

Missing numbers progress monitoring test level 5a.

A mathematics curriculum-based measurement (CBM) on the online platform www.levumi.de

Anderson, S., Schurig, M., deVries, J.M., Gebhardt, M.

Sven Anderson, M.A.

Technische Universität Dortmund

sven.anderson@tu-dortmund.de

ORCID: <https://orcid.org/0000-0002-2323-8543>

Dr. Michael Schurig

Technische Universität Dortmund

michael.schurig@tu-dortmund.de

ORCID: <https://orcid.org/0000-0002-7708-0593>

Jeffrey M. DeVries

Technische Universität Dortmund

jeffrey.devries@tu-dortmund.de

ORCID: <https://orcid.org/0000-0001-8923-6615>

Prof. Dr. Markus Gebhardt

Technische Universität Dortmund

markus.gebhardt@tu-dortmund.de

ORCID: <https://orcid.org/0000-0002-9122-0556>

Test used in: Anderson, S.; Schurig, M.; DeVries, J.M. Mühling, A. & Gebhardt, M. (in preparation): Item construct evaluation of missing numbers curriculum-based measurement (CBM) for struggling students in secondary schools.

This work is licensed under the Creative Commons Attribution-NonCommercial 4.0



Background

Progress Monitoring is a formative method of monitoring students learning development in different academic areas such as reading, writing and mathematics with the aim of identifying student's individual needs and evaluating current instructions in order to provide appropriate tasks in the future (Fuchs & Fuchs, 2001). One type of progress monitoring is curriculum-based measurement (CBM), which has a long tradition of research, particularly in the field of special education (Deno, 1985; Tindal, 2013). CBMs are short, high frequency and easy-to-use standardized tests that teachers can use during regular lessons. CBM tests enable long-term measurements of school performance through parallel test versions. After repeated measurements, CBM results enable the graphical representation of student's learning development (Deno, 2003). This data based feedback can support teachers in the early identification of learning problems as well as in the evaluation of the learning development and the current instructions used in class (Stecker, Fuchs & Fuchs, 2005). In the design of CBM, Fuchs (2004) generally differentiates between the curriculum sampling approach and the robust indicator approach. The curriculum sampling approach includes representative samples of the mathematics curriculum of the school year, whereas the robust indicator approach uses measures that represent broadly defined mathematical skills. In this approach, effective measures are not necessarily representative of a specific curriculum.

CBM tests can be administered as paper and pencil and as computer or web-based version. Particularly computer or web-based CBM tests offer the opportunity to quickly and automatically evaluate and graphically visualize the results. In addition, computer and web-based methods can randomly select items from an item pool and thus automatically generate a very large number of potential parallel test versions (Mühling, Jungjohann & Gebhardt, 2019).

In mathematics, Hosp, Hosp and Howell (2016) differentiate progress monitoring with CBM between tests for numeracy concepts (early numeracy CBM), tests for computational skills (computation CBM) and tests for the application of mathematics such as interpreting measurements, tables or graphs (concept and application CBM). CBMs are developed in mathematics for students from pre-school to secondary school (Foegen, Jiban & Deno, 2007). The focus of the CBM test construction is on elementary mathematics, and so far, only few methods are available for secondary school (Tindal, 2013). CBM tasks in mathematics are designed using the robust indicator approach, the curriculum sampling approach, or a combination of both approaches (Foegen, Jiban & Den, 2007).

Previous research suggest that missing number tasks (also known as number series) are suitable for progress monitoring for students struggling with mathematics (Foegen, 2008; Gebhardt, Zehner & Hessels, 2014; Gebhardt, Oelkrug & Tretter, 2013). In an exploratory study by Gebhardt et al. (2014) on the development of basic mathematical skills in German special schools from the fifth to the ninth grade, students of all grades were able to improve in the missing numbers test over time. The missing numbers test requires mastery of numeracy concepts, which might be an adequate robust indicator of general mathematics competence (Foegen, 2008). The task is to identify the missing number from a pattern of four numbers, replacing one number with a blank space. The ability to recognize patterns is regarded as a fundamental algebraic competence and a thus a representation of number sense and ordinality (Foegen, 2008). Missing number tasks are used as CBM mainly for testing early numeracy skills

in kindergarten or primary school (Hosp et al., 2016) and are only rarely used in secondary education (Foegen, 2008).

Item construction at level 5a

Missing number is a test on the web-based progress-monitoring platform Levumi (www.levumi.de; Jungjohann, DeVries, Gebhardt & Mühlning, 2018). The test at level 5a consists of an item pool of 70 items. The test duration is currently 5 minutes (as of January 2020). On the Levumi platform, the tasks are selected randomly from the item pool during the test period, so that a large number of possible parallel test versions can be generated automatically. The appendix contains an exemplary paper and pencil test version. Table 1 is the Q-matrix for the missing number test at level 5a composed of 14 dichotomously scored items and hypothesized difficulty parameters (DP) based on the integrated theory of numerical development (Siegler, 2016). Siegler (2016) provides with the integrated theory of numerical development a combined model of the development of numerical competence. Within this theory, arithmetic follows from the expansion of the mental number line. Siegler's theory offers an explanation for a number of discoveries within research into the development of mathematical competence: size and distance effects, the learning of various mathematical operations and SNARC effects (spatial-numerical association of response codes).

