Considering the Validity of Test Score Inferences for English Language Learners with Limited Proficiency Using Language Liaisons and Other Accommodations

Heather Mann
Jessica Emick
Ming-yi Cho
Rebecca Kopriva

March, 2006

Paper presented at the Annual Conference of the American Educational Research Association Conference, March 2006, San Francisco, CA

Including English language learners (ELLs) and students with disabilities in statewide and district testing is currently a top priority among educators at the national, state, and local level (Abedi, 2004). Schools in the United States face a growing number of ELLs who come from many different linguistic and cultural backgrounds. Zehler, Fleischman, Hopstock, Stephenson, Pendzick, and Sapru (2003) reported that the United States Department of Education identified approximately four million students as limited English proficient (LEP), representing 8.4% of total school enrollment with a 71.9% growth rate over the past ten years in the United States. Additionally, Title III of the *No Child Left Behind Act of 2001* (NCLB) specified state accountability for ELLs' progress toward English proficiency and in meeting the same challenging academic content standards as their native English-speaking peers (Public Law 107-110). The increased emphasis on accountability for all students and new regulations requiring disaggregated student data, including data by ELL status, has called for the development of state assessment policies that ensure the inclusion of ELLs. Further, in response to the federal regulations, states are considering the best way to validly and reliably include ELL students in the assessment process. The most commonly used method of including ELLs in state assessments is to offer accommodations. The current NCLB legislation allows reasonable accommodations for ELLs if the accommodations do no compromise the reliability of test scores and the validity of the inferences made from them (Public Law 107-110).

Traditionally, accommodations have only been considered in general categories that include presentation (e.g. test forms and test materials), administration (e.g. setting

and scheduling), and responding (e.g. writing or dictating answers) (Hollenbeck, 2002). Samuelson and Kopriva (2004) suggest tools as a distinct category and recently it has become evident that a broader range of accommodation options is necessary to meet the needs of diverse students (Samuelson & Carr, 2004; Koran, Kopriva, Emick, Monroe, Webb, Walker & Garavaglia, 2006). An interdisciplinary review of the literature underscores the immense range of linguistic and cultural attributes and diverse needs of students (Monroe, 2004). However, issues of cultural discontinuities that may affect the testing of ELLs have received less attention than language differences. Additionally, the main focus of assessment researchers has been to identify and study the impact of those accommodations that are most relevant to the entire range of English proficiency. Moreover, little work has been done to understand how best to include students who have little English language proficiency and cultural familiarity with the practices of testing used routinely in U.S. schools.

In general, there is a growing body of research attempting to validate (or invalidate) accommodation use. Although the research focus on accommodation use has been mostly related to students with disabilities (Fuchs & Fuchs, 1999; Tindal & Halandyna, 2002), since the late 1990s there has been a dramatic increase in research on culturally or linguistically diverse students and accommodations. However, the current results are inconclusive due, in part, to the complexity of issues surrounding appropriate accommodations for students with specific needs (Kopriva, 2005) to the varying levels of construct analysis, and how accommodation research is conducted (e.g., individual accommodations vs. packages of accommodations) (Tindal & Ketterlin-Geller, 2003; Kopriva & Mislevy, 2001).

This study investigates the impact of individualized accommodation packages that include the use of language liaisons on the validity of test score inferences for ELLs. A language liaison is a novel accommodation in which a trained resource person, who is familiar with the culture of the students, the school, and the testing culture, provides narrowly defined support in the primary language of the student. The accommodation is specifically developed to help more accurately assess the knowledge of students with very low levels of English proficiency whose score inferences are otherwise invalid due to both linguistic and cultural differences. Specifically, this study 1) addresses whether the use of language liaisons for low ELL students holds promise in allowing scores to more accurately reflect their ability and 2) investigates the impact of individualized accommodation packages on the validity of scores for various levels of ELLs and non-ELLs.

Education and Culture

Education is a cultural mechanism (Bourdieu, 2003) whereby much of culture is transmitted though education. The broadness and complexity of the concept of culture contributes to the difficulty of using it in a methodologically sound manner in the classroom and in educational research. Cultural codes include subtle traits and ways of communicating that often go unrecognized by people of other cultures. Understanding the role of culture in education is crucial to providing a fair and inclusive learning environment. Despite the relative paucity of research on culture in education, studies have shown that culture influences what and when children learn and how they learn it. (e.g., Heath, 1982; Tharp 1994; Tobin, Wu, & Davidson 1989; Wang, Bernas, &

Eberhard 2002). On the other hand, the relationship between language proficiency and learning has been relatively better documented. For example, in a review of studies of language and cognition, August and Hakuta (1997) conclude that issues involving knowledge transfer and accessibility of content learned in L1 make it difficult to provide high-quality instruction for English language learners.

Farr and Trumbull (1997) suggest that the culture of the U.S. education system is predominantly that of mainstream and middle-class U.S. culture that has its roots in European-American history and values. Further, they and others (e.g. August & Hakuta, 1997; Solano-Flores & Trumbull, 2003) argue that the language and cultural assumptions of large scale tests reflect this mainstream culture. As such, students from non-dominant cultural groups, regardless of whether they were born in the United States or in another country, may either not be represented in test results because they were exempt, or receive scores that do not reflect what they know because of an inability to access or process what is being measured.

