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ABSTRACT

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This paper discusses new psychometric analyses that improve capabilities for relating performance on achievement test items to instruction received by examinees. The modeling discussion is closely tied to data for eighth graders in the United States provided by the Second International Mathematics Study (SIMS), comprising not only responses to a set of achievement items at the beginning and end of the eighth grade but also a relatively rich set of student background information, including opportunity-to-learn information specific to each item. Taking item response theory (IRT) as a starting point, this paper summarizes B. Muthen's work on a set of new psychometric analysis techniques that give a richer description of achievement-instruction relations. Six topics that expand standard IRT and deal specifically with the effects of varying instructional opportunities are discussed: (1) variation in IRT measurement characteristics; (2) multidimensional modeling; (3) modeling with heterogeneity levels; (4) estimation of trait scores; (f.) predicting achievement by relating trait to student background; and (6) relationship of change in general and specific traits to instructional opportunities. The core test of 40 items used in the SIMS, four tables, and 38 graphs are provided. (TJH)

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Instructionally Sensitive P~ychometrics:

Applications to the Second International Mathematics Study

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1. Introduction

This paper discusses new psychometric analyses that improve capabilities for relating performance on achievement test items to instruction received by the examinees. The modeling discussion will be closely tied to data for U.S. eight grade students provided by the Second International Mathematics Study (SIMS), comprising not only responses to a set of achievement items at the beginning and end of the eighth grade but also a relatively rich set of student background information, including opportunity-to-learn (OTL) information specific to each item (Crosswhite, Dossey, Swafford, McKnight, & Cooney, 1985).

Item Response Theory (IRT) is a standard psychometric approach for analyzing a set of dichotomously scored test items. Standard IRT modeling ass mes that the items measure a uniaimensional trait. This particular kind of latent trait model is used to assess the measurement qualities of each item and to give each examinee a latent trait score. As will be shown, however, IRT modeling is limited in ways that are a hindrance to properly relating achievement responses to instructional experiences. Taking IRT as a starting point, this paper summarizes the author's work on a set of new psychometric analysis techniques that give a richer description of achievement- instruction relations. Six topics that expand standard IRT and specifically deal with effects of varying instructional opportunities (OTL) will be discussed as outlined below.

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1. Variation in latent trait measurement characteristics. This relates to the classic IRT concern of "item bias", here translated as the absence or presence of an added advantage due to OTL in getting an item right.

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2. Multidimensional modeling. Inclusion of narrowly defined, specific factors closely related to instructional units in the presence of a general, dominant trait.

3. Modeling with heterogeneity in levels. Analyses that take into account that achievement data often are not sampled from a single student population but one with heterogeneity of performance levels.

4. Estimation of trait scores. Deriving scores based on both performance and background information for both general and specific traits.

5. Predicting achievement. Latent trait modeling that relates the trait to student background var ibles.

6. Analyzing change. Relating change in general and specific traits to OTL.

The SIMS data will be used throughout to illustrate the new methods. All analyses will be carried out within the modeling framework of the LISCOMP computer program (Muthen, 1984, 1987).

Section 2 describes the SIMS data to be analyzed. Section 3 describes general features of the psychometric problem. Section 4 presents a descriptive analysis of the achievement - instruction relation for the SIMS data and sets the stage for later modeling. Sections $5 - 10$ discuss methods topics $1 - 6$ listed above.

2. The SIMS data

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The Second International mathematics Study (Crosswhite, Dossey, Swafford, McKnight, & Cooney, 1985) was conducted in order to study variations in mathematics knowledge for eighth and twelfth graders within and across several countries including the United States, Japan, France, etc. To this aim, multiple-choice mathematics achievement responses were collected on items in the areas of arithmetic, algebra, geometry, measurement, and statistics. The test was administered both in the Fall and in the Spring of each grade. The achie/ement test consisted of 180 items distributed among four test forms. Each student responded to a core test of 40 items and one of four randomly assigned rotated forms with about 35 items. For the part of the sample that we will be concerned with, the core test was administered both during the Fall and the Spring while the rotated forms varied. It is well known that particularly eighth grade math curricula vary widely, certainly for students in the U.S. To be able to better describe the variation in student math achievement, information related to these curricular differences was therefore also collected. A detailed part of

this information was student opportunity-to-learn (OTL) for the topics covered by each test item. For U.S eighth grade math students, information was also collected in order to make a distinction between "tracks" or class type, yielding a categorization into Remedial, Typical, Enriched, and Algebra classes. This classification was based on teacher questionnaire data and on information on textbooks used. A variety of other teacher-related information was also collected, such as topic emphasis, textbooks, and teaching style. Student background information on family, career interests, and attitudes was also collected. We will concentrate our analyses on U.S eighth graders for whom there are about 4,000 observations from both Fall and Spring randomly sampled from about 200 randomly sampled classrooms, varying in size from about 5 to 35 students. We will be particularly concerned with analyses of the 40 core items, but will also report on analyses of the four rotated forms which, when combined with the core items, consist of about 75 items administered to about 1,000 students taking each form. The rotated form analyses will be presented as a cross-validation of findings for the core items. In this way, the SIMS data provide a uniquely rich set of data with which to study instructionally sensitive psychometrics.

In the analyses that follow, a key piece of instructional information was obtained from the teacher questionnaire. For each item teachers were asked two questions regarding student opportunity to learn.

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Question 1:

"During this school year did you teach or review the mathematics needed to answer the item correctly?"

1. No

- 2. Yes
- 3. No response

Question 2:

"If in this school year you did not teach or review the mathematics needed to answer this item correctly, was it mainly because?"

- 1. It had 3een taught prior to this school year
- 2. It will be taught later (this year or later)
- 3. It is not in the school curriculum at all
- 4. For other reasons
- 5. No response

Given these responses, opportunity-to-learn (OTL) le, el will be defined as:

No OTL: Question $1 = 1$, question $2 = 2, 3, 4$, or 5 Prior OTL: Question $1 = 1$, or 3 and question $2 = 1$ This Year OTL: Quastion $1 = 2$, question $2 = 9$ (other response combinations had zero frequencies)

In most analyses to follow, Prior OTL and This Year OTL will be

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combined into a single OTL category.

