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**School Psychology Assessment
Practices for English Language
Learners**

**DO.
LIVE.**

**Presented at the 2019 NASP Convention
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Outline of Presentation

- Overview of study of ELL Assessment among Washington State school psychologists
- Review of assessment tools for use with ELLs: Home Language Surveys, English Language Proficiency Assessment, Universal Screeners and Progress Monitoring

1. WA State Study

- Goal to improve provision of school psychological services to English Language learners
- Exploratory study of WA school psychologist assessment practices and perceptions of ELL related issues
 - Topics explored
 - Assessment practices
 - Assessment instruments used
 - Use of interpreters
 - Perceptions of familiarity and usefulness of various concepts for ELL assessment
 - Views on services in their districts and beliefs about various topics

Surveys of Assessment Practices

- A number of studies over the years
- McCloskey & Athansaiou (2000)
- Ochoa et al. (2004)
- Harris et al. (2015)
 - Content analysis of psych reports (N=34) in CO.
 - Highlights
 - 50% assessed for language proficiency
 - 62% did not discuss impact of language proficiency
 - 22% used a nonverbal assessment

Research Questions

- How many ELL assessments are school psychologists in WA doing?
- How frequently do school psychologists use interpreters, and how do they use them?
- What type of training and experience do WA school psychologists report in the area of ELL assessment?
- What procedures do WA school psychologists report using when assessing an ELL student?
- How familiar are WA school psychologists with various ELL assessment models?
- What are WA school psychologists' perceptions of the usefulness of the various models?
- What are WA school psychologists' perceptions of the quality of ELL evaluations for special education in their districts?

Method

- Web-based survey
- E-mail addresses
 - Manually searched school district websites for school psychologist e-mail address (interesting how many couldn't be found)
- Web-based survey (Qualtrics) sent to school psychologists whose e-mail address was found on the internet.
- 673 invitation sent – 140 responses (21% response rate)

Results

- Demographics
- 9% reported that they considered themselves to be a bilingual school psychologist.
- 25% reported male, 74% reported female, and 1% reported other. For highest degree,
- 38% Master's level, 48% Specialist, and 14% Doctoral.
- 52% NCSP
- 28% rural, 56% suburban, 16% urban.

Research Question 1: How many ELL assessments are school psychologists in WA doing?

- Ninety-three percent of the respondents reported that they had conducted an ELL evaluation during the previous academic year. For those who did conduct an ELL evaluation, an average of 9.14 evaluations (Standard Deviation = 11.79) per year was reported ranging from a low of 2 evaluations to a high of 60.

Research Question 2: How frequently do school psychologists use interpreters, and how do they use them?

Table 1

Frequency of use of interpreters

	Mean	Always	Mostly	Sometimes	Seldom	Never
Interpret during an interview	2.52	0	0	20	33	47
Interpret the directions for a standardized test	3.84	0	0	23	28	49
Interpret actual test items	3.86	0	0	19	23	58
Interpret student responses	4.10	0	0	21	29	50

Note. Lower mean is associated with higher frequency of use; 1 = always, 2 = mostly, 3 = sometimes, 4 = seldom, 5 = never

Research Question 3: What type of training and experience do WA school psychologists report in the area of ELL assessment?

Table 2

Type of Graduate Training Reported for Assessing English Language Learners for Disabilities

Type of Graduate Training	Percent of responses (n=129)
In a specific graduate course focused on assessing diverse students (e.g. Assessment of English Language Learners)	28%
In other graduate courses	38%
During practicum	29%
During internship	48%

Training since Graduate Program

Table 3

Percentage of responses for how learned about ELL Assessment

Type of Graduate Training	Percent of responses (n=129)
Attended sessions on ELL assessment at conferences (i.e. NASP, WSASP)	25%
Read articles in professional journals	24%
Consulted with a bilingual school psychologist	15%
Read articles on the internet	15%
District provided training on ELL assessment	15%
Other (i.e. summer college courses, grad school training, book discussion)	6%

Research Question 4: What procedures do WA school psychologists report using when assessing the English language proficiency of an ELL student?

- One open-ended question was presented to gather information about the procedures used when assessing ELL students. The question was:
 - “What instruments, data sources, or methods do you use to assess the English language proficiency of the ELL students you evaluate?”
- To analyze the open-ended responses, one researcher classified each response into categories of related instruments, data sources, or methods. The table below presents percentage of respondents who mentioned the particular category.

Table 4

Instruments, data sources, or methods used to assess English Language Proficiency

Instruments, Data sources, or methods used to assess ELP of ELL students	Percent of responses
Standardized English Language Proficiency (i.e. WMLS, WELPA, ELPA21, WMLS-R, LAS)	57%
Standardized cognitive and academic assessment- English (i.e. WJ-III, WJ-IV OL, WIAT, WISC, nonverbal)	33%
Standardized cognitive assessment- Nonverbal	27%
Interviews (i.e. parent, teacher, interpreter feedback)	27%
Speech/language instruments (i.e. SLP screener, SEL)	27%
Classroom data (i.e. OSPI peer analysis data)	23%
Home language survey	10%
Standardized cognitive assessment- Spanish (i.e. BVAT, WISC-IV, DAS, WJ-3)	13%
Culture-Language Interpretive Matrix	7%
Curriculum Based Measures	7%
Professional judgment (i.e. speech language pathologist, bilingual assessor)	3%

Research Question 5: How familiar are WA school psychologists with various ELL assessment models?

Table 5

Familiarity of concepts for evaluating ELLs (n ranged from 120-121)

Concepts	Mean	Standard Deviation
Response to Intervention (RTI)	3.99	.80
Universal Screening & Progress Monitoring (DIBELS, AimsWeb, etc.)	3.98	.91
Curriculum Based Assessment	3.90	.81
Cattell-Horn-Carroll (CHC) Theory	3.39	1.13
Cross-Battery Assessment (XBA)	3.26	1.06
Acculturation	3.13	1.10
ELPA21	2.93	1.16
Standardized Measures of English Language Proficiency	2.83	1.16
Culture-Language Interpretive Matrix (C-LIM)	2.59	1.36
Gill's Critical Data Matrix process	2.30	1.39
Multimodal Assessment Model for Bilingual Individuals (MAMBI (Ochoa & Ortiz)	1.82	.98

Note: Response options were 1 = not familiar at all, 2 = moderately familiar, 3 = very familiar, 4 = extremely familiar, 5 = strongly familiar.

