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# A New Method for Detecting Differential Item Functioning in the Rasch Model

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# A new method for detecting differential item functioning in the Rasch model

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## Abstract

Differential item functioning (DIF) can lead to an unfair advantage or disadvantage for certain subgroups in educational and psychological testing. Therefore, a variety of statistical methods has been suggested for detecting DIF in the Rasch model. Most of these methods are designed for the comparison of pre-specified focal and reference groups, such as males and females. Latent class approaches, on the other hand, allow to detect previously unknown groups exhibiting DIF. However, this approach provides no straightforward interpretation of the groups with respect to person characteristics.

Here we propose a new method for DIF detection based on model-based recursive partitioning that can be considered as a compromise between those two extremes. With this approach it is possible to detect groups of subjects exhibiting DIF, which are not pre-specified, but result from combinations of observed covariates. These groups are directly interpretable and can thus help understand the psychological sources of DIF.

The statistical background and construction of the new method is first introduced by means of an instructive example, and then applied to data from a general knowledge quiz and a teaching evaluation.

*Keywords:* item response theory, IRT, Rasch model, differential item functioning, DIF, structural change, multidimensionality.

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## 1. Introduction

In educational and psychological testing, the term differential item functioning (DIF) ‘means that the probability of a correct response among equally able test takers is different for various racial, ethnic, gender [or other] subgroups. A given educational or psychological test consisting of many items with significant DIF may be unfair for certain subgroups, and it is important to identify these items, so that they can be improved or deleted from the test’ (Westers and Kelderman 1991).

A variety of statistical methods is available for detecting DIF in the Rasch model. While some of these methods are explicitly designed to detect DIF in individual items, such as the item-specific Wald test (Fischer and Molenaar 1995), others are global goodness-of-fit tests for the Rasch model that also respond to DIF, such as the likelihood ratio test (Andersen 1972). Most of these methods are based on the comparison of the item parameter estimates between two or more pre-specified groups of subjects, such as males and females as focal and reference groups. This class of model tests includes the widely used graphical test as well as

the most recent approaches based on a mixed model representation (Rijmen, Tuerlinckx, De Boeck, and Kuppens 2003; den Noortgate and De Boeck 2005).

The advantage of model tests for given groups is that, if DIF is detected, the results can be interpreted straightforwardly in terms of, e.g., which items are easier or harder to solve for which group. This can give valuable hints at the psychological sources for the differential functioning of the items, and how it can be eliminated or avoided in future versions of the test, as also pointed out by Stout (2002): ‘...if reading-comprehension test items of paragraphs that discuss the physical sciences are discovered to display DIF against women, then the test specifications for future versions of such a reading comprehension test might exclude physical-science-based paragraphs’.

On the other hand, in all above mentioned approaches only those groups that are explicitly proposed by the researcher are tested for DIF. Variables typically proposed for testing include age, gender, ethnicity and language, depending on the objective of the assessment (cf., e.g., Gelin, Carleton, Smith, and Zumbo 2004; Perkins, Stump, Monahan, and McHorney 2006; Woods, Oltmanns, and Turkheimer 2009; Pedraza, Graff-Radford, Smith, Ivnik, Willis, Petersen, and Lucas 2009). However, if in later analyses a group difference is found in a variable that has not been explicitly tested for DIF, it cannot be ruled out that this effect is only an artefact due to unnoticed DIF.

At the other extreme, the latent class (or mixture) approach of Rost (1990) can be considered as the most stringent test for the Rasch model, because it tests for item parameter differences between all possible groups of subjects – regardless of person covariates. In this sense, the latent class approach is a very stringent model test, but it provides no straightforward interpretation of the groups. Therefore, often latent class approaches are used only as a first step in the analysis, where the second step is to attempt to describe the latent classes by person covariates for interpretability (see, e.g., Cohen and Bolt 2005; Hancock and Samuelsen 2007; de Meij, Kelderman, and van der Flier 2008, and the references therein).

Here, we propose a new statistical approach for detecting DIF in the Rasch model that can be considered a compromise between the two former approaches – testing only predefined (and hence easy to interpret) groups vs. testing all possible groups but losing interpretability. The idea for the new method is to recursively test all groups that can be defined based on (interactions of) the available covariates, thus preserving interpretability, but still exploring a very wide set of potential sources of DIF.

In the next section, the rationale and technical details of the new method are first explained by means of a simple artificial example. Two applications to a general knowledge quiz and a teaching evaluation are presented in Section 3. The method is freely available as a software implementation in the add-on package `psychotree` (Zeileis, Strobl, Wickelmaier, and Kopf 2010) for the R system for statistical computing (R Development Core Team 2010).

## 2. A new method based on recursive partitioning

The new method for detecting groups of subjects with DIF is based on the technique of model-based recursive partitioning, that employs statistical tests for structural change adopted from econometrics. Model-based recursive partitioning is a semi-parametric approach. The aim is to detect differences in the parameters of a statistical model between groups of subjects defined by combinations of covariates.

Table 1: Summary statistics for the covariates of the instructive example (artificial data).

Variable	Summary statistics					
Gender	male: 109			female: 91		
	$x_{\min}$	$x_{0.25}$	$x_{\text{med}}$	$\bar{x}$	$x_{0.75}$	$x_{\max}$
Age	16	31	45	45.84	60	74
Motivation	1	2	3	3.38	5	6

Model-based recursive partitioning is related to the method of classification and regression trees (CART, Breiman, Friedman, Olshen, and Stone 1984; see Strobl, Malley, and Tutz 2009 for a thorough introduction), where the covariate space is recursively partitioned to identify groups of subjects with different values of a categorical or continuous response variable. As an advancement of this approach, in model-based recursive partitioning it is the parameters of a parametric model – rather than the values of a single response variable – that vary between groups. Such parameters could be, e.g., intercept and slope parameters in a linear regression model or, as in our case, the item parameters of a Rasch model that may vary between groups of subjects.

