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¹ Construct and incremental validity of dynamic assessment of decoding ² within and across domains $\stackrel{\sim}{\sim}$

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ABSTRACT

In contrast to conventional static assessments measuring what students *have* learned, dynamic assessments 18 (DAs) measure how well students *can* learn; that is, their learning potential. The purpose of this study was two-19 fold: (a) to test whether DA of decoding measures learning potential for early reading that is distinct from what 20 can be assessed from static intelligence and decoding assessments (construct validity); and (b) to examine the 21 additive value of DA of decoding for explaining word reading and arithmetic performance beyond that which 22 can be explained with static measures (incremental validity). First grade students (N = 112) were assessed on 23 DA of decoding and various measures from reading- to math-related predictors as well as domain-general 24 learning indicators. Confirmatory factor analyses supported that DA of decoding measures early reading learning 25 potential different from general intelligence and actual decoding skill. Structural equation models showed that 26 DA of decoding. DA was not a significant predictor of word recognition and arithmetic performance 28 suggesting that early reading learning potential measured by DA of decoding was not generalizable across 29 domains. 30

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We often encounter children who perform similarly on an 36 assessment but require different amounts of support to reach the 37 desired competence level. Children's cognitive abilities can be fully un-38 derstood by recognizing the two developmental levels (Vygotsky, 1934/ 39 1962): the actualized and the actualizing. The actualized abilities are 40 seen as those that are complete and fully developed, reflecting what 41 children have learned in the past, whereas the actualizing abilities are 42 43 those that are not yet fully developed but can become actualized in the future via interaction with more advanced individuals. The gap 44 between the two is referred to as the zone of proximal development 45(ZPD). 46

Conventional assessments measure children's independent performance. This method is suited for assessing phenomena that are static
in nature, such as the zone of actual development. An alternative approach is to use dynamic assessment (DA). DA is an umbrella term
for assessment procedures that embed interaction between the

progressively explicit prompts. How children respond to such instruc- 54 tion then serves as a measure of their learning potential (i.e., ZPD). 55 Thus, whereas static assessments measure what has already been 56 learned, DA estimates learning potential, which is how well an individ- 57 ual can learn given assistance. Because DA was developed as a tool to 58 measure learning potential, a distinct construct from what is measured 59 in static assessments, it is believed to provide an additional information 60 about academic achievement beyond what can be gathered from static 61 assessments alone (for a comprehensive DA review, see Elliott, 2003; Q8 Grigorenko & Sternberg, 1998; Guthke, 1992). In this study, we incorpo- 63 rated decoding instruction into DA to measure early reading learning 64 potential with a hope that DA of decoding could aid early identification 65 of students who may later develop reading difficulties. As a first step, we 66 examined whether decoding DA measures early reading learning 67 potential that is distinct from statically measured general intelligence 68 and actual decoding skill (construct validity). We also evaluated DA of 69 decoding's additive value in explaining concurrent word reading and 70 arithmetic outcomes (incremental validity within and across domains). 71

learning potential assessment device (Feuerstein, 1979), graduated Q9

examiner and examinee within the test (Lidz & Elliott, 2000). Interac- 52

tion is embedded either in a form of instruction or in a sequence of 53

1. The validity of DA

Several different approaches to DA exist, some of which includes 73

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prompts (Campione & Brown, 1987), testing the limits (Carlson & 75 76 Wiedl, 1979), learning potential assessment (Budoff, 1967), and learning tests (Guthke, 1992). These approaches differ in various dimensions 77 78 such as the format and the nature of interaction, and the materials being used in DA. The test-teach-retest format typically incorporates individ-79 ualized interaction with a blocked scheduling of instruction between 80 pre- and posttest to index the improvement on the posttest. Alterna-81 tively, the graduated prompts approach uses progressive scheduling of 82 83 a predetermined hierarchy of prompts and assesses the amount of 84 help students require to master the skill. With the ease associated 85 with using standardized prompts, the graduated prompts approach has been widely accepted by researchers in school settings interested 86 in academic achievement for screening and identification of students 87 88 with special needs (Daniel, 1997; Laughon, 1990). In terms of test materials, traditional approach used items adopted from traditional 89 intelligence tests whereas recently developed DA studies tend to focus 90 on domain- and curriculum-specific procedures (Guthke, 1992). 91

