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## ABSTRACT

The use of indices and statistics based on nonlinear factor analysis (NLFA) has become increasingly popular as a means of assessing the dimensionality of an item response matrix. Although the indices and statistics currently available to the practitioner have been shown to be useful and accurate in many testing situations, few studies have investigated their behavior with small sample sizes and short tests, conditions that are usually encountered with computerized adaptive testing and computerized mastery testing. The purpose of this investigation was to compare the empirical Type I error rates and rejection rates obtained using two NLFA fit statistics with conditions simulated to contain short tests and small sample sizes. The behaviors of an approximate chi-square statistic, the LISPEL8 (computer program) chi-square statistic, and the likelihood ratio chi-square difference with unidimensional data sets were examined with simulated data sets of 20 and 40 items and 250, 500, and 1,000 examinees for the Law School Admission Test. Preliminary findings with respect to the approximate chi-square statistic were encouraging in that it appeared to have low Type I error rate and rejection rates that were very high with two-dimensional data sets. The statistic was relatively unaffected by the sample size, test length, and latent trait correlation levels simulated. (Contains 5 tables and 75 references.) (SLD)

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Assessing the Dimensionality of Item Response Matrices with Small Sample Sizes  
and Short Test Lengths

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Running Head: DIMENSIONALITY WITH SMALL SAMPLES AND SHORT TESTS

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### Assessing the Dimensionality of Item Response Matrices with Small Sample Sizes and Short Test Lengths

The many advantages of item response theory (IRT) models, namely that "sample-free" item parameter estimates and "test-free" ability estimates can be obtained, have contributed to their increased use in Education and Psychology to address a multitude of measurement-related issues. Recently, IRT models have also been popular and quite useful with respect to the development of computerized-adaptive tests (CAT; Hambleton, Zaal, & Peters, 1993; Wainer, Dorans, Flaugher, Green, Mislevy, Steinberg, & Thissen, 1990). IRT models are currently employed to estimate the statistical characteristics of test items, equate scores obtained on alternate forms of a test as well as to assemble new forms, to name a few of its uses. However, in order to legitimately use common IRT models, several strict assumptions must be met, one of which is unidimensionality of the latent ability space. It is assumed, when using most IRT models, that the probability of a correct response on a given item requires a single underlying latent trait, often interpreted as a proficiency or ability being measured by the test. For example, the probability of a correct response on a given item using the three-parameter logistic IRT function (Lord & Novick, 1968) is given by,

$$P(X_i=1 | a_i, b_i, c_i, \theta) = c_i + (1 - c_i) \frac{e^{Da_i(\theta_j - b_i)}}{1 + e^{Da_i(\theta_j - b_i)}} \quad (1)$$

that is, the probability of correctly answering item  $i$  (denoted by  $X_i=1$ ) is assumed to be dependent upon an item discrimination ( $a_i$ ), difficulty ( $b_i$ ) and lower asymptote ( $c_i$ ) parameter as well as the latent trait or proficiency ( $\theta$ ) postulated to underlie the item responses. It is clear that the assumption of unidimensionality is often violated with actual achievement data sets where the response to an item is dependent upon not only the hypothesized proficiency but also several other secondary abilities. For example, the dependencies that exist between reading comprehension item sets in various tests such as the Law School Admission Test (LSAT) and the Graduate Records Examination (GRE) General Test due to the presence of common passages, contribute in increasing their dimensional complexity to include factors other than the proficiency hypothesized to underlie the item responses (i.e., reading ability). This led researchers to propose a multitude of descriptive statistics to assess dimensionality, or more commonly, departure from the assumption of unidimensionality. Table 1 presents some of the procedures reported thus far in the literature along with their respective contributors.

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Insert Table 1 about here

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At the present time, Stout's DIMTEST procedure and indices as well as statistics based on nonlinear factor analysis (NLFA) appear to be the two most popular and promising procedures for assessing the dimensionality of a set of item responses.

Stout proposed a nonparametric procedure (the  $\mathbb{I}$  statistic) that is based on his concepts of essential independence and essential dimensionality (Nandakumar, 1991; Nandakumar & Stout, 1993; Stout, 1987; 1990). Stout, Junker, Nandakumar, Chang, and Steidinger (1991) developed the computer program DIMTEST to estimate the value of the  $\mathbb{I}$  statistic for any given data set. Essential dimensionality can be defined as the number of latent traits that are needed to satisfy the assumption of essential independence given by,

$$\frac{1}{n(n-1)} \sum_{1 \leq i < j \leq n} |Cov(U_i, U_j | \theta)| \approx 0 \quad n \rightarrow \infty \quad (2)$$

that is, a mean absolute residual covariance value that tends towards zero at fixed latent trait levels as the number of items increases towards infinity. The terms shown in equation (2) can be defined as follows:

$n$  = the number of items;

$U_i$  = the response to item  $i$  for a randomly selected examinee;

$U_j$  = the response to item  $j$  for a randomly chosen examinee;

