

# ASSESSMENT OF

Story Comprehension



Trina D. Spencer Howard Goldstein

# Assessment of Story Comprehension (ASC™) MANUAL

# Assessment of Story Comprehension (ASC<sup>TM</sup>)

**MANUAL** 

by

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and

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Dr. Goldstein is a nationally known scholar for his research in the field of child language intervention. His research has sought to improve the communication and social skills of children with autism and other developmental disabilities. His recent work has sought to enhance the language and literacy development of students in high-poverty schools who are at high risk for language and reading disabilities. He has authored two books and more than 125 scholarly journal articles and book chapters. Dr. Goldstein has participated in more than 40 research and personnel preparation grants, and he has served as Principal Investigator for more than 30 sponsored projects and on numerous editorial boards and grant review panels.

#### **CHAPTER 1**

# Introduction to the Assessment of Story Comprehension

eading comprehension is one of the most important skills for success in school and relies on decoding and language comprehension (see Figure 1.1) (Gough & Tunmer, 1986; Hoover & Gough, 1990; Storch & Whitehurst, 2002; Tunmer & Hoover, 1992).

Decoding consists of sounding out words using phonics and whole word recognition strategies. Alphabet knowledge, print knowledge, and phonological awareness are the fundamental components that emerge in early childhood (Scarborough, 2001; Storch & Whitehurst, 2002). Language comprehension joins with decoding to ensure understanding of written material and depends on a number of interrelated skills, such as vocabulary knowledge, inference making, knowledge of syntax and grammar, and background knowledge (Scarborough, 2001; Storch & Whitehurst, 2002). Although most people are able to master decoding and decoding-related skills such as phonological awareness within a few years, the development of language comprehension begins at birth (and possibly earlier) and continues into adulthood. People are always learning new vocabulary and gaining experiences that enhance their understanding of various content, all of which sharpens their ability to make inferences that ultimately facilitate learning (Paris, 2005). Figure 1.2 shows how the different interrelated skills involved in decoding and language comprehension come together to make reading comprehension possible.

Unfortunately, too many children struggle to understand what they read. For example, more than 60% of fourth graders read below grade level, and the proportion of students performing poorly on national reading tests is closer to 80% for culturally and linguistically diverse subgroups (National Center for Education Statistics, 2015). Similar patterns of reading achievement have been present for decades, and only small gains in reading comprehension have been observed. Explicitly teaching alphabet knowledge, print concepts, and phonological awareness in early childhood settings so that children begin kindergarten ready to read (decode) is one strategy to improve reading outcomes among children in the United States. As a result, considerable attention has been given to the promotion of the foundational skills of decoding in early childhood (e.g., Bailet, Repper, Murphy, Piasta, & Zettler-Greeley, 2013; Haager, Klingner, & Vaughn, 2007; Hurry & Sylva, 2007; Koutsoftas, Harmon, & Gray, 2009; VanDerHeyden, Snyder, Broussard, & Ramsdell, 2008). An increase has occurred in the development of early childhood literacy curricula, intervention programs, and assessment tools, such as Blueprint for Early Literacy (Children's Literacy Initiative, 2017), Nemours Brightstart! (Bailet et al., 2013), PAth to Literacy (Goldstein, 2016), Individual Growth and Development Indicators (Wackerle-Hollman, Schmitt, Bradfield, Rodriguez, & McConnell, 2015), and PALS-PreK (Invernizzi, Sullivan, Meier, & Swank, 2004). The promotion of language comprehension, which is the other major component of reading comprehension, is also necessary. Very little explicit instruction on language comprehension has occurred compared with decoding in schools across the United States (Dickinson, Golinkoff, & Hirsh-Pasek, 2010). A balanced focus on both decoding and language comprehension is vital for many children, especially those who are culturally and linguistically diverse.

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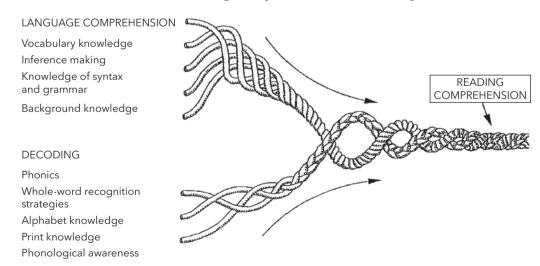
**Figure 1.1.** Both decoding and language comprehension are necessary components of reading comprehension. (Adapted with permission from Gough, P. and Tunmer, W. [1986]. Decoding, reading, and reading disability. *Remedial and Special Education*, 7, 6-10.)