Kopriva (2000) explains that cultural discontinuities may cause misunderstandings if test developers assume prior experiences or a value system more prevalent among students who have grown up in the U.S. Kopriva (2000) writes that "students read an item based on their values and experiences and the values and experiences prevalent in their culture. Since values and experiences of the students' native culture and the U.S. culture may be dissimilar, there is room for misinterpretation."

Improvements in standardized achievement assessments, for instance plain language editing, bilingual word list or dictionary, or oral administration, seem to impact

broad swaths of ELLs (e.g. Abedi, 2001; Abedi, Lord, Boscardin, and Miyoshi, 2000). However, variable needs suggest that other accommodations, such as language liaisons, may also be necessary for some students to best demonstrate what they know. The concept of language liaison grew out of the literature supporting the use of a cultural broker. A cultural broker was originally defined in the anthropological literature during the early 1970s, as an individual who mediated a business deal or transaction, but it recent years the definition has expanded to include individuals who are used in schools with high ELL populations (Monroe, 2004). Gay (2003) writes that "a cultural broker is one who thoroughly understands different cultural systems, is able to interpret cultural systems from one frame of reference to another, can mediate cultural incompatibilities, and knows how to build bridges or establish linkages across cultures that facilitate the instructional process." Although there has been little empirical support for or against the use of cultural brokers in the context of assessing an increasingly diverse body of individuals, it would be expected that more cultural disconnect would occur and require mediation (Michie, 2004).

In the late 1990s, a popular approach to bridging this disconnect in large scale testing was the use of educational support staff fluent in the student's primary language but who generally received little to no formal training (Kopriva, 1996). Lack of training and oversight, however, led to concerns about unfair advantages during testing, and, since these allegations, the use of such personnel has largely fallen out of use (Emick, 2005; M. Malagon, personal communication, December 2002). Recently, though, because of the focus on the inclusion of all students, specifically students with the lowest English proficiency and substantial cultural discontinuities, concern about the validity of score

inferences for these vulnerable populations has resurfaced. With this concern in mind, the concept of having a trained support person (a.k.a. language liaison) available to provide very particular and specific assistance to new students with little English proficiency and great cultural discontinuities has again been considered. These language liaisons would be available to read test directions in the student's primary language, provide narrowly defined linguistic support during the test, and answer questions about phrases, concepts, and other item tasks that are difficult to define in a glossary and not connected to the targeted constructs being measured on the tests.

Method

The Valid Assessment of English Language Learners (VAELL) project included a broad investigation that assessed approximately 3,635 third- and fifth-grade students, including several hundred ELL students, who varied in language of origin, language acquisition status, other language development variables (e.g., length of time in country), level of reading, writing and mathematics achievement, and demographic characteristics (Kopriva & Mislevy, 2001). Teachers of participating students completed a questionnaire concerning each student's participation in educational services, learning strengths and challenges, use of strategies in mathematics problem solving, assessment experiences, mathematics knowledge specifically keyed to the items used, English language arts skills, and factors that are hypothesized to either support or inhibit student access in testing math content. Further, teachers were asked to rate on a three-point scale (rarely, sometimes, almost always) how often students successfully demonstrated knowledge and skills of particular mathematics construct elements that would be appearing in the test

items. For instance, for third-graders, one question asked teachers to rate prevalence of classroom performance on the following element: *This student can solve a word problem involving a solution requiring subtraction with regrouping*.

For the purposes of this study, students participated in a district wide mathematics test that included 11 multiple choice items and 8 constructed-response items. These items were rewritten versions of state released mathematics items, designed to measure the same mathematics constructs but provide more access for students with less proficiency (e.g., shorter sentences, modified vocabulary, more accessible problem contexts, clearer formatting, use of pictures/graphic organizers, etc.).

Some students, particularly ELLs and poor readers, received individualized sets of accommodations, assigned to them on the basis of school records data and teacher identification of student challenges. Accommodations that were variously assigned included a word-picture list in English, a Spanish-English glossary, use of manipulatives, oral administration in English, small-group administration, and access to a language liaison. Language liaisons were provided for identified Spanish speaking students only.

As defined in this study, a language liaison is an adult proficient in Spanish who reads test instructions in Spanish and is available to answer certain narrowly defined questions in Spanish. The language liaison was trained to address certain language tasks that did not threaten the validity of the target constructs and was instructed not to provide an on-the-fly translation. Language liaisons were recruited for the large-scale research study through advertisements in local papers and to the university community (e.g., email, flyers, etc). The individuals that were recruited were very diverse, ranging in age and gender. Their experience ranged from ELL teachers to university students and

language staff, to community members with minimal formal education. Language liaisons had to complete an application process, including a background check, and attend a three-hour training session focusing on the principles of test administration and explicitly defining their role as language liaisons. For instance, one portion of training included listing and discussing what language liaisons could and could not do. Another consisted of interactive role-playing of testing situations that could provide students with unfair advantages. The training was developed in collaboration with a local ELL expert with significant classroom experience. Twenty individuals were ultimately chosen to serve as language liaisons to test-takers with low English proficiency or lack of cultural familiarity.