Several versions of the  $\mathbb{I}$  statistic have been proposed by Stout (1987; 1990) and Nandakumar to test the assumption of essential unidimensionality ( $d_e$ ) given by,

$$H_0: d_e = 1$$

$$H_a: d_e > 1$$

where  $d_e$  corresponds to the number of dimensions required to satisfy the assumption of essential independence. The first step involved in computing the  $\mathbb{I}$  statistic entails dividing a set of items into two distinct subsets, labelled AT1 and AT2, and a partitioning test or PT. The AT1 items are selected as the unidimensional subset, generally based on the factor loadings estimated after fitting a linear factor analytic model to the tetrachoric item correlation matrix. The AT2 items are chosen to correct for bias which results from matching examinees based on their number-right score on the remaining

items, that is, the PT test. Nandakumar and Stout (1993) recommend using the  $T_2$  version of the statistic in most instances given its demonstrated low Type I error and high power. The  $T_2$  statistic can be defined as follows,

$$T_2 = \frac{T_{L,2} - T_b}{\sqrt{2}} \quad (3)$$

where,

$$T_{L,2} = \frac{1}{K^{1/2}} \left( \sum_{k=1}^K \frac{X_k}{S_k^2} \right) \quad (4)$$

and,

$K$  = the number of subgroups based on the PT item subscore;

$k_i$  = the  $i_{th}$  subgroup of test takers based on the PT item subscore;

$S_k$  = the standard error of the  $T_2$  statistic.

Note that the  $T_b$  statistic is identical to the  $T_{L,2}$  with the exception that it is computed for AT2 items. Readers interested in obtaining more information regarding the computation of the  $T_2$  statistic should consult Nandakumar & Stout (1993). The  $T_2$  statistic is asymptotically normally distributed with a mean and standard deviation respectively equal to zero and one, under the null hypothesis of unidimensionality. Nandakumar & Stout (1993) showed, in a series of Monte Carlo studies, that the  $T_2$  statistic was generally accurate in correctly determining essential unidimensionality or violation of the assumption with multidimensional data sets except when the test contained few items (less than 25) and the sample sizes were small (less than 750 test takers). Consequently, the procedure cannot be used in many instances, e.g., with CAT forms, where short test lengths and small sample sizes are a common occurrence due in part to the assembly algorithms used and the "on-demand" nature of the scheduling.

Another promising approach, with respect to assessing the dimensionality of an item response matrix, is the one that treats common IRT models as a special case of a more general NLFA model. Bartholomew (1983), Goldstein and Wood (1989), McDonald (1967) and Takane and De Leeuw (1987), to name a few, have shown that common IRT models and NLFA models are mathematically equivalent. This led other researchers to suggest that a useful way of assessing the dimensionality of a set of item responses might entail analyzing the residual correlation or covariance matrix obtained after

fitting an  $m$ -factor model to an item response matrix, where  $m$  corresponds to the number of factors or dimensions. The rationale underlying this approach is as follows: zero residual correlations obtained after fitting a unidimensional (i.e., one-factor) model to an item response matrix would be indicative of unidimensionality. A host of descriptive indices and hypothesis tests have been proposed to assess dimensionality based on both limited-information and full-information NLFA models (see Hattie, 1984; 1985 for a review of earlier indices). The estimation of parameters in limited-information NLFA models is restricted to the information contained in the lower-order marginals (e.g., the pairwise relationships between items) whereas the information included in all higher-order relationships (i.e., in the item response vectors) is utilized to estimate the parameters of full-information NLFA models.

Gessaroli and De Champlain (in press) investigated the usefulness of an approximate chi-square statistic for the assessment of dimensionality that is based on the estimation of parameters for a limited-information  $m$ -factor model using the polynomial approximation to a normal ogive model (McDonald, 1967), as implemented in the computer program NOHARM (Fraser & McDonald, 1988). This approximate chi-square statistic, originally proposed by Bartlett (1950) and outlined in Steiger (1980a; 1980b), tests the null hypothesis that the off-diagonal elements of a residual correlation matrix are equal to zero after fitting an  $m$ -factor NLFA model and can be defined as,

$$\chi^2 = (N-3) \sum_{i=1}^k \sum_{j=1}^{i-1} Z_{ij}^{2(r)}, \quad (5)$$

where  $Z_{ij}^{2(r)}$  is the square of the Fisher  $Z$  corresponding to the residual correlation between items  $i$  and  $j$  ( $i, j = 1, \dots, k$ ) and  $N$  is the number of examinees. Under the null hypothesis of unidimensionality, this statistic is distributed approximately as a central chi-square with  $df = .5k(k-1) - t$ , where  $k$  is the number of items and  $t$  is the total number of parameters estimated in the NLFA model. Although the approximate  $\chi^2$  statistic is based on unweighted least-squares estimation (ULS), and hence is weak in its theoretical foundation, Browne (1977; 1986) has indicated that the latter statistic is often equivalent to a  $\chi^2$  obtained from generalized least-squares estimation (GLS). Browne states that, in most instances,  $\chi^2$  statistics based on ULS and GLS tend to differ only slightly. Therefore, the approximate  $\chi^2$  statistic outlined in equation (5) has the potential of being a useful practical tool for the assessment of dimensionality. Simulation and real data studies (De Champlain, in press; Gessaroli & De Champlain, in press) have shown that the Type I error rate for the approximate chi-square statistic tends to be at or below nominal alpha levels. With multidimensional data sets, rejection rates were

generally high, even in some instances with data sets containing as few as 15 items and 500 examinees which was not the case for the  $T$  statistic (De Champlain, 1992; Gessaroli & De Champlain, in press).

PRELIS2/LISREL8 (Jöreskog & Sörbom, 1993) is an extensive covariance structure modeling package that enables the user to fit a wide range of factor analytic models using several estimation procedures. The parameters of the factor analytic models in LISREL8 are estimated so as to minimize the following general fit function,

$$F = (S - \sigma)' W^{-1} (S - \sigma), \quad (6)$$

where,

$S$  = Sample item covariance matrix;

$\sigma$  = Population covariance matrix;

$W^{-1}$  = A weight matrix referred to as the correct weight matrix.

