

Possible Palliatives for the Paralyzing Pre/Post Paranoia that Plagues Some PEP's

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...gain scores are rarely useful, no matter how they may be adjusted or refined...investigators who ask questions regarding gain scores would ordinarily be better advised to frame their questions in other ways (Cronbach & Furby, 1970).

Pre-post Paranoia

Pre/post testing is anathema to many members of the psychology-education-psychometric (PEP) community. This irrational bias stems in part from the dour appraisal of pre/post testing by Cronbach & Furby (1970), echoed down through the literature to present day texts on assessment such as that by Suskie (2004b). In my opinion, the reticence to employ pre/post testing in evaluation, as used so successfully in physics education reform (Hake, 2005, 2006a), is one reason for the glacial progress of educational research (Lagemann, 2000) and reform (Bok, 2005) in higher education.

Should We Measure Change? Yes!

In a recent *Carnegie Perspective*, Lloyd Bond (2005), a senior scholar at the Carnegie Foundation, wrote:

If one wished to know what knowledge or skill Johnny has acquired over the course of a semester, it would seem a straightforward matter to assess what Johnny knew at the beginning of the semester and reassess him with the same or equivalent instrument at the end of the semester. It may come as a surprise to many that measurement specialists have long advised against this eminently sensible idea. Psychometricians don't like "change" or "difference" scores in statistical analyses because, among other things, they tend to have lower reliability than the original measures themselves. Their objection to change scores is embodied in the very title of a famous paper by Cronbach and Furby "How we should measure "change,"—or should we?"

As for the unreliability of "change scores," such charges by Lord (1956, 1958) and Cronbach and Furby (1970) have been called into question by, for example, Rogosa, Brandt, and Zimowski (1982), Zimmerman and Williams (1982), Rogosa and Willett (1983, 1985), Collins and Horn

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(1991), Rogosa (1995), Wittmann (1997), Zimmerman (1997), and Zumbo (1999). All this more recent work should (but does not) serve as an antidote for those who would dismiss gain scores because of their supposed statistical unreliability.

Aside from the supposed unreliability of “change scores,” seven other objections to pre/post testing, have been enumerated by Suskie (2004a), and countered by Hake (2004a) and Scriven (2004). Suskie’s fourth objection (as listed by Hake) is:

If we do indeed see a significant gain, we often can’t be sure it’s due to our courses/program and not to other experiences...[history]...or normal maturation. A student might have a concurrent part-time job, for example, that has improved her oral communication skills far more than her required speech course.

The View from U.S. Department of Education

“History” and maturation are among the nine threats to internal validity listed in Table 2.4 of Shadish et al. (2002), are discussed on pages 56-57 of that text, and are reiterated by U.S. Department of Education’s (USDE’s) “Coalition for Evidence-Based Policy” (CEBP) at USDE (2003):

There is persuasive evidence that the randomized controlled trial, when properly designed and implemented, is superior to other study designs in measuring an intervention’s true effect.

1. “Pre-post” study designs often produce erroneous results. Definition: A “pre-post” study examines whether participants in an intervention improve or regress during the course of the intervention, and then attributes any such improvement or regression to the intervention.

The problem with this type of study is that, without reference to a control group, it cannot answer whether the participants’ improvement or decline would have occurred anyway, even without the intervention. This often leads to erroneous conclusions about the effectiveness of the intervention.

But CEBP’s criticism of pre/post testing is irrelevant for most of the recent pre/post studies in introductory astronomy, economics, biology, chemistry, computer science, economics, geoscience, engineering, and physics (see below). The reason is that comparison groups *have* been utilized—they are the introductory courses taught by the traditional method. The matching is due to the fact that (a) within any one institution the test (Interactive Engagement [IE]) and control (Traditional [T]) groups are drawn from the same generic introductory course taken by relatively homogeneous groups of students, and (b) IE-course teachers in all institutions are drawn from the same generic pool of introductory course teachers who, judging from uniformly poor average normalized gains <g> they obtain in teaching traditional (T) courses, do not vary greatly in their ability to enhance student learning.

In fact, I suspect that the pre/post testing in the disciplines referred to above might pass muster at the USDE’s “What Works Clearing House” (<http://www.w-w-c.org/>) as “*quasi-experimental studies* (Shadish et al., 2002) of especially strong design” (<http://www.w-w-c.org/reviewprocess/standards.html>).

Towards Valid and Reliable Diagnostic Tests

What we assess is what we value. We get what we assess, and if we don't assess it, we won't get it (Lauren Resnick in Grant Wiggins, 1991).

Of course, pre/post testing is only as good as the tests employed. In some fields, *disciplinary experts* have engaged, or are engaging, in the arduous quantitative and qualitative research required to develop valid and consistently reliable tests that probe for understanding of the basic concepts. A model for such effort is the pioneering but under-appreciated effort of Halloun and Hestenes (1985a, 1985b) in developing the *Mechanics Diagnostic Test*, precursor to the widely used *Force Concept Inventory* (Hestenes et al., 1992). Such test development was among the themes of a recent NSF *Assessing Student Achievement (ASA) Conference* (<http://www.drury.edu/multinl/story.cfm?ID=17783&NLID=306>; for a report see PKAL, 2006).