Qualitative and formal observations about the selection, training, and oversight of language liaisons indicated that a certain amount of base knowledge is required about U.S. testing culture and educational practices (e.g., the language liaisons themselves could not have a cultural disconnect with U.S. testing practices). This base knowledge was above and beyond what could be presented during a single training session. Although the language liaisons were screened for oral proficiency in Spanish, our results indicated that it was also necessary to screen for their literacy in English. Finally, it was also clear that this accommodation should be practiced in the classroom prior to the assessment. This provides the student with the opportunity to understand the role of the language liaison and fully utilize their presence on the day of the test.

Upon successful completion of the training, and demonstrating oral proficiency in Spanish and oral as well as written proficiency in English, language liaisons provided defined support for Spanish-speaking 3rd (n=110) and 5th (n=78) graders with low English

literacy and cultural considerations during the large scale administration. Other Spanish-speaking and non-Spanish-speaking ELL students with low English literacy and cultural disconnect received oral administration in English in lieu of a language liaison.

All test administrations involving language liaisons were tape-recorded, as were a sample of the oral administrations. The language liaison sessions were tape recorded to ensure treatment integrity and for research purposes. Additionally, the language liaisons completed a behavioral observation form during the session and were overseen by trained staff members on site. This enabled the researchers to monitor for any cueing of students by test administrators.

Based on other identified needs and challenges, all participants were screened to determine specific accommodation needs. Students could receive no accommodations, a single accommodation, or a combination of several accommodations in a package. All students were assigned the accommodations deemed essential to their ability to access the test, within the logistical constraints (e.g., language liaisons were offered for Spanish speakers only; no L1 oral administrations were conducted; staff ratios did not allow for individual administrations). A trained team leader circulated in each building to troubleshoot and ensure fidelity of test administration. Observation forms completed by the test administrators were reviewed to determine the extent of accommodations usage among students and to note any other incidents that might affect the accuracy of test results.

Research Design and Analysis Approach

For this study, we defined three groups of ELL students (beginning, intermediate, and advanced) and two additional groups (exited ELL and non-ELL) within both grades 3 and 5. Analyses were designed to assess the two research questions discussed above. For each question, a description of the research design and analysis approach is described below. Two analyses, A and B, were designed to answer question one and a single analysis plan was developed for question two.

Question 1: Does the use of language liaisons for low ELL students allow scores to more accurately reflect their ability?

Two analyses were completed to address this first question. In analysis A, all Spanish-speaking beginning ELLs and some intermediate ELLs with low reading received a language liaison accommodation. This group was compared to intermediate ELLs who did not receive a language liaison accommodation because their English reading level was sufficient. We expect that scores will be at least as high for the group who did not get a language liaison compared with the group that did because their reading level is higher and therefore access to content is probably higher. However, we hypothesize that the scores should be equally valid for both groups if the language liaison and other accommodations do in fact improve access to the test items.

In an effort to isolate the effects of language liaisons among intermediate ELLs with low English reading proficiency, analysis B compares those who received a language liaison accommodation to those who received oral administration in English as a substitute. For research purposes, approximately one of every two of these students was randomly assigned to a language liaison and the other to oral administration. Since

these groups are theoretically randomly equivalent, we expect the validity to be higher for the group receiving the language liaison, indicating that language liaisons enhance access to test items more than oral administration in English for ELL students.

Question 2: What is the impact of individualized accommodation packages on the validity of scores for various levels of ELLs and non-ELLs?

The analysis focusing on the second research question addresses the validity of ELLs vs. non-ELLs using all three ELL groups (beginning, intermediate, and advanced) and both non-ELL groups (exited and non-ELL). We hypothesize that if the individualized accommodation packages were assigned appropriately and enhance access to the test items, the validity of test scores will be similar across all groups.

To test the validity hypotheses in questions 1 and 2, we compare the results of regressions of the mathematics criterion teacher rating on test scores across the groups. The coefficient for the target criterion measures the effect of the construct status on the test score and is interpreted as a validity index demonstrating the strength to which the target criterion discriminates the test score**.** The significance of the extent to which the target beta differs from zero is analyzed with t-tests. T-tests are also used to analyze the significance of the difference of the betas between groups in the analysis of language liaisons and F-tests are used to test the difference in the betas among ELL groups.

Results

Frequency data and means and standard deviations of test score data for five groups: beginning ELLs, intermediate ELLs, advanced ELLs, exited ELLS, and non-

ELLs, are shown in Tables 1 and 2 for grades 3 and 5. Table 3 provides means and standard deviations of criterion mathematics teacher ratings for both grades.

Table 1: Frequency (%) of Students in Each ELL Level

	Grade 3	Grade 5
Beginning	52 (4.1%)	45 (3.7%)
Intermediate	197 (15.4%)	148 (12.1%)
Advanced	75 (5.9%)	55 (4.5%)
Exited	245 (19.1%)	255 (20.9%)
Non-ELL	711 (55.5%)	719 (58.8%)
	N = 1280	N = 1222

Table 2: Mean and Standard Deviation of Mathematics Test Scores by ELL Level

	Grade 3		Grade 5	
	Multiple Choice	Constructed Response	Multiple Choice	Constructed Response
Beginning	3.192 (1.401)	2.154 (1.775)	3.022 (1.485)	2.244 (1.694)
Intermediate	3.832 (1.919)	2.919 (2.459)	3.757 (1.940)	4.236 (3.290)
Advanced	5.293 (2.235)	4.253 (2.853)	4.800 (2.305)	5.564 (3.553)
Exited	6.318 (2.609)	6.392 (3.524)	5.800 (2.382)	7.765 (3.919)
Non-ELL	5.899 (2.554)	5.752 (3.748)	5.809 (2.705)	6.752 (4.169)
	N = 1280		N = 1222	