This principle is now first illustrated by means of an artificial instructive example, before the technical details are addressed in the next sections: The data for the instructive example consist of the simulated responses of 200 subjects to 20 items, which can be considered, e.g., as questions in a proficiency test. In addition to the responses, the data set includes three covariates: gender, age, and a motivation score. The summary statistics for the latter are listed in Table 1.

In order to test for DIF, the method assesses the item responses with respect to the three covariates: gender, age, and motivation. The result is presented in Figure 1 and will be termed a Rasch tree from here on. In each of the terminal nodes of the tree, the item parameter estimates for the 20 items are displayed (a high value indicates that the item is very difficult).

Following the tree from top to bottom, we find that different item parameters result for males and females, and within the group of males for those up to and over the age of 34. For example, the third item (highlighted by the large dot) is particularly hard for males up to the age of 34 (represented in node 3) as well as for females (represented in node 5), while the 14-th item (highlighted by the second large dot) is particularly easy only for the young males (represented in node 3). Note also that the variable motivation was not selected for splitting, i.e., there is no DIF with respect to motivation, but only with respect to gender and age.

Generally speaking, the fact that we end up with more than one terminal node in Figure 1 means that the null hypothesis of one joint Rasch model for the entire sample must be rejected. In this sense, the proposed method is a test for DIF as well as an overall model test for the Rasch model. More importantly, however, we can directly see which groups are affected by DIF with respect to which items. This information can help identify the reasons for DIF and guide the decision how to proceed with the affected items.

The following consecutive steps are used to create the Rasch tree in Figure 1:

1. Estimate the item parameters jointly for all subjects in the current sample, starting with the full sample.

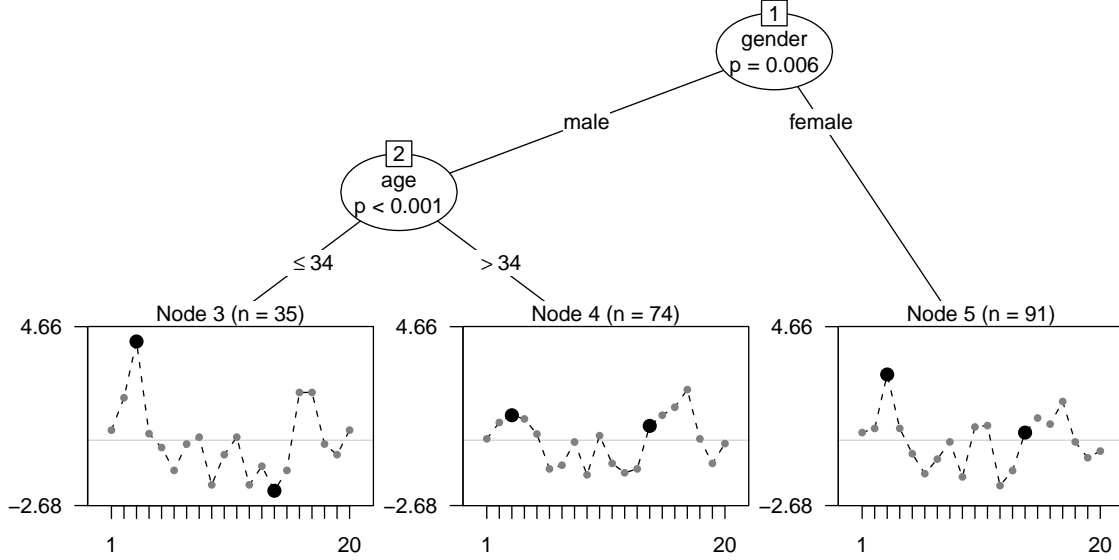


Figure 1: Rasch-tree for the instructive example (artificial data for illustration purposes), exhibiting DIF between males up to the age of 34, males over the age of 34 and females. In the terminal nodes, estimates of the item difficulty are displayed for each of the 20 items.

2. Assess the stability of the item parameters with respect to each available covariate.
3. If there is significant instability, split the sample along the covariate with the strongest instability and in the cutpoint leading to the highest improvement of the model fit.
4. Repeat steps 1–3 recursively in the resulting subsamples until there are no more significant instabilities (or the subsample is too small).

These steps are now explained in more detail.

## 2.1. Estimating the item parameters

We use the common conditional maximum likelihood approach for estimating the item parameters (but the method can also be adapted to, e.g., marginal maximum likelihood estimation). Let  $\theta_i$ ,  $i = 1, \dots, n$ , denote the person parameters,  $\beta_j$ ,  $j = 1, \dots, m$ , denote the item parameters and  $u_{ij}$  denote the response of subject  $i$  to item  $j$ . Since under the Rasch model

$$P(U_{ij} = u_{ij} | \theta_i, \beta_j) = \frac{e^{u_{ij} \cdot (\theta_i - \beta_j)}}{1 + e^{\theta_i - \beta_j}}$$

the person raw-scores  $r_i$  form sufficient statistics for the person parameters, the item parameters can be estimated by means of iterative procedures from the conditional likelihood

$$L_c(\boldsymbol{\beta} | r_1, \dots, r_n) = \prod_{i=1}^n L_c(\boldsymbol{\beta} | r_i) = \prod_{i=1}^n \frac{e^{-\sum_{j=1}^m u_{ij} \cdot \beta_j}}{\gamma_{r_i}(\boldsymbol{\beta})}, \quad (1)$$

where  $\gamma_{r_i}$  is the symmetric function of order  $r_i$  (cf., e.g., Fischer and Molenaar 1995).