Examples of areas in which student learning gains are now being assessed by means of pre/post testing are:

- a. Newtonian mechanics (Halloun & Hestenes, 1985a, 1985b; Hestenes et al., 1992; Thornton & Sokoloff, 1998);
- b. other physics subjects as indicated at NCSU (2005), FLAG (2005), OERL (2006);
- c. Astronomy, Economics, Biology, Chemistry, Engineering (see the references in Hake, 2004b; Geoscience [Libarkin & Anderson (2005)]; and Calculus [Epstein (2006)]).

The above mentioned *Force Concept Inventory* and *Mechanics Diagnostic Tests* were used as pre/post tests in a survey Hake (1998a, 1998b, 2002a, 2002b) of 62 university, college, and high-school courses with a total enrollment of 6,542 students. That study demonstrated that “interactive engagement” (IE) methods of instruction *can* yield average normalized gains $\langle g \rangle$ in conceptual understanding about two standard deviations (cf. Bloom’s “The Two Sigma Problem,” 1984) greater than in courses using “traditional” (T) methods.

Although ignored by most PEP’s, and even by some physicists (e.g., McCray, DeHaan, & Schuck, 2003), Hake’s meta-analysis has been noted by, among others, Rothman and Narum (1999), Stokstad (2001), Klmkowsky et al. (2003), Wood and Gentile (2003), Handelsman et al. (2004), Wieman and Perkins (2005), Heron and Meltzer (2005), Nuhfer (2006a, 2006b), and even DeHaan (2006). In addition, it and subsequent confirmatory pre/post studies have at least partially stimulated the reform of a small fraction of introductory physics courses throughout the U.S., including large enrollment courses at Harvard (Crouch & Mazur, 2001), North Carolina State University (Beichner & Saul, 2004), MIT (Dori & Belcher, 2004), University of Colorado at Boulder (Pollock, 2004), and California Polytechnic State University at San Luis Obispo (Hoellwarth et al., 2005).

The approximately two-sigma superiority of IE over T courses in introductory mechanics has been independently corroborated in hundreds of courses with widely varying types of instructors, institutions, and student populations (see e.g., the references in Hake, 2002a, 2002b), thus satisfying Shavelson and Town’s (2002) fifth principle of good scientific practice (*italics added*):

Replicate and Generalize Across Studies: By one replication we mean, at an elementary level, that if one investigator makes a set of observations, another

investigator can make a similar set of observations under the same conditions...At a somewhat more complex level, *replication means the ability to repeat an investigation in more than one setting (from one laboratory to another or from one field site to a similar field site) and reach similar conclusions.*

Some definitions and explanations: Normalized Gain, Interactive Engagement, Traditional Teaching, and Multiple Choice Tests

- a. The average *normalized gain* $\langle g \rangle$ is the average *actual gain* ($\langle \%post \rangle - \langle \%pre \rangle$) divided by the *maximum possible gain* ($100\% - \langle \%pre \rangle$), where the angle brackets indicate the class averages. This half-century-old gain parameter was *independently* employed by Hovland et al. (1949), who called g the “effectiveness index”; Gery (1972), who called g the “gap-closing parameter”; and Hake (1998a, 1998b) who called g the “normalized gain”. In Hake (1998a, 1998b), the use of the average *normalized gain*, rather than the average *actual gain* allowed meaningful comparison of *course effectiveness* for Harvard students ($\langle \%pre \rangle$ about 70%) with that for non-honors and non-AP high-school students ($\langle \%pre \rangle$ about 30%). It can be shown that such comparison requires that the test pose a performance ceiling effect (PCE) rather than an instrumental ceiling effect (ICE) as discussed in Hake (2006b). For a discussion of $\langle g \rangle$ in the context of the more psychometrically standard Item Response Theory (IRT) see Mislevy (2006).
- b. Interactive Engagement (IE) courses are *operationally* defined, even despite the “anti-positivist vigilantes” (Phillips, 2000), as those designed at least in part to promote conceptual understanding through interactive engagement of students in heads-on (always) and hands-on (usually) activities which yield *immediate* feedback through discussion with peers and/or instructors, during virtually all class/section time.
- c. “Traditional” (T) courses are *operationally* defined as those reported by instructors to make little or no use of “interactive engagement” (IE) methods, relying primarily on passive-student lectures, recipe labs, and algorithmic problem exams.
- d. Why MCT’s? So that the tests can be given to thousands of students in hundreds of courses under varying conditions in such a manner that meta-analyses can be performed, thus establishing general causal relationships in a convincing manner.
- e. Can MCT’s measure conceptual understanding and higher-order learning? Wilson & Bertenthal (2005) think so, writing (p. 94):

Performance assessment is an approach that offers great potential for assessing complex thinking and learning abilities, but multiple choice items also have their strengths. For example, although many people recognize that multiple-choice items are an efficient and effective way of determining how well students have acquired basic content knowledge, many do not recognize that they can also be used to measure complex cognitive processes. For example, the Force Concept Inventory...(Hestenes et al., 1992)...is an assessment that uses multiple-choice items to tap into higher-level cognitive processes.

