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#### ABSTRACT

Research related to the multiple choice test item is reported, as it is conducted by educational technologists in Japan. Sato's number of hypothetical equivalent alternatives is introduced. The based idea behind this index is that the expected uncertainty of the mevents, cralternatives, be large and the number of hypothetical, equivalent alternatives be close to m. A new index, K\*, is proposed as a modification of m: it is a means of invalidating the three-parameter logistic model for the multiple choice item. Shiba's research on the measurement of vocabulary, which is based upon latent trait theory, is introduced: this includes an eventual tailored test on vocabulary, utilizing information obtained from distractors as well as correct answers. A new family of models for the multiple choice item is proposed, formulating both the operating characteristics of distractors and the effect of random guessing. (Author/GK)



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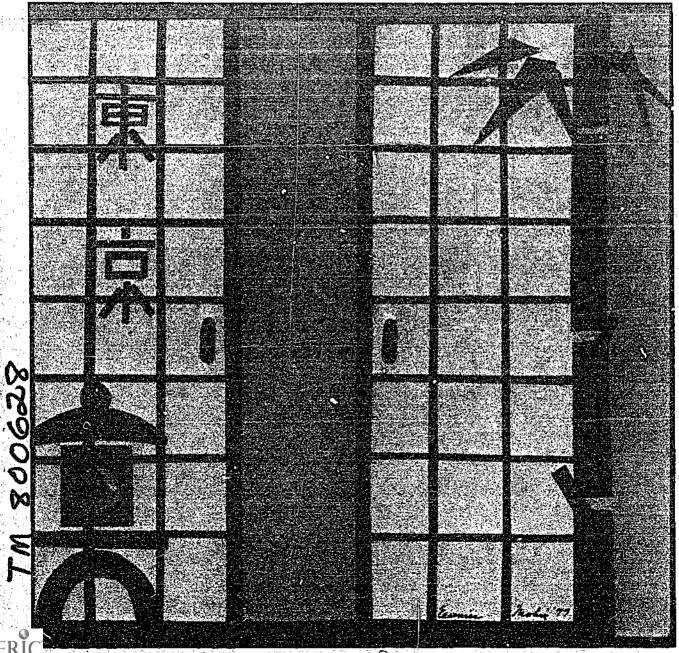
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DEPARTMENT OF THE NAVY OFFICE OF NAVAL RESEARCH TOKYO

RESEARCH ON THE MULTIPLE-CHOICE TEST ITEM IN JAPAN: TOWARD THE VALIDATION OF MATHEMATICAL MODELS Fumiko Samelima



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information obtained from distractors as well as correct answers. With this research in mind, the author has developed basic ideas about a new family of models for the multiple-choice item. These are based upon both the information given by distractors, and the correct answer and the noise resulting from random guessing.

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# RESEARCH ON THE MULTIPLE-CHOICE TEST ITEM IN JAPAN: TOWARD THE VALIDATION OF MATHEMATICAL MODELS

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**APRIL 1980** 

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# RESEARCH ON THE MULTIPLE-CHOICE TEST ITEM IN JAPAN: TOWARD THE VALIDATION OF MATHEMATICAL MODELS

#### ABSTRACT

This monograph reports research, related to the multiple-choice test item, which is conducted by psychometricians and educational technologists in Japan. Sato's number of hypothetical equivalent alternatives is introduced. The author proposes a new index, k\*, which can be used, among other things, for invalidating three-parameter models for the multiple-choice item. Shiba's research on the measurement of vocabulary, which is based upon latent trait theory, includes an eventual tailored test on vocabulary, utilizing information obtained from distractors as well as correct answers. With this research in mind, the author has developed basic ideas about a new family of models for the multiple-choice item. These are based upon both the information given by distractors, and the correct answer and the noise resulting from random guessing.



#### PREFACE

In the summer of 1979, I spent a few weeks in Tokyo under the sponsorship of the Office of Naval Research (ONR). This monograph is based on conferences with researchers in Japan, in the areas of psychometrics, educational measurement, and educational technologies, and on research materials and technical literature collected during this trip. I thank Dr. Rudolph J. Marcus, Scientific Director, Miss Eunice Mohri, and other ONR/Tokyo staff members for providing me with office space and services, taking me to JICST, and helping me in many other ways.

I was invited to one of the bimonthly meetings of the Educational Technology Group of the Institute of Electronics and Communication Engineers in Japan, which was held at the Central Research Laboratories of Nippon Electric Co., Ltd., on 23 July, 1979, and had an opportunity to talk with the researchers who came to the meeting from many different districts of Japan. The author is thankful to Dr. Takahiro Sato, the representative of the Group, and other members for their kind cooperation in collecting research materials and literature.

It was also a pleasure to have several conferences with Dr. Sukeyori Shiba, Professor of Education at the University of Tokyo and an old friend of mine, during my stay in Tokyo, and to get to know a large scale research project on the measurement of vocabulary conducted by him and his students. The author is thankful to him and his students for making copies of their research materials and sending them to Knoxville, Tennessee, after I returned.



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#### PREFACE (Continued)

Because of the shortage of time, the author could not see all the people she had wanted to; among them are Professor Takeuchi of the University of Tokyo and Dr. Akaike of the Institute of Mathematical Statistics, who happened to be out of town during her stay in Tokyo.

The stimulation of these conversations, and of the research materials and literature obtained in Tokyo, started new trains of thought in the author's mind. Some of these concern the multiple-choice item, which is the subject of this monograph. Others require yet more work and further communication with Japanese colleagues. In particular, the author feels it is worth trying to reanalyze the vocabulary test data collected by Shiba and others, using theory and methods which the author has developed and is going to develop.

The author is thankful to the Office of Naval Research for this opportunity of visiting Tokyo, and hopes that the present report will contribute to the development of mental test theory and science in general.

Fumiko Samejima



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#### I <u>Introduction</u>

There will not be any doubt in the mind of psychometricians that good mental test items are informative items, which make a great deal of contribution to the estimation of the examinee's ability, and, therefore, uncover the individual differences among the examinees accurately. In the history of mental test theory, the multiple-choice item arrived later than the free-response item, out of the necessity of administering group tests and of scoring their results speedily and objectively, in the sense that there is no need for our subjective judgment and evaluation in Today, an enormous number of multiple-choice tests scoring. are administered to youngsters, and their results have been used in many important decision-making situations, such as guidance, selection, classification, and so on. To construct good multiplechoice test items and to develop good mental test theory which deals with the multiple-choice item are, therefore, most important.

Since the multiple-choice item was introduced as a substitute for the free-response item, it has been treated by mental test theorists as something which is useful from the practical point of view, but not quite as good as the free-response item. The three-parameter logistic, or normal ogive, model, which is widely used by psychologists and educational psychologists for the multiple-choice item today, is nothing but a "blurred" image of the logistic, or normal ogive, model for the free-response item. In other words, there is nothing meaningful which is added to the original logistic, or normal ogive, model, but there are additional noises caused



by random guessing in the three-parameter logistic, or normal ogive model.

We must stop and think, however, if the three-parameter logistic, or normal ogive, model really fits psychological reality, and if the multiple-choice test item cannot be more than a "blurred" image of the free-response item. The author's answer to the first question is negative, to the second positive. It is clear in the author's mind that we need a better model than the three-parameter logistic, or normal ogive, model for the multiple-choice item, and that the multiple-choice item can provide us with a larger amount of information which results in a more accurate ability estimation, if we make use of the information given by its distractors, which the free-response item does not have.

It was interesting to discover that, while very few researchers in the United States have ever questioned the appropriateness of the three-parameter logistic, or normal ogive, model for the multiple-choice item, and have tried to validade it for their research data, the author's perception is shared by some Japanese researchers.

Some of these are members of a nation-wide research group called the Educational Technology Group of the Institute of Electronics and Communication Engineers in Japan. Most of the members of the group are engineers in computer science, and some of them are educational psychologists. Tatsuoka has reported their names and research activities (Tatsuoka, 1979), which are represented by such topics as the S-P table (Student-Problem table),



the number of hypothetical, equivalent alternatives\*, interpretive structural modeling based on graph theory, and so forth. Some of their papers, which the author has had the opportunity of reading, are listed in Appendix III. Their standpoint concerning the multiplechoice item is based on information theory (e.g., Goldman, 1953), considering that an item is a good one if its expected uncertainty in the selection of an alternative is high. As the measure of the quality of an item, the number of hypothetical, equivalent alternatives (Sato, 1977) is used, which will be introduced in Chapter 2. One impressive feature of the activities of this group of researchers is that they do not use computers mechanically, as many other researchers do, but they give teachers the feedback information about the test items constantly, and then they obtain the teachers' feedback based on the content analysis of the items in question, and so on. Another group is Shiba and his students of the School of Education, University of Tokyo. They have spent the past several years for developing vocabulary tests, which are aimed at measuring vocabulary of subjects of a wide range of age, collecting data, constructing an integrated vocabulary scale (Shiba, 1978), and then constructing a tailored test out of these vocabulary test items, using the information given by the distractors, as well as the correct answers, for branching examinees (Shiba, Noguchi and Haebara, 1978). The theory and method used for analyzing their data are basically the same as those adopted in the research in which the author was involved (Indow and Samejima, 1962, 1966).

<sup>\*</sup>Tatusoka translated the original word as the effective (or equivalent) number of options, but the author uses this translation.



The outline of the work accomplished by Shiba and others will be given in Chapter 6.

With the research conducted by these people as incentives, the author has integrated her own ideas about mathematical models and the multiple-choice item. It resulted in proposing a method of validating, or invalidating, the three-parameter logistic, or normal ogive, model and the knowledge or random guessing principle, and eventually proposing a new family of models for the multiple-choice item, in which the information given by the distractors is fully utilized.



#### II Sato's Number of Hypothetical, Equivalent Alternatives

Let g (=1,2,...,n) be a multiple-choice test item. In the present paper, however, this symbol g is omitted, whenever it is clear that we deal with only one item. Let i (=1,2,...,m) be an alternative, or an option, of the multiple-choice item g, and  $\vec{p}_i$  be the probability with which the examinee selects the alternative i. The entropy H is defined as the expectation of  $-\log_2 \vec{p}_i$  such that

(2.1) 
$$H = -\sum_{i=1}^{m} p_i \log_2 p_i$$
,

for the set of m alternatives of item g. It is obvious from (2.1) that the entropy H is non-negative, and, if one of the m alternatives is the sure event with unity as its probability, then H=0. Sato's number of hypothetical, equivalent alternatives k, is defined by

(2.2) 
$$k = 2^{H}$$
.

and is used as an index of the effectiveness of the set of m alternatives for item g in the context of information theory. Since the entropy H indicates the expected uncertainty of the set of m events, or alternatives, the set of alternatives is more informative for a greater value of k.

When the probability  $\mathbf{p_i}$  is replaced by the frequency ratio,  $\mathbf{P_i}$ , we can write for the estimate of the entropy such that

(2.3) 
$$\hat{H} = -\sum_{i=1}^{m} P_{i} \log_{2} P_{i}$$
,



and for the estimate of k we have

(2.4) 
$$\hat{k} = 2^{\hat{H}}$$
.

We notice that we can obtain the number of hypothetical, equivalent alternatives k without using the entropy, for we have

(2.5) 
$$k = 2^{H} = 2^{i=1} \stackrel{\text{ind}}{=} 2^{p_{i}} = \prod_{i=1}^{m} p_{i} = \prod_{i=1}^{m} p_{i}^{i} = 1$$

The quantity in the brackets of the last expression of (2.5) is a kind of weighted geometric mean of  $p_i$ . Equation (2.5) also implies that we can use any base for  $\log p_i$ , instead of 2. For convenience, hereafter we shall use e as the base of  $\log p_i$ , and use H\* instead of H such that

(2.6) 
$$H^* = -\sum_{i=1}^{m} p_i \log_e p_i \ge 0 ,$$

which equals zero when one of the alternatives is the sure event, and

(2.7) 
$$k - e^{H*} \ge 1$$
,

and simply write  $\log p_i$  instead of  $\log_e p_i$ .

To find out the value of  $\ p_i$  which maximizes  $\mbox{H*}$  , and hence k , we define  $\ Q$  such that

(2.8) 
$$Q = -\sum_{i=1}^{m} p_i \log p_i + \lambda \left[ \sum_{i=1}^{m} p_i - 1 \right],$$

where  $\lambda$  is Lagrange's multiplier. Thus the partial derivative of Q with respect to  $\mathbf{p_i}$  is given by

(2.9) 
$$\frac{\partial Q}{\partial p_{i}} = -[\log p_{i} + (1/p_{i})p_{i}] + \lambda = -\log p_{i} + (\lambda - 1).$$



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Setting this derivative equal to zero, we obtain

(2.10) 
$$\log p_i = \lambda - 1$$
,

which is a constant regardless of the value of i . Since we have

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(2.11) 
$$\sum_{i=1}^{m} p_{i} = 1$$
,

we obtain

(2.12) 
$$\hat{p}_{i} = 1/m$$
.

Thus it is clear that H\*, and hence k, is maximal when all the m alternatives are equally probable, and we can write

(2.13) 
$$\max (H^*) = \log m$$

and

$$(2.14)$$
 max  $(k) = m$ .