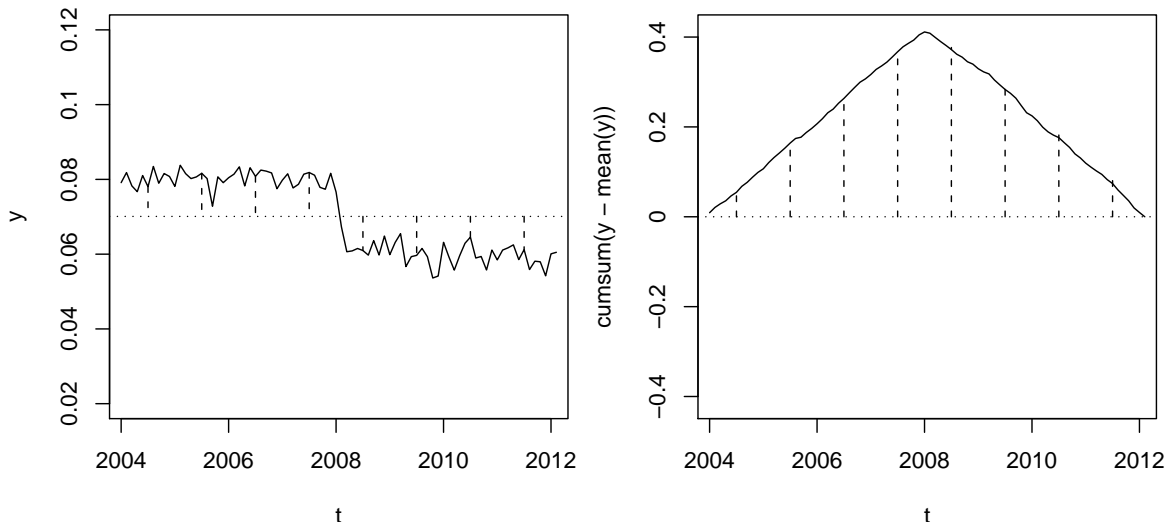


Figure 2: Structural change in stock returns over time (artificial data for illustration purposes). In the left plot, the dotted line indicates the overall mean. The dashed lines indicate deviations from the overall mean, which are positive before the structural change and negative afterwards. In the right plot, the positive and negative deviations are cumulated and the structural change is now noticeable from the peak in the cumulative sum process.

## 2.2. Testing for parameter instability

In order to test whether the item parameters vary between groups of subjects defined by covariates, we use the approach of structural change tests from econometrics. These tests are usually employed for detecting, e.g., a drop in stock returns over time.

In this setting, the individual values are ordered with respect to the variable time, as visualized for an artificial time series in Figure 2 (left). Due to this ordering, it becomes obvious that there is a structural change in the year 2008, that can also be tested statistically as outlined below.

The same principle is now applied to detect changes in the item parameters of the Rasch model over the range of person covariates: the item parameters are first estimated jointly for the entire sample. Then the individual deviations from this joint model are ordered with respect to a covariate, such as age. If there is systematic DIF with respect to groups formed by the covariate, the ordering will exhibit a systematic change in the item parameters. If, on the other hand, no DIF is present, the values will merely fluctuate randomly.

For example, in Figure 2 (left), the overall mean of the stock returns should be constant over the entire time range under the null hypothesis of parameter stability. Accordingly, the deviations from the overall mean should not show any systematic variation under the null hypothesis. Under the alternative of a structural break, however, the deviations differ systematically from zero before and after the cutpoint, like illustrated here.

For statistically testing structural change in model parameters, we suggest the usage of generalized M-fluctuation tests (Zeileis and Hornik 2007) that form the basis of the model-based recursive partitioning framework of Zeileis, Hothorn, and Hornik (2008). The idea of this class of tests is to compute the subject-wise model deviations and derive test statistics with

known distributions from them.

A general measure of deviation for likelihood-based models for  $i = 1, \dots, n$  observations is the individual score function  $\psi(\mathbf{u}_i, \hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}})$ , i.e., the derivative of the individual contributions to the log-likelihood  $\Psi(\mathbf{u}_i, \hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}})$  with respect to the parameter vector. These individual contributions can easily be computed from the conditional likelihood for the Rasch model as outlined below.

For the construction of the test statistic, the individual contributions to the score function are cumulated according to the order induced by the variable time, as illustrated in Figure 2, or any other covariate. The systematic change from positive to negative in the individual contributions to the score function in Figure 2 (left) is then captured as a distinctive peak in the cumulative sum process in Figure 2 (right).

The cumulative sum process is defined as

$$W_\ell(t) = \widehat{\mathbf{V}}^{-1/2} n^{-1/2} \sum_{i=1}^{\lfloor n \cdot t \rfloor} \psi(\mathbf{u}_{(i|\ell)}, \hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}) \quad (0 \leq t \leq 1), \quad (2)$$

where the index  $(i|\ell)$  denotes the  $i$ -th ordered observation with respect to the  $\ell$ -th covariate,  $\lfloor \cdot \rfloor$  denotes the integer part, and  $\widehat{\mathbf{V}} = \sum_{i=1}^n \psi(\mathbf{u}_i, \hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}) \psi(\mathbf{u}_i, \hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}})^\top$  is the outer-product-of-gradients estimate of the covariance matrix. Under the null hypothesis of parameter stability, the cumulative sum process  $W_\ell(\cdot)$  can be shown to converge to an  $(m-1)$ -dimensional Brownian bridge (Zeileis and Hornik 2007), which can be used as the basis for statistical inference.