Research Question 6: What are WA school psychologists' perceptions of the usefulness of the various concepts?

Table 6

Useful ratings for evaluating ELLs (n ranged from 80-110)

Concepts	Mean	Standard Deviation
Response to Intervention (RTI)	3.85	.98
Curriculum-based Assessment	3.47	.97
Culture-Language Interpretive Matrix (C-LIM)	3.43	1.14
Acculturation	3.42	1.09
Universal Screening & Progress Monitoring (DIBELS, Aimsweb, etc.)	3.37	1.04
ELPA21	3.34	.97
Standardized measures of English language proficiency	3.31	1.07
Gill's Critical Data Matrix process	3.24	1.28
Cross-Battery Assessment (XBA)	3.21	1.00
Cattell-Horn-Carroll (CHC) Theory	2.92	1.08
Multimodal Assessment Model for Bilingual Individuals (MAMBI) (Ochoa & Ortiz)	2.86	1.15

Note: Response options were 1 = not useful at all, 2 = slightly useful, 3 = moderately useful, 4 = very useful, 5 = extremely useful

Research Question 7: What are WA school psychologists' perceptions of the quality of ELL evaluations for special education in their districts?

Created a variety of items that assessed school psychologist beliefs about a variety of topics related to Ells. Goal was to gain an overview of what school psychologists were currently thinking about these issues.

“Listed below are a variety of statements related to the evaluation of English language learners for possible disabilities. Please rate how strongly you agree or disagree with each of the statements.”

Statement	Mean	Standard Deviation
Dual language or bilingual education is the most effective instructional model for English language learners	2.22	0.87
I am confident in my knowledge of Second language acquisition processes	2.50	0.88
I receive many inappropriate referrals for SPED evaluation of ELLs	2.87	1.20
The evaluation team in my district do an excellent job evaluating English language learners	3.06	0.89
School Psychologists should use only nonverbal cognitive assessments with English language learners	3.23	0.88
Evaluating English language learners requires a bilingual examiner	3.28	1.05
Prereferral teams less likely to refer a child for an evaluation if the child is an ELL	3.41	1.24
My district overidentifies ELLs with Specific Learning Disability	3.58	0.99
Universal screening data for reading is as valid for ELLs as it is for native English speakers	3.69	0.97

Note. Lower means are associated with higher agreement with the statement; 1 = strongly agree, 2 = agree, 3 = neither agree nor disagree, 4 = disagree, 5 = strongly disagree.

Evaluating English language learners requires a bilingual examiner

Mean	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
3.3	5.3	43.9	31.6	12.3	7.0

Evaluation teams in my district do an excellent job evaluating ELL's

Mean	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
3.0	5.3	22.1	42.5	30.1	0

I am confident in my knowledge of second language acquisition processes

Mean	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
2.5	1.8	14.0	30.7	43.9	9.6

Dual language or bilingual education (i.e. instruction in both languages) is the most effective instructional model for ELL's

Mean	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
2.3	0.9	4.4	35.4	38.9	20.4

Universal screening data for reading (i.e. DIBELS, EasyCBM) is as valid for English language learners as it is for native English speakers

Mean	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
3.5	10.6	46.9	29.2	11.5	1.8

My district overidentifies ELL's with Specific Learning Disability

Mean	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
3.0	6.2	37.2	19.5	30.1	7.1

It is necessary for ELLs to reach proficiency in English before identifying Specific Learning Disability

Mean	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
3.5	13.3	44.2	23.9	14.2	4.4

I receive many inappropriate referrals for SPED evaluation of ELLs

Mean	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
3.0	8.8	24.8	26.5	32.7	7.1

Discussion: Questions for Future Research

- Wide variety of different methods and assessments reported for English language proficiency (ELP) assessment in ELL evaluations. ELP and school psych? other professionals? How is it being considered?
- RTI rated highly for usefulness but one of the lowest for familiarity. Professional development on RTI for ELLs may be important. Also, discussing research on use of screeners and progress monitoring with ELLs may be helpful.
- C-LIM rated higher for usefulness but lower for familiarity. Further discussion of the C-LIM and the emerging research is important.
- In general school psychologists followed best practices in the use of interpreters. Didn't use for standardized testing, but did use them for interviews

Fien et al., 2011

- BIG QUESTION: Are screeners appropriate for use with English speakers (DIBELS, easyCBM, etc.) also appropriate for use with ELLs?
- Emerging Research –
 - Project at Wisconsin Center for Educational Research
 - Nonsense Word Fluency (NWF)
 - 19 of 24 correlations between NWF and a standardized reading achievement test demonstrated no significant differences between English speakers and ELLs (Fien, 2011). Fluency, pseudoword reading can be a valuable screening for ELLs also.
 - Oral Reading Fluency (ORF)
 - ORF predicted overall proficiency for both English speakers and ELLs at a similar rate (Baker & Good, 1995).