The columns DP1 to DP 4 reflect the four construction rules covered by the test. The numbers 0 and 1 are the given difficulty values for each item. Based on Siegler's integrated theory of numerical development, the following elements were defined, which are expected to have an influence on the item difficulty:

- **DP 1:** the quantity of digits of a number. The item pool consists of five-digit (0) and six-digit numbers (1) shown in the column digits in table 1. This thesis corresponds to the size effect. The thesis is that tasks with more digits have a higher degree of difficulty.
- **DP 2:** the function. The item pool consists of ascending (0) and descending (1) pattern of numbers shown in the column function in table 1. The hypothesis is that ascending patterns could be less difficult (addition) than descending patterns (subtraction).
- **DP 3:** the position of the missing number. The item pool consists of blank column on position 3 and 4 (0) and blank column on position 1 and 2 (1) shown in the column position in table 1. The hypothesis is that blanks in the right column will be easier to solve than in the left. Solving the right blanks corresponds to the predominant reading direction, from left to right (e.g. a SNARC effect).
- **DP 4:** the step within the numeral in comparison to the previous number. The item pool consists of items with change in digit position in unit part and in ten part (1) or in hundreds part and in thousands part (0) shown in the column steps in table 1. This thesis corresponds to the distance effect, which suggests that increases in larger orders of magnitude should be easier than in smaller ones.

Table 1: Q-matrix for the Levumi missing number CBM level 5a with the four item difficulty parameters digits, function, position and steps

Item	DP 1 - digits	DP 2 - function	DP 3 - position	DP 4 - steps
1, 15, 29, 43, 57	0	1	0	1
2, 16, 30, 44, 58	1	0	1	0
3, 17, 31, 45, 59	0	0	1	0
4, 18, 32, 46, 60	1	1	0	1
5, 19, 33, 47, 61	0	0	0	1
6, 20, 34, 48, 62	1	1	0	0
7, 21, 35, 49, 63	1	0	1	1
8, 22, 36, 50, 64	1	1	0	0
9, 23, 37, 51, 65	0	0	1	1
10, 24, 38, 52, 66	0	1	0	0
11, 25, 39, 53, 67	1	0	1	1
12, 26, 40, 54, 68	0	1	0	1
13, 27, 41, 55, 69	1	0	0	0
14, 28, 42, 56, 70	1	1	1	1

Procedure

As paper and pencil test the student receives several parallel test versions and works on them within the given test time. After the test, the examiner/teacher codes the correctly and incorrectly solved items and transfers them to a data sheet of a calculation program (e.g. Microsoft Excel).

The following materials are required to conduct the test as paper and pencil version (also see the information Hosp et al., 2016):

- sheets with different parallel test versions (student and teacher copies)
- a watch to stop the test time
- a quiet environment to test the students
- a calculation program to evaluate data and plot graphs to visualize the learning developemnt over time (for evaluating and visualizing data with Microsoft Excel also see Riley-Tilman & Burns, 2009).

Appendix Missing Numbers N5a

What number is missing?
Write it in the blank space!

1.	99 499	99 489	99 479	
2.		457 000	458 000	459 000
3.	89 485		89 685	89 785
4.	342 250	342 240	342 230	
5.	25 733	25 743		25 763
6.	227 760	226 760	225 760	
7.	238 350		238 370	238 380
8.	125 740	125 640	125 540	
9.		98 394	98 395	98 396
10.	74 754	74 654	74 554	
11.	475 643		475 645	475 646
12.	34 674	34 673		34 671
13.	239 280	239 380	239 480	
14.		365 153	365 152	365 151

Appendix Missing Numbers N5a

What number is missing?

Write it in the blank space!

15.	77 374	77 364	77 354	
16.		643 000	644 000	645 000
17.	32 634		32 834	32 934
18.	748 950	748 940	748 930	
19.	39 424	39 434		39 454
20.	384 270	383 270	382 270	
21.	569 250		569 270	569 280
22.	477 470	477 370	477 270	
23.		29 884	29 885	29 886
24.	25 763	25 663	25 563	
25.	341 112		341 114	341 115
26.	86 626	86 625		86 623
27.	365 230	365 330	365 430	
28.		174 833	174 832	174 831

Appendix Missing Numbers N5a

What number is missing?

Write it in the blank space!

29.	59 572	59 562	59 552	
30.		317 000	318 000	319 000
31.	25 697		25 897	25 997
32.	123 570	123 560	123 550	
33.	43 924	43 934		43 954
34.	275 950	274 950	273 950	
35.	338 460		338 480	338 490
36.	788 590	788 490	788 390	
37.		39 657	39 658	39 659
38.	47 543	47 443	47 343	
39.	743 452		743 454	743 455
40.	37 177	37 176		37 174
41.	276 230	276 330	276 430	
42.		384 653	384 652	384 651

Appendix Missing Numbers N5a

What number is missing?