Early childhood educators need intervention and assessment tools to help them fully embrace a balanced focus on language comprehension and decoding. A number of explicit oral language (including vocabulary and comprehension) programs have become available for use in early childhood classrooms, such as Story Friends<sup>TM</sup>, Story Champs<sup>TM</sup>, and Developing Talkers. The Assessment of Story Comprehension, or the ASC (pronounced "ask"), was designed to support the use of these and other oral language interventions and programs with preschoolers. The ASC measures children's language comprehension abilities, and early childhood educators can make decisions about language interventions for young children like the ones shown in Figure 1.3. It is important to note that with appropriate and timely assessment, proper language interventions can be deployed in a manner to prepare children for the rigors of elementary school and prevent reading comprehension problems in middle childhood.

#### LANGUAGE AND READING COMPREHENSION

Because early language experiences are important for later reading comprehension (Dooley & Matthews, 2009), oral language promotion is an essential component of early childhood education (Dickinson, Golinkoff, & Hirsh-Pasek, 2010; Whitehurst & Lonigan, 1998). Reading comprehension cannot be the primary focus of instruction because preschool children are not yet readers. Research

#### **Reading Comprehension** (Scarborough, 2001)



**Figure 1.2.** This figure is based upon Scarborough's (2001) well-known Reading Rope model. It depicts the interrelated subskills involved in the two main components of reading comprehension—decoding and language comprehension. Decoding subskills include phonics and word recognition skills, which are grounded in alphabet knowledge, print knowledge, and phonological awareness. Language comprehension, which begins developing at birth, depends on several interrelated skills, such as vocabulary knowledge, inference making, knowledge of syntax and grammar, and background knowledge about a topic or concept. (Adapted with permission from Scarborough, H. [2001]. Connecting early language and literacy to later reading [dis]abilities: Evidence, theory and practice. In S. Newman & D. Dickinson [Eds.], *Handbook of Early Literacy Research* [pp. 97-110]. New York, NY: Guilford Press.)

#### Introduction to the Assessment of Story Comprehension



**Figure 1.3.** Appropriate and timely assessment in the preschool years helps ensure that children will receive proper language interventions as needed to prepare them for elementary school and prevent later reading comprehension problems.

suggests, however, that language comprehension is an effective proxy of reading comprehension (Petersen, Spencer, Konishi, Sellars, & Robertson, 2018). Comprehension after listening to a story is essentially the same as comprehension after reading a story (see Figure 1.4). This means that early childhood educators who teach language comprehension are in essence also teaching reading comprehension. It is no surprise that skilled language comprehension is linked to school achievement (Bishop & Edmundson, 1987; Feagans & Appelbaum, 1986) and specifically predicts later reading comprehension (Catts, Fey, Tomblin, & Zhang, 2002; Dickinson & McCabe, 2001; Griffin, Hemphill, Camp, & Wolf, 2004).

As previously mentioned, language comprehension encompasses multiple elements, one of which is inferencing. Inferencing abilities are also central to reading comprehension (Cain & Oakhill, 1999; Cain, Oakhill, & Lemmon, 2004). Inferencing requires children to make connections between various parts of what is heard or read and connections between what is heard or read and what they know about the world (see Figure 1.5) (Cain & Oakhill, 1999; van den Broek, 1990). The numerous parts to connect make inferencing challenging, especially for children with language disabilities or cultural and linguistic differences. Children with poor language skills in early childhood are likely to have poor reading comprehension skills when they are older (Cain et al., 2004) because they struggle to make effective connections between the various parts of what they hear or read and between the various parts and their own experiences. In general, children with language disabilities have difficulty answering questions about a story (Bishop & Adams,



Figure 1.4. Comprehension is the same whether the child is listening to a story or reading a story.



**Figure 1.5.** Children make inferences—connections between various parts of what is heard or read and between what is heard or read and what they know about the world—when they listen to or read stories.

1992), but inferential questions are particularly challenging for them (Blank, Rose, & Berlin, 2003; Ford & Milsoky, 2003). Reading comprehension interventions with older children often include procedures for teaching them to make inferences. Storybook reading activities are commonly used to help younger children identify the relations between parts of the story and their knowledge of the world.