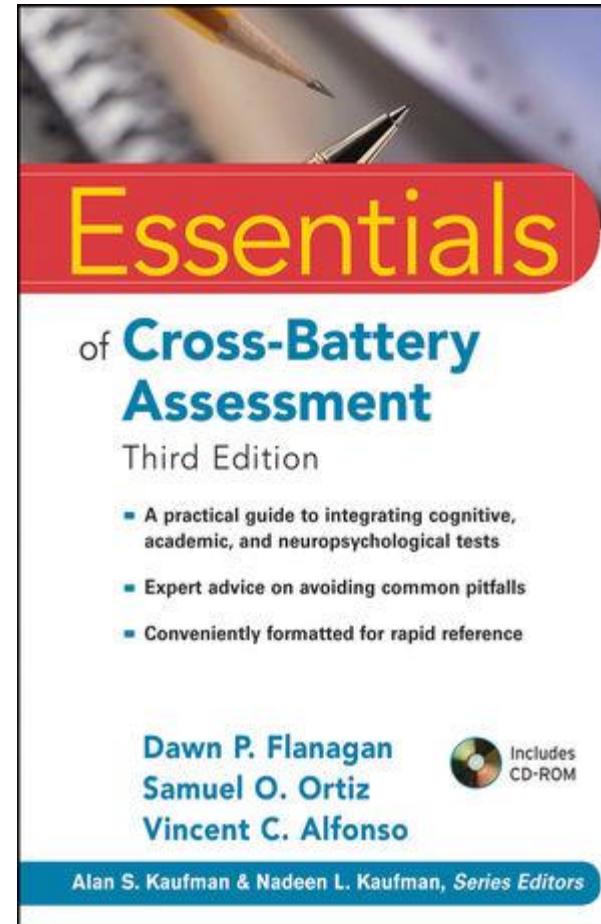
Progress Monitoring (Fien et al. 2011)

- Oral Reading Fluency
 - Assessed English speakers on ORF in English and ELLs on ORF in English and Spanish in grades 1 to 5. English speakers demonstrated greater growth in early grades, but received more instructional time. In later grades, when they had similar instructional

May be important to consider ELP level when giving and interpreting DIBELS screening results (Gutierrez & Vanderwood, 2013)

Culture-Language Interpretive Matrix (C-LIM)

- A component of XBA
- Ch. 5 of Essentials of XBA devoted to assessment of individuals from CLD backgrounds.
- “The single purpose of the XBA C-LIM is to evaluate the extent to which differences in language proficiency and acculturative learning opportunity may have affected the validity of scores obtained from standardized tools. It is not a diagnostic tool (p. 309)”



Common Approaches to testing with ELL (Flanagan, Ortiz, & Alfonzo, 2013)

Advantages of Disadvantages of various assessment approaches

	Norm Sample Representative of Bilingual Development	Measures Full Range of Ability Constructs	Does Not Require Bilingual Evaluator	Adheres to Test's Standardized Protocol	Substantial Research Base on Bilingual Performance
Modified or altered assessment		X	X		
Reduced-language assessment			X	X	
Native-language assessment		X		X	
English-language assessment		X	X	X	X

Interpreting the C-LIM

- Proper use of the C-LIM begins by looking for the highest score in the upper left-hand corner, the lowest score in the bottom right-hand corner, and other scores falling in between these anchor points.
- “In general, if the pattern of aggregate scores within the matrix approximates the expected and declining pattern of scores derived from the literature, in terms of both magnitude and rate of decline, the results can be said to be invalid because they are most likely to be reflections of the primary influence of cultural and linguistic influences, not the constructs the tests were intended to measure (p. 322).”

Interpreting the C-LIM

- “Conversely, if the pattern of aggregate scores within the matrix approximates the expected and appropriate declining pattern of scores derived from the literature (e.g., the magnitude of scores is lower than the expected range, or there is an absence of a systematic decline as linguistic and cultural demands increase), the results can then be said to be valid in that although they may reflect cultural and linguistic differences to some degree, they cannot be said to be the ***primary*** influence on the obtained pattern of test scores (p. 322).”
- CAREFUL – lack of declining pattern doesn’t automatically imply the presence of a disability.

Interpreting the C-LIM

- “Once it has been established via the C-LIM that test scores have not been invalidated by linguistic proficiency and acculturative learning factors, scores should be evaluated within the context of XBA principles and procedures or their original framework (p. 338).”
- A Note on G_c - this factor is unique as it is a direct measure of culture and language. Needs to be interpreted relative to performance within the right-hand portion of the C-LIM graph (high/high cell). Scores for G_c that fall within the shaded area or above should be interpreted as being average or higher; even if they fall below or outside normal limits.

Will the C-LIM Survive?

School Psychology Review,
2013, Volume 42, No. 4, pp. 367–382

Diagnostic Utility of the Culture-Language Interpretive Matrix for the Wechsler Intelligence Scales for Children—Fourth Edition Among Referred Students

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Abstract. The Culture-Language Interpretive Matrix (C-LIM) was developed by Flanagan, Ortiz, and Alfonso (2013) to evaluate the extent to which developmental language proficiency and acculturative learning opportunity affect the validity of standardized test scores for individual students. According to this approach, validity may be compromised for children with cultural and language experiences, such as learning English as a second language, that differ from the population on which the test was normed. This study employed diagnostic utility statistics to test whether the C-LIM for the Wechsler Intelligence Scales for Children—Fourth Edition (WISC-IV) could accurately distinguish between students from a referred sample of English language learners ($n = 86$) and monolingual students without disabilities from the WISC-IV normative sample ($n = 2,033$). Results indicated that the C-LIM identified the English language learner children at chance levels. Evidence from previous studies as well as the current negative results does not support use of the C-LIM for making decisions about individual students.

Maybe in another form?

Article

The Influences of Linguistic Demand and Cultural Loading on Cognitive Test Scores

**Damien C. Cormier¹, Kevin S. McGrew¹,
and James E. Ysseldyke¹**

Abstract

The increasing diversity of the U.S. population has resulted in increased concerns about the psychological assessment of students from culturally and linguistically diverse backgrounds. To date, little empirical research supports recommendations in test selection and interpretation, such as those presented in the Culture-Language Interpretative Matrix (C-LIM). The current investigation was conducted to empirically evaluate the validity of the C-LIM classifications for the Woodcock-Johnson Tests of Cognitive Abilities, Third Edition (WJ III COG). The WJ III Normative Update standardization sample was used to determine the extent to which the two dimensions of the C-LIM (i.e., cultural loading and linguistic demand) influence performance on 20 of the WJ III tests. Results provide support for a re-classification of the C-LIM. Implications for research and school psychology practices are discussed.