The cumulative aggregation runs over the order induced by the  $\ell$ -th covariate: The  $i = 1, \dots, n$  individual deviations are ordered with respect to the covariate and aggregated up to the  $\lfloor n \cdot t \rfloor$ -th element in each step. When  $W_\ell(t)$  is considered as a function of the fraction  $t$  of the sample size, the null-model with no structural change corresponds to the path of a random process with constant zero mean.

The advantage of this approach is that the model does not have to be reestimated for all splits in all covariates, because the individual deviations remain the same and only their ordering (and the corresponding path of  $W_\ell(t)$ ) needs to be adjusted for evaluating the different covariates.

To capture systematic deviations in  $W_\ell(\cdot)$ , different test statistics can be used depending on whether the  $\ell$ -th covariate is a numeric or a categorical variable. If it is numeric, Zeileis *et al.* (2008) point out that a natural test statistic is

$$S_\ell = \max_{i=\underline{i}, \dots, \bar{i}} \left( \frac{i}{n} \cdot \frac{n-i}{n} \right)^{-1} \left\| W_\ell \left( \frac{i}{n} \right) \right\|_2^2. \quad (3)$$

This can be interpreted as the maximum Lagrange-multiplier statistic (also known as score statistic) for a single shift alternative over all conceivable cutpoints in  $[\underline{i}, \bar{i}]$ . The limiting distribution is the supremum of a tied-down Bessel process, from which  $p$  values can be computed (see Zeileis *et al.* 2008, for details).

If, on the other hand, the  $\ell$ -th covariate is categorical (with values  $x_{i\ell}$  taking categories  $q = 1, \dots, Q$ ), it is more natural to use the following test statistic

$$S_\ell = \sum_{q=1}^Q n \left( \sum_{i=1}^n I(x_{i\ell} = q) \right)^{-1} \left\| \Delta_q W_\ell \left( \frac{i}{n} \right) \right\|_2^2, \quad (4)$$

		Node 1	Node 2	Node 3	Node 4	Node 5
Age	Statistic	43.109	61.257	26.956	25.086	19.559
	<i>p</i> value	0.110	0.001**	0.742	0.962	1.000
Gender	Statistic	41.486	—	—	—	—
	<i>p</i> value	0.006**	—	—	—	—
Motivation	Statistic	82.038	86.252	100.787	92.296	96.166
	<i>p</i> value	0.995	0.926	0.541	0.806	0.694

Table 2: Summary of the parameter instability test statistics and corresponding *p* values for the instructive example. Those variables whose *p* values are highlighted with \*\* symbols are selected for splitting in the respective node.

where  $\Delta_q$  is the increment within the  $q$ -th category. This test statistic is invariant to reordering of the  $Q$  categories and the subjects within each category. The test statistic captures the instability over the  $Q$  subsamples. Its limiting distribution is  $\chi^2$  with  $(Q - 1) \cdot (m - 1)$  degrees of freedom, from which *p* values can be computed. This test is employed for both nominal and ordinal categorical variables. A potential ordering of the categories is accounted for in the next step, when the cutpoint is selected (see Section 2.3 below).

For the Rasch model, the objective function used for parameter estimation is the conditional log-likelihood. The individual contributions to the conditional log-likelihood can be easily computed as  $\log L_c(\boldsymbol{\beta}|r_i)$  (cf. Equation 1), yielding

$$\Psi(\mathbf{u}_i, \boldsymbol{\beta}) = - \sum_{j=1}^m u_{ij} \cdot \beta_j - \log(\gamma_{r_i}(\boldsymbol{\beta})) . \quad (5)$$

For the computation of the structural change tests, the individual contributions to the score function are derived from Equation 5. The contribution of the  $j$ -th item parameter for the  $i$ -th subject is:

$$\psi(\mathbf{u}_i, \boldsymbol{\beta})_j = \frac{\partial \Psi(\mathbf{u}_i, \boldsymbol{\beta})}{\partial \beta_j} = -u_{ij} - \frac{1}{\gamma_{r_i}(\boldsymbol{\beta})} \cdot \frac{\partial \gamma_{r_i}(\boldsymbol{\beta})}{\partial \beta_j} \quad (6)$$

The derivatives of the symmetric functions  $\gamma_{r_i}(\boldsymbol{\beta})$  are again symmetric functions with certain terms omitted (cf., e.g., Fischer and Molenaar 1995). In our implementation of the Rasch trees, the sum algorithm of Liou (1994) is used (by default) for computing these derivatives.

When the individual contributions to the score function of the Rasch model from Equation 6 are ordered with respect to covariate  $\ell$  and inserted in Equation 2, parameter instabilities in the item parameters can be statistically tested using the model-based recursive partitioning approach outlined above.

The results of this procedure are easy to interpret: The parameter instability test statistics  $S_\ell$  with associated *p* values are provided for each candidate variable, as illustrated for the instructive example in Table 2. The test statistics for the numeric variable age corresponds to Equation 3 and for the categorical variable gender and the ordered categorical variable motivation to Equation 4; *p* values are derived from the respective limiting distributions.