3. The general problem

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In general, psychometric modeling assumes independent and identically (i.i.d) distributed observations from some relevant population. This assumption is also made in IRT. The assumption of identically distributed observations is not realistic, however, using data of the SIMS kind to describe either relationships between what is measured (achievement responses) and what the measurements are attempting to capture (the traits), or how traits vary with relevant covariates such as instructional exposure and student background. This is because of the instructional heterogeneity of the students analyzed. The distribution of responses conditional on various trait values cannot be expected to be identical for a student who has had no specific instruction on the item topic and a student who has. The trait distribution cannot be expected to be the same for students in enriched classes as for students in typical classes. The students are naturally sampled from heterogeneous populations. It is true that increased homogeneity can be obtained by dividing the students into groups based on instructional experiences. However, such groupings may have to be very detailed to achieve their purpose and any simple grouping may be quite arbitrary. A more satisfactory approach is to use modeling that allows for heterogeneity, using parameters that vary for varying instructional experiences. Such modeling also accomplishes the goal of instructionally sensitive

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psychometrics, namely explicitly describing the achievement response-instructional experiences relations.

4 Descriptive analyses

It is informative to consider descriptively how the achievement responses vary with instructional exposure. This forms a basis for our subsequent modeling efforts. We will study this in terms of both univariate and bivariate achievement distributions using the posttest core items administered to the U.S. eighth graders. We will also study the change in univariate responses from pretest to posttest.

4.1 Univariate response

Consider first the univariate responses for the posttest. The wording of the core items is given in the appendix. The proportion correct for each item is described in Table 1, broken down by the class type categories Remedial, Typical, Enriched, and Algebra and by the OiL categories No OTL, This Year OTL, and Prior OTL. From the totals it is seer

Insert Table 1 here

that both class type and OTL have a strong effect on proportion correct.

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For most items the proportion correct is higher for Enriched and Algebra classes than for Remedial and Typical classes. For almost all items the proportion correct increases when moving from No OTL to This Year OTL to Prior OTL. The reason why Prior OTL gives higher proportion correct than This Year OTL is partly because Prior OTL is more common for Enriched and Algebra classes to which we presume students of higher achievement levels have been selected. OTL appears to have an overall positive effect on proportion correct also when controlling for class type, at least for typical classes. Also, when controlling for OTL, class type seems to still have a strong effect.

These univariate relationships are informative but confound effects of instructional exposure with effects of student achievement level. For example, the higher proportion correct for a certain item for students with Prior OTL may be solely due to such students having a higher achievement level on the whole test. It would be of interest to know if students with the same achievement level perform differently on a certain item for different instructional exposure. To this aim we may consider the total score on the posttest as the general mathematics achievement level of each student and study the variation of proportion correct for each item as a function of instructional exposure conditionally on the general achievement level. We have carried this out using the dichotomous version of OTL, combining Prior OTL with This Year OTL into a single OTL category. For each value of the achievement variable we then have a proportion correct for a No OTL

and an OTL group and can study whether OTL makes a difference. Conversely, for each of the two OTL categories we will present the distribution of the achievement variable in order to study whether having OTL for an item implies that these students have a higher general achievement level. These plots are given in Figures 1 - 9.

Insert Figures $1 - 9$ here

Figure 1 describes items 1, 2, and 3. The left-most panel shows the total score distribution given No OTL and OTL, respectively. We note that the score distributions have different locations with the OTL distribution having somewhat higher mean, supporting the notion that studeints who receive OTL perform better as measured by this test. We also note that the variances of the two distributions are about the same. The score distributions shown are representative of all core items.

The right-most part of Figure 1 and Figures $2 - 9$ contain curves showing the proportion correct for given total score for the two OTL categories. For each item and both OTL categories, proportion correct increases with total score indicating that for both OTL categories the item is a good measurement indicator of the general achievement variable which the total score represents. It is particularly noteworthy that this is true also for the No OTL category and that the No OTL and

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OTL curves most often are very close. Students whc, according to their teachers, have not been taught the mathematics needed to answer the item correctly still appear to have a high probability of answering the item correctly and this probability increases with increasing total score. This may indicate that students can to a large degree draw on related knowledge to solve the item. It may also indicate unreliability in the teachers' OTL responses. However, the differences in score distributions for the core items show that the OTL measures have consistent and strong relations to the total score. Instead of unreliability there may be a component of invalidity involved in the teachers' responses, where OTL may to some extend be confounded with average achievement level in the class and/or the item's difficulty.

The score distributions show that OTL is correlated with performance. Our hypothesis is that OTL helps to induce an increased level of the general achievement variable and that in general it is this increased level that increases the probability of a correct answer, not OTL directly. In this way, moving from the No OTL status to the OTL status implies a move upwards to the right along the common curve for No OTL and OTL.

There are some exceptions to the general finding of common curves for the No OTL and OTL categories. For example, items 3, 17, and 39 show a large positive effect of having OTL. Several other items with sizeable numbers of students in the two OTL categories also show

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positive effects. This means 'hat for these items, the added advantage of having OTL is not fully explained by a corresponding increase in total score. OTL directly affects the success in solving the item correctly. From Table 1 we find that for the three items listed, the proportion correct increases strongly when moving from the No OTL category to the OTL categories. However, Table 1 cannot be counted on for finding items with direct OTL effects of this kind, since several other items also show strong increases in proportion correct due to OTL. We will return to the interpretation of this type of effect in Section 4. Note also that with the exception c^c item 3 any OTL effect appears to be such that the two curves are approximately parallell, implying that the OTL effect is constant across achievement levels. For item 3 the OTL advantage increases with increasing achievement level, perhaps because it is a difficult item.

4.2 Bivariate responses

The various descriptive analyses carried out for the univariate responses can be carried over to bivariate responses. A common measure for studying relationships among dichotomous items is that of the tetrachoric correlation coefficient (Lord & Novick, 1968). In line with the previous section, we may study the strength of association between each pair of achievement items by computing three sets of correlations, using all students, students with No OTL on neither of the pair of variables, and students with OTL on both of the pair of

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variables. For each of the sets, the average correlation across all pairs gives an indication of the degree of homogeneity of the items in their measurement of achievement. It is of interest to study if this homogeneity is affected by OTL. Further, in line with the previous section, the corresponding three sets of correlations may be computed conditional on the total test score viewed as a general achievement variable. For lack of space these analyses will not be presented here, except to note that the homogeneity of correlations does not seem to be affected by OTL.