Table 3: Mean and Standard Deviation of Criterion Mathematics Rating by Teachers by ELL Level

	Grade 3		Grade 5	
	Multiple Choice	Constructed Response	Multiple Choice	Constructed Response
Beginning	1.610 (0.520)	1.590 (0.576)	1.380 (0.477)	1.304 (0.453)
Intermediate	1.852 (0.475)	1.905 (0.514)	1.619 (0.520)	1.531 (0.513)
Advanced	2.210 (0.431)	2.256 (0.462)	1.934 (0.520)	1.837 (0.549)

Exited	2.391 (0.428)	2.443 (0.431)	2.249 (0.559)	2.167 (0.584)
Non-ELL	2.291 (0.499)	2.332 (0.509)	2.214 (0.572)	2.160 (0.613)
	N = 1280		N = 1222	

In both grades, the average target criterion and the mean test scores are higher for exited ELLs and non-ELLs than for the three ELL groups. If English proficiency does in fact affect opportunity to learn, it is to be expected that the math criterion and test scores increase as ELL levels increase. The variability in the target criterion is largely consistent across groups for multiple choice and constructed response for both grades. Among test scores, however, variability increases as ELL level increases.

Question 1: The Impact of Language Liaisons on Beginning and Intermediate ELLs

Analysis A

Analysis A compares beginning and intermediate ELLs who got a language liaison accommodation (Group 1) with intermediate ELLs than did not get a language liaison and did not need it (Group 2). While we expect that scores may be higher for Group 2 with higher reading proficiency and criterion scores, we hypothesize that validity will be the same for both groups. Means and standard deviations of test scores and mathematics criterion are reported in Table 4 and Table 5. In both grades, the mean target criterion and test scores for multiple choice and constructed response are higher for Group 2. Since students in Group 2 have higher English reading levels, opportunity to learn may be a factor in the score and criterion differences.

Table 4: Mean and Standard Deviation of Mathematics Test Scores by Language Liaison Group (Analysis A)	
Grade 3	Grade 5

	N	Multiple Choice	Constructed Response	N	Multiple Choice	Constructed Response
Got language Liaison (Group 1)	110	3.091 (1.469)	2.182 (1.954)	78	3.231 (1.643)	2.667 (2.087)
Didn't get language liaison and didn't need it (Group 2)	69	4.264 (1.996)	3.507 (2.964)	47	4.383 (1.929)	5.851 (3.665)

Table 5: Mean and Standard Deviation of Criterion Teacher Rating by Language Liaison Group (Analysis A)

	Grade 3			Grade 5		
	N	Multiple Choice	Constructed Response	N	Multiple Choice	Constructed Response
Got language Liaison (Group 1)	110	1.622 (0.445)	1.646 (0.497)	78	1.365 (0.432)	1.298 (0.407)
Didn't get language liaison and didn't need it (Group 2)	69	2.138 (0.422)	2.203 (0.455)	47	1.940 (0.456)	1.831 (0.468)

Results from t-tests for equality of the mean test scores across groups are reported in Table 6. The tests are two-tailed to allow for the possibility that the accommodations made the test easier for Group 1. As expected, the t-tests indicate that the scores on the multiple choice and constructed response tests for Group 2 are statistically significantly higher than for Group 1 in both grades.

Table 6: Mathematics Test Score t-test Results (Analysis A)

			Equality of Variance					
		H_0	F	p	Test	df	t	p
Grade 3	Multiple Choice	$\mu_1-\mu_2 = 0$	1.85	0.004	Satterthwaite	114	-4.16	0.000
	Constructed Response	$\mu_1-\mu_2 = 0$	2.30	0.000	Satterthwaite	105	-3.29	0.001
Grade 5	Multiple Choice	$\mu_1-\mu_2 = 0$	1.38	0.212	Pooled	123	-3.55	0.001

	Constructed Response	$\mu_1-\mu_2 = 0$	3.08	0.000	Satterthwaite	64.3	-5.45	0.000

Statistics from the regression of the mathematics criterion on test scores are reported for Grade 3 in Table 7 and for Grade 5 in Table 8. In Grade 3, the coefficient on the criterion target is statistically significantly greater than zero for Group 1 on the constructed response test but not on the multiple choice test. The coefficient is not statistically significant for Group 2 on both tests. The proportion of variance explained is smallest for Group 2 on the multiple choice test. These results provide some evidence of validity for Group 1 on the constructed response test and suggest a lack of validity for Group 2 on both tests and Group 1 on the multiple choice test.

As hypothesized, the insignificant t-statistics do not indicate a difference in the target regression coefficients across the two groups for both constructed response and multiple choice. However, this should be interpreted with caution because the target regression coefficients for both grades on the multiple choice test and for Group 2 on the constructed response test are not significantly different from zero.