In the first node, the variable with the smallest *p* value – in this case gender – is selected for splitting (cf. Table 2 and Figure 1). In each daughter node the splitting continues recursively: Here, the variable age is selected for splitting in the second node, whereas no split is found



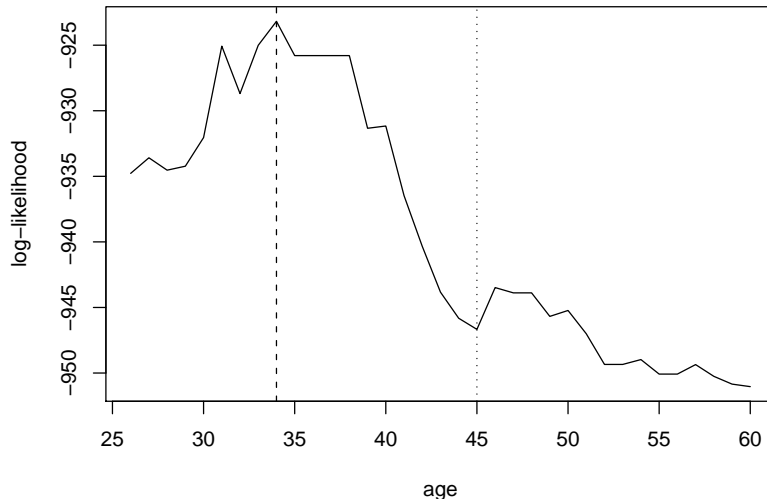


Figure 3: Log-likelihood of the partitioned Rasch model for the second split in the covariate age. The dashed line indicates the location of the optimal cutpoint (at the value 34) while the dotted line indicates the location of the median (at the value 45).

in the third node. Note that the variable gender is no longer available for splitting starting from the second node as it offers only one possible cutpoint (that has already been used for the first split).

As opposed to gender, the second splitting variable age is numeric and offers as many possible cutpoints as it has distinct values. In this case, it is an important advantage of the model-based recursive partitioning method that the exact cutpoint does not need to be pre-specified, but is determined in a data-driven way as described in detail in the next section.

Splitting continues until all  $p$  values exceeded the significance level (commonly 5%), indicating that there is no more significant parameter instability, or until the number of observations in a subsample falls below a given threshold. Note that the  $p$  values are Bonferroni adjusted as outlined in Section 2.4.

### 2.3. Selecting the cutpoints

After a covariate has been selected for splitting, the cutpoint is determined by maximizing the partitioned likelihood (i.e., the sum of the likelihoods for the observations before and after the cutpoint) over all candidate cutpoints within the range of this variable.

For the first split in the instructive example, this is straightforward as gender only allows for a single split into female and male subgroups. In the second split, however, all possible cutpoints in the variable age for the male subset are considered and the associated partitioned likelihoods are displayed in Figure 3. Clearly the age 34 is the optimal cutpoint, i.e., the strongest difference in the item parameters exists between males up to and over the age of 34.

Note that this cutpoint is obtained directly from the data, whereas standard approaches, such as the graphical or likelihood ratio test, require pre-specified focal and reference groups. For these standard approaches, often the median or mean is used as a cutpoint to split the sample into focal and reference group. However, this choice is completely arbitrary and may even conceal an actual parameter difference related to another cutpoint – as in this example, where the median 45 is far off the maximum indicating the strongest parameter change (cf. Figure 3). As a result, using the median as an arbitrarily pre-specified cutpoint may result in an insignificant test result, even though DIF is clearly present in the variable. As opposed to that, the data-driven approach suggested here can detect both whether there is parameter instability with respect to the variable age and where the parameter change occurs.

Formally, for a numeric splitting variable we can define the subsamples  $L(\xi) = \{i \mid x_{i\ell} \leq \xi\}$  and  $R(\xi) = \{i \mid x_{i\ell} > \xi\}$  on the left and right, respectively, of some cutpoint  $\xi$ . For both subsamples, the parameters  $\hat{\beta}^{(L)}$  and  $\hat{\beta}^{(R)}$  can be estimated separately as described above. To determine the optimal cutpoint  $\xi$ , the partitioned log-likelihood

$$\sum_{i \in L(\xi)} \Psi(\mathbf{u}_i, \hat{\beta}^{(L)}) + \sum_{i \in R(\xi)} \Psi(\mathbf{u}_i, \hat{\beta}^{(R)})$$

is maximized over all candidate cutpoints  $\xi$  (typically requiring a certain minimal subsample size).

While this approach can be applied to numeric and ordered covariates, for unordered categorical covariates the  $Q$  categories can be split into any two groups. From all these candidate binary partitions, again the one with the maximal partitioned likelihood is chosen.

What is important to note here is that the optimal cutpoint is determined only if a variable is associated with a significant parameter instability, which prevents variable selection bias (cf., e.g., Dobra and Gehrke 2001; Shih 2004; Hothorn, Hornik, and Zeileis 2006; Strobl, Boulesteix, and Augustin 2007). In particular, it would be statistically incorrect to assess the significance of an optimal cutpoint using the standard likelihood ratio test (employing its  $\chi^2$  distribution). The reason is that due to the optimal selection of the cutpoint (i.e., a special type of multiple testing) the asymptotic distribution of the maximally selected likelihood ratio statistic is not  $\chi^2$  anymore (Andrews 1993). In fact, the maximally selected Lagrange-multiplier statistic from Equation 3, that is employed in the Rasch tree method, is asymptotically equivalent to the maximally selected likelihood ratio statistic, but avoids reestimating the model. Thus, the Rasch tree approach provides a sound statistical framework for the automatic detection of the variable and cutpoint inducing the strongest DIF.