A chi-square goodness-of-fit statistic, based on Browne's (1982; 1984) research, is provided in LISREL8 to aid in assessing model fit. This chi-square statistic is given by,

$$\chi^2 = (N-1) * \text{Min}(F), \quad (7)$$

where,  $N$  corresponds to the number of examinees in the sample and  $\text{Min}(F)$  is the minimum value of the fit function given in (6) for a specific model. This statistic is distributed asymptotically as a chi-square distribution with degrees of freedom equal to,

$$.5(p)(p+1) - t,$$

where  $p$  is equal to the number of items and  $t$  is the number of independent parameters estimated in the model.

The computer program TESTFACT (Wilson, Wood, & Gibbons, 1991) allows the practitioner, among other things, to estimate the parameters and the fit of various full-information factor analytic models using the marginal maximum likelihood (MML) procedure outlined by Bock and Aitkin (1981) via the EM algorithm of Dempster, Laird and Rubin (1977). The thresholds and factor loadings included in the model are estimated so as to maximize the following multinomial probability function,

$$L_m = P(X) = \frac{N!}{x_1! x_2! \dots x_s!} \tilde{P}_1^{x_1} \tilde{P}_2^{x_2} \dots \tilde{P}_s^{x_s}, \quad (8)$$

where,  $x_s$  is the frequency of response pattern  $s$  and  $\tilde{P}_s$  is the marginal probability of the response



pattern based on the item parameter estimates. The function given in equation (8) is customarily referred to as full-information item factor analysis (Bock, Gibbons, & Muraki, 1988). The user can also assess the fit of a given full-information factor analytic model using a likelihood-ratio chi-square statistic that is provided in TESTFACT. This statistic can be defined as,

$$G^2 = 2 \sum_s^n r_s \ln \frac{r_s}{N \tilde{P}_s}, \quad (9)$$

where  $r_s$  is the frequency of response vector  $s$  and  $\tilde{P}_s$  is the probability of response vector  $s$ . The degrees of freedom for this statistic are equal to,

$$2^n(m+1) + m(m-1)/2,$$

where  $n$  is the number of items and  $m$ , the number of factors. However, Mislevy (1986) has indicated that this  $G^2$  statistic often poorly approximates the chi-square distribution given the large number of empty cells typically encountered with actual data sets (the number of unique response vectors is equal to  $2^n$ ). Hence, Haberman (1977) recommends using a likelihood-ratio chi-square difference test to assess the fit of alternative models. The  $G^2$  difference test is computed in the following fashion,

$$G_{diff}^2 = G_{1-F}^2 - G_{2-F}^2, \quad (10)$$

where  $G_{1-F}^2$  is the value of the likelihood-ratio chi-square statistic obtained after fitting a one-factor model (c.f. equation (9)) and  $G_{2-F}^2$  is the value of the likelihood-ratio chi-square statistic obtained after fitting a two-factor model. The degrees of freedom for the difference test are also computed by subtracting those associated with the one- and two-factor model fit statistics.

However, preliminary research has shown that the likelihood ratio chi-square difference test is generally unable to correctly identify the number of dimensions underlying an item response matrix (Berger & Knol, 1990). However, the small number of replications (10) performed in the latter study limits the extent to which these results can be generalized to other conditions.

Although these fit statistics have been shown to be useful and informative for the assessment of dimensionality, few studies have examined their behavior with small sample sizes and short test lengths. This type of study seems imperative given the current emphasis placed on CAT by several national testing programs (e.g., GRE General Test, Graduate Management Admission Test (GMAT) and several certification examinations). Dimensionality assessment is especially critical within a CAT environment where several test forms are "tailored" to different examinees according to their ability



level. These CAT forms should be comparable with respect to their dimensional structure in order to ensure valid score-based inferences for all examinees, irrespective of the set of items administered. The assessment of dimensionality is also critical within a computerized-mastery testing (CMT) setting where a small set of items is typically administered to all test takers in the first stage of testing in order to determine whether test takers can be clearly categorized as masters/nonmasters or whether further sets of items need to be given before making any final decision as to their status. The first subset of items administered within this multistage or sequential design often contains very few items. Hence, it is critical to ascertain whether the dimensional structure of this initial test is consistent with that of subsequent subtests in order to ensure that the design is fair for all examinees, regardless of their ability level.

A study examining the behavior of dimensionality assessment procedures with small sample sizes and short test lengths might also yield beneficial information not only for CAT and CMT programs but also for small volume tests as well as pretest sections on current paper-and-pencil measures. For example, several of the GRE Subject Tests have volumes that typically do not exceed 500 examinees (Briel, O'Neill, & Scheuneman, 1993). Also, pretest items, whether they be embedded throughout a form or placed in a separate variable section, are often administered to a relatively small number of examinees given the large amount of new test questions that often must be tried out at each administration of a form. Little research has been undertaken to indicate the extent to which practitioners can confidently use common procedures to assess the dimensionality of item response matrices in these less than ideal circumstances with regards to sample size and test length.

### Purpose

The purpose of this study is two-fold:

- (1) To examine the empirical Type I error rates calculated for the approximate chi-square statistic, the LISREL8 chi-square statistic and the likelihood-ratio chi-square difference test with unidimensional data sets simulated to vary according to test length and sample size.
- (2) To examine the rejection rates obtained for the approximate chi-square statistic, the LISREL8 chi-square statistic and the likelihood-ratio chi-square difference test with two-dimensional item response matrices generated to vary as a function of sample size, test length and degree of correlation between the latent traits.