Since in the present situation the m events are alternatives, the values of H\* and k are affected by the difficulty level of item g. Let R be the correct answer to item g, which is given as one of its alternatives, and  $p_R$  be the probability with which the examinee selects the correct answer R. Figure 2-1 presents the relationship between the probability  $p_R$  and the number of hypothetical, equivalent alternatives k. In this figure, the area marked by slanted lines indicates the set of k's which are less than  $\max (k|p_R)$  and greater than  $\max [1/p_R, \min (k|p_R)]$ , and are considered to be reasonable values of k by Sato and others.



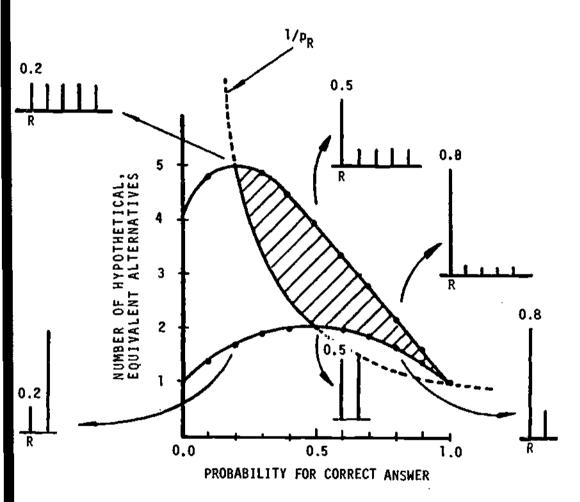


FIGURE 2-1

Relationship between the Probability with Which the Correct Answer R Is Selected and the Number of Hypothetical, Equivalent Alternatives, for Five-Choice Items.

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In practice, Figure 2-1 is used by replacing the probability  $\mathbf{p}_R$  by the proportion correct,  $\mathbf{P}_R$ , and the number of hypothetical, equivalent alternatives,  $\mathbf{k}$ , by its estimate  $\hat{\mathbf{k}}$ . It is well-known that the frequency ratio is both the least squares solution and the maximum likelihood estimator of the corresponding probability. It is interesting to note that, in addition, it is the estimator which minimizes the chi-square statistic. Let us define  $\mathbf{Q}$  such that

(2.15) 
$$Q = \sum_{i=1}^{m} [(NP_i - Np_i)^2/(Np_i)] + \lambda [\sum_{i=1}^{m} p_i - 1],$$

where N is the number of examinees and  $\lambda$  is Lagrange's multiplier. Then we have

(2.16) 
$$\frac{\partial Q}{\partial p_{i}} = N[(p_{i}^{2} - P_{i}^{2})/p_{i}^{2}] + \lambda = 0,$$

and

(2.17) 
$$\hat{p}_i = [1 + (\lambda/N)]^{-1/2} p_i$$
.

Since

(2.18) 
$$1 = \sum_{i=1}^{m} P_{i} = [1 + (\lambda/N)]^{-1/2} \sum_{i=1}^{m} P_{i} = [1 + (\lambda/N)]^{-1/2},$$

we obtain

(2.19) 
$$\lambda = 0$$
,

and from this and (2.17) we can write

$$(2.20) \quad \hat{p}_i = P_i .$$



The translation, "the number of hypothetical, equivalent alternatives," indicates the number of alternatives in the hypothetical situation where the entropy H is provided by the alternatives which are equivalent in the uncertainty of occurence. Although it is not the direct translation of the original word, it is used for k in the present paper, for it seems to the author to be the best describing word of the original.



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### III <u>Information Given by Distractors in the Multiple-Choice Item</u> <u>and Random Guessing</u>

Sato's number of hypothetical, equivalent alternatives has been used mainly by the members of the Technical Group of Educational Technologists in Japan (cf. Tatsuoka, 1979) for the purpose of analyzing the effectiveness of alternatives in relation with a relatively small group of examinees. The basic idea behind this index is that the expected uncertainty of the m events, or alternatives, be large, and, therefore, the number of hypothetical, equivalent alternatives be close to m. We notice that:

- this concept is strongly population-oriented, unlike those concepts in latent trait theory,
- (2) it is assumed that each examinee tries to answer the item seriously, without depending upon random guessing,
- (3) relative to the population of examinees, the existence of too attractive a distractor is not desirable, since it tends to reduce the value of k.

Thus as long as this index is used for the analysis of test items which are given with careful guidance and supervision to samples of examinees from a well-defined population, and the findings of the analysis are not generalized across populations, it will serve its purpose.

If we generalize this concept and the resultant findings beyond these restrictions, however, we may be led to completely



and,

false conclusions. To give an extreme example, suppose that none of our examinees took the test seriously, and selected one of the alternatives at random, for each item of the test. In such a case, regardless of the difficulty level of the item, the number of hypothetical, equivalent alternatives, k, will be very close to m for every item! In spite of this superficial success, we have obtained no information about the individual examinees' ability levels as the result of testing.

It is also noted that, if the examinee's behavior follows the knowledge or random guessing principle, i.e., he will answer correctly if he knows the answer, or guess randomly otherwise, the value of k tends to be large. In this case, too, our success of obtaining a large k is only superficial and meaningless.

In addition to the above facts, it is obvious that the value of the number of hypothetical, equivalent alternatives varies for different populations, i.e., the same item may have a value of k which is very close to m for one population of examinees, and may have a very low value for another population. This may be due to the difference in the mean ability levels of the two populations, or to the different forms of two ability distributions, or both. Thus while the index may be useful for a fixed population of examinees and if we discuss "how good an item is" in relation to that specific population, it cannot be considered as a parameter of the item per se. This limitation of the usefulness of k is of the same kind that is applicable for the reliability coefficient of the test, i.e., in spite of most psychologists' belief that



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the reliability coefficient is one of the most important and solid properties of the test itself, it heavily depends upon the specific population of examinees for which the test is administered, and, therefore, is a <u>dead concept</u> since the population-free test information function is sufficient to serve the purpose (Samejima, 1977a).

As a whole, there is no single answer to the question: "Are items which have high values of the number of hypothetical, equivalent alternatives good items?" even if we control the testing situation with respect to the purpose of testing, such as guidance, selection, etc. This is true even if we restrict the populations of examinees, and it is mainly because of the noise induced by random guessing. That is to say, in a general situation of testing, it is hard for us to determine whether we have accomplished the work by obtaining a high value of k. In fact, the largest possible value of k may imply no accomplishment at all, as we have seen in one of the preceding paragraphs of the present chapter!

In spite of the above limitations, however, the introduction of the number of hypothetical, equivalent alternatives and its use by Sato and other researchers of the Technical Group of Educational Technologists should be well credited, for their vision is oriented toward the full use of the information given by all the alternatives of the multiple-choice item. It seems that they are quite successful in using the index in the small group situation, such as school classes where instructions are well conveyed and random guessing is extremely discouraged. This orientation is in quite a contrast to the attitude of many researchers who are accustomed



to the <u>blind use</u> of the three-parameter logistic model for the multiple-choice item, without ever stopping to think if the model can be validated for their data.



### IV Three-Parameter Models in Latent Trait Theory and the Role of Item Distractors

Let  $\theta$  be ability, or latent trait, that we intend to measure with our test. The three-parameter logistic model, or normal ogive model, is based upon the knowledge or random guessing principle, i.e., the examinee either knows the answer or guesses randomly. Let  $\Psi_{\mathbf{g}}(\theta)$  be the item characteristic function of item  $\mathbf{g}$ , which is the conditional probability with which the examinee answers item  $\mathbf{g}$  correctly, given  $\theta$ , in the free-response situation. This is given by

(4.1) 
$$\Psi_{g}(\theta) = (2\pi)^{-1/2} \begin{cases} a_{g}(\theta - b_{g}) e^{-u^{2}/2} du \end{cases}$$

in the normal ogive model, and

(4.2) 
$$\Psi_{\mathbf{g}}(\theta) = [1 + \exp\{-Da_{\mathbf{g}}(\theta - b_{\mathbf{g}})\}]^{-1}$$

in the logistic model, where ag is the item discrimination parameter and bg is the item difficulty parameter (Lord and Novick, 1968, Chapter 16), and D in (4.2) is the scaling factor which assumes 1.7 (Birnbaum, 1968) when the logistic model is used as a substitute for the normal ogive model.

The item characteristic function,  $P_g(\theta)$ , for the multiple-choice item in the three-parameter normal ogive, or logistic, model is defined by

(4.3) 
$$P_g(\theta) = \Psi_g(\theta) + [1 - \Psi_g(\theta)] c_g = c_g + [1 - c_g] \Psi_g(\theta)$$
,

where  $\Psi_{g}(\theta)$  is given by (4.1) or (4.2) and  $c_{g}$  is a constant which



is called the guessing parameter, and equals  $1/m_{_{\mbox{\scriptsize g}}}$  , or 1/m .

It should be noted that, following these models, there is no information given by the alternatives other than the correct answer, for all the responses to the wrong answers are the result of random guessing. Should one of these models be valid for the item in question, the multiple-choice item would be nothing but a poor image of the binary, free-response item, which is contaminated by the noise caused by random guessing.

Let j be an individual examinee, and  $u_j$  be the binary item score for the multiple-choice item g . The conditional expectation and variance of the binary item score u, given  $\theta$ , can be written as

(4.4) 
$$E(u|\theta) = P_g(\theta) = c + (1-c)\Psi_g(\theta) = (1/m)[1 + (m-1)\Psi_g(\theta)],$$

where c is the simplification of  $c_g$  , and

(4.5) 
$$\operatorname{Var.}(u|\theta) = [(m-1)/m^2][1-\Psi_g(\theta)][1+(m-1)\Psi_g(\theta)].$$

Let  $u_{ij}$  be the binary alternative score for the alternative i obtained by the individual j , for the multiple-choice item g . Thus we can write

(4.6) 
$$u_{Rj} = u_{j}$$
.

The conditional expectation and variance of the binary alternative score  $u_i$  (i#R), given  $\theta$ , are given by

(4.7) 
$$E(u_i|\theta) = c[1-\Psi_g(\theta)] = (1/m)[1-\Psi_g(\theta)]$$



and

(4.8) 
$$\operatorname{Var.}(u_i | \theta) = (1/m^2)[1-\Psi_g(\theta)][(m-1)+\Psi_g(\theta)]$$
.

Let  $\lambda$  be either u or  $u_i$ , or any other discrete random variable, and  $p(\lambda)$  and  $p(\lambda|\theta)$  denote the marginal and conditional probability functions of  $\lambda$ , respectively. Then the relationships among the conditional and unconditional expectations and variances are given by

(4.9) 
$$E(\lambda) = \sum \lambda p(\lambda) = \sum \lambda \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} p(\lambda|\theta) f(\theta) d\theta = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \sum \lambda p(\lambda|\theta) f(\theta) d\theta$$

$$= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} E(\lambda|\theta) f(\theta) d\theta = E[E(\lambda|\theta)]$$

and

(4.10) 
$$\begin{aligned} \text{Var.}(\lambda) &= \Sigma[\lambda - E(\lambda)]^2 p(\lambda) = \Sigma[\lambda - E(\lambda)]^2 \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} p(\lambda|\theta) f(\theta) d\theta \\ &= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \Sigma[\lambda - E(\lambda|\theta)]^2 p(\lambda|\theta) f(\theta) d\theta \\ &+ \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \left[ E(\lambda|\theta) - E(\lambda) \right]^2 \Sigma p(\lambda|\theta) f(\theta) d\theta \\ &= E[\text{Var.}(\lambda|\theta)] + E[E(\lambda|\theta) - E(\lambda)]^2. \end{aligned}$$

In particular, we can write

(4.11) 
$$E(u) = E[E(u|\theta)] - \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} P_g(\theta)f(\theta)d\theta = P_R$$

and

(4.12) 
$$Var.(u) = E[Var.(u|\theta)] + E[E(u|\theta)-E(u)]^2$$

$$= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} P_g(\theta) \{1-P_g(\theta)\} f(\theta) d\theta + \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} [P_g(\theta)-p_R]^2 f(\theta) d\theta$$

$$= p_R - p_R^2 = p_R(1-p_R)$$

for the binary item score  $\,\mathbf{u}\,$  , and, for the alternative score  $\,\mathbf{u}_{i}\,$  ,



(4.13) 
$$E(u_{i}) = E[E(u_{i}|\theta)] = (1/m) \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} [1-\Psi_{g}(\theta)]f(\theta)d\theta$$

$$= [1/(m-1)] \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} [1-P_{g}(\theta)]f(\theta)d\theta = [1/(m-1)](1-P_{R})$$

$$= P_{i}$$

and

$$(4.14) \quad \text{Var.}(u_{1}) = \mathbb{E}[\text{Var.}(u_{1}|\theta)] + \mathbb{E}[\mathbb{E}(u_{1}|\theta) - \mathbb{E}(u_{1})]^{2}$$

$$= (1/m^{2}) \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} [1 - \Psi_{g}(\theta)][(m-1) + \Psi_{g}(\theta)]f(\theta)d\theta$$

$$+ (1/m^{2}) \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} [\{1 - \Psi_{g}(\theta)\} - mp_{1}]^{2}f(\theta)d\theta$$

$$= (1/m) \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} [1 - \Psi_{g}(\theta)]f(\theta)d\theta$$

$$- 2p_{1}(1/m) \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} [1 - \Psi_{g}(\theta)]f(\theta)d\theta + p_{1}^{2}$$

$$= p_{1}(1 - p_{1}).$$

We notice that E(u) given in (4.11) is the item difficulty parameter in classical test theory, which depends upon the specific population of examinees as well as the test item.