## 2.4. Stopping criteria

For creating a Rasch tree, the four basic steps outlined above – (1) estimating the item parameters of a joint model, (2) testing for parameter instability, (3) selecting the splitting variable and cutpoint and (4) splitting the sample accordingly – are repeated recursively until a stopping criterion is reached.

Two kinds of stopping criteria are currently implemented: Splitting continues only as long as significant parameter instability is detected. If there is no (more) significant instability with respect to any of the covariates, the splitting stops. Thus, the significance level – usually set to 5% – serves as the most important stopping criterion.

In addition to that, as a second stopping criterion a minimum sample size per node can be specified. This minimal node-size should be chosen such as to provide a sufficient basis for parameter estimation in each subsample, and should thus be increased when the number of item parameters to be estimated is large. For the instructive example, e.g., a significance level of 5% and a minimal node-size of 20 were employed.

Finally, one should keep in mind that when a large number of covariates is available in a data set, and all those covariates are to be tested for DIF, multiple testing becomes an issue – as with any statistical test for DIF. To account for the fact that multiple testing might lead to an increased false-positive rate when the number of available covariates is large, a Bonferroni adjustment for the  $p$  value splitting criterion is applied. Moreover, the recursive partitioning approach forms a closed testing procedure, so that the significance level holds for the entire tree, not only for each individual split. This ensures that DIF is not erroneously detected as an artefact of the number of candidate variables.

### 3. Application examples

#### 3.1. General knowledge quiz

An online quiz for testing one’s general knowledge was conducted by the weekly German news magazine SPIEGEL in 2009. Overall, about 700,000 respondents participated in the quiz and answered a set of sociodemographic questions. The general knowledge quiz consisted of a total of 45 items from five different topics: politics, history, economy, culture, and natural sciences. For each topic, four different sets of nine items were available, that were randomly assigned to the participants. A thorough analysis and discussion of the original data set is provided in [Trepte and Verbeet \(2010\)](#).

In order to present an application example with a not too heterogeneous sample and a more realistic size for psychological research, we consider only a subsample: university students enrolled in the federal state of Bavaria, who had all been assigned a particular set of questions (questionnaire number 20). This sample still contains 1075 complete cases, that are employed in the following analysis.

We consider the responses to the 45 quiz items and the covariates gender, age, semester of university enrollment, an indicator for whether the student’s university received elite status by the German “excellence initiative”, and the frequency of accessing SPIEGEL’s online magazine (SPIEGEL Online – SPON). Table 3 provides summary statistics for these covariates.

Table 3: Summary statistics for the covariates of the general knowledge quiz example.

Variable	Summary statistics					
Gender	male: 417			female: 658		
Elite university	no: 836			yes: 239		
	$x_{\min}$	$x_{0.25}$	$x_{\text{med}}$	$\bar{x}$	$x_{0.75}$	$x_{\max}$
Age	18	21	23	23.10	25	40
Semester	1	2	5		8	>10
SPON	never	never	1/week		daily	daily

The Rasch tree assesses the item responses with respect to the five covariates. As illustrated in Figure 4, the Rasch tree has splits in the variables gender, age, and SPON access frequency, indicating DIF in these variables, but not in the variables elite university and semester. Figure 4 also illustrates that it is a combination of the variables gender, age, and SPON access frequency – i.e. an interaction of three variables, rather than one variable alone – that determines which items are easier or harder to solve. With standard approaches, this pattern could only be detected if the interaction terms were explicitly included in the model or the respective groups were explicitly pre-specified. However, in practice usually only DIF in single variables is investigated, so that a complex interaction structure like in this example would not be detected.

Items that show particularly strong DIF include:

- The third history item (highlighted by the first large dot: Which form of government is associated with the French King Louis XIV? – Absolutism) is particularly easy for women up to the age of 21 (represented in node 4).
- The first economy item (highlighted by the second large dot: Who is this? – Picture of Dieter Zetsche, CEO of Mercedes-Benz) is particularly difficult for women (represented in nodes 4 through 6) and for young men who access SPON up to 2–3 times per week (represented in node 9).

Actually, none of the 118 women represented in node 4 (up to 21 years of age, SPON access up to once per week) answered the item correctly, so that the difficulty parameter could not be estimated and was internally set to infinity (as indicated by the dashed lines pointing out of the range of the plot).

- The fourth economy item (highlighted by the third large dot: What is a CEO? – A Chief Executive Officer) is particularly easy for men up to the age of 22 who access SPON more than 2–3 times per week (represented in node 10).
- The fifth culture item (highlighted by the fourth large dot: What is the name of the bestselling novel by Daniel Kehlmann? – Measuring The World) is particularly easy for women who access SPON more than once per week (represented in node 6).
- The fourth natural sciences item (highlighted by the fifth large dot: What is also termed Trisomy 21? – Down syndrome) is easier for women in general (represented in nodes 4 through 6) and particularly for young women (represented in node 4).

Moreover, it appears that – compared to the other groups – male students over the age of 22 (represented in node 11) find no items particularly easy or particularly hard.

It is also interesting to note that in the general population sample investigated by [Strobl, Kopf, and Zeileis \(2010a\)](#) – as opposed to the student sample considered here – some patterns of DIF coincided with the original subdimensions of the quiz (e.g., history questions tended to be easier for older men), indicating an underlying multidimensionality of the general knowledge construct. In our student sample, however, only single items from various topics are particularly easy for students of a certain gender and age, or for those frequently accessing the SPIEGEL online magazine (where it is left to discuss whether the latter should be considered a nuisance dimension, an unfair advantage – or a valid source of general knowledge).