Table 7: Grade 3 Validity Results (Analysis A)

		IV	B	S.E.	p	R^2	t (H_0: $b_1=b_2$)	p
Multiple Choice	Group 1	(Constant)	2.265	0.528	.000	0.024	0.170	0.869
		Target	0.509	0.314	0.108			
	Group 2	(Constant)	3.372	1.256	0.009	0.007		
		Target	0.409	0.576	0.481			
Constructed Response	Group 1	(Constant)	0.565	0.631	0.373	0.062	-0.26	0.798
		Target	0.982	0.367	0.009			
	Group 2	(Constant)	0.906	1.764	0.609	0.033		
		Target	1.181	0.785	0.137			

N = 179

For Grade 5, only the target coefficient for Group 1 on the constructed response test is statistically greater than zero, indicating a lack of validity on the multiple choice test for both groups and for Group 2 on the constructed response test. The proportion of variance explained is also highest for Group 1 on the constructed response test.

As desired, t-tests of differences in the target regression coefficients between the two groups indicate that the groups do not differ significantly on either the multiple choice or constructed response tests. However, the interpretation of this result is ambiguous when coupled with the statistically insignificant regression coefficients on the multiple choice test for both groups and the constructed response test for Group 2.

Table 8: Grade 5 Validity Results (Analysis A)

		IV	B	S.E.	p	R^2	t (H_0: $b_1=b_2$)	p
Multiple Choice	Group 1	(Constant)	2.800	0.622	0.000	0.007	-0.66	0.509
		Target	0.315	0.435	0.470			
	Group 2	(Constant)	2.831	1.234	0.027	0.036		
		Target	0.800	0.619	0.203			
Constructed Response	Group 1	(Constant)	0.241	0.746	0.748	0.133	1.31	0.194
		Target	1.869	0.549	0.001			
	Group 2	(Constant)	5.184	2.198	0.023	0.002		
		Target	0.364	1.163	0.756			
N = 125								

Analysis B

Analysis B compares intermediate ELLs who received a language liaison accommodation (LL group) with those at the same reading level who received an oral administration in English accommodation (Oral group). Regression results are provided below to analyze the hypothesis that validity will be higher for the LL group than for the

Oral group if the language liaison accommodation provides better access to the test items. Following the validity results, analysis on test scores for the two groups is presented.

Table 9 and Table 10 display results from the regression of the mathematics criterion on test scores for grades 3 and 5 respectively. In Grade 3, the coefficient on the target criterion is not statistically significantly greater than zero for the multiple choice test for either group. Neither is its sign greater than zero for the LL group on the constructed response test; but it is for the Oral group. The proportion of variance explained is small for all regressions in Grade 3, with the largest coefficient of determination associated with the Oral group on the constructed response test. The results suggest a lack of validity evidence for the LL group on both tests and for the Oral group on the multiple choice test.

T-tests for the difference in target regression coefficients show no difference between the groups on both tests in Grade 3. This makes interpretation of the statistically significant coefficient for the Oral group on the constructed response test ambiguous. These results, along with the small target coefficients, indicate that neither language liaison nor oral administration is helping to make scores valid for the intermediate ELL students in Grade 3 who perform consistently below grade level in reading.

Table 9: Grade 3 Validity Results (Analysis B)

		IV	B	S.E.	p	R^2	t (H_0: $b_1=b_2$)	p
Multiple Choice	LL	(Constant)	2.183	0.808	0.009	0.019	-0.520	0.601
		Target	0.525	0.477	0.275			
	Oral	(Constant)	2.584	0.974	0.010	0.044		
		Target	0.908	0.539	0.097			
Constructed Response	LL	(Constant)	1.344	1.027	0.196	0.012	-0.690	0.491
		Target	0.504	0.583	0.391			
	Oral	(Constant)	1.154	0.937	0.223	0.063		

		Target	1.036	0.507	0.045			
N = 128								

In Grade 5, the target coefficient for the LL group on the constructed response test is statistically significantly greater than zero. However, the target coefficients are not statistically significantly different from zero for the Oral group on both tests and for the LL group on the multiple choice test. The proportion of variance explained is highest for the LL group on the constructed response test and is very low for the Oral group and for the LL group on the multiple choice test. The results provide evidence of validity for the LL group on the constructed response test and lack of validity evidence for the Oral group on both tests and for the LL group on the multiple choice test for Grade 5.

Table 10: Grade 5 Validity Results (Analysis B)

		IV	B	S.E.	p	R^2	t (H_0: $b_1=b_2$)	p
Multiple Choice	LL	(Constant)	2.395	0.998	0.022	0.031	0.520	0.604
		Target	0.722	0.683	0.298			
	Oral	(Constant)	3.097	0.784	0.000	0.005		
		Target	0.267	0.493	0.590			
Constructed Response	LL	(Constant)	-0.539	1.246	0.668	0.218	1.810	0.073
		Target	2.776	0.888	0.004			
	Oral	(Constant)	3.104	1.139	0.008	0.004		
		Target	0.389	0.757	0.609			
N = 101								

The t-tests comparing the target regression coefficients, also reported in Table 10, show no statistically significant difference between the two groups on both tests. Again, results suggest that neither a language liaison accommodation nor an oral administration accommodation is helping to make the test score inferences more valid for intermediate ELLs.

Table 11 and Table 12 show means and standard deviations for the math test scores and target criterion for Analysis B. The Oral group scored higher on average than the LL group in both grades, although the difference is smaller in Grade 5. The average criterion ratings are also higher for the Oral group in both grades, albeit the differences are not statistically significant (Grade 3: p= .180 (MC), p = .363 (CR); Grade 5: p = .241 (MC), p = .407 (CR)).