It should be noted that both the expectation and the variance of  $u_i$  for  $i \neq R$ , which are given by (4.13) and (4.14), respectively, are equal for all the wrong answers, and are determined, solely, by  $p_R$  and the number of the alternatives, m. This is the logical consequence of the fact that the responses to those wrong answers are completely the result of random guessing, and provide us with no information about the examinees' ability levels.

We must remember, however, that most of the conscientious test constructors try to avoid the contamination of the quality of items, by finding incorrect, but plausible, answers and including them as distractors in the set of alternatives. This indicates



that the responses to these alternatives are not the result of random guessing, and may contain useful information about the examinee's ability level. The adoption of one of the three-parameter models for such multiple-choice items is not justifiable, since in so doing the researchers distort psychological reality and will produce nothing but meaningless artifacts as the result of their research.

It is strange to the author that many researchers have ignored the contradiction which was described in the preceding paragraphs, and have applied the three-parameter models to their data for years, which, obviously, are based on the tests containing many distractors. As far as they continue repeating this mistake, their conscientiousness as researchers has to be questioned.



#### V Index k\* for Invalidating Three-Parameter Models

It has been pointed out in Chapter 3 that Sato's number of hypothetical, equivalent alternatives takes on a high value, if every examinee in the group has selected one of the m alternatives at random. This fact implies that, although the index was introduced for quite an opposite purpose, it may also be useful in detecting the examinee's random guessing behavior in the multiple-choice item.

To materialize the above, we need the following consideration. When the examinee follows the knowledge or random guessing principle and the item characteristic function assumes the three-parameter logistic, or normal ogive, model, the index k is solely affected by the probability with which the examinee knows the answer, as is obvious from Figure 2-1 and (4.3) and (4.11). This fact provides some inconvenience, however, for the probability of knowing the answer heavily depends upon the specific population of examinees, in addition to the item characteristic function of the item in the free-response situation. It will be more convenient, therefore, if we can modify Sato's index k in such a way that it is unaffected by the ability distribution of a specific population of examinees, and can be considered as a pure property of the item. With this aim in mind, we shall introduce a new index in this chapter.

Let  $\overline{A}$  be the event that the examinee <u>does not</u> know the answer to item g, and consider the probability space which consists of such a subpopulation of examinees. The conditional probability,  $p(i|\overline{A})$ , with which the examinee selects the alternative



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i of item g in this conditional probability space is given by

(5.1) 
$$p(i|\vec{A}) \begin{cases} = p_{i} \begin{bmatrix} \sum p_{i} + p_{R}^{*} \end{bmatrix}^{-1} & i \neq R \\ i \neq R & i \neq R \end{cases}$$

$$= p_{R}^{*} \begin{bmatrix} \sum p_{i} + p_{R}^{*} \end{bmatrix}^{-1}, \quad i = R$$

where  $p_R^*$  denotes the probability with which the examinee guesses correctly for item g. The new index,  $k^*$ , is defined in terms of these conditional probabilities, in such a way that

(5.2) 
$$k^* = \exp\left[-\sum_{i=1}^{m} p(i|\overline{A}) \cdot \log p(i|\overline{A})\right] = \left[\prod_{i=1}^{m} p(i|\overline{A})^{p(i|\overline{A})}\right]^{-1}.$$

It is obvious that  $p(i|\bar{A})$  for  $i \neq R$  is proportional to  $p_i$ , for every examinee in the population who has selected one of the wrong answers does not know the answer, and, consequently, he is also in the subpopulation  $\bar{A}$ . On the other hand, examinees who have selected the correct answer R are not necessarily in the subpopulation  $\bar{A}$ , so we can write

$$(5.3) p_{\tilde{R}}^{\star} \leqslant p_{\tilde{R}}.$$

Note that, if the examinee's behavior follows the knowledge or random guessing principle and the item characteristic function of the multiple-choice item g is of one of the three-parameter models,  $p_R^{\star} \text{ equals } p_i \text{ for } i \neq R \text{ , and, as the result, all the } m p(i|\tilde{A})\text{'s}$  are equal and  $k^{\star} = m$ .

In practice, we need to use some estimates for  $p(i|\vec{A})$ 's, to obtain the estimate of k\*. Since we have the frequency ratio,  $P_i$ , for the estimate of  $P_i$  for  $i \neq R$ , all we need to do is to



find out an appropriate estimate of  $p_R^{\star}$  . Let  $P_R^{\star}$  denote such an estimate of  $p_R^{\star}$  , and  $P_1^{\star}$  be such that

$$P_{i}^{*} \begin{cases} = P_{i} & i \neq R \\ = P_{R}^{*} & i = R \end{cases}$$

Then we can write for the estimate of  $p(i|\overline{A})$  such that

(5.5) 
$$\hat{p}(i|\bar{A}) = P_{1}^{*}[\sum_{i=1}^{m} P_{i}^{*}]^{-1}$$
.

We are to take the strategy of finding  $P_R^*$  which makes  $k^*$  maximal. Define  $\hat{H}^*$  such that

$$(5.6) \qquad \hat{H}^{*} = \log \hat{k}^{*} = -\sum_{i=1}^{m} \hat{p}(i|\bar{A}) \cdot \log \hat{p}(i|\bar{A})$$

$$i=1$$

$$= -[\sum_{i=1}^{m} P^{*}_{i}]^{-1} [\sum_{i=1}^{m} P^{*}_{i} \cdot \log P^{*}_{i} - (\sum_{i=1}^{m} P^{*}_{i}) \cdot \log \{\sum_{i=1}^{m} P^{*}_{i}\}].$$

Then the partial derivative of  $\widehat{H}^{\bigstar}$  with respect to  $\stackrel{{\bf P}^{\bigstar}}{R}$  can be written as

(5.7) 
$$\frac{\partial \hat{H}^{\star}}{\partial P_{R}^{\star}} = \begin{bmatrix} \Sigma P_{S}^{\star} \end{bmatrix}^{-2} \begin{bmatrix} \Sigma P_{S}^{\star} \cdot \log P_{L}^{\star} - (\Sigma P_{S}^{\star}) \cdot \log P_{R}^{\star} \end{bmatrix},$$

and, setting this equal to zero, we obtain

(5.8) 
$$\log P_{R}^{*} = \left[\sum_{s \neq R} P_{s}\right]^{-1} \sum_{i \neq R} P_{i} \cdot \log P_{i}$$

and then

$$(5.9) \qquad \begin{array}{c} P_{\mathbf{i}} \left[ \sum P_{\mathbf{s}} \right]^{-1} \\ P_{\mathbf{k}} = \prod P_{\mathbf{i}} P_{\mathbf{s}} \\ \mathbf{i} \neq \mathbf{R} \end{array}$$

Thus we can use (5.9) in (5.4), and, therefore, obtain  $\hat{p}(i|\bar{A})$ 



through (5.5). The estimate of the new index, k\*, is given by

$$(5.10) \qquad \hat{k}^* = \exp\left[-\sum_{i=1}^{m} \hat{p}(i|\overline{A}) \cdot \log \hat{p}(i|\overline{A})\right] = \left[\prod_{i=1}^{m} \hat{p}(i|\overline{A}) \hat{p}(i|\overline{A})\right]^{-1}.$$

A necessary, though not sufficient, condition for one of the three-parameter models to be valid is that  $\hat{k}^*$  should be equal to m within sampling fluctuations, <u>regardless of the population of examinees</u> from which our sample happened to be selected. If this is not the case, we must say that the three-parameter model does not fit our item, i.e., the invalidation of the model.

Although the invalidation of the three-parameter logistic, or normal ogive, model is easy, its validation is more difficult. We recall that Sato's number of hypothetical, equivalent alternatives is used as a measure of the desirability of the item for a specific population of examinees. If all the distractors are equally probable for a specific population, then the index  $\,k^{\star}\,$  will also equal  $\,m\,$  , in spite of the fact that the two cases are completely different This problem can be solved by administering the same in nature. test to a different group of examinees, which has a different ability distribution from that of the first group. If the large value of k\* is due to the knowledge or random guessing principle, then it will also be large for the second group of examinees because of its population-free nature. On the other hand, if the large value of k\* is resulted from the optimal quality of the item for the first group of examinees, then it will not be as large as that for the second group, unless the operating characteristics of all the distractors are identical.



It should be emphasized that k\* takes on a large value even if the knowledge or random guessing principle does not work behind the examinee's behavior, but the item is "suitable" for the group of examinees to which the test has been administered, in the same sense that a high value of Sato's number of hypothetical, equivalent alternatives is meant to indicate. This fact means that, when we need to use only one set of data for validating, or invalidating, the knowledge or random guessing principle and the three-parameter logistic, or normal ogive, model, we must use, at least, one more necessary condition for the principle to be valid. necessary condition is that the sample means of ability  $\theta$ , or of its estimate, of the subgroups of examinees who have selected the wrong answers should be equal, within the range of sampling fluctuations. Thus, if either the value of k\* is substantially less than m, or the sample means of ability  $\theta$  of such subgroups of examinees are not close to each other, then we shall be able to say that the knowledge or random guessing principle and the three-parameter model are invalidated. On the other hand, if both of the necessary conditions are satisfied with our data, we can say there is no reason to reject the principle and the model.

For the purpose of illustration, a set of simulated data was calibrated, using the Monte Carlo method. In this set of data, five hypothetical multiple-choice test items were assumed, each having five alternatives, A, B, C, D and E, with A always as the correct answer. Each item is assumed to follow the three-parameter normal ogive model, which is given by (4.1) and (4.3), with the parameter values shown in Table 5-1. A group of five hundred



TABLE 5-1

Item Discrimination Parameter a and Item Difficulty Parameter b of Each of the Five Hypothetical, Binary Items Following the Three-Parameter Normal Ogive Model, with c = 0.2.

Item	a g	b <sub>g</sub>
1	1.00	0.00
2	1.50	0.00
3	2.00	0.00
4	2.50	0 <b>.00</b>
5	3.50	0.00



hypothetical examinees was assumed, whose ability levels are placed at one hundred equally spaced points on the ability continuum, which start with -2.475 and end with 2.475, in such a way that subjects 1 through 5 are placed at  $\theta = -2.475$ , subjects 6 through 10 are at  $\theta = -2.425$ , and so on. For each of the five hypothetical multiple-choice items, the response of each of the five hundred hypothetical examinees was calibrated according to the specified item characteristic function and the knowledge or random guessing principle. These calibrated responses are presented as Table A-1 in Appendix I.

Table 5-2 presents the frequency ratio,  $P_i$  , of each of the five alternatives, for each of the five hypothetical multiplechoice items. We can see that sampling fluctuations are fairly large for item 4, and to a less degree for item 2, since the corresponding probability,  $p_{ij}$  , is 0.6 for the alternative A and 0.1 for each of the alternatives B, C, D and E. In the same table, also presented are the values of  $P_{R}^{\star}$  , which were obtained through (5.9). Using these values in (5.6), (5.9) and (5.10), the estimates of the entropy H\* and the index k\* were obtained, and are presented in Table 5-3. Since the maximal possible value of H\* is approximately 1.60944 (=log m) and that of  $\hat{k}^*$  is 5 (=m), we can say that these results are sufficiently close to their respective maximal values, i.e., an exemplification of the satisfaction of one of the necessary conditions for validating the three-parameter normal ogive model and the knowledge or random guessing principle by our simulated data. The fact that these results are less



TABLE 5-2

Frequency Ratio of the Subject, P, , Who Selected Each of the Five Alternatives, and the Modified Frequency Ratio P\* for the Correct Answer A, for Each of the Five Hypothetical Items.

Alternative			В	С	D	E
Item			ָר ב		, D	
	P.	-608	.086	.106	.100	.100
1	P*	.098				
	Pi	.618	.102	.080	.106	.094
2	P*	.096				
	Pi	.600	.094	.106	.108	.092
3	P* R	.100				
,	Pi	.606	.104	.078	.130	.082
4	P <b>★</b> R	.101			<u> </u>	
5	Pi	.598	.092	.100	.104	.106
	P 1 P* R	.101				



TABLE 5-3

Entropy, Ĥ\*, and the Number of Hypothetical,
Equivalent Alternatives, k\*, for Each of
the Five Hypothetical Items Following the
Three-Parameter Normal Ogive Model.

'Item	Ĥ*	k*
1	1.60714	4.98853
2	1.60501	4.97789
3	1.60744	4.99000
4	1.59224	4.91475
5	1.60829	4.99424



satisfactory for item 4 and the same is true, to a lesser degree, for item 2 must be due to the sampling fluctuations, which were observed in Table 5-2.

As another necessary condition for validating the threeparameter normal ogive model and the knowledge or random guessing principle, the mean of  $\theta$  for each of the five subgroups of examinees, who selected different alternatives, was computed, for each of the five multiple-choice items. Table 5-4 presents the result of these means of  $\theta$  . In the same table, also presented is the expectation of  $\theta$  for each of the five subgroups, using the uniform ability distribution for the interval, [-2.5, 2.5], for each item, following the three-parameter normal ogive model and the knowledge or random guessing principle. Since all the responses to one of the four wrong answers of each item are nothing but the result of random guessing, these alternatives are equivalent, and have the same mean value of  $\theta$  . We can see that, for each item, the mean of  $\theta$  for the correct answer and that of each incorrect answer are substantially different, and they are close enough to the respective theoretical means.