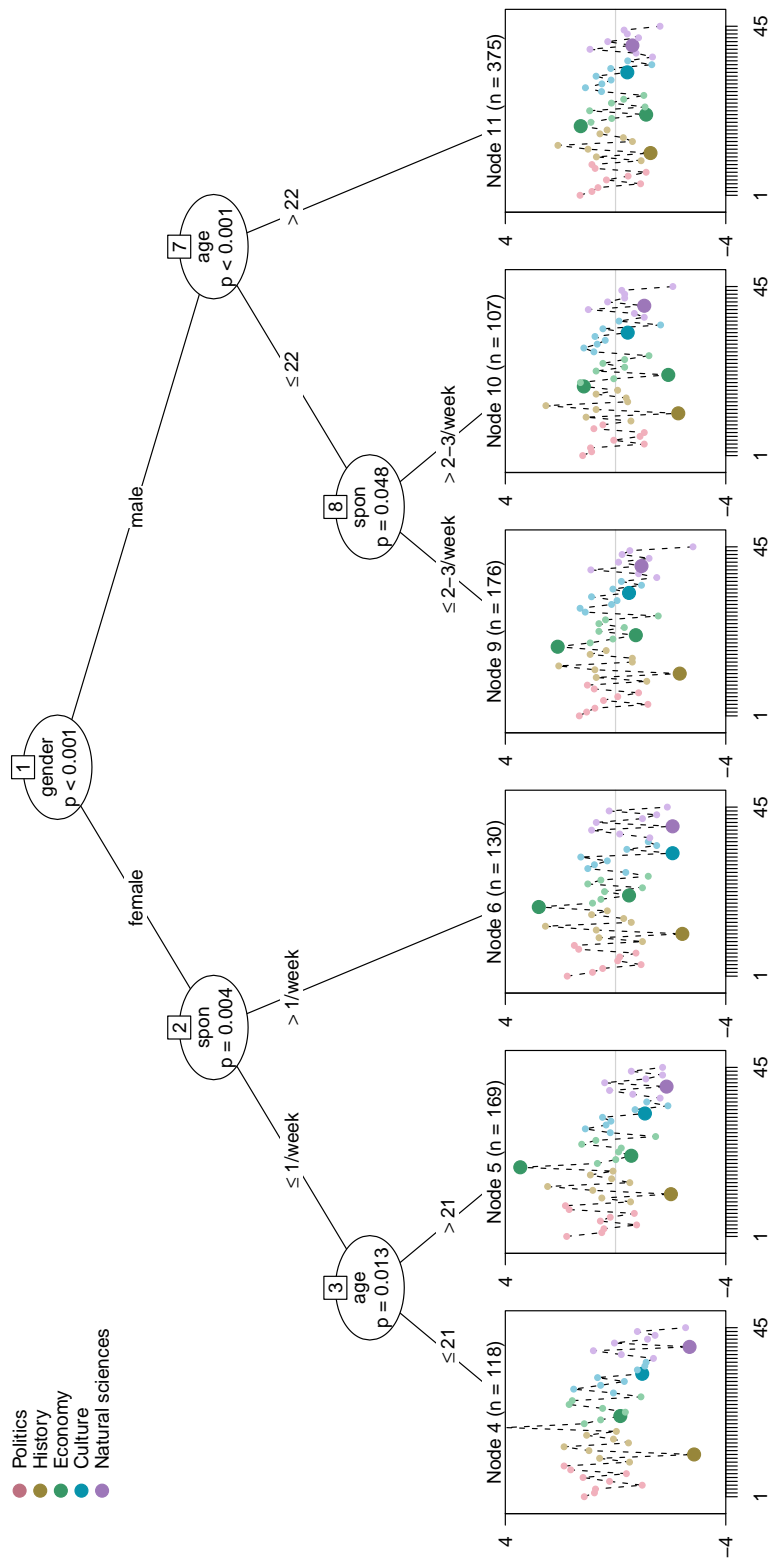


Figure 4: Rasch tree for the general knowledge quiz example. The five different colors for the items indicate the five different topics: politics, history, economy, culture and natural sciences.

### 3.2. Teaching evaluation

The second application example is from the field of teaching evaluation: A questionnaire for evaluating the quality of a lecture was completed by 146 first year students from the faculty of natural sciences at the University of Palermo, Italy, in 2006. The students answered items on the general quality of the lecture, their satisfaction with the lecture, organizational issues, the infrastructure, and the lecturer, as well as some sociodemographic questions. A first analysis and discussion of the full data set is provided by [Romano \(2010\)](#).

The sociodemographic covariates are age, gender, type of residence, number of courses taken during the evaluation phase and job employment. Summary statistics for these covariates are provided in [Table 4](#).

Again, the dichotomized item responses are assessed by the Rasch tree with respect to the five covariates. Seven subjects, for whom all item responses are missing or zero, are excluded from the analysis, leaving 139 observations. As illustrated in [Figure 5](#), the Rasch tree has a split only in the variable gender, indicating DIF between male and female students. No DIF is detected in the variables age, type of residence, number of courses taken and job employment.

Items that show particularly strong DIF include:

- The second item (highlighted by the first large dot: Were the exam modalities clearly explained in class?) is harder to agree to for male students.
- The ninth item (highlighted by the second large dot: Does the timetable allow enough time for changing rooms?) is easier to agree to for female students.
- The 16-th item (highlighted by the third large dot: Does the lecturer clearly explain the subject matter?) is harder to agree to for female students.