Write it in the blank space!

43.	63 644	63 634	63 624	
44.		952 000	953 000	954 000
45.	76 599		76 799	76 899
46.	987 990	987 980	987 970	
47.	54 632	54 642		54 662
48.	454 120	453 120	452 120	
49.	226 650		226 670	226 680
50.	244 860	244 760	244 660	
51.		89 882	89 883	89 884
52.	18 439	18 339	18 239	
53.	351 192		351 194	351 195
54.	49 896	49 895		49 893
55.	134 410	134 510	134 610	
56.		733 444	733 443	733 442

Appendix Missing Numbers N5a

What number is missing?

Write it in the blank space!

57.	25 745	25 735	25 725	
58.		376 000	377 000	378 000
59.	12 346		12 546	12 646
60.	457 550	457 540	457 530	
61.	76 743	76 753		76 773
62.	477 210	476 210	475 210	
63.	112 930		112 950	112 960
64.	544 530	544 430	544 330	
65.		28 912	28 913	28 914
66.	77 443	77 343	77 243	
67.	984 563		984 565	984 566
68.	57 397	57 396		57 394
69.	157 310	157 410	157 510	
70.		528 813	528 812	528 811

References

- Deno, S. L. (1985). Curriculum-Based Measurement: The Emerging Alternative. *Exceptional Children, 52*, (3), 219–232).
- Deno, S. L. (2003). Developments in curriculum-based measurement. *The Journal of Special Education, 37*, (3), 184–192). <https://doi.org/10.1177/00224669030370030801>
- Foegen, A. (2008). Progress monitoring in middle school mathematics. Options and issues. *Remedial and Special Education, 29*(4), 195–207. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0741932507309716>.
- Foegen, A., Jiban, C. L. & Deno, S. L. (2007). Progress Monitoring Measures in Mathematics. A Review of the Literature. *The Journal of Special Education, 41*(2), 121–139.
- Fuchs, L. S. (2004). The past, present and future of curriculum-based measurement research. *School Psychology Review, 33*, (188–192).
- Fuchs, L. S., & Fuchs, D. (2001). What is scientifically-based research on progress monitoring? Washington, DC: National Center on Progress Monitoring. Retrieved from http://www.ode.state.or.us/offices/slp/sld_ode_pm_scientific_research.pdf
- Gebhardt, M., Zehner, F. & Hessels, M. G. P. (2014). Basic arithmetical skills of students with learning disabilities in the secondary special schools. An exploratory study covering fifth to ninth grade. *Frontline learning research, 2*(1), 50–63. <https://doi.org/10.14786/flr.v2i1.73>.
- Gebhardt, M., Oelkrug, K., & Tretter, T. (2013). Das mathematische Leistungsspektrum bei Schülerinnen und Schülern mit sonderpädagogischem Förderbedarf in der Sekundarstufe. *Empirische Sonderpädagogik, 5*, (2), 130–143).
- Hosp, M. K., Hosp, J. L. & Howell, K. W. (2016). *The ABCs of CBM. A practical guide to curriculum-based measurement* (The Guilford practical intervention in the schools series, second edition). New York: The Guilford Press.
- Jungjohann, J., DeVries, J. M., Gebhardt, M. & Mühling, A. (2018). Levumi: A web-based curriculum-based measurement to monitor learning progress in inclusive classrooms. In K. Miesenberger & G. Kouroupetroglou (Eds.), *Computers Helping People with Special Needs* (Lecture Notes in Computer Science, Bd. 10896, pp. 369–378). Cham: Springer International Publishing. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-319-94277-3_58.
- Mühling, A., Jungjohann, J., & Gebhardt, M. (2019). Progress monitoring in primary education using Levumi: a case study. In H. Lane, S. Zvacek, & J. Uhomobhi (Eds.), *CSEDU 2019. Proceedings of the 11th International Conference on Computer Supported Education, 2-4 May, 2019, Heraklion, Greece* (pp. 137–144). SCITEPRESS - Science and Technology Publications. <https://doi.org/10.5220/0007658301370144>.
- Riley-Tillman, T. C. & Burns, M. K. (2009). *Evaluating educational interventions. Single-case design for measuring response to intervention*. New York: Guilford.
- Siegler, R. S. (2016). Magnitude knowledge: the common core of numerical development. *Developmental Science, 19*(3), 341–361. <https://doi.org/10.1111/desc.12395>.

Stecker, P. M., Fuchs, L. S., & Fuchs, D. (2005). Using curriculum-based measurement to improve student achievement: review of research. *Psychology in the Schools, 42*, (8), 795–819). <https://doi:10.1002/pits.20113>.

Tindal, G. (2013). Curriculum-based measurement: a brief history of nearly everything from the 1970s to the present. *ISRN Education, (2)*, 1–29. <https://doi.org/10.1155/2013/958530>.