GMF. In the present study, we took items measuring prejudices against Muslims (two items; $\omega 1 = 0.84$; $\omega 2 = 0.83$), and Sinti and Roma (three items; $\omega 1 = 0.90$; $\omega 2 = 0.91$) from both Samples. Items regarding homophobic attitudes (three items, one inverted; $\omega 1 = 0.83$ as well as sexism (two items, $\omega 1 = 0.86$) were included using additional data from Sample 1. An overall score to account for generalized prejudices was also calculated by adding all used items (ten in Sample 2 and five in Sample 2; $\omega 1 = 0.86$; $\omega 2 = 0.89$). Statistical Analyses On Sample 1, an EFA was conducted to determine the number of factors of the A-US. We then used Sample 2 to confirm the findings using confirmatory factor analysis (CFA). Both subsamples did not differ significantly with regard to A-US mean scores, sex, and age (see Tables 1, 2). Table 2. Descriptive statistics and factor loadings of the A-US items in Sample 1 and Sample 2. For the EFA, principal axis factoring was applied using SPSS. A total of three different indicators were used to identify the factor structure of the A-US: Kaiser Guttman criterion, scree-plot, and Horn’s parallel analysis (PA; Horn, 1965). PA focuses on extracting Eigenvalues from random data sets that have the same number of cases and variables as the original raw data. This procedure is based on the idea that factors of real data should have larger Eigenvalues than those extracted from random data. Consequently, only those factors were retained in the real data that showed Eigenvalues greater than those of the random data (O’Connor, 2000). The parallel analysis engine provided by Patil et al. (2017) was used to create random data. The method was based on PCA factor extraction and used 95th percentile of the Eigenvalues as a threshold instead of the mean to avoid overextraction of factors. Additionally, a CFA was conducted on Sample 2 to confirm the factorial structure of the A-US. To this end, we used R and the packages lavaan and semTools (Rosseel, 2012; semTools Contributors, 2016) and each model was estimated with the robust maximum likelihood method approach (Satorra and Bentler, 2001). Due to the shortness of the A-US with only three items, model fit indices could not be calculated, as a model with three indicators of a latent variable is just-identified. As we did not want to impose additional constraints to the model, only factor loadings and a measure of internal consistency, McDonald’s (1999) ω (Trizano-Hermosilla and Alvarado, 2016), are reported. Additional analyses were conducted using Sample 1 and Sample 2 to test the invariance of the model across sex and age as well as education and employment status using multi-group CFA in R (Meredith, 1993). After testing the factorial structure in each subgroup, measurement invariance was tested in three steps using the configural model first (without constraints), followed by a metric invariant model (with factor loadings constrained to be equal across groups), a scalar invariant model (with factor loadings and item intercepts simultaneously constrained to be equal across groups), and a strict invariant model (with factor loadings, item intercepts, and residuals constrained to be equal across groups). Due to the hierarchy of these nested and increasingly restrictive models, they could then be compared. Due to the large sample size, the χ^2 significance-test was capable of detecting even the smallest model differences (e.g., Putnick and Bornstein, 2016). A non-significant χ^2 test result could thus be seen as a very strong indicator that invariance holds. For the cases of significant χ^2 results we reported differences Δ CFI and Δ gamma Hat (GH, Steiger, 1989) as alternative measures. Values equal to or smaller than 0.01 indicated the invariance of the model (Cheung and Rensvold, 2002; Milfont and Fiecher, 2010). Whenever full scalar invariance could not be assumed, partial invariance was tested by consecutively constraining only two of the three item intercepts to be equal across groups while one was estimated freely. Even though stepwise selection processes like this have been heavily criticized (see Marsh et al., 2018), Gregorich (2006) argues that partial invariance allows for valid comparisons in mean scores as long as two loadings and intercepts are constrained to be equal across groups. Nevertheless, the assumption of partial invariance should always be considered inferior to full scalar invariance. The combined sample was then used to identify possible influences of sociodemographic factors on A-US scores within the SEM framework. For this, latent means were fixed to be equal across groups and model fit was analyzed once again. A significant decline in model fit compared to the strict invariance model was seen as an indicator that differences were present. Latent means were then compared in the strict invariance model between the groups. Finally, R2 was calculated to show the extent of the differences found by comparing between-group-variance in intercepts and latent means to the pooled total variance. Finally, Sample 3 was used for construct validation calculating Pearson correlation with a reduced version of the original scale containing only those six items not included in the A-US. Correlations were analyzed in all relevant subgroups. Furthermore, Pearson correlations were used to explore convergent validity of the A-US with related constructs, i.e., right-wing extremist attitudes, left-right-self-assessment, and different measures of prejudice. Results Descriptive Statistics Descriptive statistics for each item were reported separately for Sample 1 and Sample 2 in Table 2. While skewness and kurtosis lay within the commonly agreed upon cut-offs of

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