Table 11: Mean and Standard Deviation of Mathematics Test Scores by Language Liaison Group (Analysis B)

	Grade 3			Grade 5		
	N	Multiple Choice	Constructed Response	N	Multiple Choice	Constructed Response
LL	64	3.047 (1.516)	2.203 (2.048)	37	3.405 (1.771)	3.189 (2.436)
Oral	64	4.172 (1.980)	3.000 (2.055)	64	3.500 (1.960)	3.656 (3.020)

Table 12: Mean and Standard Deviation of Criterion Teacher Rating by Language Liaison Group

	Grade 3			Grade 5		
	N	Multiple Choice	Constructed Response	N	Multiple Choice	Constructed Response
LL	64	1.646 (0.400)	1.707 (0.444)	37	1.398 (0.431)	1.342 (0.410)
Oral	64	1.749 (0.456)	1.783 (0.499)	64	1.510 (0.504)	1.419 (0.506)

T-test results in Table 13 below show that scores on the multiple choice and constructed response tests were significantly higher for Group 2 in Grade 3 and not significantly different between groups in Grade 5.

Table 13: Mathematics Test Score t-test Results (Analysis B)

			Equality of Variance					
		H_0	F	p	Test	df	t	sig.
Grade 3	Multiple	$\mu_1-\mu_2 = 0$	1.71	0.036	Satterthwaite	118	-3.61	0.001

Grade 5	Choice Constructed Response	$\mu_1-\mu_2 = 0$	1.01	0.981	Pooled	126	-2.20	0.030
	Multiple Choice	$\mu_1-\mu_2 = 0$	1.22	0.517	Pooled	99	-0.24	0.809
	Constructed Response	$\mu_1-\mu_2 = 0$	1.54	0.166	Pooled	99	-0.80	0.425

Question 2: The Impact of individualized accommodation packages on the validity of test scores for ELLs and Non-ELLs

Results from testing the hypothesis that the target regression coefficients will be similar across each ELL and non-ELL group are reported in Table 14 for Grade 3. The target regression coefficients are statistically significantly higher than zero for intermediate ELLs, exited ELLs, and non-ELLs and not statistically significantly different from zero for beginning and advanced ELLS on the multiple choice test. On the constructed response test for Grade 3, the target regression coefficients are statistically significantly greater than zero for all groups. These coefficients indicate that validity evidence exists on both tests for intermediate ELLs, exited ELLs, and non-ELLs and on the constructed response test for beginning and advanced ELLs.

For Grade 3, F-tests analyzing the difference in the target regression coefficients between the five groups indicate a statistically significant difference. Post hoc pairwise comparisons of the Grade 3 target regression coefficients are reported in Table 15. The validity coefficients for beginning, intermediate, and advanced ELLs are not statistically significantly different and the validity coefficients for exited ELLs and non-ELLs are not statistically significantly different on both tests. However, the validity coefficients for the ELL groups (beginning, intermediate and advanced) are each statistically

significantly lower than the non-ELL groups (exited and non-ELL). This indicates that while the multiple choice and constructed response tests are equally valid among ELLs and among non-ELLs, the score inferences are less valid for ELLs than for non-ELLs.

Table 14: Grade 3: Validity Results

		IV	B	S.E.	p	R^2	F	p
Multiple Choice	Beginning	(Constant)	2.538	0.636	0.000	0.023	10.400	0.000
		Target	0.407	0.376	0.285			
	Intermediate	(Constant)	2.228	0.539	0.000	0.046		
		Target	0.866	0.282	0.002			
	Advanced	(Constant)	2.838	1.334	0.037	0.046		
		Target	1.111	0.593	0.065			
	Exited	(Constant)	-0.208	0.849	0.807	0.2001		
		Target	2.728	0.349	0.000			
	Non-ELL	(Constant)	-0.220	0.384	0.567	0.273		
		Target	2.670	0.164	0.000			
Constructed Response	Beginning	(Constant)	-0.094	0.656	0.886	0.209	8.670	0.000
		Target	1.413	0.388	0.001			
	Intermediate	(Constant)	0.723	0.657	0.272	0.058		
		Target	1.153	0.333	0.001			
	Advanced	(Constant)	0.331	1.598	0.836	0.079		
		Target	1.739	0.694	0.015			
	Exited	(Constant)	-2.592	1.162	0.027	0.202		
		Target	3.679	0.469	0.000			
	Non-ELL	(Constant)	-2.565	0.578	0.000	0.234		
		Target	3.568	0.242	0.000			
	N = 1280							

Table 15: Grade 3: Contrasts

	Multiple choice			Constructed Response		
	F	p	sig?	F	p	sig?
1 vs. 2	0.480	0.487		0.090	0.761	
1 vs. 3	0.750	0.388		0.090	0.761	
1 vs. 4	12.390	0.000	*	6.760	0.009	*
1 vs. 5	14.290	0.000	*	7.680	0.006	*
2 vs. 3	0.140	0.711		0.450	0.505	
2 vs. 4	16.820	0.000	*	16.500	0.000	*

2 vs. 5	25.130	0.000	*	25.190	0.000	*	
3 vs. 4	5.990	0.015	*	4.710	0.030	*	
3 vs. 5	6.750	0.010	*	5.200	0.023	*	
4 vs. 5	0.030	0.871		0.050	0.827		

For Grade 5, the target regression coefficients, reported in Table 16 are statistically significantly greater than zero for all groups on both tests except for beginning ELLs on the multiple choice test. This provides evidence of validity on the multiple choice and constructed response tests for intermediate to non-ELLs and on the constructed response test for beginning ELLs.