This example illustrates that DIF can not only occur and be detected in attainment tests, but also in evaluations, as well as attitude or personality tests, where different groups of participants may interpret the items differently or be influenced in their item responses by different dimensions of the latent trait. In any case, whenever one or more splits are found by the Rasch tree, a joint Rasch model – as well as a simple ranking, that also assumes unidimensionality – is no longer appropriate for describing the data.

Table 4: Summary statistics for the covariates of the teaching evaluation example.

Variable	Summary statistics						Missing
Gender	male: 89		female: 54				3
Residence	resident: 51		commuter: 35		non resident: 46		14
Job	none: 120		part time: 14		full time: 3		9
	$x_{\min}$	$x_{0.25}$	$x_{\text{med}}$	$\bar{x}$	$x_{0.75}$	$x_{\max}$	
Age	18	19	19	19.21	19	28	1
Number of courses	1	2	3	2.89	3	5	4

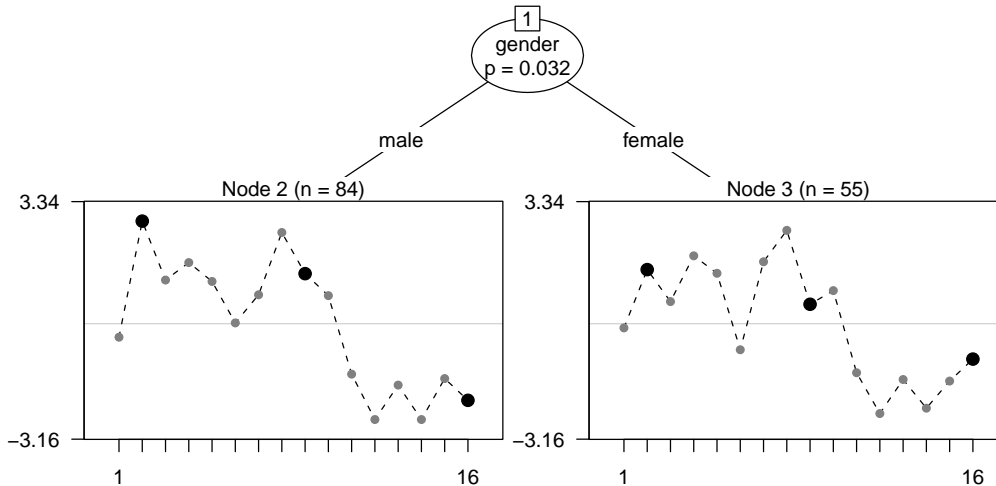


Figure 5: Rasch tree for the teaching evaluation example.

#### 4. Discussion and outlook

We have proposed a new method for detecting DIF that combines the advantages of previous approaches for given groups and latent classes: Groups of subjects exhibiting DIF are automatically detected, but remain directly interpretable with respect to their covariate values. In particular, in numeric covariates it is no longer necessary to pre-specify a cutpoint for defining focal and reference groups, but the cutpoint associated with the strongest parameter difference is detected automatically. Thus, DIF in a numeric covariate cannot go unnoticed due to a suboptimal definition of the groups.

When DIF is considered as an indicator of multidimensionality, the graphical display of the Rasch trees can also help identify both groups of items and groups of subjects that may be affected by an additional dimension – whether it be of interest or nuisance.

Of course, any covariate-based approach can only detect all groups of subjects with DIF when all relevant covariates are observable and available for the analysis. In future research, we plan to combine the covariate-based approach presented here with a latent class approach. Then all information available from covariates could be utilized first before a latent class approach is applied in the terminal nodes to detect any remaining heterogeneity.

Moreover, it should be noted that – as with all observational data – a covariate used for splitting should not be interpreted as the causal source of the observed DIF, because the splitting variable may only serve as a proxy for the unobservable or unavailable true cause. In the example of Stout (2002), e.g., that is cited in the introduction of this paper, if DIF is detected between men and women in test items on paragraphs discussing the physical sciences, gender should not be considered as the actual cause of the DIF, but as an indicator of a variety of educational and social influences – such as a lack of reinforcement for female students’ interest in physical sciences – that eventually lead to disadvantages in those items.

Technically, we plan to generalize the method to extensions of the Rasch model (such as those proposed by Birnbaum 1968; Fischer 1973; Masters 1982). In particular, it would be

interesting to apply an extension of the Rasch tree method to a 2-parameter logistic model including a location and a guessing parameter, because this would allow the detection of differential guessing behavior in the case of multiple choice items (also investigated by Ben-Shakhar and Sinai 1991 and Westers and Kelderman 1991). For these extensions, it is a great advantage of the proposed method that it is not limited to the conditional maximum likelihood approach employed here, but can be generalized to several other estimation approaches. A related method for detecting different preferences between groups of subjects in the Bradley-Terry model is already implemented in the `psychotree` package (see Strobl, Wickelmaier, and Zeileis 2010b).

## Computational details

Our results were obtained using the R system for statistical computing (R Development Core Team 2010), version 2.9.2, and the add-on package `psychotree` (Zeileis *et al.* 2010), version 0.11-1. Both are freely available under the General Public License from the Comprehensive R Archive Network. A vignette describing the practical application of the method (by replicating the knowledge quiz illustration) is available along with the `psychotree` package at <http://CRAN.R-project.org/package=psychotree/>. The analysis of the instructive data example is also replicated in the manual for the function `raschtree`.

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