Journal of Psychoeducational Assessment
2014, Vol. 32(7) 610–623
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Evidence for linguistic loading, less for cultural loading

Comp Evals must examine conversational proficiency (BICS) vs academic language (CALP)

2. Assessment Tools

- Home Language Surveys
- English Language Proficiency Tests
 - Group administered and individually administered
- Universal Screeners

Home Language Surveys (HLS)

- Bailey & Kelly (2011) reviewed Home Language Survey practices across the US.
- Their conclusions:
 - Majority of states mandate some form of HLS
 - Great variation in number and phrasing of survey items
 - Almost no evidence on the validity of HLS
 - Problems with HLS raise questions about the validity of state English-language proficiency assessment.
 - To date no state that evidence that their HLS is identifying the right pool of students for subsequent assessment.

Assessing Language Proficiency

- Some debate over what should be measured
- Is it a unitary trait? Research supports the multiple component view of language proficiency, encompassing listening, writing, reading, and speaking (Burns et al., 2017)
- Very little psychometric support for language proficiency measures.
- Used by schools to assess instructional need, but measures of language proficiency do not accurately predict who will struggle with learning to read (Geva, Yaghoub-Zadeh, & Shuster, 2000; Limbos & Geva, 2001, as cited in Burns et al., 2017)

How well do they correlate w/ individual measures?



Gutierrez & Vanderwood (2013)

Ca Eng Lang Dev Test (CDELT) and WMLS-R:
 $r = .50$

English Language Proficiency Measures

- Measures of ELP used to determine eligibility or placement in English language learner services
- Prior to NCLB focused on social language proficiency – since NCLB have focused more on academic language proficiency.
- Many different measures used – varies by state and changes regularly (Albers, 2009)
- In WA transitioned from WLPT to WELPA to ELPA21 (English Language Proficiency Assessment for the 21st Century).
- In doing record review you may see a variety of ELP tests.

From Albers (2009)

Table 1
English Language Proficiency Measures Currently Being Used
by States for Accountability Requirements

ELP Measure	States
ACCESS for ELLs	Alabama, Delaware, District of Columbia, Georgia, Illinois, Kentucky, Maine, New Hampshire, New Jersey, North Dakota, Oklahoma, Pennsylvania, Rhode Island, Vermont, Virginia (beginning in 2009), Wisconsin
CELLA	Florida
ELDA	Arkansas, Iowa, Louisiana, Nebraska, South Carolina, Tennessee, West Virginia
ELPA	Michigan, Nevada, Oregon
IPT	Alaska, North Carolina
LAS Links	Connecticut, Hawaii, Indiana, Maryland,
MAC-II	Missouri
SELP	Mississippi, Virginia
State-specific ELP measure	Arizona, California, Colorado, Idaho, Kansas, Massachusetts, Minnesota, Montana, New Mexico, New York, Ohio, South Dakota, Texas, Utah, Washington, Wyoming

Note: ELP = English language proficiency; ACCESS for ELLs = *Assessing Comprehension and Communication in English State-to-State for English Language Learners*; CELLA = *Comprehensive English Language Learning Assessment*; ELDA = *English Language Development Assessment*; ELPA = *English Language Proficiency Assessment*; IPT = *IDEA Proficiency Test*; LAS Links = *Language Assessment System Links*; MAC-II = *Maculaitis Assessment of Competencies Test of English Language Proficiency*; SELP = *Stanford English Proficiency Test*.

Critiques of Oral Language Proficiency Measures

- Klinger et al. (2016) argue that it is a misconception that “native language proficiency assessments commonly administered to ELs to determine their native language proficiency present a clear picture of linguistic proficiency” (p. 70).
- Why?
 - Is deficit-focused and falsely identifies non-speakers at a high rate.
 - Tend to assess not only oral language abilities but also other literacy skills.
 - Recommend carefully assessing oral language and written language.
 - Recommend focusing on authentic assessment of language

How do we identify ELLs?

- Two Step Process
 - Step 1: At the time of enrollment, families complete a Home Language Survey (HLS).
 - In Washington there is a standard form for the state [HLS](#)
 - Use of HLS varies by state – little research on forms – 23 states mandate use of a specific form. Others provide samples or leave it up to districts
 - Step 2: Completion of the [WELPA \(or ELPA21\)](#) placement test.
 - [ELPA21 website](#) – used by Arkansas, Iowa, Nebraska, Ohio, Oregon, Washington, West Virginia

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What is ELPA21?

ELPA21 is a group of states that designed and developed an assessment system for English language learners. The system is based on the English Language Proficiency Standards and addresses the language demands needed to reach college and career readiness.

[Learn More](#)

Get the Right Information, Relevant to You



ELPA21 (English Language Proficiency Assessment for the 21st Century)

- Computer administered
- Includes a screener and a summative assessment
- Screener for 6 grade bands (k, 1, 2, 3, 4-5, 6-8, 9-12)
 - Provides baseline ELP and help with placement
- Summative assessment given at the end of the year

Sample Items | Elpa21 You

www.elpa21.org/assessment-system/sample-items

Apps News Financial Professional Orgs Research Central Washington | Microsoft Office Home TeamSnap Sports Team Faculty Jobs at College CCCU Career Center Google Scholar University Libraries | ESPN: The Worldwide Inside Higher Ed | Other bookmarks

ELPA21 Interactive

JOHN SMITH

Listen to an announcement from the school principal. Follow the speaker's directions for a writing task.



I have great news everyone. A famous journalist is going to come to our school. His name is Jose Medina. He is going to visit next week! I am collecting questions from students before Mr. Medina visits. Mr. Medina has traveled all over the world covering news stories. He currently writes for a very popular news magazine.

Write three questions that you want to ask the visitor. Be sure to write in complete sentences.

I-1.

Now write the first question for the visitor here.