The F-tests for differences among the target regression coefficients for Grade 5, also reported in Table 16 indicate difference among the groups on both the multiple choice and constructed response tests. Post hoc pairwise contrasts, shown in Table 17, indicate that on the multiple choice test, the validity coefficients are not statistically significantly different for beginning and intermediate ELLs and, as desired, not different between advanced, exited, and non-ELLs. On the constructed response test, as hypothesized, the validity coefficients are not statistically significantly different among beginning ELLs, advanced ELLs, exited ELLs and non-ELLS. Similarly, they are not statistically significantly different for beginning and intermediate ELLs. However, the coefficient for intermediate ELLs is statistically lower than the coefficients for exited ELLs and non-ELLs. These results support evidence of similar validity between advanced and exited and non-ELLs for both multiple choice and constructed response and between beginning and exited and non-ELLs on the constructed response test.

Table 16: Grade 5: Validity Results

		IV	B	S.E.	p	R^2	F	p
Multiple Choice	Beginning	(Constant)	3.461	0.688	0.000	0.0105	6.410	0.000
		Target	-0.318	0.472	0.504			

	Intermediate	(Constant)	2.497	0.514	0.000	0.0435		
		Target	0.779	0.302	0.011			
	Advanced	(Constant)	1.684	1.135	0.144	0.1322		
		Target	1.611	0.567	0.006			
	Exited	(Constant)	1.594	0.558	0.005	0.1925		
		Target	1.870	0.241	0.000			
	Non-ELL	(Constant)	0.828	0.355	0.020	0.2265		
		Target	2.249	0.155	0.000			
Constructed Response	Beginning	(Constant)	0.521	0.736	0.483	0.1249		
		Target	1.322	0.534	0.017			
	Intermediate	(Constant)	1.818	0.831	0.030	0.0606		
		Target	1.580	0.515	0.003			
	Advanced	(Constant)	0.215	1.519	0.888	0.2028	2.650	0.032
		Target	2.910	0.793	0.001			
	Exited	(Constant)	0.325	0.814	0.690	0.2615		
		Target	3.433	0.363	0.000			
	Non-ELL	(Constant)	-0.142	0.504	0.778	0.2202		
		Target	3.192	0.224	0.000			
	N = 1222							

Table 17: Grade 5: Contrasts

	Multiple choice			Constructed Response		
	F	p-value	sig?	F	p-value	sig?
1 vs. 2	1.910	0.167		0.040	0.842	
1 vs. 3	4.400	0.036	*	1.200	0.273	
1 vs. 4	8.460	0.004	*	2.990	0.084	
1 vs. 5	12.590	0.000	*	2.510	0.114	
2 vs. 3	1.470	0.226		1.670	0.197	
2 vs. 4	6.260	0.013	*	7.540	0.006	*
2 vs. 5	14.590	0.000	*	7.210	0.007	*
3 vs. 4	0.160	0.686		0.310	0.579	
3 vs. 5	1.110	0.292		0.100	0.752	
4 vs. 5	1.700	0.193		0.310	0.575	

Discussion

The analyses in this study suggest low validity for early ELLs, even when proper accommodations are given. Perhaps the low validity is related to the opportunity to learn the mathematics content or the opportunity to practice different types of mathematics

items (e.g. word problems). Because the validity of the tests for early ELLs is so low, when we focus the analysis on smaller groups of early ELLs to isolate the effects of language liaisons, we have limited power to detect small changes in the validity. Thus, we are unable to determine if the language liaison accommodation is beneficial in making score inferences more valid.

In the analysis on the five ELL groups, on the multiple choice test, validity is low for beginning and intermediate ELLs as evidenced by small target regression coefficients and a very small proportion of variance in the scores explained by the mathematics criterion for both grades. Validity is also low for advanced ELLs in Grade 3 but it is better in Grade 5 on the multiple choice test.

On the constructed response test, the validity coefficients are statistically significantly greater than zero for all groups providing more evidence of validity than on the multiple choice test for both grades. In addition, the amount of variation in the scores explained by the criterion is relatively high and similar for beginning ELLs and exited and non-ELLs in Grade 3. The proportion of variance explained for beginning ELLs in Grade 5 is smaller than advanced, exited, and non-ELLs, but, nonetheless, shows some predictive validity. The results are very different for the intermediate ELLs, though. The amount of variance explained is relatively small on the constructed response test in both grades; thus, their teacher ratings are not doing a good job explaining the variance in their scores.

On both the multiple choice and constructed response tests, validity is lower for all three ELL groups relative to exited and non-ELLs in Grade 3. In Grade 5, validity is the same for advanced ELLs and exited and non-ELLs on both multiple choice and

constructed response. Surprisingly, validity is not different for beginning ELLs compared to exited and non-ELLs on the constructed response test in Grade 5.

The independent target criterion seems to be a reasonably valid measure, as it does appear to be a measure related to ability for exited and non-ELLs. Therefore, statistically insignificant regression coefficients on the target criterion suggest largely flat, non-differentiating, or scattered scores (indicative of chance behavior or guessing). There is likely something else going one besides just learning math (e.g. language, literacy, confidence, motivation) that is affecting test scores. Perhaps, as some test administrators noticed, teachers were telling their students just to guess.