In practice, there is no way to observe the examinee's  $\theta$  itself. We can use its maximum likelihood estimate,  $\hat{\theta}$ , however, and use it as the substitute in the above process, for example. We must obtain a similar result as above, to validate the three-parameter models and the knowledge or random guessing principle.

We notice that a similar result as the one in our example



TABLE 5-4 Sample Mean of  $\,\theta\,$  for the Subgroup of Hypothetical Examinees Who Selected Each of the Five Alternatives, and Its Corresponding Theoretical Mean, for Each of the Five Multiple-Choice Items.

Alternative		A rect)	B C D E (Incorrect)	
Item	E( <del>0</del> )	ē	ē E(	θ)
1	0.703	0.619	-0.912 -1.017 -0.994 -0.905 -1.	054
2	0.774	0.752	-1.341 -1.084 -1.249 -1.161 -1.	161
3	0.800	0.811	-1.165 -1.233 -1.224 -1.237 -1.	200
4	0.812	0.809	-1.230 -1.119 -1.253 -1.369 -1.	218
5	0.822	0.809	-1.061 -1.193 -1.260 -1.282 -1.	234



can be obtained, if, incidentally, all the distractors require "on the average" approximately the same level of ability for the examinee to be attracted to them, for our group of examinees. This fact indicates that it is desirable to add more necessary conditions to examine, such as the approximate equality of the second moment of  $\theta$ , or  $\hat{\theta}$ , that of the third moment, etc., for the subgroups of examinees who have selected the wrong answers. Since these subgroups of examinees are "equivalent" in ability distribution if the knowledge or random guessing principle and the three-parameter model are valid, these higher moments should be equal within sampling fluctuations, which it is highly unlikely that all the subgroups of examinees who have been attracted to separate distractors are equivalent in ability distribution. We must avoid, however, using moments of too high degrees, for their sampling fluctuations tend to be enormously great.



## VI Shiba's Research on the Measurement of Vocabulary

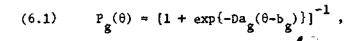
In this chapter, we shall introduce a research on the measurement of vocabulary, which was conducted by Shiba and others.

The author found it interesting, especially in the following aspects.

- The vocabulary tests they used are very well constructed, choosing each alternative carefully.
- (2) Subjects were selected from many different age groups.
- (3) Unlike many researchers in the United States, they have tried to make a full use of the distractors.

The battery of tests used for the construction of the vocabulary scale consists of eleven tests, Al, A2, A3, A4, A5, A6, J1, J2, S1, S2 and U . Each test contains thirty to fifty-eight multiple-choice items, each having a set of five alternatives. These tests differ in difficulty, and each of them is designed for a different group of ages, ranging from six years of age to the ages of There are subsets of items included in two tests, college students. which are adjacent to each other in difficulty. For example, items 37 through 56 of Test Jl are also items 1 through 20 of Test J2. The number of examinees used for the vocabulary scale construction varies between 412 sixth graders of elementary schools for Test A5 and 924 second graders of senior high schools for Test (cf. Shiba, 1978.) S1.

The model adopted for the item characteristic function of each vocabulary item is the logistic model, such that





where ag and bg are the item discrimination and difficulty parameters, respectively, and D = 1.7. Note that Shiba did not use the three-parameter logistic model, which is characterized by (4.2) and (4.3). This is based on his belief that three-parameter models are not applicable for well-developed multiple-choice items, which he has formed through his many experiences in test construction and research.

Each of the eleven tests was administered to a group of subjects who belong to a single school year, except for college students.

Hereafter, for convenience, we shall use EL for elementary schools,

JH for junior high schools, SH for senior high schools, and CS for colleges, and add the school year after each symbol. For instance,

by SH2 we mean a group of subjects who are in the second year of senior high schools. The correspondence of the subject groups and the tests administered is summarized as follows:

- Al for EL1 (650), A2 for EL2 (650), A3 for EL3 (546),
- A4 for EL4 (617), A5 for EL5 (599), A6 for EL6 (412),
- J1 for JH1 (614), J2 for JH2 (758), S1 for SH1 (924),
- S2 for SH2 (759) and U for CS (740),

where the numbers in parentheses indicate respective numbers of examinees. Note that JH3 and SH3 are not included in the data which are the basis of the vocabulary scale construction.

The main steps for analyzing these data are the following.

- [A] For each of the eleven groups of examinees, the ability distribution is assumed to be the standard normal distribution.
- [B] Assuming the normal ogive model, such that



(6.2) 
$$P_{g}(\theta) = (2\pi)^{-1/2} \int_{-\infty}^{a_{g}(\theta-b_{g})} e^{-u^{2}/2} du,$$

where  $a_g$  and  $b_g$  are the item discrimination and difficulty parameters, respectively, and the local independence of the item variables (Lord and Novick, 1968, Chapter 16), and also that the regression of each item variable on ability  $\theta$  is linear, the tetrachoric correlation coefficient is computed for each and every pair of items.

- [C] The principal factor solution of factor analysis is applied for the correlation matrix thus obtained, using the largest absolute value of the correlation coefficient in each row, or column, as the communality. This step is also the process of validating the uni-dimensionality of ability  $\theta$ . Figure 6-1 illustrates the resulting set of eigenvalues for Test J1 which was administered to 614 first year junior high school students. It turned out that the first eigenvalue is much larger than all the other eigenvalues, and thus the unidimensionality was confirmed. Hereafter, this first principal factor is treated as  $\theta$ .
- [D] From the result of factor analysis, the item parameters are obtained. Let  $\rho_g$  be the factor loading (e.g., Lawley and Maxwell, 1971) of the first principal factor, or  $\theta$ , for item g. The item discrimination parameter,  $a_g$ , is obtained by

(6.3) 
$$a_g = \rho_g (1-\rho_g)^{-1/2}$$
.  $A_{\frac{1}{2}}$ 



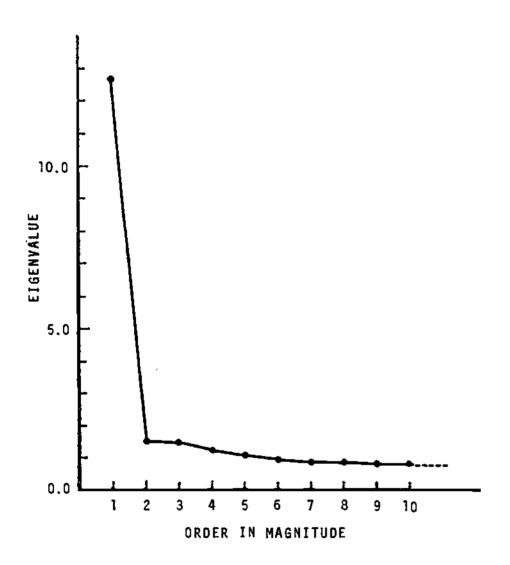


FIGURE 6-1

Eigenvalues of the Correlation Matrix of the Fifty-Five Items of Test Jl, Ordered with Respect to Their Magnitudes.



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Let  $\Phi(\mathbf{u})$  denote the standard normal distribution function, such that

(6.4) 
$$\Phi(u) = (2\pi)^{-1/2} \int_{-\infty}^{u} e^{-t^2/2} dt.$$

The item difficulty parameter,  $b_g$ , is given by

(6.5) 
$$b_g = \phi^{-1}(1-p_{gr}) \rho_g^{-1}$$
,

where  $\mathbf{p}_{gR}$  is the probability with which the examinee answers item g correctly. In practice, this is replaced by the frequency ratio,  $\mathbf{P}_{gR}$ , to provide us with the estimate of  $\mathbf{b}_g$ .

[E] The eleven ability scales thus constructed are considered to be on the same continuum, and they are integrated into a single scale. This equating is made through the ten subsets of items, each of which is shared by two adjacent tests. Let  $\mathbf{a}_g$  and  $\mathbf{b}_g$  be the item parameters estimated from the result of the first test, and  $\mathbf{a}_g^*$  and  $\mathbf{b}_g^*$  be those from the result of the second test. Denoting the two ability scales by  $\theta$  and  $\theta^*$ , respectively, we can write

(6.6) 
$$a_g(\theta-b_g) = a_g^*(\theta^*-b_g^*)$$
,

since the item characteristic functions, which follow the normal ogive model, of the same item g on the two ability scales must assume the same value for the corresponding values of  $\theta$  and  $\theta*$ . Thus the functional relationship between



 $\theta$  and  $\theta$ \* is given by

(6.7) 
$$\theta^* = (a_g/a_g^*)\theta + [b_g^*-(a_g/a_g^*)b_g],$$

which is linear, and the two coefficients are obtained from these four parameters. In practice, we obtain as many sets of coefficients as the number of common items, and we need to use some type of "average" of these coefficients for the scale transformation. Figure 6-2 presents the ability distributions of the eleven subject groups after such transformations were made and the mean and the standard deviation of the distribution of J1 are taken as the origin and the unit for the new, integrated ability dimension.

- [F] The item characteristic function of each item on the new, integrated scale  $\theta$  is approximated by the logistic function, which is given by (6.1).
- [G] The maximum likelihood estimate,  $\hat{\theta}_j$ , of each examinee's ability is obtained through the equation

(6.8) 
$$\sum_{g=1}^{n} a_g P_g(\hat{\theta}_j) = \sum_{g=1}^{n} a_g U_{gj}$$

(cf. Birnbaum, 1968), where u is the binary item score of individual j for item g.

[H] The test information function of each test is obtained by

(6.9) 
$$I(\theta) = \sum_{g=1}^{n} I_g(\theta) ,$$

where  $I_{\mathbf{g}}(\theta)$  is the item information function of item  $\mathbf{g}$  such





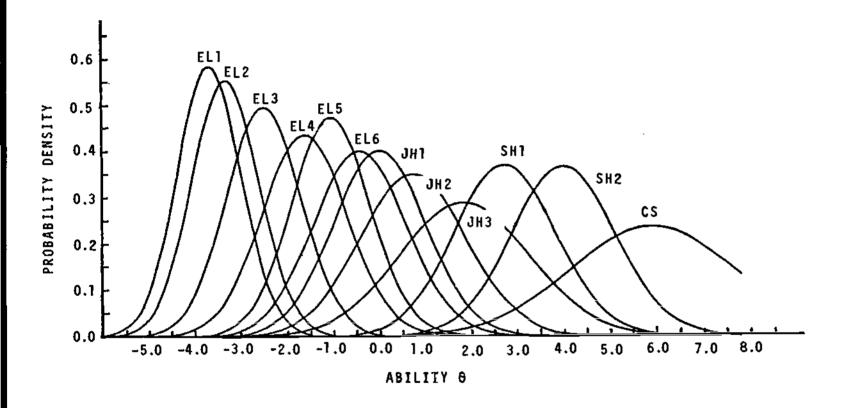


FIGURE 6-2

Estimated Density Functions of the Twelve Groups of Examinees, Which Are Assumed to Be Normal.

The Ability Scale Is Defined in Such a Way that the Density Function of the

First Grade Group of Junior High School (JH1) Is n(0,1).

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that

(6.10) 
$$I_{\mathbf{g}}(\theta) = [P_{\mathbf{g}}'(\theta)]^{2} [P_{\mathbf{g}}(\theta) \{1-P_{\mathbf{g}}(\theta)\}]^{-1}$$
.

Figure 6-3 presents the test information functions thus obtained for the eleven tests.

[I] The theoretical frequency distribution of test score T for each test and examinee group can be written as

(6.11) 
$$N \sum_{V \in T} \sum_{\mathbf{u}_{g} \in V} P_{g}(\theta)^{\mathbf{u}_{g}} [1-P_{g}(\theta)]^{1-\mathbf{u}_{g}},$$

where V is a response pattern or a vector of n item scores, and T is the test score given by

(6.12) 
$$T = \sum_{g=1}^{n} u_g$$

This is used for the validation of the model and assumptions adopted in the process of analysis. Figure 6-4 illustrates the goodness of fit of this theoretical frequency distribution of test score to the actual frequency distribution, for Test J1.

- [J] The sample mean of the maximum likelihood estimate  $\hat{\theta}$  of the subgroup of examinees, who selected each of the five alternatives is calculated, for each item of each test.
- [K] A tailored test of the vocabulary is constructed by selecting an appropriate subset of items from these eleven tests, in such a way that an individual is directed to a next item which is chosen on the basis of the sample mean of  $\hat{\theta}$  of the alternative





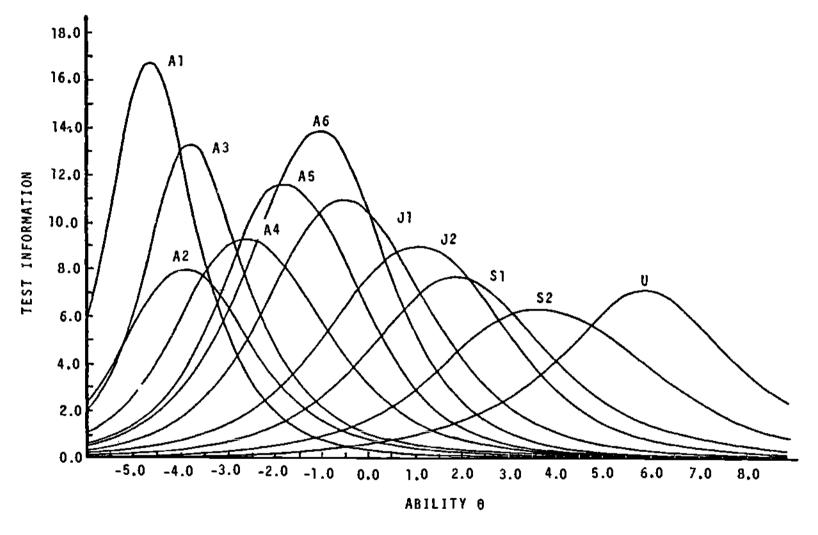


FIGURE 6-3

Test Information Functions of the Eleven Tests on Vocabulary.