4.3 Change in univariate responses

The SIMS core items also provide the opportunity to study changes in proportion correct for each item from the Fall testing to the Spring testing. This change can be related to OTL. For each item we may distinguish between three groups of students, those who did not have OTL before the pretest or before the posttest (the No OTL group), those who had OTL before the pretest (Prior OTL), and those who did not have OTL before the pretest but did have OTL before the posttest (This year OTL). The change for the No OTL group gives an indication of change due to learning on related topics. The change for the Prior OTL group gives an indication of effects related to practice, review, and, perhaps, forgetting. The change for the group having This Year OTL reflects the direct exposure to the topic represented by the item. These changes can studied in Table 1. Table 1 shows that, where changes occur, they are

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are largely pcsitive for each OTL category with the largest changes occuring for students in the category of This Year OTL as expected. This may be taken to support the dependability of the teacher-reported OTL measure.

5. Variations in latent trait measurement characteristics

The study of the univariate achievement responses in Section 4.1 showed that the set of core test items served as good indicators of the total test score. We may hypothesize that this test score is a proxy for a general mathematics achievement variable as measured by the combined content of the set of core items. However, the total test score is a fallible measure and what we are interested in are the relationships between the items and the true score and estimates of the true scores. This is a situaticn for which Item Response Theory (IRT) has been proposed as a solution used (see for example, Lord, 1980). The curves of Figures 1 9 are in IRT language called empirical item characteristic curves, which as theoretical counterparts have the conditional probability curves describing the probability correct on an item given a latent trait score. We will now describe the IRT model and how it can be extended to take into account instructional heterogeneity in its measurement characteristic.

In formulas the IRT model may be briefly described as follows. Let y^{\star} be a p vector of continuous latent response variables that correspond to

14 1_c specific skills needed to solve each item ccrrectly. For item j,

(1) $y_j = 0$, if $y \star_1 \le \tau_j$ 1, otherwise

where 0 denotes the incorrect answer, 1 denotes the correct answer, and τ_{j} is a threshold parameter for item j corresponding to its difficulty. Assume also that the latent response variable $\mathsf{y} \star_{\frac{1}{\mathsf{z}}}$ is a funct J a function of a single continuous latent trait η and a residual ϵ_j ,

(2) $y \star_{j} = \lambda_{j} \eta + \epsilon_{j}$.

where λ is a slope parameter for item j, interpretable as a factor loading. With proper assumptions on the right-hand-side variables, this gives rise to the two-parameter normal ogive IRT model. For each item there are two parameters τ_j and λ_j . The conditi J . The conditional probability of a correct response on item j is

(3) P (y_j = 1 I
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) = Φ [(- τ _j + λ _j η) $\theta^{-\frac{1}{2}}$]

where θ is the variance of ϵ . This means that the threshold τ i determines the item's difficulty, that is the horizontal location of the probability curve, and the loading λ_{ij} determines the slope of the probability curve.

In Section 4.1 we investigated descriptively whether the conditional

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proportion correct given total test score varied across OTL groups. In IRT language this is referred to as investigating item bias or using a more neutral term, differential item functioning. Standard IRT assumes invariant item functioning across different groups of individuals. A variety of bias detection schemes related to IRT have been discussed in the literature. Concerns about item bias due to instructional heterogeneity have recently been raised in the educational measurement literature. Conflicting results have been found in empirical studies. For example, Mehrens and Phillips (1986, 1987) found little differences in measurement characteristics of standardized tests due to varying curricula in schools, while Miller and Linn (1988), using the SIMS data, found large differences related to opportunity to learn although these differences were not always interpretable. Muthen (1989) pointed out methodological problems in assessing differential item functioning when many items may be biased. He suggested a new approach based on a model which extends the standard IRT. The analysis is carried out by the LISCOMP program (Muthen,1987) . This approach is particulary suitable to the SIMS data situation with its item specific OTL information and it will be briefly reviewed here.

Let x be a vector of p OTL variables, one for each achievement item. The x variables may be continuous, but assume for simplicity that x_{j} is dichotomous with $x_i = 0$ for No OTL and $x_i = 1$ for OTL. Consider the $J \qquad \qquad J \qquad \qquad$ modification of equation (2)

(4) $y^* = \lambda \eta + B x + \epsilon$

where in general we restrict B to be a diagonal $p \times p$ matrix. The diagonal element for item j is denoted β_{j} . The OTL variables are also seen as influencing the trait η ,

(5) $\eta = \gamma^2 x + \zeta$

where γ is a p-vector of regression parameter slopes and ζ is a residual.

It follows that

(6)
$$
P(y_j = 1 \text{ } y, x_j) = \Phi [(-\tau_j + \beta_j x_j + \lambda_j \eta) V(y \star_j I \eta)^{-\frac{1}{2}}]
$$

In effect, then, the $\pmb{\beta}_\textbf{j}$ coefficient indirates the added or reduced difficulty in the item due to OTL. Equivalently, using equation (4), we may see this effect as increasing y^*_{j} , the specific skill needed to solve item j.

We note that this model allows for differential item functioning in terms of difficulty but not in terms of the slope related parameter λ_i . This is in line with the data analysis findings of Section 4.1 where little difference in slopes of the conditional proportion correct curves was found across OTL groups (item 3 was an exception; we assume that this item will be reasonably well fitted by a varying difficulty modal). More general modeling is in principle possible, but the data features do

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not seem to warrant such an extra effort.

This model disentangles the effects of OTL in an interesting way. Equation (5) states that OTL has an effect on the general achievement trait as measured by the γ coefficients. Here we are interested in finding positive effects of instruction. Through the expected increase in η , such effects also have an indirect positive effect on the probability of a correct item response. The strength of η 's effect on item j is measured by the coefficient λ_{i} ; see equations (4) and (6). In addition to the indirect effect of OTL for item j determined by γ and λ_j , there is also the possibility of a direct OTL effect on item j, which is determined by the β_{j} coefficient; see equations (4) and (6). Any direct effect indicates that the specific skill needed to solve item j draws not only on the general achievement trait but also on OTL . The size of the y effect indicates the extent to which the achievement trait is sensitive to instruction. The size of the $\pmb{\beta}_j$ effect indicates the amount of exposure sensitivity or instructional "over-sensitivity" in item j. While positive γ effects correspond to a positive educational outcome, positive $\beta_{\dot{1}}$ effects are of less educational interest in that they demonstrate effects of teaching that influences very narrow content domains. From a test construction point of view items that show such exposure sensitivity are less suitable for inclusion in standardized tests, since they are prone to "item bias" in groups of examinees with varying instructional history . If such item bias goes undetected, IRT analysisis distorted. In the modeling presented above,

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however, exposure sensitivity is allowed for

and the analysis does not suffer from the presence of such effects.