It is possible that early ELLs do not get as full a curriculum as non-ELLs and have less of an opportunity to learn. Also, because of their language problems, ELL teachers often will teach math concepts using just algorithms rather than using word problems—of which the entire test is comprised. Thus, for those concepts that ELLs were taught and have learned, and subsequently given appropriate scores on the teacher rating questionnaire, it is likely that they don't have regular practice with word problems using those concepts, presented in access-based ways, orally or otherwise. This can lead to a lack of validity.

As a start to further analysis on causes of the low validity coefficients and what might be predicting either test scores or the teacher ratings, we have begun to look at scores expected by chance for beginning ELLs and other descriptive analyses of beginning and intermediate ELLs. T-tests were conducted to determine if the beginning ELLs scored significantly higher than chance on the multiple choice test. For Grade 3, they scored higher than chance on average, but for Grade 5 they did not. Preliminary

descriptive and graphical analysis for each of the ELL groups indicate that beginning and intermediate ELLs scored lower even when their target teacher ratings were higher than non-ELLs. For these students, looking more closely at other student variables and item analysis may lead to insight into the factors influencing their test performance.

References

Abedi, J. (2001). *Language accommodation for large-scale assessment in science: Assessing English language learners.* (Final Deliverable, Project 2.4 Accommodation). Los Angeles, CA: National Center for Research on Evaluation, Standards, and Student Testing, University of California.

Abedi, J. (2004). The No Child Left Behind Act and English language learners: Assessment and accountability issues. *Educational Researcher, 33*(1), 4-14.

Abedi, J., Lord, C. Boscardin, C., and Miyoshi, J. (2000). *The effects of accommodations on the assessment of LEP students in NAEP* . (CSE Tech. Rep. No 537). Los Angeles: National Center for Research on Evaluation, Standards, and Student Testing, University of California.

August, D. & Hakuta, K. (Eds.).(1997). Improving *schooling for language-minority children: A research agenda*. Washington, DC: National Academy Press.

Bourdieu, P. (2003). *Outline of a Theory of Practice.* (R. Nice, Trans) (17th ed.). Cambridge University Press: Cambridge.

Emick, J. (2005). Decision Making and accommodations: The development of a taxononomy. Manuscript in preparation.

Farr, B. P. & Trumbull, E. (1997). *Assessment Alternatives for Diverse Classrooms* Christopher-Gordon Publishers, Inc. Norwood, MA.

Gay, G. (1993). Building cultural bridges: A bold proposal for teacher education. *Education and Urban Society, 25(3),* 45-51.

Heath, S. B. (1982). Questioning at Home and at School: A Comparative Study. In G. Spindler (Ed.), *Doing the Ethnography of Schooling, Educational Anthropology in Action* (pp. 109-131). Holt, Rinehart and Winston: New York.

Hollenbeck, K. (2002). Determining when test alterations are valid accommodations or modifications for large-scale assessment. In G.Tindal & T. M. Haladyna (Eds.), *Large-scale assessment programs for all students: validity, technical adequacy, and implementation*. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Publishers.

Kopriva, R.J. (October, 1996). Variant Methodology for Different Testing Populations. Presentation for Meta-SCASS meeting, Washington, D.C.

Kopriva, R. (2000). *Ensuring accuracy in testing for English language learners.* Washington, DC: Council of Chief State School Officers.

Kopriva, R. (2005). *Improving Large-Scale Achievement Tests for English Language Learners.* Manuscript in preparation.

Kopriva, R. & Mislevy, R. (2001). Valid Assessment of English Language Learners. Proposal for the U.S. Department of Education, Institute of Education Sciences. Washington, D.C.

Koran, J., Kopriva, R., Emick, J., Monroe, R., Webb, P., Walker, P., & Garavaglia, D. (April, 2006). A Multiple Measures Approach for Gathering Information to Make Individualized Test Accommodation Decisions for English Language Learners. Presentation at the meeting of the National Council on Measurement in Education, San Francisco, CA.

Michie, M. (2004, April 1-3). Teaching science to Indigenous students: Teacher as culture broker or is it something else? Paper presented at the annual meeting the National Association for Research in Science Teaching. Retrieved June 5, 2005 from http://members.ozemail.com.au/~mmichie/teacher_cb.htm.

Monroe, R. (2004). *Family Assessment Night.* Unpublished manuscript. University of Maryland College Park.

No Child Left Behind Act of 2001, Pub. L. No. 107-110, 115 Stat. 1425 (2002).

Solano-Flores, G., & Trumbull, E. (2003). Examining language in context: The need for

new research and practice paradigms in the testing of English-language learners. *Educational Researcher, 32(2*), 3-13.

Tindal, G. & Haladyna, T. M. (Eds.)(2002). *Large-scale assessment programs for all students: Validity, technical adequacy, and implementation*. Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum.

Zehler, A.M., Fleischman, H.L., Hopstock, P.J., Stephenson, T.G., Pendzick, M.L., and Sapru, S. (2003). Descriptive Study of Services to LEP Students and LEP Students with Disabilities. Volume I: Research Report. Submitted to U.S. Department of Education, OELA. Arlington VA: Development Associates, Inc.