### Methods

#### *Unidimensional data set simulations*

Dichotomous unidimensional item response vectors were simulated according to the three-parameter logistic IRT function outlined in equation (1) in the first part of this study. Data sets were generated to vary according to two different test lengths (20 and 40 items) as well as three sample sizes (250, 500 and 1000 examinees). Note that the simulated 40-item data sets were composed of two 20-item tests, that is, the item parameters utilized to simulate responses to items 21-40 were identical to those selected to generate responses to items 1-20. In order to simulate item responses that are typical of those encountered at the Law School Admission Council (LSAC), 20 IRT item parameters were randomly selected from one form of the LSAT and used in the item response generation process. The item parameters that were chosen to simulate unidimensional item response vectors are shown in Table 2.

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Insert Table 2 about here

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Latent trait values were also simulated according to a  $N(0,1)$  distribution. Each cell of this 2 (test length) x 3 (sample size) design was replicated 100 times for a total of 600 unidimensional data sets.

The fit of a unidimensional model was then ascertained for each of the 600 unidimensional data sets using TESTFACT (Wilson, Wood, & Gibbons, 1991), PRELIS2/LISREL8 (Jöreskog & Sörbom, 1993) as well as NOHARM (Fraser & McDonald, 1988).

More precisely, one- and two-factor models were fit to each simulated unidimensional data set with TESTFACT using all default values. As mentioned previously, the likelihood-ratio chi-square difference test was selected as the fit statistic for all unidimensional data sets given that it follows a chi-square distribution even in the presence of sparse frequency tables (Haberman, 1977). Again, the  $G^2$  difference test is obtained by simply subtracting the  $G^2$  value obtained after fitting a two-factor model from that computed after fitting a unidimensional model.

The fit of a unidimensional model was then assessed using PRELIS2/LISREL8. First, the asymptotic covariances were computed for the estimated tetrachoric correlations of the items contained in each simulated unidimensional data set using PRELIS2. Then, the parameters of the unidimensional model were estimated with a generally weighted least-squares (WLS) procedure, minimizing the following fit function,

$$F = (S - \sigma)' W^{-1} (S - \sigma), \quad (11)$$

where,

$\underline{s}$  = Sample estimates of the threshold and tetrachoric correlation values;

$\underline{\sigma}$  = Population threshold and tetrachoric correlation values;

$\underline{W}^{-1}$  = A consistent estimator of the asymptotic covariances of  $\underline{s}$ . Unfortunately, it was only possible to fit a unidimensional model and compute the fit statistic outlined in (7) for data sets generated to contain 20 items and 1000 examinees due to restrictions imposed in PRELIS2/LISREL8.

The fit of a unidimensional model (i.e., a one-factor model) was also ascertained using NOHARM. The approximate  $\chi^2$  statistic was then computed for each data set using the computer program CHIDIM (De Champlain & Tang, in press).

#### *Two-dimensional data set simulations*

In the second part of the study, dichotomous two-dimensional item response vectors were simulated based on a multidimensional extension of the three-parameter logistic IRT model (M3PL; Reckase, 1985) outlined in equation (1). The probability of a correct response to item  $i$  (denoted by  $x_i=1$ ), based on this compensatory M3PL model is given by,

$$P_i(x_i=1 | \underline{a}_i, d_i, c_i, \underline{\theta}_j) = c_i + (1 - c_i) \frac{e^{\underline{a}_i(\underline{\theta}_j + d_i)}}{1 + e^{\underline{a}_i(\underline{\theta}_j + d_i)}}, \quad (12)$$

where,

$\underline{a}_i$  = a vector of discrimination parameters for item  $i$ ;

$d_i$  = a scalar parameter related to the difficulty of item  $i$ ;

$\underline{\theta}_j$  = a latent trait vector for examinee  $j$ .

Reckase (1985) states that a multidimensional item discrimination parameter (MDISC) can be estimated using the following equation,

$$MDISC_i = \sqrt{\sum_{k=1}^n a_{ik}^2} \quad (13)$$

where  $a_{ik}$  is the discrimination parameter of item  $i$  on dimension  $k$  ( $k = 1, 2, \dots, n$ ). In a similar fashion,

the multidimensional item difficulty (MDIF) for item  $i$  can also be computed using the following formula,

$$MDIF_i = \frac{-d_i}{\sqrt{\sum_{k=1}^n a_{ik}^2}} \quad (14)$$

It should be noted that Reckase (1985) recommends providing direction cosines in addition to the distance outlined in (14) when describing the MDIF value of an item. However, he does suggest that the distance parameter can be interpreted much like a  $b$  parameter would be for a unidimensional logistic IRT model.

Past research undertaken to assess the dimensionality of the LSAT has shown that a two-factor model appears to adequately account for the item response probabilities estimated on several forms of the test (Ackerman, 1994; Camilli, Wang, & Fesq, 1995; De Champlain, in press; Roussos & Stout, 1994). The first dimension, categorized as deductive reasoning, loads on Analytical Reasoning (AR) items while the second factor, which loads on Logical Reasoning (LR) and Reading Comprehension (RC) items, has been labelled as reading/informal reasoning. Approximately 25% of the items on any given form of the LSAT measure this deductive reasoning skill whereas the remaining 75% of the items require reading/informal reasoning. As was the case with unidimensional data sets, an item parameter structure that resembles that found on a typical form of the LSAT was selected in order to generate more "authentic" item responses. More precisely, the first dimension (factor) was constrained to load on 25% of the items while the probability of a correct response on the remaining 75% of the items was solely a function of the second latent trait. As well, (unidimensional) item discrimination parameters were randomly selected from actually administered LSAT AR + LR/RC items and used to simulate the first and second dimensions in this study. The unidimensional item difficulty parameter estimates for these items were treated as MDIF values in the simulations. The item parameters utilized in the two-dimensional simulations are shown in Table 3.