Muthen, Kao, and Burstein (1988) presents examples of analysis of exposure sensitivity using the dichotomous OTL groupings. However, we will first consider an example from an earlier draft of this paper, where the OTL categories No OTL, This Year OTL, Prior OTL were used. Figure 10 shows the estimated item characteristic curves for item 17 having to do with acute angles. Since there are three OTL

Insert Figure 10 here

categories, there are three curves corresponding to three difficulty values. Since the curves for both This Year OTL and Prior GTL are above the No OTL curve, the β effects are positive for these two OTL groups. Exposure to the concept of acute angles produces a specific skill, which has the same effect as a reduced item difficulty, and this skill is not included in the general achievement trait. It is interesting to relate this finding to the percentage correct on item 17 broken down by OTL group as given in Table 1. Percentage correct increases dramatically from the No OTL category to the OTL categories, but the percentage correct is slightly higher for Prior OTL than for This Year OTL. For item 17 the Prior OTL students may do better than This

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Year OTL students, but Figure 10 shows that the recency of OTL gives an advantage for students at the same achievement trait level. Comparing the estimated item characteristic curves of Figure 10 with the empirical curves of Figure 5 we find a large degree of similarity but also differences. The estimated curves represent more correct and precise estimates of these curves.

Muthen, Kao, and Burstein (1988) found substantial exposure sensitivity in items 3, 16, 17, 38, and 39, corresponding to solving for x, the product of negative integers, acute angles, percentages, and the coordinate system (see appendix). While items 3, 17 and 39 provided rather poor measurements of the achievement trait as indicated by their estimated λ values, that was not the case for the other two. The authors hypothesized that the exposure sensitivity corresponded to early learning of a definitional nature. Further analyses of the rotated form items, carried out by Kao (1989), supported this hypothesis. For example, the rotated forms showed exposure sensitivity for items covering square root problems. Overall, about $15 - 30$ % of the items exhibit mild exposure sensitivity, while only about $10 - 15$ % exhibit strong exposure sensitivity. We may note that these percentages are considerably lower than the Miller and Linn (1988) findings using related parts of the SIMS data and standard IRT methodology. The effects of OTL on the achievement trait will be discussed in later sections.

6. Multidimensional modeling

Standard IRT modeling assumes a unidimensional trait as was also done in the previous section. For a carefully selected set of test items, this is often a good approximation. However, in many achievement applications, it is reasonable to assume that sets of items draw on more than one achievement trait.

Muthen (1978) presented a method for the factor analysis of dichotomous items, where the model is

- (7) $y^* = \Lambda \eta + \epsilon$
- (3) $V (y^*) = \Lambda \Psi \Lambda^* + \Theta$

where Λ is a p x m factor loading matrix, Ψ is a factor covariance matrix, and Θ is a diagonal matrix of residual variances. In line with item analysis tradition (see Lord and Novick, 1968), Muthen fitted the model to a matrix of sample.tetrachorics. For an overview of factor analysis with dichotomous items, see Mislevy (1986).

Although of great substantive interest, models with many minor factors are very hard to identify by usual means of analysis. For instance, assume as we will for the SIMS data that a general achievement factor is the dominant factor in that it influences the responses to all items.

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Assume that, in addition to this general factor there are several specific factors, orthogonal to the general factor, that influence small sets of items of common, narrow content. It is well known that such models with continuous data cannot be easily recovered by ordinary exploratory factor analysis techniques involving rotations. This problem carries over directly to dimensionality analysis of dichotomous items using tetrachoric correlations.

Consider as an illustration of the problem an artificial model for forty dichotomous items. Assume that one general factor influences all items and eight specific factors each influence a set of five items. Let the general factor loadings be 0.5 and 0.6 while the specific factor loadings are 0.3 and 0.4. Let the factors be standardized to unit variances and let the factors be uncorrelated. The eigenvalues of the corresponding artificial correlation matrix are shown in Figure 11. Such a "scree plot" is used for

Insert Figure 11 here

determining the number of factors in an item set. The number of factors is taken to correspond to the first brake point in the plot where the eigenvalues level off. If the first eigenvalue is considerably larger than the others and the others are approximately equal, this is usually

taken as a strong indication of unidimensionality. Figure 11 clearly indicates unidimensionality despite the existence of the eight specific factors. There would be no reason to consider solutions of higher dimensionality.

As a comparison, Figure 12 shows the eigenvalues for the tetrachoric correlation matrix for the 39 core items of the SIMS data. The two eigenvalue plots are rather similar.

Insert Figure 12 here

Models similar to the artifical one considered above have been studied by Schmid and Leiman (1957), where it was pointed out that the above hypothesized nine-factor model can also be represented as an eight factor model with correlated factors. Each of the eight factors may be viewed as a function of both a general, second-order factor and the corresponding specific factor of the nine-factor model. The specific factor is then viewed as a residual contribution, orthogonal to the second order factor. Hence, Schmid and Leiman used the term hierarchical factor analysis. Using exploratory factor analysis on the artifical correlation matrix, an oblique rotation of the eight factor solution did indeed identify the eight correlated factors of such a hierarchical reformulation of the model. Schmid and Leiman (1957)

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gave formulas for transforming such a solution back to the original model with a general factor and eight specific factors, all factors being uncorrelated. However, without knowing the correct number of factors, there would have been no guide to choosing this eight-factor solution.

The usefulness of hiearchical factor analysis has recently been pointed out by Gustafsson (1988a, b). He proposed to circumvent the difficulties of using exploratory factor aralysis by formulating confirmatory factor analysis models. Hypothesizing a certain specific factor structure in addition to a general factor, the confirmatory model enables the estimation of factors with very narrow content. Applications of this type of modeling to the SIMS data are being considered by the author in collaboration with Burstein, Gustafsson, Webb, Kim, Novak, and Short. In line with our previous modeling, we may write a simple version of this model as

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(9) \ \ y^*_{j} = \lambda_{G_j} \eta_G + \lambda_{S_j} \eta_{S_k} + \epsilon_j
$$

where y^* is the latent response variable for item j (cf. the Section 4) model), $\eta_{\rm G}$ is the general achievement factor, $\eta_{\rm S_L}$ is the specific factor for item j, and ϵ_j is a residual. The three right hand side variables are taken to be uncorrelated. This means that the items belonging to a certain specific factor correlate not only due to the general factor but also due to this specific factor.