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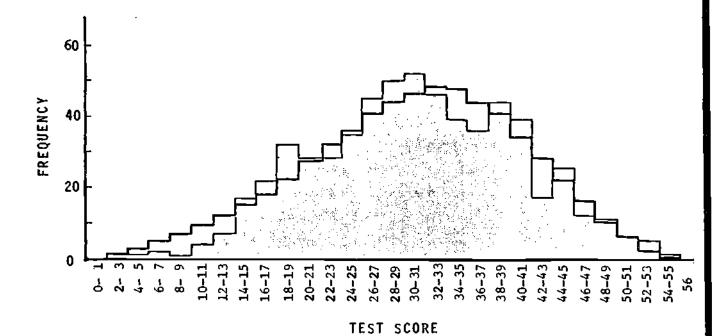


FIGURE 6-4
Theoretical and Observed (shaded) Frequency Distributions of the Test Score of Test Jl.



he has selected for the present item.

We have seen in the preceding paragraphs a brief sketch of Shiba and others' work. It is unfortunate that the author cannot convey the fine quality of the tests themselves to the reader, for they are vocabulary tests and their translation from Japanese into English would certainly destroy the nature of the tests. We can see that the research has been conducted very conscientiously, however, including several processes of validation, and has eventually produced a widely applicable vocabulary scale and a tailored test. In the latter result, although there is some room for improvement, the use of distractors for "branching" subjects should be taken as a stimulation to the researchers who are engaged in this area, for it has seldom been seriously investigated by other researchers.

The research conducted by Shiba and others includes more interesting data than were used in the vocabulary scale construction. Table 6-1 presents a part of them, in which the frequency distribution of the alternative selection and the mean of the maximum likelihood estimate of ability for each alternative are shown for nineteen items included in both Tests J1 and J2, and administered to four different subject groups, JH1, JH2(a), JH2(b) and JH3. In the same table, also presented is the discrepancy between the mean of  $\hat{\theta}$  for the correct answer and the lowest mean  $\hat{\theta}$  for one of the four wrong answers, under the heading, "largest discrepancy." The correct answers are always identified as the ones which have the highest means of  $\hat{\theta}$ , except for the one for item 8 administered to JH2(b), which is the second highest



TABLE 6-1

Mean of the Maximum Likelihood Estimates of Ability,  $\hat{\theta}$ , for Each of the Five Subgroupe of Subjects Selecting Different Alternatives, for Each of the 19 Vocebulery Test Items, Together with the Actual Frequency Distributions (FRQ). The Difference between the Mean  $\hat{\theta}$  of the Correct Subgroups and the Lowest Mean  $\hat{\theta}$  Is Also Presented As Largest Discrepancy for Each Item. Test J1, Junior Righ School Grade 1

			Alre	rner ive				Largest
Item	Indices	1	2	3	4	5	Total	Discrepancy
37	Mean ê FRQ	0.401 287	-0.476 50	-0.482 59	-0.750 59	-0.148 117	572	1.151
38	Mean ê FRQ							
39	Hean 8 FEQ	-0.192 91	-0.091 115	-0.270 118	-0.243 51	0.400 187	562	0.670
40	Heat: 0 FRQ	0.071 60	-0.416 141	-0.336 90	0.310 273	-0.479 9	573	g.789
41	Mean 6 FRQ	-0.557 53	-1.007 20	-0.445 23	-0.456 85	0.254 392	573	1.261
42	Mean 0 FRQ	0.339 247	-0.570 21	0.036 121	-0.439 84	-0.387 97	570	0.909
43	Hean ô	-0.512 26	0.376 308	-0. <b>5</b> 72 98	-0.245 67	-0.393 73	572	0.948
44	Mean ô FRQ	-0.293 119	-0.547 67	-0. <b>5</b> 95 14	0.271 333	-0.318 36	569	0.866
45	Mean ê FRQ	-0.638 51	-0.412 25	-0.636 123	0.395 346	-0.593 23	568	1.033
46	Mean 8	0.444 296	-0.741 46	-0.325 44	-0.428 164	-0.534 18	568	1.185
47	Mean ê FRQ	-0.261 <b>6</b> 9	0.270 224	-0.078 158	-0.426 53	-0.101 65	569	0.696
48	Mean ê FRQ	-0.129 81	-0.024 100	-1.013 58	-0.467 67	0.412 258	564	1.425
49	Mean 6	-0.339 115	-0.390 31	-0.284 42	-0.464 70	0.309 315	573	0.773
50	Hean ê FRQ	0.349 308	-0.256 46	~1.015 35	-0.317 86	-0.385 96	571	1.364
51	Mean 8 FRQ	-0.137 89	-0.640 82	-0.077 75	-0.136 113	0.429 201	<b>5</b> 60	1.069
52	Mean 6 FRQ	-0.219 116	0.291 23 <b>5</b>	-0.110 80	-0.608 34	-0.095 100	565	0.899
53	Mean ê FRQ	-0.071 163	-0.030 51	-0.453 34	0.527 143	-0.241 181	572	0.980
54	Hean ê FRQ	0.132 182	-0.060 111	-0.084 100	-0.037 142	-0.283 26	561	0.415
55	Mean 6 FRQ	0.114 27	-0.278 72	-0.172 317	-0.533 29	0.690 126	571	1.223
56	Mean ô FRQ	-0.460 104	-0.113 101	-0.412 115	0.742 141	0.015 111	572	1.202



TABLE 6-1 (C cinued): Test J1, Junior High School Grade 2

7	P-14		Alte	mative		1		Largest
Îtem	Indices	1	2	3	4	5	Total	Discrepancy
37	Mean θ : FRQ	0.886 269	-0.215 39	-0.249 39	-0.312 37	0.028 71	455	1.198
38	Mean ê FRQ							
39	Mean ê FRQ	0.384 5 <b>5</b>	0.186 97	0.083 82	-0.068 50	1.015 166	450	1.083
40	Mean ô FRQ	0.521 61	-0.133 95	0.109 45	0.802 243	-0.286 14	458	1.088
41	Mean 6 FRQ	-0.553 27	-0.440 13	-0.173 19	-0.019 47	0.665 355	461	1.218
42	Mean 8 FRQ	0.810 257	-0.426 14	0.34 <b>8</b> 6 <b>8</b>	-0.089 67	-0.201 51	457	1.236
43	Mean ô FRQ	-0.162 10	0.791 312	-0.578 53	0.142 46	-0.321 37	458	1.369
44	Mean ô FRQ	0.298 65	-0.145 54	-0.228 15	0.664 291	0.237 31	456	0.892
45	Mean ê FRQ	-0-124 30	0.139 23	-0.290 79	0.823 299	-0.469 28	459	1.292
46	Mean ê FRQ	0.849 308	-0.751 25	-0.263 29	-0.260 90	-0.072 7	459	1.600
47	Mean ê FRQ	-0.136 43	0.764 302	-0.119 54	≁0.194 30	-0.001 30	459	0.958
48	Mean ô FRQ	0.483 56	0.262 85	-0.889 38	-0.086 45	0.871 231	455	1.760
49	Mean 6 FRQ	0.050 96	-0.351 16	0.183 19	-0.419 35	0.756 294	460	1.175
50	Mean ô FRQ	0.798 269	0.153 19	-0.634 20	0.151 84	-0.099 63	455	1.432
51	Mean ê FRQ	0.118 76	-0_260 47	0.312 55	0.150 68	0.909 202	448	1.169
52	Mean ê FRQ	0.195 60	0.778 239	0.035 71	0.206 21	0.177 58	449	0.743
53	Mean ê FRQ	0.376 94	0.193 34	-0.013 26	0.918 1 <b>8</b> 0	0.040 125	459	0.931
54	Mean ô ' FRQ	0.817 177	0.256 75	0.282 82	0.221 108	0.051 9	451	0.766
55	Mean 6 FRQ	-0.043 20	-0.042 45	-0.052 174	-0.455 18	1.157 201	458	1.612
56	Mean ê FRQ	0.256 70	0.236 100	-0.289 80	1.354 128	0.247 77	455	1.643



TABLE 6-1 (Continued): Test J2, Junior High School Grade 2

Item	Indices		Alte	mative		_	Total	Largest
		1	2	3	4	5	10001	Discrepancy
1	Hean ∂ FRQ	-0.247 145	-0.901 11	-1.148 19	-1.354 11	-0.744 35	221	1.107
2	Mean ∂ FRQ							
3	Mean <sup>ê</sup> FRQ	-0.667 28	-0.660 45	-0.639 42	-0.834 16	-0.224 87	218	0.610
4	Mean ∂ FRQ	-0.403 51	-0.963 30	-1.036 23	-0.289 115	-0.948 2	221	0.747
5	Mean 8 FRQ	-1.126 14	-1.573 2	-1.070 10	-1.091 18	-0.334 177	221	1.239
6	Mean ê FRQ	-0.239 125	-0.948 6	-0.607 32	-0.891 32	-0.978 25	220	0.739
7	Mean ô FRQ	-2.089 1	-0.269 153	-1.365 24	-0.671 30	-0.946 13	221	1.820
8	Mean ô FRQ	-0.761 37	-1.205 12	-0.589 6	-0.376 156	-0.362 10	221	0.829
9	Mean ê FRQ	-1.259 10	-0.746 9	-1.098 21	-0.312 172	-1.428 8	220	1.116
10	Mean 9 FRQ	-0.194 141	-1.057 11	-0.850 18	-1.096 47	-0.648 4	221	0.902
11	Mean ô FRQ	-1.035 22	-0.253 143	-0.801 26	-1.059 7	-0.924 22	220	0.806
12	Mean ô FRQ	-0.681 23	-0.883 23	-1.551 10	-1.113 18	-0.251 147	221	1.300
13	Hean ô	-0.597 50	-1.016 6	-0.777 21	-1.277 13	-0.302 131	221	0.975
14	Mean ê FRQ	-0.227 134	-0.860 13	-1.523 9	-0.646 34	-1.023 30	220	1.296
15	Hean 8	-0.766 34	-1.045 18	-0.845 26	-0.974 36	-0.061 107	221	0.984
16	Mean ô FRQ	-0.764 36	-0.093 87	-0.571 54	-1.369 11	-0.784 29	217	1.276
17	Hean 6 FRQ	-0.704 52	-0.373 21	-0.858 5	-0.128 85	-0.842 58	221	0.730
19	Mean 8. FRQ	-0.189 109	-0.745 33	-0.731 31	-0.929 39	-0.291 7	219	0.740
19	Mean ô FRQ	-1.012	-0.808 38	-0.875 88	<b>-1.</b> 139	0.148 83	221	1.287
20	Mean ô FRQ	-0.923 46	-0.805 38	-0.948 46	0.304 67	-0.507 24	221	1.252

TABLE 6-1 (Continued): Test J2, Junior High School Grade 3

		_				_		
Iten	Indices	1	2	rnative	4	5	Total	Largest Discrepancy
1	Mean 6	0.161 436	+0.838 30	~0.787 25	-1.099 19	-0.374 63	\$73	1.260
2	Mean ô FRQ							
3	Mean ê FRQ	-0.312 54	-0.287 93	~0.373 97	-0.486 63	0.351 260	567	0.837
4	Mean 6 FRQ	-0.025 83	-0.84 <b>8</b> 77	~0.252 38	0.181 362	-0.709 12	572	1.029
s	Mean ê FRQ	-0.763 30	-0.766 7	-0.864 19	-0.611 43	0.107 475	574	0.971
6	Mean. 6	0.221 371	-0.722 7	-0.267 96	-0.675 49	-0.801 45	568	1.022
7	Mean 6 FRQ	-0.597 10	0.175 441	~1.125 45	-0.339 50	-0.870 24	570	1.300
8	Mean ô FRQ	-0.438 55	-0.966 31	~0.448 14	0.100 457	-0.272 14	571	1.066
9	Mean ê FRQ	-1.089 32	-0.368 47	~0.82 <b>8</b> 67	0.252 407	-0.780 17	570	1.341
10	Mean ô FRQ	0-117 473	-1.019 15	~0.229 28	-1.035 51	0.022 4	571	1.152
ц	Mean ê FRQ	-0.555 36	0.264 389	~0.750 69	~0.666 35	-0.619 43	572	1.014
12	Mean ê FRQ	~0.478 33	-0.511 87	-1.394 10	-0.754 35	9.203 407	572	1.597
13	Mean ô FRQ	~0.595 107	-0.888 16	-0.366 29	-1.342 14	0.216 407	573	1.558
14	Mean ô FRQ	0.241 387	-0.367 22	~1.527 12	-0.382 84	-0.824 66	571	1.768
15	Mean ê FRQ	-0.610 67	-0.853 27	~0.582 79	-0.638 69	0.441 319	561	1.294
16	Mean ô FRQ	-0.629 58	0.264 364	-0.499 75	-0.344 14	-0.555 58	569	0.893
1.7	Mean 6 FRQ	-0.277 109	0.166 42	~0.469 30	0.351 259	-0.546 132	572	0.897
18	Mean 6 FRQ	0.383 294	-0.380 65	~0.418 80	-0.548 115	-0.579 11	565	0.962
19	Mean ô FRQ	-0.943 15	-0.582 87	~0.651 136	-0.789 9	0-439 325	572	1.382
20	Mean ô FRQ	-0.524 78	-0.484 74	~0.770 93	0.692 235	-0.363 94	574	1.462

in mean  $\hat{\theta}$  .