Preschool children like the ones in Figure 1.6 are often asked questions about stories. Adults use a range of literal and inferential questions to promote comprehension during reading activities with young children (van Kleeck, Gillam, Hamilton, & McGrath, 1997). Literal questions such as, What is this? and What is he doing? refer to content that is directly available in the story or illustrations. In contrast, inferential questions such as, How do you think she feels? Why did he do that? and What do you think he will do next? are designed to connect events in the story to information that is not directly available. Interventions with these types of questions have been shown to improve children's oral language abilities (Cain & Oakhill, 1999; Tompkins, Guo, & Justice, 2013; van Kleeck, 2008), even when parents deliver the questions (van Kleeck et al., 1997). This type of oral language promotion for younger children translates into stronger reading comprehension when they are older (Serpell, Baker, & Sonnenschein, 2005).

The development of vocabulary knowledge is also a common goal of storybook reading activities, and for good reason. Vocabulary knowledge strongly correlates with other oral language skills and specifically reading comprehension (Cunningham & Stanovich, 1997; Scarborough, 2001; Storch & Whitehurst, 2002; Tunmer & Chapman, 2012). To learn and understand a definition of a word sometimes requires using the clues available in the story and connecting them to one's own background experiences (Cain et al., 2004). Children draw from their own experiences and the information seen in pictures or heard in the story to figure out what a word means. The ability to learn new words from stories is associated with general language skills, and children with poor language skills do not readily use context and background information to acquire word meanings (Cain, Oakhill, & Elbro, 2003; Cain et al., 2004; Daneman & Green, 1986; Nippold, 2002).



**Figure 1.6.** Interventions in which adults ask children literal and inferential questions during reading help to promote young children's oral language development, which, in turn, leads to stronger reading comprehension.

#### PURPOSES OF THE ASC AND CURRICULUM-BASED MEASUREMENT

Proper assessment and regular monitoring are essential components of an effective intervention program. Assessment results help educators identify children who would benefit from additional instruction, make adjustments when needed, and determine how a child is progressing in relation to the intervention. Curriculum-based measurement (CBM) is one category of assessments that is well suited to help educators link assessment to intervention (Deno, 2003; Deno, Mirkin, & Chiang, 1982; Missall & McConnell, 2004). CBM is often used to assist educators in making data-based decisions in response to intervention (RTI) or multi-tiered system of supports (MTSS) educational models, which are becoming more common in early childhood settings (Greenwood et al., 2011, 2014). The specific functions of CBM include 1) identifying which students may benefit from additional intervention, 2) monitoring students' progress once intervention has begun, and 3) determining when curricular objectives have been achieved (Deno, 2003; Fuchs, Fuchs, Hamlett, Phillips, & Bentz, 1994). CBM is commonly used to assess decoding (Christ, Zopluoglu, Long, & Monaghen, 2012), math (Foegen, Jiban, & Deno, 2007), and writing (McMaster & Espin, 2007) and is now being applied to oral language (see Bradfield et al., 2014; Petersen & Spencer, 2012; Wackerle-Hollman, Rodriguez, Bradfield, Rodriguez, & McConnell, 2015).

Assessments must be designed in a certain way to fulfill the purposes of CBM. First, assessment tools need to measure something that society deems important. In this case, comprehension is considered a critical skill that all children need. Second, assessment tools need to have strong reliability and validity, which means they measure what they intend to measure (validity) and the assessment can be repeated with the same result (reliability). Third, assessment tools need to be time efficient and easy to use. Otherwise, the tools would not be useful to busy preschool teachers. Fourth, several parallel forms of the assessment are required. This characteristic is important because the assessment has to be repeated to monitor children's progress. If repeated testing did not result in consistent scores, then it would be impossible to attribute improvements to learning. Fifth, assessment tools need to be sensitive to the effects of an intervention and children's development. The assessment tool should be able to detect improvement in children's skills (Deno, 2003; Deno et al., 1982; Missall & McConnell, 2004). The use of several parallel forms helps make that

possible, and they can do the job quite well as long as they are valid and reliable. Research indicates that students do better in school when teachers employ CBM in their classrooms because educators are more likely to identify students in need of intervention and adjust instruction to meet students' needs (Fuchs, Deno, & Mirkin, 1984; Fuchs & Fuchs, 2007). The following characteristics are linked to CBM:

- · Measures socially and academically important outcomes
- Reliable and valid
- · Time efficient and easy to use
- Includes several parallel forms
- · Sensitive to growth

As a CBM tool, the ASC serves three major purposes:

- 1. Identify children who can benefit from supplemental language intervention.
- 2. Monitor children's progress regularly.
- 3. Determine when children's language comprehension improves to a meaningful degree.