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In this simplified version of the model, it assumed that each item measures only one specific factor. For identification purposes we assume that each specific factor $\eta_{\mathsf{S}_{\mathbf{k}}}$ is measured by at least two items. Also for identification purposes, our baseline model will set $\lambda_{\text{S}_1} = 1$ for all j's, although this can be relaxed as a need arises as will be discussed below. In this way, the general factor is assumed to influence each item to a different degree, while the specific factor has the same influence on all items in the corresponding set.

This multidimensional confirmatory factor analysis model allows an interesting variance component model interpretation. Standardizing the general factor variance to unity, while letting the specific factor variances be free parameters, the model implies a decomposition of the latent response variable variances into a general factor component, a specific factor component, and an error component:

$$
(10) \quad V (y \star_{j}) = \lambda_{G_{j}}^{2} + \psi_{S_{k}} + \theta_{j}
$$

where ψ_{S_i} is the variance of the specific factor k. Since the items are k dichotomous, the variances of the y*'s are standardized to one by restrictions on the θ_i 's. The relative sizes of the first two terms on the right hand side of (10), the general and the specific components, are of particular interest. The specific component can also be interpreted as the average correlation remaining between items belonging to specific factor k when holding the general factor constant.

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. The model can be estimated by confirmatory factor analysis techniques for dichotomous items using the LISCOMP computer program, see Muthen (1978, 1987).

The SIMS items of the core and the rotated forms were classified into subsets corresponding to specific factors defined both by content and procedure. Examples of the narrow item domains that were considered are: Arithmetic with signed numbers (core items 3, 16, 25), percent calculations (core items 2, 34, 36, 38), estimations skills (size, distance; core items $6, 8, 9$, and angular measurements (core items 17, 19, 21, 22).

The analysis steps are as follows. For a given hypothesized set of specific factors, a confirmatory factor analysis run can be performed. The initial model may then be refined in several steps. An inappropriate combination of items for a specific factor gives rise to a low or negative variance component estimate for this specific factor. Modifications may be assisted by inspection of model misfit indices. For this model a useful index is related to the loadings of the specific factors, $\lambda_{\mathcal{S}_i}$, which are f : :ed to unity in the baseline model. The sign and size of the derivatives of these loadings are c^e interest. A positive value for a certain item indicates that if the loading is free to be estimated, the estimated value will be smaller than one. In effect, this allows the estimate of the variance component for the specific factor at hand to increase. This is because the specific variance component is

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related to the average correlation of the specific factor items, conditional on the general factor, where the decrease in the factor loading for a certain item means that the contribution from this item is weighted down. Thus modifying the initial analysis, items that obtain very low or negative specific factor loadings are candidates for exclusion from the set assigned to this specific factor. This modification process may be performed in several iterations. In the analyses performed for the SIMS data, t'us procedure appeared to produce substantively meaningful results in that the items that were singled out clearly had features that distinguished them from the others in the set.

Table 2 gives the estimated variance components for core items corresponding to three of the specific factors.

Insert Table 2 here

It is seen that the variance contribution from the specific factors can be as large as 50% of that of the general factor and are therefore of great practical significance. This is particularly so since the sets of items for a specific factor correspond closely to instructional units. Analyses of the rotated forms replicated most of the specific factors found for the core.

The confirmatory factor analysis procedure described is a cumbersome one involving many iterations and ... any subjective decisions. An attempt was therefore made to find an approach which would involve fewer steps and a more objective analysis. It was reasoned that if the influence of the general factor could be removed from the item correlations, the remaining correlations would be due to the specific factors alone. Such residual correlations could then be factor analyzed by regular exploratory techniques, at least if nesting of specific factors within each other was ignored. Given a proxy for the general factor, the residual correlations could be obtained by bivariate probit regressions of all pairs of items on the proxy, using the LISCOMP program.

An attempt was first made to approximate the general factor for the posttest core items with the posttest total score. However, this produced almost zero residual correlations. Instead, the pretest total score was used for the posttest items. An exploratory factor analysis of these residual correlations, using an orthogonal rotation by Varimax, resulted in eleven factors with eigenvalues greater than one. The interpretation of these factors showed an extraordinary high degree of agreement with the specific factors previously obtained. The best agreement was obtained for factors that had obtained the largest variance component estimates. The exploratory analysis also suggested a few items to be added to the specific factors as defined earlier. The agreement of these two very different approaches is remarkable and it is interesting that the pretest score appears to be a better proxy for the

 $\frac{28}{2}$

general factor at the posttest occasion than the posttest score. This may indicate that the general factor is a relatively stable trait related to the achievement level before eighth grade instruction; we note from Table i that This Year OTL is the most prevalent category. Controlling for posttest score may in contrast control for a combination of the general factor and specific factors.

It is interesting to note that analyses of the core items administered at the pretest gave very similar results in terms of specific factors identified by the confirmatory approach. This indicates stability of the specific factors over the eighth grade. Attempting to compute residual correlations for exploratory factor analysis again gave near zero values when controlling for the total score, the pretest in this case, and this approach had to be abandoned.

7. Modeling with heterogeneity in levels

The factor analysis of the previous section was performed under the regular assumption of identically distributed observations, that is all students are assumed to be sampled from the same population with one set of parameters. However, we have already noted that the students have widely varying instructional histories and that the homogeneity of student populations is no' a realistic assumption. This is a common problem in educational data analysis which has been given rather little attention. We may ask how this heterogeneity affects our analysis and

 $\mathbf{39}_{\cap}$

if it can be taken into account in our modeling.