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Insert Table 3 about here

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In addition, the two-dimensional data sets were generated to vary as a function of the same two test lengths (20 and 40 items) and three sample sizes (250, 500, and 1000 examinees) previously

outlined in the unidimensional conditions. The 40-item data sets were also composed of two 20-item tests. Also, past research has shown that the correlation between reading/informal reasoning and deductive reasoning proficiencies on a large number of LSAT forms is at or near 0.70 (Camilli, Wang, & Fesq, 1995; De Champlain, in press). Hence, the correlation between both latent traits was set at either 0.00 or 0.70 in the two-dimensional simulations. Finally, each cell of this 2 (test length) x 3 (sample size) x 2 (latent trait correlation) design was replicated 100 times for a total of 1200 two-dimensional data sets.

Also, the fit of a one- versus a two-factor full-information factor analytic model was assessed using the likelihood-ratio chi-square difference test provided in TESTFACT. Additionally, the fit of a one-factor LISREL8 model was ascertained using the chi-square fit statistic for only two conditions, that is, data sets containing 20 items and 1000 examinees (again, due to program restrictions). Finally, the fit of a unidimensional model was assessed with the approximate  $\chi^2$  statistic, computed after fitting a one-factor model to each two-dimensional item response matrix with the program NOHARM (Fraser & McDonald, 1988).

### *Analyses*

In order to investigate the effects of the independent variables on the empirical Type I error rates and rejection rates, separate logit-linear analyses were performed for the approximate  $\chi^2$  and the likelihood-ratio chi-square difference test for each of the unidimensional and multidimensional conditions. Specifically, logit-linear analyses were performed with the objective of fitting the most parsimonious model to the response frequencies. With respect to unidimensional data sets, the independent variables were test length and sample size while the dependent variable was the number of acceptances and rejections of the null hypothesis. This variable was labelled "rejection decision". The logit-linear analysis was done in a forward hierarchical manner, that is, starting with the simplest main effect and then fitting incrementally more complex models while adhering to the principle that lower-order effects are also included in the model. The likelihood-ratio  $\chi^2$  was employed as the fit statistic. A model was deemed to be acceptable if the corresponding p-value was equal to or greater than 0.15. Any individual effect was considered to be significant if the size of the absolute z-value was greater than 2.0. With regards to simulated two-dimensional data sets, the independent variables were test length, sample size and latent trait correlation whereas the dependent variable was rejection decision. Results are presented for the simulated unidimensional and multidimensional data sets

separately. It should be noted that, for the sake of simplicity, associations will be presented with respect to the impact of the independent variable(s) only. For example, if the test length by rejection decision association was significant, it would be referred to as the effect of test length. As was previously mentioned, it was not possible to model the effects of the independent variables with respect to empirical Type I error rates and rejection rates based obtained with the chi-square statistic provided in LISREL8 due to the limited number of analyses.

## Results

### *Unidimensional data set analyses*

The number of false rejections of the assumption of unidimensionality based on the 100 data sets for each of the simulated conditions are shown in Table 4.

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Insert Table 4 about here

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### *Approximate $\chi^2$ statistic empirical Type I error rates (NOHARM)*

The empirical Type I error rates tended to be below or near the nominal  $\alpha$  level (.05). In fact, the maximum number of rejections of the assumption of unidimensionality in any given condition was 7/100 for data sets simulated to contain 40 items and 1000 examinees. Logit-linear analysis results show that a model including sample size as the sole independent variable was sufficient in adequately accounting for the frequency of rejections (and acceptances) of the assumption of unidimensionality,  $L^2(4) = 1.75, p \approx .782$ .

The effect of sample size was quite clear. There was only one false rejection (.005) of the assumption of unidimensionality for data sets simulated to include 250 examinees and none for item response matrices generated to contain 500 test takers. However, the assumption of unidimensionality was incorrectly rejected for 12 (.06) data sets simulated to contain 1000 examinees.

### *$\chi^2$ statistic empirical Type I error rates (LISREL8)*

As shown in Table 4, the empirical Type I error rate based on the LISREL8 chi-square statistic is severely inflated (.68) for data sets generated to contain 20 items and 1000 examinees.

*Approximate  $G^2$  difference test empirical Type I error rates (TESTFACT)*

The number of incorrect rejections of the assumption of unidimensionality was quite large in all simulated conditions when based on the likelihood-ratio chi-square difference test provided in TESTFACT. Empirical Type I error rates ranged from 0.17 (for data sets that included 20 items and 1000 examinees) to .79 (for data sets that contained 40 items and 250 examinees). These results are clearly indicative of a severe inflated Type I error rate problem when using the  $G^2$  difference test to determine whether an item response matrix is unidimensional or not, at least with data sets similar to those simulated in the present study. The results obtained from the logit-linear analysis indicate that a fully-saturated model, including the main effects of test length and sample size as well as the interaction of both variables, is required to adequately explain the frequencies of rejection and acceptance rates,  $L^2(0) = 0.00$ ,  $p \approx 1.00$ . All of these effects had absolute  $z$ -values greater than or equal to 2.0.