Grade Band 4-5: Writing

ELPA21 Sample Item: Grades 4-5 Writing

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ELPA21 Sample Item: Grades 2-3 Speaking

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ELPA21 Interactive

G-1. X

Look carefully at the two pictures. Describe what is the same and what is different. Use as many details as you can.



A B

Grade Band 2-3: Speaking

0:02 / 0:39

CC YouTube

ELPA21 Sample Item: Grades 2-3 Speaking

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Kindergarten: Listening

ELPA21 Sample Item: Kindergarten Listening

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ACCESS for ELLs 2.0

- WIDA Consortium
- English Language Proficiency Test
 - Listening
 - Speaking
 - Reading
 - Writing
 - ORAL LANGUAGE (50% Listening + 50% Speaking)
 - LITERACY (50% Reading + 50% Writing)
 - COMPREHENSION (70% Reading + 30% Listening)
 - OVERALL (35% Reading + 35% Writing + 15% Listening + 15% Speaking)

AZELLA (Arizona English Language Learner Assessment)

- Developed for the state of Arizona
- Used for placement and annual testing
- Similar in structure to other ELP assessments
 - Reading
 - Writing
 - Listening
 - Speaking
 - LANGUAGE
 - ORAL
 - COMPREHENSION

LANGUAGE ACQUISITION STAGES

	NAME	LANGUAGE REGISTER	CHARACTERISTICS	STUDENT BEHAVIORS	TEACHER STRATEGIES	RELATIVE TIMELINE
STAGE I	Preproduction/Silent Period	Fluency (BICS)	Minimal comprehension; No speech production; Physical response only; Up to 500 receptive-word vocabulary	Indicates comprehension physically; Comprehends key words only; Responds by pantomiming, gesturing, or drawing; Produces no speech; Says only yes, no, or names of other students; Depends heavily on context	Requires Physical response to check comprehension; Uses commands to teach receptive language; Uses manipulatives and props; Asks student to show/draw answers to questions; Asks "yes/no" questions; Shows/writes key words after oral presentation	2 weeks - 2 months
STAGE II	Early Production	Fluency (BICS)	Very limited comprehension; Disconnected speech; One or two-word responses; Up to 1,000 receptive word vocabulary	Indicates comprehension physically; Depends heavily on context; Responds with one/two-word answers or in phrases; Produces words in isolation; Makes "errors of omission"; Verbalizes key words "heard"; Mispronounces words	Encourages all attempts to respond; Asks students questions that require one/two words to answer: Who? What? Where? When? Which one?; Continues to expand receptive language; Displays print to support oral presentation	2-4 months
STAGE III	Speech Emergence/Simple Sentence Stage	Fluency (BICS)	Fairly good comprehension; Connected speech; Simple sentence responses; Up to 3,000 receptive word vocabulary	Shows good comprehension if in rich context; Functions on a social level; Produces whole sentences; Uses limited vocabulary; Makes some pronunciation and basic grammatical errors	Engages student in producing language such as describing, retelling, comparing, contrasting, defining, summarizing, reporting; Incorporates more writing; Asks application questions; Uses limited vocabulary	1-2 years
STAGE IV	Intermediate Fluency/Bridging Stage	Fluency (BICS) and some proficiency (CALP)	Increased comprehension; Extended speech Simple/complex sentence responses; Beyond 3,000 receptive word vocabulary	Shows good comprehension if given some context Functions somewhat on an academic level; Produces whole narration; Makes complex grammatical errors; Uses an expanded vocabulary	Asks "why" questions soliciting opinion, judgment, prediction, hypothesis, inference; Develops cognitive academic language: oral or written; Introduces figurative language; Engages student in higher order thinking skills	3-5 years

BIG ISSUE

Instruction Matters
for English
Language Learners

Effectiveness of Bilingual Instructional Models

- Research comparing different modes of instruction for ELLs (from immersion to dual-language) has generally supported the effectiveness of bilingual education/two-way immersion (Kim, 2015)
 - Willig (1985) Meta-analysis
 - Thomas & Collier (1997)
 - Thomas & Collier (2002)
 - Slavin (2005)

Thomas and Collier (1997)

- Addressed the question of the effectiveness of bilingual and other instructional models.
- Improvement on previous research
 - Examined longitudinal outcomes (K through 12)
 - Large sample – 42,317 students in 5 school districts

6 Types of Bilingual Programs

1. **Dual Language:** Instruction in both English and second language, both English speakers and ELLs
2. **Content-based ESL only:** receive instruction in English only, intent is to acquire English and not to maintain his or her native language.
3. **Pull-out ESL only:** Less focus on academic material and more on English-language skills. Pulled out of classroom for special instruction.
4. **Transitional bilingual along with content-based ESL:** Transition quickly (2-4 yrs) from native language instruction to English. Goal is to teach English at the expense of native language.
5. **Transitional bilingual along with pullout ESL**
6. **Maintenance:** Offered for longer period of time than transitional (4-6 years). Use native language for instruction for longer period. Goal to maintain first language while learning second language.

Thomas and Collier (1997) – Effects of Instructional Models on ELL Achievement

Results aggregated from a series of 4- to 8-year longitudinal studies from well-implemented, mature programs in five school districts. Program 1: two-way developmental bilingual education (BE); Program 2: one-way developmental BE, including ESL taught through academic content; Program 3: transitional BE, including ESL taught through academic content; Program 4: transitional BE, including ESL, both taught traditionally; Program 5: ESL taught through academic content using current approaches; Program 6: ESL pullout taught traditionally.