Muthen (1988a) considers covariance structure modeling in populations with heterogeneous mean levels. This research considers both the effect of incorrectly ignoring the heterogeneity and proposes a method to build the heterogeneity into the model. The method is directly applicable to the multidimensional factor analysis model considered in the previous section and can also be carried out within the LISCOMP framework. Consider the model of equation (7)

(11) $y^* = \Lambda \eta + \epsilon$

In the previous section we made the usual standardization of E (η_i) = 0 for all observations i and assumed \vee (η_i) = Ψ . However, we know that it is unrealistic to assume that for example students from different class types have the same factor means levels and we may instead want to assume that the means vary with class type such that for student i in class c we have E ($\eta_{\rm ic}$) = $\alpha_{\rm c}$. As pointed out in Muthen (1988a) this may be accomplished by considering in addition to (11) the equations

$$
(12) \ \eta_{\rm ic} = \Gamma \mathbf{x}_{\rm c} + \mathbf{\zeta}_{\rm ic}
$$

where x_c represents a vector of class type dummy variable values for class c, Γ is a parameter matrix, and $\zeta_{\rm ic}$ is a residual vector for student i in class c. We assume that conditional on class type

d.

membership the factor means vary while the factor covariance matrix remains constant,

$$
(13) \mathbb{E} (\eta_{\text{ic}} \mathbf{I} \mathbf{x}_{\text{c}}) = \mathbf{\Gamma} \mathbf{x}_{\text{c}}
$$

$$
(14) \quad \vee \quad (\eta_{\rm ic} \, 1 \times_{\rm c}) = \Psi
$$

The modeling also assumes that the matrices Λ and Θ are constant across class types, so that

(15)
$$
E(y \star \mathbf{I} \times_{c}) = \Lambda \Gamma \times_{c}
$$

$$
(16) V (y \star 1 x_c) = \Lambda \Psi \Lambda^{-} + \Theta
$$

It is interesting to note that the assumption of constancy of the conditional covariance matrix V ($y*$ I x_c) is in line with the findings of constancy of the homogeneity of correlations found in Section 4.2

The structure imposed on the parameter matrices of (15) and (16) may correspond to an exploratory or a confirmatory factor analysis model. Muthen (1988a) points out that the conditional covariance matrix of (i 6) is not in general the same as the marginal covariance matrix V (y^*). In our context this means that even when we have the same factor analysis structure in the different class types this covariance structure does not hold in the total group of students. The approach

outlined here essentially provides a mean-adjusted analysis of pooled covariance matrices assumed to be equal in the populatior.. In our situation the analysis effectively is carried out on pooled tetrachoric correlation matrices. This modeling has two important outcomes. The dimensionality analysis can be carried out without distortion due to the differences in factor mean levels across class types and the factor mean levels can be estimated.

The above mean-adjusted analysis was carried out on the SIMS core items using the multidimensional factor model from Table 2 of the previous section. Factor mean differences were allowed for class type using three dummy variables and also gender. We will concentrate our discussion of the results on the factor structure. Despite large mean differences across class type for the general achievement factor, a factor structure very similar to the previous one emerged. The same specific factors showed large and small variances, respectively. Hence, the potential for a distorted structure is not realized in these data. The results are presented in parentheses in Table 2. It is seen that the variance contributions of the general factor are considerably reduced as compared to the first approach.

The reduction in variance contribution from the general factor is natural since holding class type constant reduces the individual differences in the general achievement trait due to selection of students. If the inference is to the mix of students encountered in

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the SIMS data the unreduced variation in the trait is the correct one, but this variation is not representative for a student from any given class type. It is also interesting to note that the specific factor variances are not similarly reduced by holding class type constant, presumably indicating that these specific skills are largely unrelated to the student differences represented by class type.

8. Estimation of trait scores

Sections 5, 6, and 7 have considered various factor analysis models for the achievement responses. Assuming known or well-estimated parameter values for these models it is of interest to estimate each student's score on the factors of these models. For the standard, unidimensional IRT model estimation of the trait values is a standard task which may be carried out by maximum likelihood, Bayes' modal (maximum a posteriori), or expected a posteriori estimators (see for example Bock & Mislevy, 1986). The instructionally sensitive models we have considered for the SIMS data have however brought us outside this standard situation in the following three respects:

(i) In line with Section 5 we want to consider factor score estimation that takes into account that certain items have different difficulty level depending on the sutdents' OTL level.

(ii) In line with Section 6 we want to consider factor scores for both

the general achievement factor and the specific factors in the multidimensional model.

(iii) In line with Section 7 we want to consider factor scores estimation that takes into account differences in student achievement level.

We note that (i) and (iii) are quite controversial since these points raise the issue of estimating achievement scores based not only on the student's test responses but also his/her instructional background. For example Bock (1972) has argued that prior information on groups should not be used in comparisons of individuals across groups. Nevertheless, it would seem that students who have had very limited OTL on a set of test items will be unfairly disadvantaged in comparison with students with different irstructional exposure. The aim may instead be to obtain achievement scores for given instructional experiences.

Point (ii) is of considerable interest. While a rough proxy for the general achivernent score is easily obtainable as the total test score, the adding of items corresponding to specific factors would involve only a few items resulting in a very unreliable score. As a contrast, estimating the specific factor scores draws on the correlated responses from all other items.

The following estimation procedure was discussed in Muthen and Short

(1988) and handles all three cases above. For various d insity and probability functions g, consider the a posteriori distribution of the factors of η ,

(14) $g(\eta \circ y, x) = \phi(\eta \circ x) g(y \circ \eta, x) / g(y \circ x)$

Here, the first term on the right hand side represents a normal prior distribution for η conditional on x , where as before x represents instructional background variables such as OTL and r:ass type. In line with Section 7 the factor covariance matrix may be taken as constant given x, while the factor means may vary with x. The second term on the right hand side represents the product of the item characteristic curves, which may vary in difficulty across OTL levels as discussed in Section 5 .

Muthen and Short (1988) considered an example of the situation of (i) and (iii). They generated a random sample of 1,000 observations from a model with forty items measuring a unidimensional trait. Oservations were also generated from forty OTL variables and five other background variables. All background variables were assumed to influence the trait while the first twenty OTL variables had direct effects on their corresponding items, giving rise to exposure sensitivity in these items. Among other results, Muthen and Short considered differences in factor score estimates using the above method and the traditional IRT method. In Table 3 comparisons of the two corresponding score distributions are

35 $3C$
presented by quartiles, broken down in two parts - students with a high total sum of OTL and students with a low sum. The table demonstrates that for students of the low OTL group, estimated scores are on the whole Higher with the new method, corresponding to an adjustment for having had less exposure, while for the high OTL group the estimated scores are on the whole lower for the new method.

Insert Table 3 here

Ongoing work by Muthen and Short investigates situation (ii) and the precision with which scores for specific factors can be estimated. Once the estimated factor scores have been calculated they may conveniently be related to various instructional variables and may also studied for change from pretest to posttest.