As is traditionally the case, the effects of the independent variables found in the higher-order interaction will first be explained. Results show that the number of false acceptances of the assumption of unidimensionality decreased sharply for 20-item data sets from 58/100 rejections for item response matrices simulated to contain 250 examinees to 41/100 rejections for 500 examinee data sets and finally, 17/100 rejections for data sets simulated to include 1000 test takers. However, this drop in empirical Type I error rates was absent for the 40-item data sets. For the latter data sets, empirical Type I error rates remained quite constant across the three sample sizes. The empirical Type I error rates were equal to .79, .77 and .77 for 40-item data sets simulated to respectively contain 250, 500 and 1000 examinees.

*Multidimensional data set analyses*

The number of rejections of the assumption of unidimensionality based on the 100 data sets for each of the simulated two-dimensional conditions are shown in Table 5.

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Insert Table 5 about here

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*Approximate  $\chi^2$  statistic rejection rates (NOHARM)*

Results clearly show that the approximate  $\chi^2$  statistic was able to consistently identify the (true) multidimensional nature of the simulated data sets. The assumption of unidimensionality was



rejected for 1199/1200 (99.9%) simulated data sets. Not surprisingly, the logit-linear analysis results indicate that a model including only the dependent variable rejection decision was sufficient to explain the observed frequencies,  $L^2(11) = 4.97$ ,  $p \approx 0.932$ . Neither test length, sample size nor latent trait correlation had a significant effect on the probability of rejecting the assumption of unidimensionality when based upon the approximate  $\chi^2$  statistic.

*$\chi^2$  statistic rejection rates (LISREL8)*

Results based on the LISREL8 chi-square statistic show that the assumption of unidimensionality was rejected for all two-dimensional data sets simulated to contain 20 items and 1000 examinees.

*Approximate  $G^2$  difference test rejection rates (TESTFACT)*

There was a considerably greater degree of variability in rejection rates based on the full-information factor analyses. Rejection rates ranged from 77/100 (20-item data sets simulated to contain 250 examinees and reflect a correlation of .70 between latent traits) to 100/100 (all conditions that specified zero correlation between the two latent traits). Logit-linear analysis results yielded a model that included the main effects of test length, sample size as well as latent trait correlation,  $L^2(11) = 0.087$ ,  $p \approx 1.00$ .

With respect to the main effect of test length, results indicate that the number of failures to reject unidimensionality decreased significantly from the 20 item data sets (50/600 or 0.083 false acceptances of unidimensionality) to the 40 item data sets (8/600 or .013 false acceptances of unidimensionality). Regarding the main effect of sample size, results show that the number of false acceptances of the assumption of unidimensionality remained fairly stable for the 250 and 500 examinee data sets (respectively, 27/400 or 0.067 false acceptances and 24/400 or 0.06 false acceptances of unidimensionality) but dropped noticeably for data sets that contained 1000 examinees (7/400 or 0.017 false acceptances of unidimensionality). Finally, with respect to the latent trait correlation main effect, findings indicate that the number of false acceptances of the assumption of unidimensionality increased drastically from 0/600 for data sets simulated to have zero correlation between both proficiencies to 58/600 (0.097) for item response matrices generated to reflect a correlation of 0.7 between both latent traits.

### Discussion

The use of indices and statistics based on NLFA has become increasingly popular as a means of assessing the dimensionality of an item response matrix. Indices and statistics based on both limited- and full-information factor analytic models are currently available to the practitioner interested in determining the number of dimensions underlying a set of item responses. Although these indices have been shown to be useful and accurate in many testing conditions, few studies have investigated the behavior of these procedures with small sample sizes and short tests, that is, conditions that are typically encountered within CAT and CMT frameworks. Therefore, the purpose of this investigation was to compare the empirical Type I error rates and rejection rates obtained using two NLFA fit statistics with conditions simulated to contain short tests and small sample sizes. More precisely, the behavior of an approximate  $\chi^2$  statistic (Gessaroli & De Champlain, in press) based on McDonald's (1967) limited-information NLFA model, a chi-square distributed statistic based on a LISREL8 (Jöreskog & Sörbom, 1993) model as well as a likelihood-ratio  $G^2$  difference test based on Bock, Gibbons, and Muraki's (1988) full-information item factor analytic model, were examined.

With respect to empirical Type I error rates, results show that the  $G^2$  difference test suffers from a severe inflated Type I error rate problem, in all conditions simulated. In addition, the interaction of both independent variables manipulated (i.e., sample size and test length) appears to be related to the probability of correctly accepting or incorrectly rejecting the assumption of unidimensionality. This severe inflated Type I error rate was also noted when using the LISREL8 chi-square statistic with the 20-item, 1000 examinee data sets. The approximate  $\chi^2$  statistic, on the other hand, had empirical Type I error rates that were below or near the nominal  $\alpha$  level (.05) in all conditions. However, it is important to point out that the probability of accepting or rejecting the assumption of unidimensionality, when based upon the latter statistic, was dependent upon sample size. This result is not surprising given that the probability of rejecting a model of restricted dimensionality is often dependent upon sample size with chi-square distributed statistics (Marsh, Balla, & McDonald, 1988).