First, the ASC is designed to help educators determine which children need supplemental and intensive language intervention. Because the ASC is time efficient and easy to use, educators can assess all of the children in the class three times a year. Once all children have a score, the children who perform low on the ASC should be given supplemental language instruction. Those who receive a high ASC score do not need intervention. The second purpose is to monitor children's progress once they begin language intervention, especially if the intervention teaches vocabulary, answering questions about stories, and inference-making skills. Because there are six parallel ASC forms, one can be administered every 4–6 weeks to the children who receive intervention. Regular monitoring will help educators know if children are making progress and if instruction needs to be adjusted to maximize its effectiveness. Last, the ASC will help educators know when children's language has improved to a meaningful degree. Because the ASC is sensitive to the effects of intervention, children's scores will improve over time if the intervention is potent enough. High scores on the ASC suggest that children are ready for the language demands of kindergarten.

#### **TECHNICAL ADEQUACY**

We examined the ASC's validity and reliability with 237 preschool children. Children in this study had a mean age of 3 years, 8 months and were ethnically and racially diverse (34% Caucasian, 31% Latino/Hispanic, 18% Native American, 3% African American, 1%, Asian American, 10% Multiethnic, and 3% Other). English was the dominant language for 84% of the children, and 5% were bilingual. Nine percent of the children had an individualized education program (IEP).

The ASC had to conform to the CBM characteristics because it was intended to help identify children who need supplemental language comprehension and vocabulary intervention and monitor children's progress over time. The characteristics that are discussed next serve as an organization for the ASC's technical properties.

1. The ASC measures an authentic and socially important outcome. The ASC measures children's ability to comprehend stories. Children must be able to do the following to do well on the ASC: 1) understand the words and linguistic composition of the story, 2) understand the question asked, and 3) integrate background knowledge and information from the story to make inferences. The use of stories in preschools, whether presented orally or via book reading, is a common method for fostering listening comprehension and other oral language skills (e.g., vocabulary, syntax). The

interesting fact, however, is that stories are seldom used in the formative assessment of language comprehension, despite their authenticity. One-word receptive or expressive vocabulary tasks are used most often in preschool classrooms to estimate oral language growth and help identify which children need supplemental intervention (Hoffman, Teale, & Paciga, 2014). Although vocabulary is a good index for identification, it is not sufficiently sensitive to change over time and may not detect growth related to language interventions, especially those directed at broad oral language skills (as opposed to just vocabulary).

The ASC was developed to fill this need for progress monitoring of language comprehension in preschool classrooms. Careful attention was given to creating an assessment tool that was authentic and did not test language separate from child-relevant contexts. There is good evidence of concurrent validity for the ASC. We correlated the ASC with the Clinical Evaluation of Language Fundamentals: Preschool–Second Edition (CELF:P-2; Wiig, Secord, & Semel, 2004), which is a well-established, standardized norm-referenced test of general language skills. The correlation between the CELF:P-2 total raw score and the child's best ASC score was strong (r = .81, p < .001), suggesting that the ASC and the CELF:P-2 measure similar constructs.

2. The ASC has multiple parallel forms for repeated sampling. Figure 1.7 shows the parallel forms of the ASC. Parallel form reliability was examined using Pearson correlations among all forms of the ASC, which initially included nine forms. Moderate to large correlations among ASC forms (r = .65-.83) were observed. Examining the correlation between the best scores from three different ASC sessions for a single child close in time is another way to assess reliability. This yielded a variation of test–retest reliability, which resulted in a mean correlation of .78. The mean correlation was .78 when parallel form reliability was examined for forms that were administered within the same session, albeit a random selection of forms.

Cronbach's alphas were calculated to examine the internal consistency among all items within each form, individual items across forms, and for all items in all forms. The alpha coefficients according to ASC forms and ASC items indicate high internal consistency. The mean coefficient across the forms was .83 (range .79–.86). The mean coefficient for the eight items was .81 (range .71–.89). The overall alpha coefficient when considering all items in all forms was .83, but the alpha coefficient was .96 when totals from each of the forms were used as items. Altogether, these Cronbach's alpha statistics indicate high consistency within and across forms.