9. Predicting achievement

Given the explorations of the previous sections, we may attempt to formulate a more comprehensive model for the data. Muthen (1988b) proposed the use of structural equation modeling for this task. He discussed a model which extends ordinary structural modeling to dichotomous response variables while at the same time extending ordinary IRT to include predictors of the trait. He studied part of the

SIMS data using a model which attempted to predict a unidimensional algebra trait at the posttest occasion using a set of instructional and student background variables from the pretest. The set of predictors used and their standardized effects are given in Table 4. While pretest scores have strong expected effects, class type, being female, father being in the high occupational category, and finding mathematics useful to future needs also had strong effects. The OTL variables had very small effects overall, perhaps due to the fact that each item's OTL variable has rather little power in predicting this general trait.

Insert Table 4 here

Given the analysis results of the previous sections, this modeling approach can be extended to include a multidimensional model for both the set of pretest and posttest items, predicting posttest factors from pretest factors, using instructional and student background variables as covariates, and allowing for differential item functioning in terms of exposure sensitivity. This work is in progress.

10. Analyzing change

The structural modeling discussed in the previous section is also suitable for modeling of change from pretest to posttest. In Section

37 3°

4.3 we pointed out that in terms of change the SIMS data again exemplified complex population heterogeneity. For each item a student may belong to either of three OTL groups, corresponding to two types of no new learning and learning during the year. To again reach the goal of instructionally sensitive psychometrics as stated in Section 3 for this new situation, we should explicitly model this heterogeneity. However, to properly model such complex heterogeneity is a very challenging task and this work has merely begun.

A basic assumption is that change is different for groups of students of different class types and OTL patterns. In a structural model where posttest factors are regressed on pretest factors the slopes may be viewed as varying across such student groups, where students groups for which a large degree of learning during the year has taken place, as measured by the set of OTL variables, are assumed to have steeper slopes than the other students. This methods area shows a very large degree of scarcity of psychometric work.

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APPENDIX

Wording of the 40 core items

 $\label{eq:2} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}\int_{0}^{\infty}\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}\,d\mu_{\mu}$

 $\ddot{}$.

 \bullet

 \mathcal{E}

3, If $5x + 4 = 4x - 31$, 4, then x is equal to $A -35$ $B -27$ C 3 D 27 E 35 Four 1-liter bowls of ice cream were set out at a party. After the party, 1 bowl was empty, 2 were half full, and 1 was three quarters full. How many liters of ice cream had been EATEN? A $3\frac{3}{l_1}$ $B = 2\frac{3}{4}$ C $2\frac{1}{2}$

E None of these

 $D \t 1 \frac{2}{4}$

 $4¹$

Which of the following is the closest approximation to the area of the rectangle with measurements given?

 A 48 m² $B = 54 \text{ m}^2$ C 56 m^2 D 63 m^2 E 72 m²

 $\overline{}$

1 square unit

The area of the shaded figure, to the nearest square unit, is

- A 23 square units
- B 20 square units
- C 18 square units
- D 15 square units
- E 12 square units

The diagram shows a cardboard cube which has been cut along some edges and folded out flat. If it is folded to again make the cube, which two corners will touch corner P?

- A corners Q and S
- B corners T and Y
- C corners W and Y
- D corners T and V
- E corners U and Y

The length of AB is 1 unit. Which is the best estimate for the length of \overline{PQ} ?

- A 2 units
- B 6 units
- C 10 units
- D 14 units
- E 13 units

 $45₁$

On the sbove scale the reading indicated by the arrow is between

> A 51 and 52 B 57 and 58 C 60 and 62 D 62 and 64 E 64 and 66

- 10. A solid plastic cube with edges 1 centimeter long weighs 1 gram. How much will a solid cube of the sane plastic weigh if each edge is 2 centimeters long?
	- A 8 grams

Z

9.

- B 4 grams
- C 3 grams
- D 2 grams
- E 1 gram

11. On a number line two points A and B are given. The coordinate of A is -3 and the coordinate of B is $+7$. What is the coordinate of the point C , if B is the midpoint of the line segment AC?

A -13

 $B = \frac{1}{2}$

C +2

2

D +12

 $E + 17$

4C

- 12. A painter is to mix green 13, If $P = LW$ and if $P = 12$ and yellow paint in the ratio of 4 to 7 to obtain and $L = 3$, then W is equal the color he wants. If he to has 28 liters of green paint, how many liters of yellow paint should be added? $A = \frac{3}{1}$ A 11 B 3 B 16 C 4 C 28 D 12 D 49 E 36 E 196 λ 14. A model boat is built to scale 15, The value of so that it is $\frac{1}{10}$ as long as 0.2131 x 0.02958 Is approximately the original boat. If the width of the original boat is $\frac{1}{4}$ meters, $\frac{1}{4}$ A o.6 the width of the model should be B o.o6 A 0.1 meter c o.006 B 0.4 meter
	- C 1 meter D o.0006
	- D 4 meters E 0.00006

E 40 meters

16. $(-2) \times (-3)$ is equal to

- \mathbf{A} -6
- $\overline{\mathbf{B}}$ -5
- \mathbf{C} -1
- \mathbf{D} $\overline{\mathbf{5}}$
- $\boldsymbol{6}$ $\bar{\mathbf{E}}$

 $\ddot{}$

 λ

 $\epsilon_{\rm in}$

$$
E \longleftrightarrow
$$

The length of the circumference of the circle with center 0 is 24, and the length of arc RS is 4. What is the measure in degrees of the central angle R0S?

- A 24
- B 30
- C 45
- D 60
- E 90

20,

In the discus-throwing competition, the winning throw was 61.60 meters. The second place throw was 59.72 meters. Hoy much longer was the winning throw than the second place throw?

 $\ddot{}$.

- A 1.12 meters
- B 1.88 meters
- C 1.92 meters
- D 2.12 meters
- E 121.32 meters

In the above diagram, triangles ABC and DEF are congruent, with $BC = EF$. What is the measure of angle EGC?

- $A \quad 20^\circ$
- B 40°
- $C = 60^{\circ}$ C 65
- D 80° D 60
- E 100°

x is equal to

- A 75
- B 70

 \mathbf{r}

-
-
- E 40

 $4[°]$

A square is removed from the rectangle as shown. What is the area of the remaining part?