Regarding rejection rates with (true) two-dimensional data sets, findings again show that all independent variables manipulated, that is, test length, sample size and latent trait correlation, had a significant effect on the probability of rejecting the assumption of unidimensionality based on the  $G^2$  difference test. Although rejection rates were generally acceptable (varying from 77/100 to 100/100 data sets), it is important to point out that this high level of power is more than likely attributable to

the inflated Type I error rates previously reported with the simulated unidimensional data sets. Similarly, the high degree of power obtained with the LISREL8 chi-square statistic is more than likely related to the inflated Type I error rate noted with the unidimensional data sets. On the other hand, the approximate  $\chi^2$  statistic, based on a NOHARM analysis, was able to correctly reject the assumption of unidimensionality for all but one of the two-dimensional simulated data sets. In addition, none of the independent variables had an effect on the probability of correctly rejecting (or incorrectly accepting) the assumption of unidimensionality.

Mood, Graybill, and Boes (1974) state that a statistical test which displays a small Type error I rate (ideally 0) as well as a high probability of rejecting a false null hypothesis (ideally unity) is worthy of merit. The results obtained in this study would seem to suggest that the approximate  $\chi^2$  statistic possesses these desirable qualities, at least for the conditions simulated. Also, Roznowski, Tucker, and Humphreys (1991) suggest that practitioners should strive to select dimensionality assessment indices that are "robust to changes in levels of parameters and lack substantial interaction among parameters" (p.124). Although the empirical Type I error rates obtained with the approximate  $\chi^2$  statistic were affected by sample size, none of the manipulated variables significantly impacted upon its rejection rates with two-dimensional data sets. On the other hand, both empirical Type I error rates and rejection rates computed for the  $G^2$  difference test were highly dependent upon test length, sample size and latent trait correlation (with two-dimensional data sets).

In summary, the preliminary findings reported with respect to the approximate  $\chi^2$  statistic were encouraging for the following reasons:

- the procedure appears to have low Type I error rate (below or near the nominal level);
- rejection rates were very high with two-dimensional data sets;
- the statistic was relatively unaffected by the sample sizes, test lengths and latent trait correlation levels simulated.

However, it is important to emphasize that these findings are preliminary and that caution should be exercised when interpreting, and especially, generalizing results to other conditions. Therefore, it is important to underscore the limitations associated with this investigation as well as offer suggestions for future research in this area.

First and foremost, the conditions that were simulated in the present study reflect some of the data set features that might be encountered within a CAT and CMT framework. Obviously, there are a multitude of factors, in addition to small item sets and small samples, that contribute to making CAT

and CMT forms so uniquely distinct from their paper-and-pencil counterparts. For example, context effects, attributable to the large number of "tailored" forms administered at any given time, are prevalent in CAT and CMT forms. The inclusion of this factor in future studies examining the behavior of dimensionality assessment procedures should be of the utmost importance.

Second, it is important to point out that NOHARM does not estimate latent trait values but rather assumes that they are distributed  $\sim N(0,1)$ . TESTFACT, on the other hand, does estimate proficiency scores for all examinees. Given that the latent trait values in this study were simulated according to a standard normal distribution (i.e., that conform exactly to the NOHARM assumption), this could have advantaged the approximate  $\chi^2$  and partially account for its superior performance over the  $G^2$  difference test provided in TESTFACT. Nonetheless, preliminary findings showed that the empirical Type I error rates computed for the approximate  $\chi^2$  were not severely affected with certain nonnormal latent trait distributions (De Champlain & Tang, 1993). However, more research needs to be undertaken to assess the performance of the approximate  $\chi^2$  statistic in a larger number of conditions, including under various proficiency distributions, before making any definite conclusions as to its usefulness in assessing dimensionality with data sets containing few items and small samples.

Third, it is important to point out that the fit of a simple (unidimensional) model was examined for all simulated data sets. The fit of more complex models (e.g., two-, three-dimensional models) should also be part of any future investigations so as to determine whether the approximate  $\chi^2$  statistic and the  $G^2$  difference test are able to identify the (true) number of dimensions underlying item response matrices.

Fourth, the data sets simulated in this study reflect a typical LSAT form. Hence, the findings obtained might not generalize to other test structures, e.g., the GRE General Test or the GMAT. In fact, approximate  $\chi^2$  statistic results reported by Gessaroli and De Champlain (in press) with data sets simulated to reflect other tests (e.g., SAT-V and ACT-M) differed somewhat from those presented in this investigation. More research needs to be undertaken to assess the performance of the approximate  $\chi^2$  statistic in a larger number of conditions before making any definite conclusions as to its usefulness in assessing dimensionality with data sets containing few items and small samples.

Finally, it is important to mention that only two procedures were examined in this study. Given the large number of indices and statistics proposed for the assessment of dimensionality (c.f. Table 1), it would seem imperative to undertake a comparative study that would allow the respective strengths and weaknesses of each approach to be highlighted.

Hopefully, the results presented in this study will offer some information to practitioners interested in using either the approximate  $\chi^2$  statistic, the LISREL8  $\chi^2$  statistic or the  $G^2$  difference test for assessing the dimensionality of data sets that contain few items and small samples. Also, it is hoped that these findings will foster future research in this area and eventually lead to helpful guidelines with respect to the assessment of dimensionality within CAT and frameworks.