## VII Use of Index k\* When Distractors Are in Full Work

It is obvious in Table 6-1 of the preceding chapter that for these vocabulary items the knowledge or random guessing principle does not work behind the examinee's behavior, for the mean values of  $\hat{\theta}$  for the wrong answers are substantially different from one another for most of the items. In cases like this, index  $k^*$ , which was introduced in Chapter 5 as a modification of Sato's number of hypothetical, equivalent alternatives and used as an index for invalidating three-parameter models, can be used as a measure of desirability of the item for the group of examinees in question, just as Sato's index is meant to be used for. An additional merit of index  $k^*$  when it is used for this purpose will be that it can be used directly, without depending upon the relationship with the probability for the correct answer,  $p_R$ , which is illustrated by Figure 2-1.

Table 7-1 presents the estimated entropy  $\hat{H}^*$  obtained by (5.6), for each of the nineteen items and each of the four groups of examinees, JH1, JH2(a), JH2(b) and JH3. The values of index  $\hat{k}^*$ , which correspond to these  $\hat{H}^{*}$ 's in Table 7-1, were obtained by (5.10) and are shown in Table 7-2.

We can see in these tables that thirteen out of the total of nineteen items have higher values of  $\hat{H}^*$ , and hence of  $\hat{k}^*$ , for JH2(a) than for JH2(b). Since the subjects in these two groups are of the same school year, i.e., the second year of junior high school, this tendency may be related with the fact that for JH2(a) these nineteen items were given at the end of the test and for



TABLE 7-1

Entropy of Each of the Nineteen Vocabulary Items Based on Each of the Four Subgroups, i.e., Junior High School, Grades 1, 2, 2 and 3. For the First Two Subgroups of Subjects Test J1 Was Used and for the Other Two Subgroups Test J2 Was Used.

Subgroup Item	JH1	JH2(a)	JH2(b)	лн3
37 (1)	1.55907	1.57572	1.51218	1.52080
39 (3)	1.57359	1.57997	1,55547	1.58566
40 (4)	1.41987	1.48141	1.39913	1.46917
41 (5)	1.47880	1.52098	1.46885	1.48496
42 (6)	1.50740	1.51576	1.50880	1.42679
43 (7)	1.54070	1.51224	1.39256	1.49871
44 (8)	1.43049	1.51333	1.41791	1.47934
45 (9)	1.42195	1.49895	1.54177	1,52485
46(10)	1.37234	1.36152	1.36544	1.39912
47(11)	1.52673	1.58391	1.54137	1.57599
48(12)	1.59254	1.57072	1.57317	1.43130
49(13)	1.51299	1.40124	1.40700	1.32933
50(14)	1.54630	1.46214	1.50665	1.43095
51(15)	1.599 <b>6</b> 2	1.59600	1.58320	1.55950
52 (16)	1.54651	1.54903	1.51294	1.51407
53(17)	1.45244	1.46629	1.41821	1.48312
54(18)	1.51192	1.45933	1.51052	1.46054
55(19)	1.23002	1.27989	1.25075	1.30371
56(20)	1.60838	1.60223	1.58595	1.60504



TABLE 7-2

Number of Hypothetical, Equivalent Alternatives of Each of the Nineteen Vocabulary Items Based on Each of the Four Subgroups, i.e., Junior High School, Grades 1, 2, 2 and 3. For the First Two Subgroups of Subjects Test Jl Was Used and for the Other Two Subgroups

Test J2 Was Used.

Subgroup	JH1	лн2 (a)	JH2(b)	JH3
37 (1)	4.75440	4.83420	4.53660	4.57590
39 (3)	4.82391	4.85480	4.73730	4.88252
40 (4)	4.13659	4.39917	4.05166	4.34565
41 (5)	4.38768	4.57672	4.34425	4.41479
42 (6)	4.51496	4.55290	4.52130	4.16531
43 (7)	4.66784	4.53688	4.02513	4.47592
44 (8)	4.18076	4.54183	4.12850	4.39004
45 (9)	4.14519	4.47701	4.67284	4.59447
46(10)	3.94459	3.90212	3.91744	4.05162
47(11)	4.60310	4.87397	4.67098	4.83551
48(12)	4.91623	4.81011	4.82191	4.18412
49(13)	4.54029	4.06023	4.08370	3.77850
50(14)	4.69408	4.31519	4.51161	4.18267
51(15)	4.95113	4.93326	4.87053	4.75646
52 (16)	4.69506	4.70690	4.54008	4.54521
53(17)	4.27352	4.33314	4.12972	4.40669
54 (18)	4.53542	4.30307	4.52908	4.30829
55(19)	3.42128	3.59625	3.49295	3.68295
56 (20)	4.99472	4.96410	4.88392	4.97805

JH2(b) they were given at the beginning of the test. We can also observe that, for some items, there exists a mild tendency that the value of  $\hat{k}^*$  becomes greater as the school year increases, and, for some others, this tendency is reversed. Items 39(3), 40(4), 44(8), 45(9), 47(11), 53(17) and 55(19) belong to the first category, and items 37(1), 48(12), 49(13), 50(14), 51(15), 52(16) and 54(18) are members of the second category. In spite of these mild tendencies, however, the values of index  $\hat{k}^*$  are large, ranging, approximately, from 3.42 to 4.99, for all the examinee groups, the result which indicates a high desirability of this subset of test items for these groups of examinees.

We can observe a tendency that, regardless of the groups of examinees, some items have higher values of  $\hat{k}^*$  than others, and some other items have lower values of  $\hat{k}^*$  than others. Items 56(20), 51(15) and 39(3) exemplify the first category, and items 55(19) and 46(10) are members of the second category.

The mean and the standard deviation of the nineteen values of  $\hat{k}^*$  for each of the four examinee groups were computed, and are presented in Table 7-3. We can see that all the mean values are between 4.39 and 4.51, and all the standard deviations are between 0.34 and 0.40, i.e., very close to one another, respectively.

As an additional information, the product-moment correlation coefficient of  $\hat{k}^*$ 's, which are shown in Table 7-2, was computed for each pair of examinee groups, and the result is presented in Table 7-4. We can see that these values are fairly large and positive, as we can expect from Table 7-2.



TABLE 7-3

Mean and Standard Deviation (s.d.) of the Index k\* for the Nineteen Vocabulary Items, for Each of the Four Examinee Groups.

Examinee Group	Mean	s.d.
JH1	4.4832	0 <b>.3</b> 944
JH2(a)	4.5038	0.3659
лн2 (ъ)	4.3931	0.3759
лн3	4 <b>.3</b> 976	0.3465



TABLE 7-4

Product-Moment Correlation Coefficient of the Index k\* for Each Pair of the Four Examinee Groups.

	JH1	JH2(a)	JH2(b)	лн3
JH1	1.00000	0.82705	0.82711	0.60447 -
JH2 (а)	0.82705	1.00000	0.85120	0.85770
JH2 (b)	0.82711	0.85120	1.00000	0.71444
ЈН3	0.60447	0.85770	0.71444	1.00000



The result of the principal factor analysis of the correlation matrix, Table 7-4, with the largest correlation coefficient of each row or column as the first estimate of the communality and using three iterative reestimations of the communalities, provides us with the eigenvalues, 3.237, 0.266, 0.044 and -0.011. Since the correlation matrix, with communalities as the principal diagonal elements, is positive semi-definite, the negative eigenvalue is due to the error, resulting, mainly, from the inaccuracy of the estimation of the communalities. The final communality estimates are approximately 0.863, 0.999, 0.862 and 0.833, respectively. We can say from this result that a strong, dominating general factor exists behind the four sets of  $\hat{k}^{*}$ 's , since the first eigenvalue, 3.237, is by far the largest, and the other eigenvalues are close to zero. The first factor loadings for the four examinee groups, which are the correlation coefficients between this general factor and the separate sets of k\*'s , respectively, turned out to be 0.868, 0.983, 0.905 and 0.836.

These facts indicate that the four examinee groups are fairly similar to one another with respect to the configuration of the values of  $\hat{k}^*$  as far as these nineteen vocabulary test items are concerned.



## VIII <u>Proposal of a New Family of Models for the Multiple-Choice Item</u>

Throughout the history of mental measurement, the multiplecnoice item has been treated as a "poor image of the free-response
item," and very little accomplishment has been made in pursuing
its theoretical advantage, rather than its handicap. Most
researchers in these days mechanically adopt the three-parameter
logistic model for their research which is based on the multiplechoice item, without even trying to validate the model. As long as
they continue doing this, we shall never be able to expect any
progress in this area of science, in spite of the fact that more
and more research materials and published papers are accumulated
year by year.

It has been one of the author's purposes of pursuing the method of estimating the operating characteristics without assuming any mathematical model a priori (Samejima, 1977b, 1977c, 1978a, 1978b, 1978c, 1978d, 1978e, 1978f) to approach the operating characteristics of distractors, which are completely neglected by the users of three-parameter models. While this approach is undoubtedly more scientific than any others, it will be desirable to consider new types of models, which reflect psychological reality behind the examinee's behavior in the multiple-choice situation far better than three-parameter models and the knowledge or random guessing principle.

The research on the vocabulary measurement made by Shiba and others should be credited for the fact that they did not



many other researchers do, and, moreover, they try to make full use of the information given by the distractors to the extent that they used it for branching examinees in tailored testing. As far as we treat the multiple-choice item as a binary item, it will be a poor substitute for the free-response item, which is contaminated by noise or guessing. If we make use of the information given by the distractors, however, the multiple-choice item can be more informative than the free-response item, and will no longer be a poor image of the free-response item.

The family of models that will be proposed in this chapter is related with the graded response model (Samejima, 1969, 1972), in which an item is scored into more than two response categories. Let  $\mathbf{x}_{\mathbf{g}}$  be the graded item score, which assumes integers, 0 through  $\mathbf{m}_{\mathbf{g}}$ , and  $\mathbf{P}_{\mathbf{x}_{\mathbf{g}}}(\theta)$  be its operating characteristic. The graded response level can be classified into the homogeneous and the heterogeneous cases (Samejima, 1972), and we can name the normal ogive model (Samejima, 1972, 1973) and the logistic model (Samejima, 1972) as models in the homogeneous case, and Bock's multi-nomial response model (Bock, 1972, Samejima, 1972) as an example in the heterogeneous case. In these models, the operating characteristic of the item response category is defined, respectively, as follows.

(8.1) 
$$P_{\mathbf{x}_{g}}(\theta) = (2\pi)^{-1/2} \int_{\mathbf{a}_{g}(\theta-\mathbf{b}_{\mathbf{x}_{g}}+1)}^{\mathbf{a}_{g}(\theta-\mathbf{b}_{\mathbf{x}_{g}}+1)} e^{-\mathbf{u}^{2}/2} d\mathbf{u} .$$



(8.2) 
$$P_{x_g}(\theta) = [1 + \exp\{-Da_g(\theta - b_{x_g})\}]^{-1} - [1 + \exp\{-Da_g(\theta - b_{x_g+1})\}]^{-1}.$$

(8.3) 
$$P_{\mathbf{x}_{g}}(\theta) = \exp\{\alpha_{\mathbf{x}_{g}}^{\theta+\beta_{\mathbf{x}_{g}}}\} \begin{bmatrix} \sum_{g}^{m} e^{g} & \exp\{\alpha_{g}^{\theta+\beta_{g}}\} \end{bmatrix}^{-1}.$$

In both the normal ogive and the logistic models, i.e., in (8.1) and (8.2), the item parameter  $a_g$  is a positive number, and the item response parameter  $b_g$  satisfies the relationship such that

(8.4) 
$$-\infty = b_0 < b_1 < b_2 < \dots < b_{m_g} < b_{m_g+1} = \infty$$
.

In the latter, D is a positive number which assumes 1.7 when the logistic model is used as a substitute for the normal ogive model. In Bock's multi-nomial model, one of the item response parameters,  $^{\alpha}_{\text{x}}$  satisfies the inequality,

$$(8.5) \alpha_0 \leqslant \alpha_1 \leqslant \alpha_2 \leqslant \ldots \leqslant \alpha_{m_g}.$$

Suppose that the multiple-choice item g is constructed in such a way that all the main, plausible answers are covered by the alternatives, in addition to the correct answer. Suppose, further, that no guessing is involved in the examinee's behavior in answering item g. Then the examinee will either be attracted to one of the alternatives, or will have no idea at all as to its answer. Arrange all the distractors in the order of their plausibility, and give the numbers 1 through (mg-1) in the ascending order. The number assigned to the correct answer is mg, or m for simplicity, and the one assigned to the "no idea at all" category



is 0. In such a situation, the operating characteristic of the graded response category can be used as the operating characteristic of the alternative, treating "no answer" as the additional alternative, to which the item score is 0.