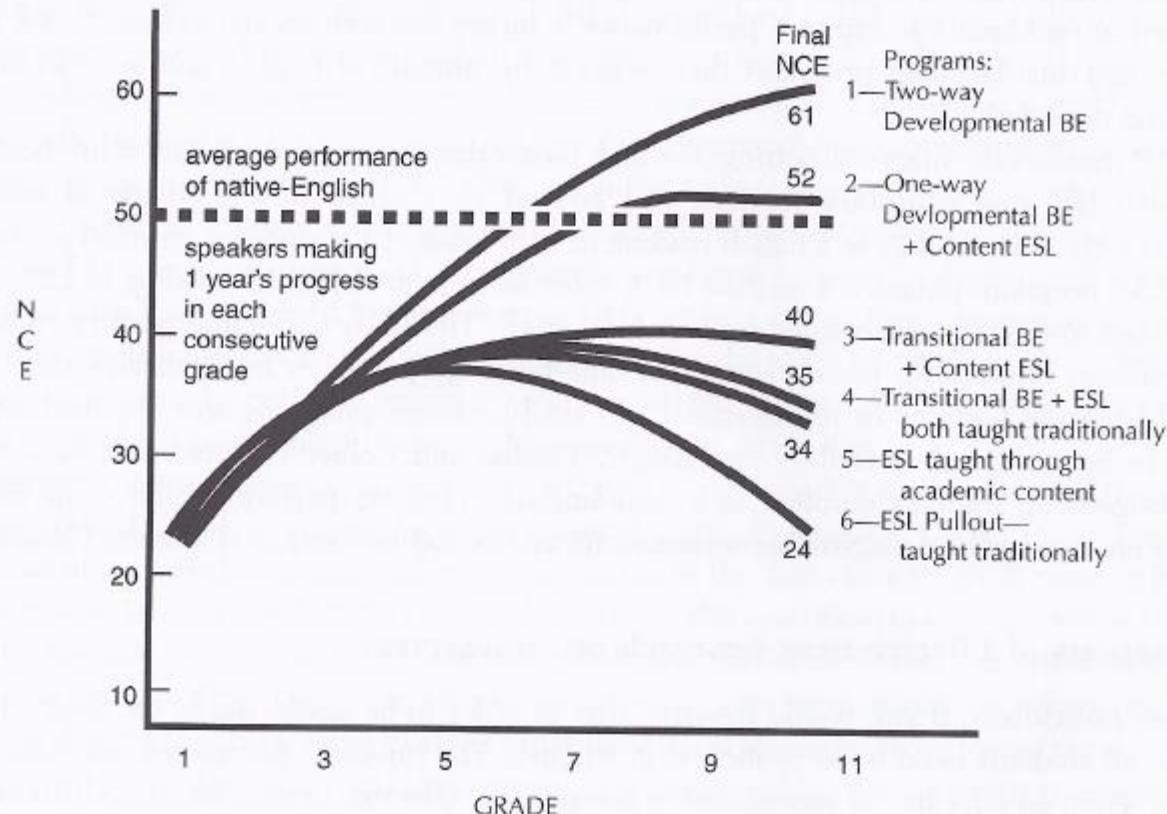


FIGURE 4.1. Patterns of K-12 English learners' long-term achievement in NCEs on standardized tests in English reading compared across six program models. From Thomas and Collier (1997, p. 53). Copyright 1997 by Wayne P. Thomas and Virginia P. Collier. Reprinted by permission from Wayne P. Thomas and Virginia P. Collier.

Disproportionality (Sullivan, 2013)

- In general, large variation in special education identification rates across the country. Little research on identification rates for ELL's because that hasn't traditionally been a category that was reported.
- Samson & Lesaux (2009) – for SLD, found that ELLs were underrepresented in the primary grades and overrepresented beginning in 3rd grade. May be due to lack of services for ELLs with disabilities and teacher reluctance to refer in early grades.
- Wagner (2005) – litigation has made districts wary of referring to stay out of trouble. ELLs begin receiving services 2 to 3 years later than average for ELs.

What do we know about relationship between ELP and reading in native English speakers?

- Meta-analysis of literacy research literature
 - National Early Literacy Panel (2008). *Developing early literacy: Report of the National Early Literacy Panel*. Washington, DC: National Institute of Literacy.
- OLP in kindergarten a moderate correlate of later decoding and later reading comprehension
- Differences in predictive validity of individual language skills
 - Overall composite measures stronger than individual skills (vocabulary, syntax, listening comprehension)
- Early OLP also predictive of reading comprehension in later grades (4-10).

How about for ELLs?

- Relationship between ELP and reading growth may differ for ELLs.
 - Language proficiency now relevant for two languages
 - ELP often confounded with SES
- Findings from the research literature (Kieffer, 2012)
 - Early ELP predicts later English reading
 - English productive vocabulary is a better predictor of later reading for ELLs than for monolinguals
 - Early oral language (either English or Spanish) did not predict later rates of growth between 3rd and 8th grade.
 - ELP necessary but not sufficient for later growth in reading achievement

Literacy and ELLs – General Trends

- “Word-level” literacy skills of ELLs (decoding, spelling) are much more likely to be at levels equal to monolingual English speakers
 - Caveat – ASSUMING GOOD INSTRUCTIONAL SETTING
- “Text-level” literacy skills (reading comprehension, writing). These skills rarely reach levels equal to monolingual English speakers.

What do we know about Reading Impairment in ELL's (Paredis et al., 2011)?

- Very little research on reading impairment in L2 learners
- Few statistics on reading impairment in ELL's
- Some studies suggest ELL's can reach average levels of word reading, but still struggle with comprehension. WHY?
- No reason to believe the rate of reading impairment would be higher in L2 children vs. L1 children.
- L2 or bilingual status in itself not a risk factor for reading impairment.

Reading Acquisition in Native English Speakers

- Phonological awareness causally related to word reading ability
- For reading comprehension, different constellations of skills are important at different times. Demands of reading are different at different levels.
- Different risk profiles
 - Decoding difficulties → high cognitive resources for decoding
 - Comprehension difficulties → may be linked to more general language deficits (overlap between “language” and “reading” disorders)

Similarities: Learning to read in L2 and learning to read in L1 (August & Shanahan, 2008)

- Predictors of word decoding ability in L1 readers are also significant predictors of L2 word decoding ability.
- Similarities between L2 and L1 reading comprehension at a general level.
- L2 and L1 readers who are at risk demonstrate similar weaknesses

Differences:

In what ways are L2 reading acquisition and L1 reading acquisition different?