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Table 1

Procedures proposed for assessing the dimensionality of a set of item responses

Procedures	References
Indices based on linear factor analysis/principal component analysis	Berger & Knol (1990) Collins, Cliff, McCormick, & Zarkin (1986) De Ayala & Hertzog (1989) Hambleton & Rovinelli (1986) Hattie (1984; 1985) Nandakumar (1994) Reckase (1979) Zwick & Velicer (1986)
Nonmetric multidimensional scaling	De Ayala & Hertzog (1989) Koch (1983) Jones, Sabers, & Trosset (1987) Jones (1988) Reckase (1981)
Tucker's procedure for assessing dimensionality	Roznowski, Tucker, & Humphreys (1991)
Humphrey's procedure for assessing dimensionality	Roznowski, Tucker, & Humphreys (1991)
Modified parallel analysis	Ben-Simon & Cohen (1990) Budesu, Cohen, & Ben-Simon (1994) Drasgow & Lissak (1983) Hulin, Drasgow, & Parsons (1983)
Bejar's dimensionality assessment procedure	Bejar (1980; 1988) Hambleton & Rovinelli (1986) Kingsbury (1985) Liou (1988)
The Holland-Rosenbaum procedure	Ben-Simon & Cohen (1990) Holland (1981) Holland & Rosenbaum (1986) Nandakumar (1994) Rosenbaum (1984) Zwick (1987)
Stout's essential dimensionality procedure	De Champlain & Tang (1993) De Champlain (1992) Gessaroli & De Champlain (in press) Junker & Stout (1994) Nandakumar (1987; 1991; 1994) Nandakumar & Stout (1993) Stout (1987, 1990)
Indices and statistics based on full-information nonlinear factor analysis	Berger & Knol (1990) Bock, Gibbons, & Muraki (1988) Dorans & Lawrence (1988) Kingston (1986) Kingston & McKinley (1988) Morgan (1989) Muraki & Engelhard (1985)
Indices and statistics based on limited-information nonlinear factor analysis	Berger & Knol (1990) De Champlain (1992) De Champlain & Gessaroli (1991) De Champlain & Tang (1993) Gessaroli & De Champlain (in press) Hambleton & Rovinelli (1986) Hattie (1984; 1985) Knol & Berger (1991) Nandakumar (1994)

Table 2  
True unidimensional item parameters

Item	<i>a</i>	<i>b</i>	<i>c</i>
1	0.622132	-1.710310	0.119606
2	0.779642	0.470174	0.079124
3	0.806952	0.161454	0.162809
4	0.842712	0.081694	0.140943
5	1.152409	1.679257	0.153869
6	0.558630	-1.387155	0.119606
7	0.341596	-0.599501	0.119606
8	0.878353	1.081976	0.058036
9	0.957605	0.916684	0.196364
10	1.086517	0.693614	0.042316
11	0.751002	-0.696663	0.119606
12	0.551905	-0.315874	0.119606
13	0.630988	1.696784	0.223633
14	0.552291	-1.294931	0.119606
15	0.785618	-0.285280	0.095973
16	0.730466	-0.402966	0.119606
17	0.845300	0.004327	0.188632
18	0.792140	1.138772	0.155819
19	0.822973	1.540107	0.073885
20	0.601753	1.358651	0.111348

Table 3  
True two-dimensional item parameters

Item	$a_1$	$a_2$	$MDIF$	$c$
1	0.622132	0.000000	-1.710310	0.119606
2	0.806592	0.000000	0.161454	0.162809
3	0.842712	0.000000	0.081694	0.140943
4	0.882054	0.000000	0.854201	0.184434
5	0.904691	0.000000	1.371124	0.242642
6	0.000000	0.644494	-0.892373	0.119606
7	0.000000	0.878353	1.081976	0.058036
8	0.000000	0.957605	0.916684	0.196364
9	0.000000	0.946642	1.520134	0.224578
10	0.000000	0.803943	-1.139963	0.119606
11	0.000000	0.751002	-0.696663	0.119606
12	0.000000	0.551905	-0.315874	0.119606
13	0.000000	0.688839	0.632910	0.145847
14	0.000000	0.808383	0.554415	0.208314
15	0.000000	0.567085	-0.087459	0.119606
16	0.000000	0.783265	0.256477	0.206116
17	0.000000	0.694929	-1.357711	0.119606
18	0.000000	0.543069	-0.608002	0.119606
19	0.000000	0.792140	1.138772	0.155819
20	0.000000	0.773915	0.280484	0.246003



Table 4

Rejections of unidimensionality per 100 trials for unidimensional data sets (nominal  $\alpha=0.05$ )

		Fit statistic			
		Approximate $\chi^2$ (NOHARM)		$\chi^2$ (LISREL8)	
				$G^2$ difference test (TESTFACT)	
Test length		20 items	40 items	20 items	40 items
Sample size					
250	0	1	—	58	79
500	0	0	—	41	77
1000	5	7	68	17	77

<sup>1</sup>Due to LISREL8 program restrictions, it was not possible to compute the  $\chi^2$  for these data sets.

Table 5  
Rejections of unidimensionality per 100 trials for two-dimensional data sets (nominal  $\alpha=0.05$ )

Fit statistic						
		Approximate $\chi^2$ (NOHARM)		$\chi^2$ (LISREL8)		G <sup>2</sup> difference test (TESTFACT)
Latent trait correlation	Test length	20 items	40 items	20 items	40 items	20 items 40 items
Sample size						
$r(\theta_1, \theta_2)=0.00$	250	100	100	— <sup>2</sup>	—	100 100
	500	100	100	—	—	100 100
	1000	100	100	100	—	100 100
$r(\theta_1, \theta_2)=0.70$	250	99	100	—	—	77 96
	500	100	100	—	—	79 97
	1000	100	100	100	—	94 99

<sup>2</sup>Due to LISREL8 program restrictions, it was not possible to compute the  $\chi^2$  for these data sets.