In practice, however, because of the pressure of testing, it is rather unlikely that the examinee will leave the item unanswered even when he has "no idea at all." For this reason, now we shall assume that the examinee guesses randomly when he is not attracted by the plausibility of any alternative. Thus we shall deal with the m alternatives as the graded response categories, 1 through m, and we can write for the operating characteristic of the alternative

(8.6) 
$$P_{x_g}(\theta) = \Psi_{x_g}(\theta) + (1/m_g) \left[ \frac{m_g}{1 - \Sigma^g \Psi_g}(\theta) \right], \quad x_g = 1, 2..., m_g,$$

where  $\Psi_{\mathbf{x}}^{}(\theta)$  is the operating characteristic of the alternative  $\mathbf{x}_{\mathbf{g}}^{}$  which is numbered  $\mathbf{x}_{\mathbf{g}}^{}$ , when no guessing is involved. Thus we can use one of the  $P_{\mathbf{x}_{\mathbf{g}}^{}}(\theta)$ 's defined by (8.1), (8.2) and (8.3), or a similar operating characteristic of the graded response category with a sound rationale behind it, depending upon the nature of the item and the set of alternatives.

For the purpose of illustration, we shall use the normal ogive model for  $\Psi_{\mathbf{x}}(\theta)$ , with  $\mathbf{a}_{\mathbf{g}}=1.5$  and  $\mathbf{b}_{\mathbf{x}}$ 's are -2.0, -1.0, 0.0, 1.0 and 2.0 for  $\mathbf{x}_{\mathbf{g}}=1,2,3,4,5$ , respectively. Figure 8-1 presents the operating characteristics of the  $(\mathbf{m}_{\mathbf{g}}+1)$  alternatives, obtained by (8.1), when no guessing is involved and "no answer" is treated as the additional alternative, or category 0.



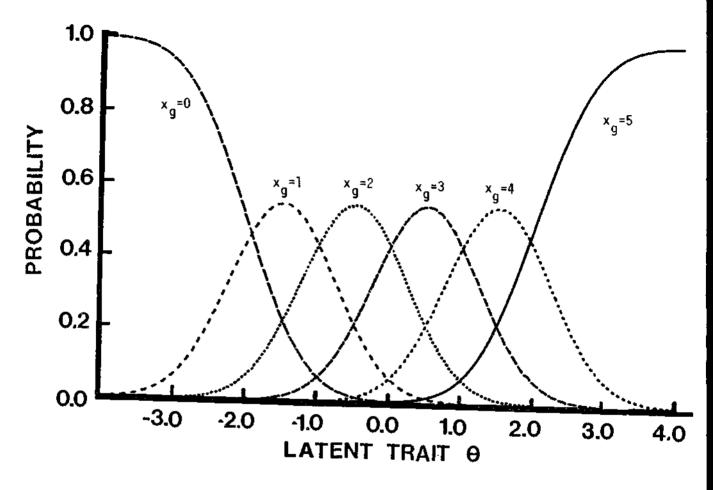


FIGURE 8-1

Operating Characteristics of Six Item Response Categories Following the Normal Ogive Model, with  $a_g=1.5$ ,  $b_1=-2.0$ ,  $b_2=-1.0$ ,  $b_3=0.0$ ,  $b_4=1.0$  and  $b_5=2.0$ .



In this example, the operating characteristics of the four distractors are unimodal, with -1.5, -0.5, 0.5 and 1.5 as the modal points, respectively. Figure 8-2 presents the operating characteristics of the five alternatives when guessing is involved, which are given by (8.6) with  $\frac{\Psi}{\mathbf{x}}$  (0) replaced by  $\mathbf{P}_{\mathbf{x}}$  (0) given in (8.1). We can see that, unlike the operating characteristics when no guessing is involved, these curves have the common asymptote, 1/5, when 0 approaches negative infinity. To compare the two operating characteristics of each alternative more clearly, Figure 8-3 presents the two curves for each alternative in one graph, with the dotted line for the one without guessing, and the solid line for the one with guessing.

The family of models presented by (8.6) seems reasonable, in the sense that it considers both the information given by the distractors and the noise caused by random guessing. Its behavior will be investigated further, and will be discussed in a separate paper.

It is interesting to note that the use of the normal ogive model and its logistic approximation in the research on vocabulary measurement conducted by Shiba and others can be justified by the new family of models. As we can see in the fifth graph of Figure 8-3, when the parameter b<sub>1</sub> is as distant from b<sub>m</sub> as in this example, the operating characteristic of the correct answer is practically the same as the item characteristic function of the normal ogive model on the dichotomous response level, except for the additional "tail" on the lower levels of ability. If



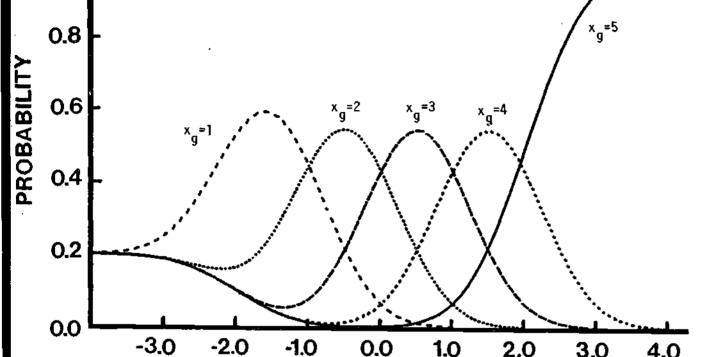


FIGURE 8-2

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Operating Characteristics of Five Alternatives Following the Normal Ogive Model with Guessing Effect. The Parameters Are:  $a_g = 1.5$ ,  $b_1 = -2.0$ ,  $b_2 = -1.0$ ,  $b_3 = 0.0$ ,  $b_4 = 1.0$  and  $b_5 = 2.0$ .



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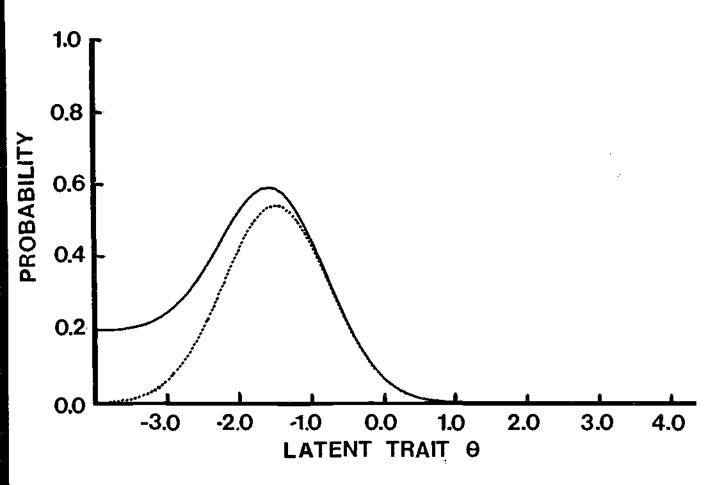


FIGURE 8-3

Comparison of the Two Operating Characteristics in the Normal Ogive Model.

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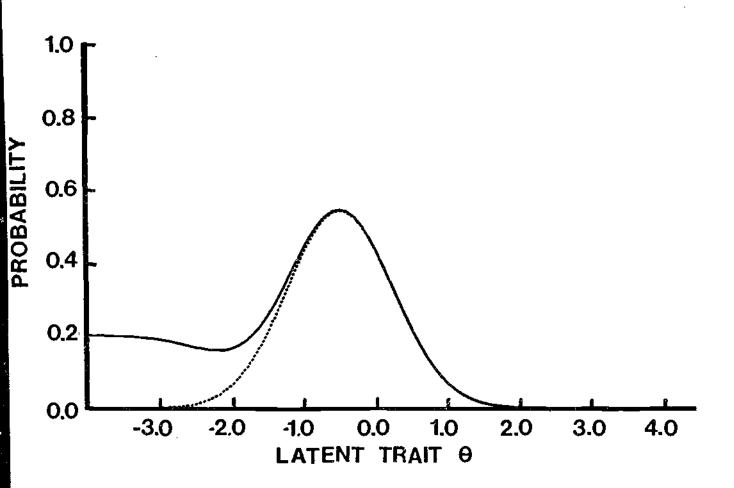


FIGURE 8-3 (Continued)  $x_g = 2$ .



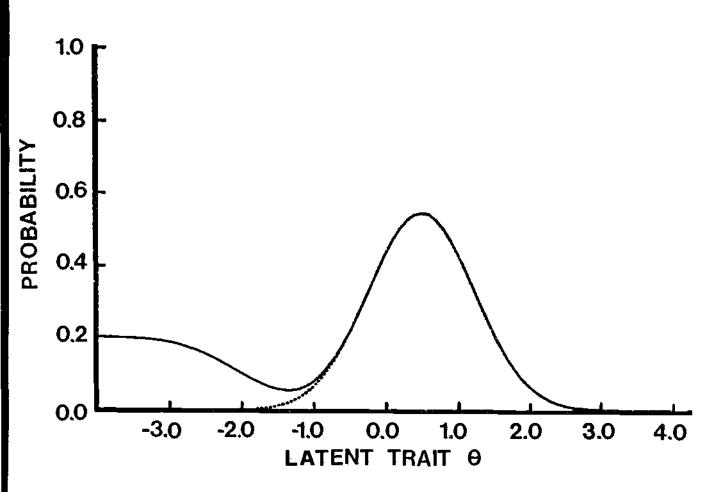


FIGURE 8-3 (Continued)  $x_p = 3$ 

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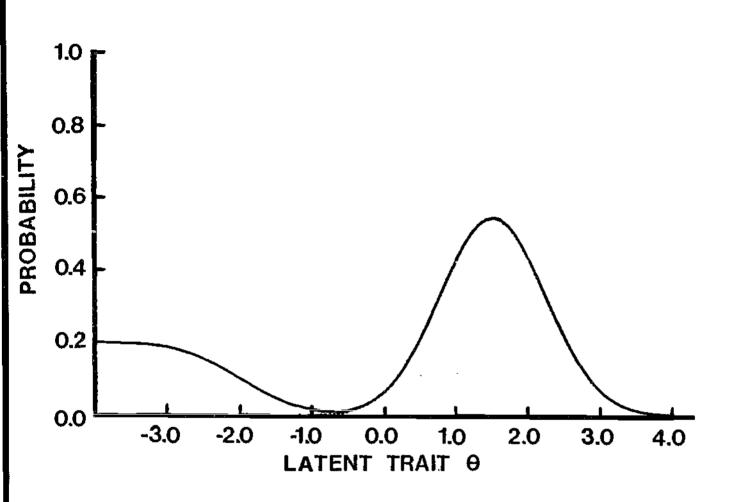


FIGURE 8-3 (Continued)  $x_g = 4$ 

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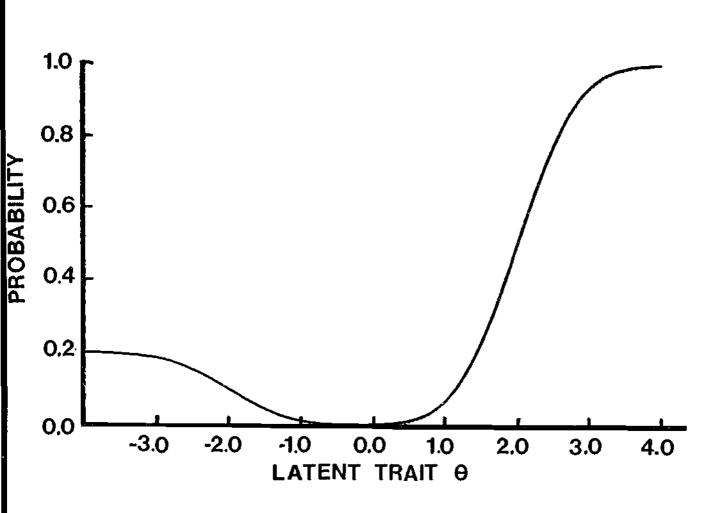


FIGURE 8-3 (Continued)  $x_a = 5$ .

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this is the case with all the items in the test and the ability distribution of our examinees does not include lower levels of  $\theta$  where these tails lie, we can approximate the operating characteristic of the correct answer by the normal ogive model on the dichotomous response level, and use the tetrachoric correlation coefficient and the logistic approximation and so on, just as Shiba and others did.



## IX <u>Discussion</u> and <u>Conclusions</u>

We have introduced Sato's number of hypothetical, equivalent alternatives, and defined its modification, index k\*, as a measure of invalidating the three-parameter logistic, or normal ogive, model. We have also introduced Shiba's research on the measurement of vocabulary and the construction of a tailored test, using the information given by distractors. Various observations and discussion have been made concerning the three-parameter models and item distractors, the validation of mathematical models, and so forth. Finally, a new family of models for the multiple-choice item, which formulate both the operating characteristics of distractors and the effect of random guessing, has been proposed.

There is a tendency that researchers restrict their ideas within the tradition of their own culture. Thus they tend to accept whatever is familiar to them, what is fashionable among other researchers in their culture, and so on, without feeling the necessity of validating the ideas and mathematical models in relation with their specific data and psychological reality. The virtue of doubt can be obtained if they shift their attention to what is going on outside of their own culture and climate, and try to think what is really right.

Three-parameter models for the multiple-choice item have been too readily accepted among psychometricians and applied psychologists, and they have been using the models without trying to validate them. Unless we correct this wrong orientation, psychology will never make any progress, regardless of the fact



that more data are accumulated and more papers are published year by year. In the author's opinion, psychology has not yet established itself as a science, and we need to do that by putting ourselves in a right track of research. In so doing, the validation of mathematical models is certainly one of the most important things.