- Students learning to read in an L2 usually come from different sociocultural backgrounds.
- Know and use another language.
 - Cross-Language Transfer: May make “transfer” errors – be careful not to interpret these as signs of reading impairment
- They are still learning L2

All 3 of these factors influence speed, fluency, and accuracy with reading, and can result in poor test performance.

Common Issue:

- Do schools need to wait until adequate English proficiency until beginning reading interventions?
- Some schools focus on language first rather than begin reading interventions (Burns et al., 2017)

OLP and Growth in Reading Interventions (Burns et al., 2017)

- Purpose: Examine the relationship between English language proficiency and growth during reading intervention for ELLs
 - (201 2nd and 3rd graders; 37% Somali, 35% Hispanic (Spanish speaking), 20% Asian (mostly Hmong), 8% other languages)
- Three research questions:
 - To what extent does language proficiency relate to reading growth during interventions?
 - To what extent does language proficiency predict reading growth during interventions?
 - What are the differential reading growth rates according to language proficiency groups?

Measures

- Measures of Academic Progress for Reading (MAP-R; Northwest Evaluation Association, 2013)
- CBM-R (Aimsweb)
- Assessing Comprehension and Communication in English State-to-State for English Language Learners (ACCESS)
 - Proficiency Levels: entering, emerging, developing, expanding, bridging, and reaching.
 - Level 1 and 2 → low English Proficiency
 - Level 3 and 4 → medium English Proficiency
 - Level 5 and 6 → high English Proficiency

Interventions

- Used standard protocol
- Phonics Interventions
- Fluency Interventions
- Vocabulary Interventions

Research Question 1

- To what extent does language proficiency relate to reading growth during interventions?

Table 2. Correlation coefficients between language scores, reading scores, slope of growth, and percent of days present.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Speaking (1)	—	.30*	.12	.18	.36*	—.20*	.12	.36*	.64*
Writing (2)		—	.42*	.46*	.40*	—.10	.01	.52*	.82*
Listening (3)			—	.73*	.23*	—.16	—.28*	.32*	.76*
Reading (4)				—	.31*	—.29*	—.29*	.43*	.75*
Fall CBM-R (5)					—	.38*	.10	.71*	.64*
Slope of growth with CBM-R (6)						—	.01	.20*	.41*
Days present (7)							—	.12	.11
Fall MAP-R (8)								—	.94*
Spring MAP-R (9)									—

Note. CBM-R = curriculum-based measure of reading; MAP-R = Measures of Academic Progress—Reading.

* $p < .01$.

Little correlation between language scores and reading growth from interventions

Research Question 2

- To what extent does language proficiency predict reading growth during interventions?

Language proficiency accounted for very little variance in growth (only 1 and 2% for ORF and comprehension)

Table 3. Regression coefficients for reading scores, language score, and percent of days present on growth of CBM-R.

Variable	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>t</i>	β	<i>p</i>	ΔR^2
Fall MAP-R	−0.01	0.01	−1.64	−.25	.10	.054
Fall CBM-R	−0.01	0.01	−0.60	−.09	.55	.050
Percent of days present	0.56	1.36	0.41	.04	.68	< .001
Language score without reading	−0.02	0.02	−0.69	−.07	.49	.002

Note. $R = .33$; $r^2 = .11$; CBM-R = curriculum-based measure of reading; MAP-R = Measures of Academic Progress—Reading.

Table 4. Regression coefficients for reading scores, language score, and percent of days present on prediction of spring MAP scores.

Variable	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>t</i>	β	<i>p</i>	ΔR^2
Fall MAP-R	−0.17	0.04	−4.19	−.33	<.01	.109
Fall curriculum-based measure for reading	0.14	0.03	5.01	.67	<.01	.134
Percent of days present	0.54	0.23	2.30	.17	.02	.028
Language score without reading	1.64	0.80	2.06	.20	.04	.022

Note. $R = .54$; $r^2 = .29$; MAP-R = Measures of Academic Progress—Reading.

Research Question 3

- What are the differential reading growth rates according to language proficiency groups?