92Although the diversity in the field of DA allows a flexible application of DA to education and psychology, it also brings challenges because 93 there is no single definition for what DA measures (Caffrey, Fuchs, & 94 Fuchs, 2008; Grigorenko, 2009; Jitendra & Kameenui, 1993). Conceptual 010 similarity between learning potential and intelligence adds to the 96 012 011 confusion as well (Elliott, 2003; Murphy, 2011). They are both commonly defined as an ability to learn from instruction/experience or 98 efficiency in learning. Then, it is possible that the two constructs, learn-99 ing potential and intelligence, may not be qualitatively different 100 (Grigorenko & Sternberg, 1998). If they are, in fact, similar, we might 101 102be using two terms to refer to a single construct and traditional static intelligence tests may be under-representing the construct of ability to 103 learn. They only measure the product of learning (Beckmann, 2006). 104 Thus, for a DA to prove its utility in educational setting, it first needs 105106 to show that learning potential measured by DA is qualitatively different 107from information gathered from static assessments including traditional intelligence test. Secondly, DA needs to show incremental validity for 108 explaining academic achievement by showing its value above and 109beyond currently used predictors. This would establish the degree to 110 which DA might be practically useful. Because DA has been criticized 111 112 for being labor intensive in administration (Jitendra & Kameenui, 1993), if it does not add a significant amount of information to the 113 existing measures in explaining students' academic performance, the 114 benefits of DA may not outweigh its costs. 115

116 2. Prior DA studies examining the construct and incremental validity

To contextualize the present study, two lines of DA research that utilize the graduated prompts format using academic tasks are reviewed. First, prior research examining the construct validity of DA in relation to intelligence and/or to the same ability measured statically using factor analytic methods is reviewed. Second, results from previous studies that have explored the incremental validity of DA for explaining basic word reading are reviewed.

124 2.1. Empirical evidence of the construct validity

Three studies were identified that used factor analytic methods to 125validate DA as a distinct construct from constructs measured with static 126127assessments, including intelligence (i.e., Fuchs et al., 2008; Fuchs, Compton, Fuchs, Bouton, & Caffrey, 2011; Swanson & Howard, 2005). 128In Fuchs et al.'s (2011) study, students were asked to master three 129 common decoding patterns and provided with instructional prompts 130that gradually became explicit. Using exploratory factor analysis the 131 authors found that DA and static intelligence and language assessments 132measure similar cognitive processes. However, because of its explorato-133 ry approach, it did not allow us to empirically test the hypothesis as to 134 whether DA measures a unique construct of learning potential. Others 135136 have used confirmatory approach but not in the area of reading. Swanson and Howard (2005) provided support for DA of phonological137and semantic working memory as a tool for measuring learning poten-138tial distinct from static working memory and verbal IQ. However, the139authors did not compare their hypothesized factor model with other140competing models. Fuchs et al. (2008) used DA of math and tested141several competing measurement models using structural equation142modeling thus adding stronger empirical support to the construct valid-143ity of DA. Overall, given the small number of studies that differ in various144dimensions, limited empirical evidence exists to suggest that DA of145academic tasks measures learning potential as a construct that is distin-146guishable from what can be measured by static assessments, including147intelligence.148

2.2. Empirical evidence of the incremental validity

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The prior studies suggest that DA of early reading measures have 150 incremental validity in explaining or predicting word reading and its 151 growth. DA of phonological awareness (PA) predicted later word read- 152 ing; controlling for only one other static PA measure (Bridges & Catts, 153 2011) or language and three other PA measures (Spector, 1992). DA of 154 decoding predicted later word reading and word reading growth in 155 response to phonics-based reading instruction controlling for a wide 156 range of competing predictors including PA, rapid automatized naming 157 (RAN), and IQ (Cho, Compton, Fuchs, Fuchs, & Bouton, 2014; Fuchs et al., 158 2011). Although the consistent findings across these studies are that DA 159 was a significant predictor of word reading skills, the amount of vari- 160 ance uniquely explained by DA was small, particularly when DA's incre- 161 mental validity was tested against multiple competing predictors (2-162 3%). Similarly, except for the studies that used DA of decoding, the ma- 163 jority of these studies have mainly focused on comparing DA to its static 164 version or to a small set of competing predictors, which may overstate 165 the utility of DA. 166

3. Research questions	
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Research question 1. Does DA of decoding measure early reading168learning potential distinct from static measures of intelligence and169decoding?170Research question 2. Does DA of decoding have incremental validity171in explaining word reading skills beyond what can be explained by172the known predictors of reading and domain-general learning173indicators?174Research question 3. Does DA of decoding have incremental validity175across domains?176

4. Method 177

4.1. Participants

A convenience sample of 112 native English speaking first grade 179 students from 6 schools and 20 classrooms participated in this study. 180 Standardized reading and math assessment scores suggest that the 181 sample was representative in terms of reading and math performance 182 (Table 1). Demographic information of the participants is summarized 183 in Table 1. 184

4.2. Measures 185

4.2.1. Dynamic assessment of decoding

Three essential skills required for decoding development were 187 assessed in the DA: learning novel symbol-sound correspondence, 188 blending sounds, and inferring decoding rule. We used the novel 189 symbols instead of alphabet to measure the process of learning to 190 read, which is less impacted by their prior reading level. Also, pairing 191 of new orthography with sounds is a type of paired associative learning 192

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