The departure from the tradition should also be made in the treatment of the multiple-choice item. Instead of trying to handle the multiple-choice item as a "blurred" substitute for the free-response item, we must make full use of its advantage, which the free-response item does not have. The operating characteristics of the distractors of the multiple-choice item will add more information about the examinee's ability level. We must set a criterion for the quality of multiple-choice items from this aspect also.



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APPENDIX I





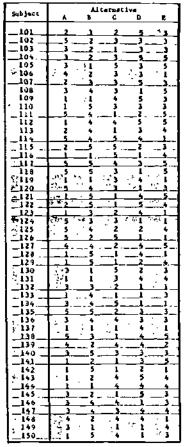
TABLE A-1

Alternatives Selected by Five Hundred Hypothetical Examinees Following the Three Parameter Normal Ogive Model, for Each of the Five Hypothetical Items.

(1=A, 2=B, 3=C, 4=D and 5=E.)

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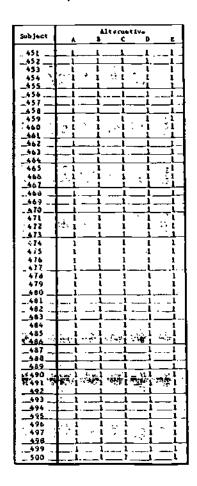
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APPENDIX II



TABLE A-2

Frequency Ratio,  $P_j$ , of Each of the Five Alternatives and the Estimated Probability,  $P_R^{\star}$ , for the Correct Answer with Which the Examinee Selects the Correct Answer by Random Guessing at the Maximum, for Each of the Nineteen Vocabulary Items. Junior High School, Grade 1, for Test J1.

				Alternative				
11 ets	Py and Pk	1	2	3	4	_ 5		
37 (I)	RELATIVE FREQUENCY MUDIFIED REL-FREG.	0.50175 0.13271	0.08741	0.10315	0.10315	0.20455		
39 (3)	RELATIVE FREQUENCY MODIFIED RELIFRED.	0.16192	0.20463	0.20996	0.09075	0.33274 0.17450		
40 (4)	RELATIVE FREQUENCY	0.10471	0.24607	0.15707	0.47644 0.16692	0.01571		
41 (5)	RELATIVE FREWMENCY MUDIFICO RLL-FREQ.	0.09250	0.03490	0.04014	0.1+634	0.68412 0.09324		
<b>42 (6)</b>	RELATIVE FREQUENCY MODIFIED RELEFRENCE	0.43333 0.16122	0.03684	0.21228	0.14737	0.17018		
43 (7)	RELATIVE FREQUENCY MLDIFIED AEL.FREQ.	0.04545	0.53846 0.12583	0.17133	0.11713	0.12762		
44 (8)	RELA TE FREQUENCY MODIFE ED RELEFRED.	0,20914	0.11775	0.02460	0.58524 0.13040	0.06327		
45 (9)	RELATIVE FREQUENCY HODIFIED RELEFRED.	0.08979	0.04401	0.21655	0.60915	0.04049		
46(10)	RELATIVE FREQUENCY MODIFIED RELEASED.	0.52113 0.16263	0.06099	0.07746	0.28873	G.03169		
47(11)	ACCOMPTED RELEASED.	0.12127	0.39367		u. 093 <u>15</u>	0.11424		
48(12)	TELATIVE FREQUENCY MUDIFIED REL-FREQ.	0.14362	0.17730	0.10284	0.11879	0.45745		
49(13)	ACUATIVE PRESUENCY MUDIFIED RELERKEY.	0.20070	0.05410	0.07330	0.12216	0.54974		
50(14)	RELATIVE FREQUENCY MOUTFIED REL-PRESS	0.53940	<b>∂:</b> 08056	0.06130	0.13061	0.16813		
51(15)	MUDIFIED RELIFIED.	0.15893	-0.14643	0.15393	0,20179			
52 (16)	RELATIVE FREQUENCY MOUTE TED RELEFRED.	0.20531	0.41593 0.15807	0.14159	0.06018	0.17899		
53(17)	MODIFIED RELIFEED.	0.25497	0.08916	~0.05944	0.25000 0.22911	0.31643		
54 (18)	MECATIVE FREGUENCY"	0.32442	~ 0.19786	0,17825	0.25312	0.04635		
55(19)	RELATIVE FREGULNCY MODIFIED REL.FRED.	0.04729	`J. 12669`	0.55517	0.05079	0.22067		
\$6(20)	RELATIVE PRESUENCY	0.18182	0-17657	0.20105	0.2+650 0.18862	0.19406		



TABLE A-2 (Continued): Junior High School, Grade 2, for Test Jl.

		1		Alternative		
Iten	P <sub>j</sub> and P <sup>±</sup> <sub>R</sub>	1	2	3 3	4	5
37 (1)	KELATIVE FRENJENCY MUDIFIED RELIFREG.	0.59121 0.10662	0.08571	0.08571	0.08132	0.15604
39 (3)	RELATIVE FREQUENCY MODIFIED RELAFIED.	0.12222	0.21556	0.18222	orn'i <u>ji</u>	0.36889
40 (4)	RELATIVE FREQUENCY MODIFIED RELAFRED.	0.13319	0.20742	0.09825	0.53057 0.13810	0.03057
41 (5)	RELATIVE FREQUENCY MODIFIED KOLSFRED.	0.05857	0.02820	0.04121	0-10[ <u>95</u>	0.77007
42 (6)	RELATIVE FREQUENCY MODIFIED RELEFREDS	0.56236 0.12318	Q+ 03063	0.14880	0.14661	0.11150
43 (7)	RELATIVE FREQUENCY HOD IF IED RELEFREG.	0.02183	0.68122	0.11572	0.106	.08079
44 (8)	MELATIVE FREQUENCY MODIFIED RELERED.	0.14254	0.11842	0.03289	0.65816	0.06798
45 (9)	RELATIVE FREQUENCY	0.06536	0.05011	0.17211	0.65142 0.10025	0.06100
46(10)	RELATIVE FREQUENCY MUOIFIED RELEFREG.	0.67102 0.11336	0.05447	0.06318	0.19608	0.01525
47(11)	RELATIVE FREQUENCY	0.09360	0.65795 0.08629		0.06536	0+06536
48(12)	RELATIVE FREQUENCY MODIFIED RLL.FREQ.	0.12308	0.18697	0.08352	0.09890	0.50769
49(13)	MUDIFIED RELIFIED.	0.20870	0. C3478	0.04130	0.07.09	0.11792
50(14)	RELATIVE FREQUENCY MODIFIED RELEFRES.	0.59121	0.04176	0.04396	0.18462	0.13846
51(15)	RELATIVE FREQUENCY MUDIFIED ROLIFIED.	c.16964	~0~10491	0.12217	0.15179	0.45089 0.13961
52 (16)	RECATIVE FREQUENCY MODIFIED RELEFREQ.	0.13363	0.53229 0.12617	C. 15813	0.04677	0.12918
53(17)	RELATIVE FREQUENCY MODIFIED RELETES.	0.20479	70-07407	~0.0566 <u>4</u> ~	0.39218	0.27233
54(18)	RELATIVE FREQUENCY MODIFIED RELEFREQ.	0.39246 0.18393	0.16630	0.78182	0.23947	0.01996.
55(19)	TELATIVE FREUDENCY MUDIFIED RELIFEES.	0.04367	0.09625	0-37951	0.03930	0.43686
56(20)	TREL TVE PREQUENCY	0.15385	0. 21478	0.17582	0.28132 0.19130	0.16923



TABLE A-2 (Continued): Junior High School, Grade 2, for Test J2.

Icen :	P <sub>q</sub> and P <sup>#</sup>	ı	2	Alternacive 3	4	5
1(37)	RELATIVE FREQUENCY MODIFIED RELEFREN.	0.65611 0.05724	0.04977	0.08597	0.04977	0.15837
3(39)	RELATIVE FREQUENCY	0.12944	0.20642	0.19266	0.07339	0.39908 0.16079
4(40)	RELATIVE FREQUENCY MODIFIED RELEFRED.	0.23077	0.13575	0.10407	0.52036 0.15717	0.00905
5(41)	RELATIVE FREGUENCY "MUDIFIED REL.FREG.	0.06335	0.90905	0.04525	0.06145	0.80U90 0.05953
6(42)	RELATIVE FREQUENCY MODIFIED REL.FRED.	0.56818 0.12263	0.02727	0.14545	0.14545	0.11364
7(43)	RELATIVE FREQUENCY	0.00652	0.69221 0.10171	0.10860	0.13573	0.05882
8(44)	RELATIVE FREQUENCY MOUIFIED RELIFREG.	0.16742	0.05430	a.92715	0.70586 0.09401	0.04525
9(45)	RELATIVE FREUDENLY MOUTFIED RELIFIED.	0.04545	0.04091	0.09345	0.78182 0.05940	0.03636
10(46)	RELATIVE FACQUENCY MODIFIED RELEFACE.	0.63801 0.12408	0.04977	0.08145	0, 21267	0.01810
11(47)	RELATIVE FREQUENCY MODIFIED REL.FRED.	0.10070	0.65000 0.09534	0.11818	0.03182	0.10000
12(48)	RELATIVE FREQUENCY MUDIFIED REL. FREQ.	0.10407	0,10477	0.04525	0.38145	0.66516
13(49)	RELATIVE FREGUENCY MODIFIED RELEFREG.	-0.22624	g*.02715	0.05502	0.05882	0.59276
14(50)	RELATIVE FREQUENCY HUDIFIED RELEFRED.	0.60909	0.05909	0.04091	0.15455	0.13636
15(51)	RECATIVE FFE JUENCY MUDIFIED RLL. FREQ.	·0.15385	0.08145	0.11765	J. 16250	0.48416 0.13327
16(52)	MODERTED MODERCA.	0.16590	0.43092 0.16923	0.24865	3,55059	0.13364
17(53)	MODIFIED REPORTED	0.23529	D-09502	0.02262	0.38402 0.19663	0.26244
(بر) 18	RELATIVE FREQUENCY MUDIFIED REL.FRED.	0.49772	0.15068	G.14155	0.T7408	0.03196
19(55)	- ELATIVE FREQUENCY	0.02262	0.17195	0.39319	0.03167	0.37557
20(56)	RECATIVE FREQUENCY	0.20814	0.17195	0.20814	0.30317 0.17941	0.10360



TABLE A-2 (Continued): Junior High School, Grade 3, for Test J2.

Item	P <sub>j</sub> and P <sup>4</sup> <sub>R</sub>		2	Alcernative J	4	5
1(37)	RELATIVE FREQUENCY AUDIFIED RLL. FREQ.	0.76091 0.76686	0.05236	0.04363	0.03316	0.10995
3(39)	RELATIVE FREQUENCY	0.09524	0.16402	0.17108	0.11111	0.45855
4(40)	RELATIVE FREQUENCY MODIFIED HEL-FREU-	0.14510	0.13462	0.96643	0-63287 0-10973	0.02098
5(41)	RELATIVE FREQUENCY	.,0,05226	0.01220	0.03310	0.07491	0.82753
6(42)	RELATIVE FREQUENCY MODIFIED REL.FREQ.	0.65317 0.10957	0.01232	0.16901	0.08527	3.07923
7(43)	RELATIVE FREQUENCY MUDIFIED REL-FREQ.	0.01754	0.77368 0.06511	0.07895	0.08772	0.04211
8(44)	RELATIVE FREQUENCY MODIFIED HEL.FREQ.	0.09632	0.05429	0.02452	0.80035 0.05889	0-02452
9(45)	RELATIVE FREQUENCY	0.05614	0.08246	0.11754	C. 71404 0.07956	0.02982_
10(46)	RELATIVE FREQUENCY MODIFIED RELIFRED.	0.82837 0.05624	0.02627	0.04904	0.08932	0.00701
11(47)	NOLATIVE FREJUENCY NOUIFIED HEC.FREQ.	0.26294	0.68007 0.08341	0.12063	0.06119	0.07517
12 (48)	MELATIVE FREQUENCY MODIFIED RELIFIED.	0.05769	~0. 15 2 1 D	0.01748	0-06119	0.71154
13(49)	RELATIVE FREQUENCY MUDIFIED AGE.FRED.	0.18674	_0. <u>0</u> 2792 -		0.02443	0.71030 0.10627
14 (50)	RELATIVE FREQUENCY MODIFIED REC.FREQ.	0.67776 0.10125		0.52.02	C. 14711	0.11559
15(51)	RELATIVE FACQUENCY MODIFIED RELIFIED.	0-11943	_0.04813	0-14062	0.12299	0.56863
16(52)	RELATIVE FREGUENCY MOSIFIED RECEPTED.	0.10193"	0.63972 0.10162		0.02460	0.10193
17(53)	MECALINE EKEGOENCA	0.19056	0-07343	0.05245	0.45280 0.16063	0.23077
18(54)	RELATIVE FREQUENCY HUDDIFLED RELATION	0.52035 0.14498	0.11504	0.14159	0.20354	0.01947
19(55)	RELATIVE FREGUENCY MODIFIED RELIFIED.	-0.02622	0.15210	0,23776	0.01573	0.56618
20(56)	MELATIVE PREQUENCY	0.13589	0.12892	0-16262	0.40941 0.14846	0.16376

APPENDIX III



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