A 316 m^2 B 300 m^2 $C = 284 \text{ m}^2$ b 80 m^2 E 16 π^2 B \$14.40 C \$28.80

Cloth is sold by the square meter. If 6 square meters of cloth cost \$4.80, the cost of 16 square meters will be

Ń,

A \$12.80

D \$52.80

E \$128.00

 $5C$

In the figure the little squares are all the same size and the area of the whole rectangle is equal to 1. The area of the shaded part is equal to

- $A = \frac{2}{15}$ $B \frac{1}{2}$ 3 $c \frac{2}{5}$ $\frac{3}{8}$ 8 $\frac{1}{2}$
- $29.$ When using the metric system, $30.$ The table below compares the the distance between two height from which a ball is
	- A millimeters

 27 , A shopkeeper has x kg of

A $x - 15 - 2y$

B $x + 15 + 2y$

 c $x - 15 + 2y$

 D $x + 15 - 2y$

E None of these

have?

 λ

tea in stock. He sells 15 kg and then receives a new lot weighing 2y kg. What weight of tea does he now

- B centimeters
- C decimeters
- D meters
- E kilometers

the distance between two height from which a ball is
towns is usually measured in α dropped (d) and the height dropped (d) and the height to which it bounces (b).

Which formula describes this relationship?

A $b = d^2$ B $b = 2d$ c $b = \frac{d}{2}$ 2 D $b = d + 25$ E $b = d - 25$

 $5⁴$

 $\tilde{}$

28,

55
|-
|-

Which of the points A , B ,
C, D , E on this number 38 , 37. C, D, E on this number line corresponds to $\frac{5}{8}$? A B C D E ^I ^I ^I ¹ ^I 1-14 o $\mathbf{1}$

 \bullet

A point A

 λ

B point B

C point C

D point D

E point E

 20% of 125 is equal to A 6.25 B 12.50 C 15 D 25 E 50

 50°

What are the coordinates of point P?

 $(-3, 4)$ \mathbf{A} $(-4, -3)$ $\, {\bf B}$ \mathbf{C} $(3,4)$ $(4,-3)$ $\bar{\mathbf{D}}$ $E \rightarrow (-4, 3)$

 λ

Triangles PQR and STU are similar. How long is \overline{SU} ?

 $\mathbf{5}$ $\mathbf{3}$

ERIC

(page 2 of 7)

Percentage Students and Percentages Correct for Core Items by OTL and Class Type

(page 3 of 7)

Percentage Students and Percentages Correct for Core Items by OTL and Class Type

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(page 4 of 7)

Percentage Students and Percentages Correct for Core Items by OTL and Class Type

(page 5 of 7)

Percentage Students and Percentages Correct for Core Class Type Items by OTL and

(page 6 of 7)

Percentage Students and Percentages Correct for Core Class Type Items by OTL and

(page 7 of 7)

Percentage Students and Percentages Correct for Core Items by OTL and Class Type

- * Percentages of students by class type are: REM= Remedial: 7.1 (N=268), TYP= Typical: 57.6 (N=2148) ENR= Enriched: 24.4 (N=909), ALG= Algebra: 10.7 (N=399)
- ST= Percentage students
- PR= Percentage correct for pretest
- PO= Percentage correct for posttest

 $ME = measurement$ AR= Arithmetic AL= Algebra GE= Geometry

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Variance Components for Selected Items from the Core*

Table 2

*Given in parenthesis is the estimate when controlling for mean level heterogeneity. (See section 7)

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TRAIT ESTIMATES BY TRADITIONAL AND NEW APPROACHES*

LOW OTL GROUP

Table 3

BAR

HIGH OTL GROUP

*Entries are

Frequency mean value by the traditional approach mean value by the new approach

Structural Parameters with the Latent Construct as Dependent Variable

Proportion Correct: No OTL (square)/OTL (triangle): . Total Score Frequency: No OTI, (dark)/OTL (light) Core Test - Item 1 1.0 0.9 FREQUENCY
800 0.6 700 0.7 Proportion Correct 600 0.6 500 0.5 400 0.4 300 $0:3$ 200 0.2 100 0.1 \mathbf{c} 0.0 Ô \bullet 10 $\overline{15}$ 20 $\overline{25}$ $\overline{\mathbf{w}}$ 35 $\overline{40}$ \bullet \bullet 10 15 20 25 30 35 40 Total Score Total Score Frequency: No OTL (dark)/OTL (light) Proportion Correct: No OTL (square)/OTL (triangle) Core Test - Item 2 1.0 0.9 FREQUENCY
800 0.6 700 0.7 Proportion Correct 600 0.6 500 0.5 400 0.4 300 0.3 200 0.2 100 0.1 0.0 ō $\overline{\mathbf{S}}$ 10 $\overline{\mathbf{15}}$ ⁻20 25 30 35 $\overline{40}$ 15 20 25 30 35 10 40 $\mathbf{0}$ $\pmb{5}$ **Tetel Score** Core Test - Item 3 Proportion Correct: No OTL (square)/OTL (triangle) Total Score Frequency: No OTL (dark)/OTL (light) 1.0 0.9 FREQUENCY
800 0.8 700 0.7 **Proportion Correct** 600 0.6 0.5 500 400 0.4 300 0.5 200 0.2 100 0.1 0.0 $\mathbf{0}$ $\overline{\mathbf{0}}$ $\overline{\mathbf{15}}$ $\overline{\mathbf{30}}$ $\overline{\mathbf{u}}$ \mathbf{M} 35 10 40 s $\overline{10}$ $\overline{15}$ $\overline{20}$ 30 $35\,$ 40 Ŝ 25 D **Tetel Score**

t.

 $\bullet.$

FIGURE 4

BALLAR

FIGURE 5

 $\pmb{\epsilon}$

 $\bullet.$

ERIC

Proportion Correct: No OTL (square)/OTL (triangle)

 \bullet

FIGURE 8

Proportion Correct: No OTL (square)/OTL (triangle)

 79

 8^o

Proportion Correct: No OTL (square)/OTL (triangle)

for Item 17

Probability

i.

 $\prod_{\mathcal{F}_{\text{full Test}}}$

 $\frac{1}{2}$

 $\ddot{}$

Scree Plot for Tetrachoric Correlations with Artificial Model for 40 Items

 84

Latent Roots

FIGURE 12

Scree Plot of Latent Roots for 39 Items Based on Tetrachorics

 $\tilde{}$

Latent Roots

 $\begin{array}{c} \bullet \\ \bullet \end{array}$