Students in the lowest language proficiency group made the greatest gain

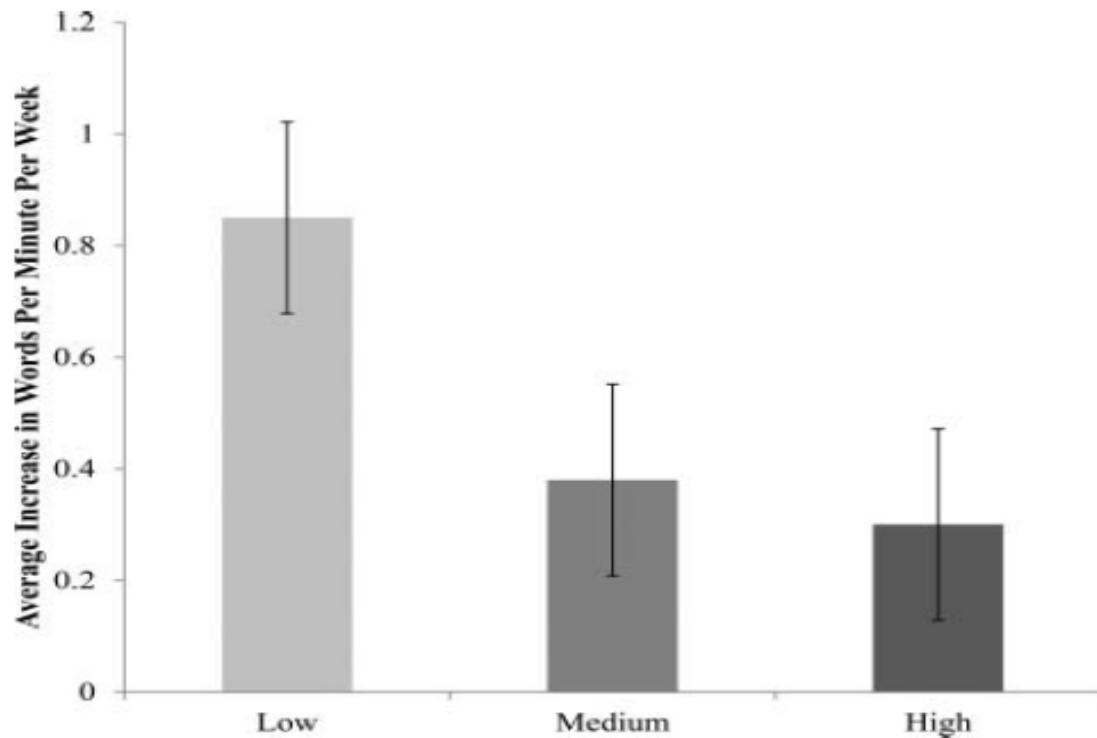


Figure 1. Average growth rates during reading intervention for the English proficiency groups. Note. Students who scored a 1 or 2 on the ACCESS were classified as low English proficiency, those who scored a 3 or 4 were classified as medium English proficiency, and a score of 5 or 6 was identified as high English proficiency.

3. Interpreting Data on English Language Proficiency and Reading Growth

- How can we use data to better understand whether an achievement delay is linked to ELL status or to some underlying disability?

Where we're at

Need to focus on the diversity **WITHIN** ELLs, rather than just think of ELLs as one big group



Level of ELP may contribute to different learning outcomes, so should take level of ELP into account when reviewing data

Typical ORF Growth

Reading Growth Rate Variation

Table 1
Hasbrouck and Tindal (2006)
Oral Reading Fluency Data – National Norms – 1st, 2nd, and 3rd Grades

Grade	Percentile	Fall (wcpm)	Winter (wcpm)	Spring (wcpm)	Avg. Weekly Improvement
1 st	90 th	--	81	111	1.9
	75 th	--	47	82	2.2
	50 th	--	23	53	1.9
	25 th	--	12	28	1.0
	10 th	--	6	15	0.6
2 nd	90 th	106	125	142	1.1
	75 th	79	100	117	1.2
	50 th	51	72	89	1.2
	25 th	25	42	61	1.1
	10 th	11	18	31	0.6
3 rd	90 th	128	146	162	1.1
	75 th	99	120	137	1.2
	50 th	71	92	107	1.1
	25 th	44	62	78	1.1
	10 th	21	36	48	0.8

Growth for ELLs???

Most of the research has focused on native EIs vs ELLs

What about growth rates for ELLs at various levels of English Proficiency?

Table 1

Gutierrez and Vanderwood (2013)
Oral Reading Fluency Data – 2nd Grade ELLs

Grade	English Language Proficiency	Fall (wcpm)	Winter (wcpm)	Spring (wcpm)	Weekly Growth Rates
2 nd	Level 1 Beginning (n = 49)	30	36	46	.82
	Level 2 Early Intermediate (n = 90)	43	53	63	.95
	Level 3 Intermediate (n = 81)	58	68	78	.97
	Level 4 Early Advanced (n = 30)	78	88	100	1.1
	Level 5 Advanced (n = 10)	84	101	110	1.3

Rates for Early Advanced and Advanced were similar to English-proficient and native English speaking students

HLM results:

Significant differences between Beg Level and Early Advanced and Advanced ELP growth rates. Similar findings for Phonological Awareness and letter-sound correspondence (NWF).

Local Data: From Deleon (in process)

Mean ORF for ELP Levels

Oral Reading Fluency Rate (ORF))

Study of one
Central WA
School District

WELPA Level	2 nd Grade			3 rd Grade		
	Fall	Winter	Spring	Fall	Winter	Spring
Gen.Ed. (Non-ELL)	75.08 (37.33)	102.61 (40.40)	120.30 (40.74)	102.93 (20.97)	124.29 (39.69)	136.15 (42.64)
Beginning (Level 1)	31.08 (18.53)	63.81 (20.78)	75.73 (25.58)	62.69 (21.55)	81.92 (24.17)	89.65 (26.51)
Intermediate (Level 2)	62.94 (30.93)	89.13 (31.98)	107.69 (35.24)	88.19 (35.07)	105.31 (36.35)	118.69 (39.25)

Mean ROI for ELP Levels

Rate of Improvement (ROI)

WELPA Level	N	2 nd Grade	3 rd Grade	Total
Gen.Ed. (Non-ELL)	112	1.26 (.55)	.92 (.50)	.69 (.31)
Beginning (Level 1)	26	1.24 (.53)	.75 (.40)	.67 (.28)
Intermediate (Level 2)	16	1.24 (.50)	.84 (.27)	.63 (.24)

Research

- **Issue identified in previous research:** Confusion of teachers about when to refer – don't want to refer too early because of concerns about overidentification (Klinger, 2005)
- Importance of clear referral processes – advantage of universal screening
- Referral does not have to mean referral to special ed, but does mean need for some type of intervention

Fien et al., 2011

- BIG QUESTION: Are screeners appropriate for use with English speakers (DIBELS, easyCBM, etc.) also appropriate for use with ELLs?
- Emerging Research –
 - Project at Wisconsin Center for Educational Research
 - Nonsense Word Fluency (NWF)
 - 19 of 24 correlations between NWF and a standardized reading achievement test demonstrated no significant differences between English speakers and ELLs (Fien, 2011). Fluency, pseudoword reading can be a valuable screening for ELLs also.
 - Oral Reading Fluency (ORF)
 - ORF predicted overall proficiency for both English speakers and ELLs at a similar rate (Baker & Good, 1995).

Progress Monitoring (Fien et al. 2011)

- Oral Reading Fluency
 - Assessed English speakers on ORF in English and ELLs on ORF in English and Spanish in grades 1 to 5. English speakers demonstrated greater growth in early grades, but received more instructional time. In later grades, when they had similar instructional

May be important to consider ELP level when giving and interpreting DIBELS screening results (Gutierrez & Vanderwood, 2013)