Although relative scores were consistent across forms according to Cronbach's alpha, paired samples t tests indicated that some form scores differed significantly after accounting for the repeated sampling of children across forms. Three forms that were statistically different from the others were eliminated to create a more balanced pool of six forms. There were a few differences within the remaining six ASC forms. For example, ASC Form 1 produced higher scores than ASC Forms 2 and 4, and ASC Form 3 produced higher scores than ASC Form 2. There were no statistically significant differences among the other ASC forms, indicating they are parallel. Forms that appeared to be easier (evidenced by t tests) are strategically paired with forms that may be more challenging in the final version of the ASC. Hence, the 1–2, 3–4, 5–6 grouping for fall, winter, and spring.

3. The ASC has standardized administration and scoring procedures. The ASC was designed to be extremely simple and easy to use. Each form has a one-page (front and back) administration protocol. Scoring is done using specific scoring guides, and results are a simple raw score calculation (see Figure 1.8). Administration of one ASC takes approximately 3–4 minutes, and scoring requires another 2–4 minutes. The fidelity of administration has been extremely high (mean = 99.6%; range = 78.6%–100%) in our empirical investigations of the ASC, indicating that it is easy to use. Scoring reliability has been examined a number of ways. First, a simple scoring agreement, which is described in the Establishing and Maintaining Scoring Reliability section in Chapter 4, has been consistently above 90% (mean = 92%; range = 52%–100%). Kappa coefficients were calculated for each of the items specifically to examine whether some items were more difficult to score reliably than others. Overall, the range of coefficients was from .60 to .94, suggesting moderate to high scoring reliability. The inferential questions had the lowest reliability coefficients, with the exception of Item 3 (causal



Figure 1.7. The Assessment of Story Comprehension (ASC) has six parallel forms to allow for repeated sampling.

#### Introduction to the Assessment of Story Comprehension

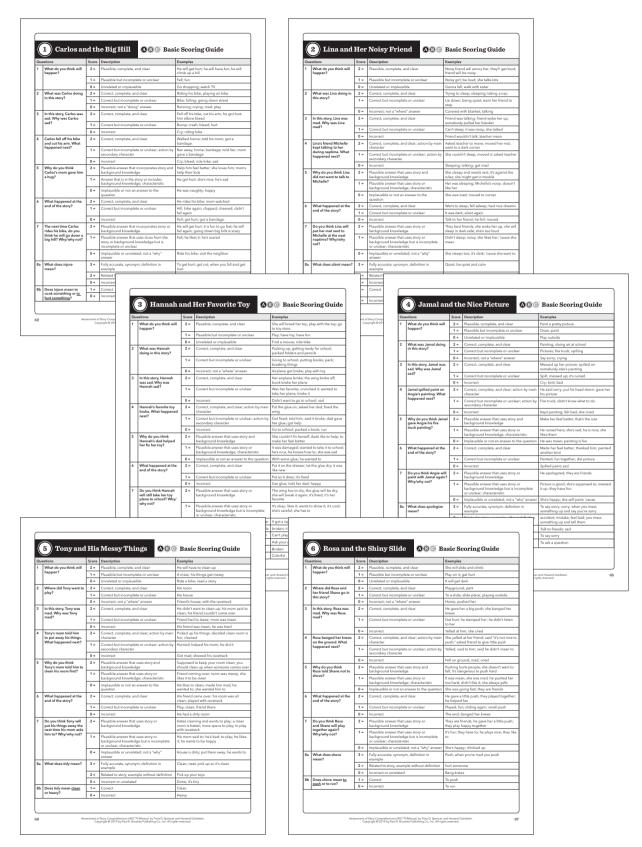
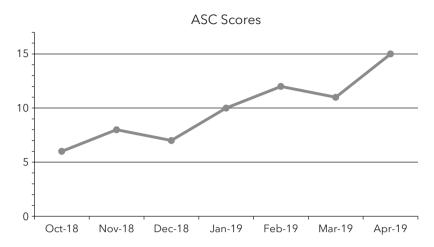


Figure 1.8. Basic scoring guides for the Assessment of Story Comprehension (ASC).



**Figure 1.9.** An example of how a child's scores on successive administrations of the Assessment of Story Comprehension (ASC) might improve following an intervention.

relationship between problem and feeling), whereas the definitional vocabulary item had the highest coefficient. Intraclass correlation coefficients (ICCs) show that, on average, 86% of the variation between item scores was due to differences between children, as opposed to differences between raters. Ranging from 75% for Item 5 to 94% for Item 8b, these high ICCs indicate the ASC is reliably measuring child behaviors.