- f. Why are IE courses far more effective in promoting conceptual understanding than traditional passive-student methods? The superiority of IE methods is probably related to the “enhanced synapse addition and modification” induced by those methods. Bransford et al. (2000) wrote:

...synapse addition and modification are lifelong processes, driven by experience. In essence, the quality of information to which one is exposed and the amount of information one acquires is reflected throughout life in the structure of the brain. This process is probably not the only way that information is stored in the brain, but it is a very important way that provides insight into how people learn.

For positive and negative views on the relevance of neuroscience to classroom instruction see the recent articles by, respectively, Willis (2006) and Bruer (2006).

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Is There an Education Community Map?

Associated with the need for replication, good science requires “continual interaction, exchange, evaluation, and criticism so as to build a...*community map*” (Redish, 1999). The latter crucial feature of the scientific method has also been emphasized by, for example, Gottfried and Wilson (1997), Ziman (2000), Hake (2000a), Cromer (1997), Gere (1997), and Newton (1997), but does not generally characterize education research. In fact, whether or not an “education community” even exists is problematic. Lagemann (2000, p. 239) writes:

...there are very few filters of quality in education. There is neither a Better Business Bureau nor the equivalent of the Federal Food and Drug Administration. Caveat emptor is the policy of this field. This is because education research has never developed a close-knit professional community, which is the prerequisite for the creation of regulatory structures that can protect both the welfare and safety of the public at large and the integrity of the profession. Such communities exist in some disciplines, for example, physics, and, to a lesser extent, psychology; they also exist in some professions, notably medicine and law. *But such a community has never developed in education* (italics added).

Whither Undergraduate Education?

Wood and Gentile cogently characterize the present state of affairs in undergraduate *science* education (references have been changed to match those in the reference list below, italics added):

Unknown to many university faculty in the natural sciences, particularly at large research institutions, is a large body of recent research from educators and cognitive scientists on how people learn (Bransford et al., 2000). The results show that *many standard instructional practices in undergraduate teaching, including traditional lecture, laboratory, and recitation courses, are relatively ineffective at*

helping students master and retain the important concepts of their disciplines over the long term. Moreover, these practices do not adequately develop creative thinking, investigative, and collaborative problem-solving skills that employers often seek. Physics educators have led the way in developing and using objective tests (Hestenes et al., 1992; Hake, 1998a; NCSU, 2006) to compare student learning gains in different types of courses, and chemists, biologists, and others are now developing similar instruments (Mulford & Robinson, 2002; Klymkowsky et al., 2003; Klymkowsky, 2006). These tests provide convincing evidence that students assimilate new knowledge more effectively in courses including active, inquiry-based, and collaborative learning, assisted by information technology, than in traditional courses (Hake, 1998a; NCSU, 2006).

But how about undergraduate education *generally*? I see no reason that student learning gains far larger than those in traditional courses could not eventually be achieved and documented in other disciplines from arts through philosophy to zoology *if* their practitioners would (a) reach a consensus on the *crucial* concepts that all beginning students should be brought to understand, (b) undertake the lengthy qualitative and quantitative research required to develop multiple-choice tests (MCT's) of higher-level learning of those concepts, so as to gauge the need for and effects of non-traditional pedagogy, and (c) develop Interactive Engagement methods suitable to their disciplines.

Formative versus Summative Assessment

It should be emphasized that such low-stakes *formative* pre/post testing as discussed above is the polar opposite of the high-stakes *summative* testing mandated by the U.S. Department of Education's "No Child Left Behind Act" for K-12 (USDE, 2005) that is now contemplated for higher education (USDE, 2006). As the NCLB experience shows, such testing often falls victim to *Campbell's Law* (Campbell, 1975; Nichols & Berliner, 2005):

The more any quantitative social indicator is used for social decision making, the more subject it will be to corruption pressures and the more apt it will be to distort and corrupt the social processes it is intended to monitor.

Why is the pre/post testing discussed above regarded as *formative*? Because both teachers' *action research* and education researchers' scientific research is carried out to improve classroom teaching and learning, NOT to rate instructors or students. Thus it's "formative" as defined by JCSEE (1994): "Formative evaluation is evaluation designed and used to improve an object, especially when it is still being developed."

Why Worry About Student Learning in Higher Education?

But why all the concern for enhancing student learning in higher education? Although international competitiveness is often cited by politicians, business leaders, and educational administrators, more crucial in my view is the need to overcome the monumental problems now threatening life on planet Earth. In "The General Population's Ignorance of Science Related Societal Issues: A Challenge for the University" (Hake, 2000b) I list a few (14) such problems and cite the imperative to (a) educate more effective science majors and science-trained professionals, and (b) raise the appallingly low level of science literacy among the general

population by properly educating prospective K-12 teachers.

Human history becomes more and more a race between education and catastrophe (H. G. Wells, 1920).

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