4. The ASC is sensitive to growth related to language intervention. Two intervention studies have shown effects on the ASC related to a story-based supplemental language intervention with preschoolers. The Story Friends curriculum was used in one study (Kelley, Goldstein, Spencer, & Sherman, 2015), and the statistically significant outcome was detected, but only for the inferential questions of the ASC. This is not surprising because the Story Friends curriculum explicitly targets how to answer inferential questions but not recall questions. A narrative retelling intervention in a second study was delivered in whole-class, small-group, and individual arrangements within class-rooms for approximately 7 months. The ASC was administered in the fall before language interventions began and again in the winter and spring. Students in the treatment classrooms scored significantly better than the students in the control classrooms on the ASC in the winter and spring assessment waves with medium effect sizes (Spencer, Weddle, Petersen, & Adams, 2018). Figure 1.9 shows an example of how a child's scores on successive administrations of the ASC might improve following an intervention.

#### ORGANIZATION OF THE ASC MANUAL

The remainder of this manual is designed to help educators learn the core features of the ASC, how to administer it, how to score children's answers to the questions, and how to interpret and use the results to link to intervention. Chapter 2 focuses on the construction of the ASC stories and questions, which had to be developed with great care to properly assess language comprehension. A description of these major features and how they were constructed is included. The standardized administration procedures are detailed in Chapter 3. It is essential that the ASC is delivered consistently; otherwise, it is impossible to know if children's scores are accurate. The administration is straightforward, and examiners use the provided scripts to make sure every story is read accurately and the questions are delivered exactly the way they were intended. Fidelity checklists are included in Appendix B of this manual so that the ASC administration can be trained and monitored. Chapter 4 covers the scoring procedures. Scoring children's responses to questions can be a bit challenging because they do not always give clear answers. We have developed a number of scoring guides

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to assist examiners, including basic and extended scoring guides. The extended scoring guides are included in the Chapter 4 appendix. With some time and practice, however, examiners may no longer need the extended scoring guides. Therefore, basic scoring guides are included in Appendix A of the manual to serve as a quicker reference when needed. Chapter 5 includes guidelines for interpreting and using the results of the ASC to inform instruction. We have included a few case examples to illustrate the way in which the ASC can be used in preschool classrooms.

As previously noted, the Chapter 4 appendix and Appendixes A and B of the manual provide extended scoring guides, basic scoring guides, and fidelity checklists. In addition, Appendix C of the manual includes two sets of practice ASCs. These are ASCs that have been administered but not scored and are intended to help train new examiners to score the ASC reliably. Practice Set 1 is designed for use in training new examiners who have no prior experience with the ASC. It includes all six forms with sample child responses for use in practicing scoring; it also includes a key showing how a trained examiner would score these responses and an explanation for difficult-to-score responses. Practice Set 2 is intended for training new examiners who have previously completed Practice Set 1 and includes the sample child responses and key but not the additional explanations for difficult-to-score items.



Strong listening comprehension during shared storybook reading is a foundational skill—and an indicator that children are ready for the language demands of kindergarten. With the **Assessment of Story Comprehension** (ASCTM), pre-K programs can now measure the story comprehension of children ages 3–5, identify children who may need language intervention, monitor progress, and determine when comprehension has meaningfully improved. Sensitive to even small gains that young learners make as the school year progresses, the ASC—with its 3-minute administration time—is the quick, reliable check programs need to assess comprehension.

Highly valid and reliable, the ASC is the key to assessing and improving an essential building block of reading success and school readiness. Use it on its own as a fast, efficient check—or in tandem with the other products in the MILLIE™ (Multitiered Interventions for Language & Literacy in Early Childhood) family.

"Finally, a reliable standardized listening comprehension assessment for use in preschool and kindergarten. The ASC is an essential addition to the classroom prereading screening battery."

—Timothy Shanahan, Ph.D., Chair, National Early Literacy Panel, Distinguished Professor Emeritus, University of Illinois at Chicago

## A fast, easy way to measure the story comprehension of children ages 3-5

This book is your comprehensive guide to the ASC. You'll get

- An introduction to the tool, its development, and its supporting research
- Detailed administration guidelines, including sample schedules for administering the ASC
- General and item-specific scoring guidelines
- Fidelity checklists and guidance on establishing and maintaining reliability
- A guide to interpreting scores, including typical score ranges for children ages 3-4 and 4-5
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