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CBAL: Results From Piloting Innovative K–12 Assessments

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Abstract

CBAL, an acronym for Cognitively Based Assessment of, for, and as Learning, is a research initiative intended to create a model for an innovative K–12 assessment system that provides summative information for policy makers, as well as formative information for classroom instructional purposes. This paper summarizes empirical results from 16 CBAL summative assessment pilots involving almost 10,000 online administrations conducted between 2007 and 2010. The results suggest that, on average, the CBAL initiative was successful in building innovative assessments in reading, writing, and mathematics that worked as intended. However, there was considerable variation in the functioning of test forms, especially in writing and math. That variation might suggest that the knowledge needed to produce high-quality forms of these innovative tests in a replicable and scalable manner is not yet at hand. Further, although the results described offer a significant start, many critical questions must be answered before CBAL assessments (or ones like them) are ready for high-stakes operational use.

Key words: computer-based assessment, performance assessment, innovative testing approaches

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CBAL, an acronym for Cognitively Based Assessment of, for, and as Learning, is a research initiative intended to create a model for an innovative K–12 assessment system that documents what students have achieved (of learning), facilitates instructional planning (for learning), and is considered by students and teachers to be a worthwhile educational experience in and of itself (as learning; Bennett & Gitomer, 2009). The model is built around a system of summative and formative assessments directed at satisfying the needs of states and state consortia, as well as needs at the district, school, classroom, and individual levels.

Several characteristics of CBAL are worth noting. First, the model incorporates the results of learning-sciences research, in addition to content standards, as an underlying basis for assessment design. That research helps to identify the knowledge, processes, strategies, and habits of mind key to domain proficiency, and the teaching and learning practices that help foster such proficiency. CBAL assessment prototypes use this research to help exemplify and reinforce effective classroom practices for students and teachers. The domain-specific competency models, which synthesize this research and drive the design of CBAL assessment prototypes, can be found in Deane (2011), Graf (2009), and O'Reilly and Sheehan (2009a).

Second, CBAL assessment designs incorporate innovative, computer-delivered tasks targeted at measuring higher-order thinking, as well as more elemental questions directed at lower-level, but still essential, component skills. CBAL assessment prototypes typically have included at least one scenario-based task set, which is composed of a series of selected-response and constructed-response questions linked to a common context that directs the examinee toward satisfying a given goal (e.g., make a recommendation to your school principal about whether students should be required to wear uniforms). Because of this linkage of questions to context and purpose, CBAL scenario-based task sets function much like structured performance exercises.

Third, the CBAL model employs periodic (or through-course) summative assessment, which consists of several administrations distributed across the school year. This distribution should provide more timely information to teachers, and when the results are aggregated across assessment occasions, it should create a stronger evidential basis for high-stakes decision making.

Finally, CBAL research and development are driven by a detailed theory of action that, among other things, describes the system model's conceptual, summative, formative, and

professional support components; the intended effects on individuals and institutions of implementing CBAL assessments; and the action mechanisms hypothesized to lead to those effects (Bennett, 2010).

As of December 2010, almost 10,000 CBAL summative assessments had been administered online in the middle-school grades in more than a dozen states. Many of those administrations were conducted in the Portland (ME) Public Schools, CBAL's primary development site. Portland is the largest urban district in Maine and represents a diverse mix of students from different socio-economic strata, language groups, and ethnicities. Summative pilots conducted in Portland were typically coordinated with the use of CBAL formative materials covering related domain-relevant competencies and using formats similar to those employed on the summative tests. All other pilots involved the CBAL summative assessments only. In general, summative administrations were untimed but intended to fit within two class periods. Test results were used for low-stakes purposes, including performance feedback to teachers and, occasionally, student grading.

One purpose of the CBAL pilot administrations has been to try out various assessment designs and tasks so that those ideas could be improved. Iterative refinement has, thus, been central to the initiative's work. A second, related purpose has been to gather the data needed to address scientific questions. In keeping with these two purposes, analyses of pilot data have focused on the technical characteristics of prototype CBAL assessments, including basic psychometric functioning, internal structure, external relations, population-group performance and differential item functioning (DIF), diagnostic utility, and the viability of automated scoring.

This paper summarizes empirical results from the CBAL summative assessment pilots, many of which are described only in unpublished internal project reports. Even so, the results may be of more general interest because they come from a research activity that incorporates several of the key features proposed by the Race to the Top Assessment Program consortia (e.g., use of technology-based performance exercises, through-course assessment). Consequently, CBAL results may provide an early indication of whether technically defensible assessments built to incorporate those features can be created. In the following sections, we describe results for reading, writing, and mathematics, respectively.

Results From CBAL Reading

CBAL reading summative prototypes have been constructed in keeping with the CBAL reading competency model (O'Reilly & Sheehan, 2009a). That model has three major branches: required skills, reading strategies, and text conventions. The required-skills branch, in turn, encompasses three lower-level categories: prerequisite reading skills, model-building skills, and applied-comprehension skills.

As of the end of 2010, five summative test forms had been created, enough to illustrate a complete through-course design for a middle-school grade. The early test forms included both a comprehension section and a spoken section. The two sections were intended to emphasize the required-skills portion of the competency model, with the spoken section targeting prerequisite reading skills (word recognition, decoding, oral fluency) and the comprehension section (including the scenario-based task set) targeting model-building skills and applied-comprehension skills. Subsequent CBAL summative test forms have contained only the comprehension section, with the spoken section becoming an optional formative component.

Items that focus on model-building skills are routinely used in K–12 reading accountability tests but applied skills are less often evaluated. Figure 1 gives an example of a CBAL applied-comprehension task that calls upon critical reading skills to evaluate a piece of persuasive writing (e.g., detecting the author's purpose, position on the issue, potential bias, logical flaws in his or her arguments, conflicts in those arguments). Such applied tasks play a key role in CBAL reading assessments, typically as part of a scenario-based set.

Basic Psychometric Functioning

Table 1 summarizes the five reading summative pilots, including response data from over 2,900 online test administrations, mostly to seventh grade students but also to some in the eighth grade. Except for one case noted in the table, all results relate to the comprehension section.

The forms listed in Table 1 fall into two groups: those administered to small samples (n < 250) in a single school district (Portland, ME) and those administered to relatively large samples (n > 1,000) as part of a multistate study. Across all pilot administrations, the forms ran from 23 to 38 comprehension items, with the longer, multistate forms reflecting the addition of a section containing discrete questions and minipassage sets that were not scenario based. Aside from that difference, there is relatively little variability in the functioning of forms across pilot administrations, with the four small-sample/single-district pilots producing results similar to

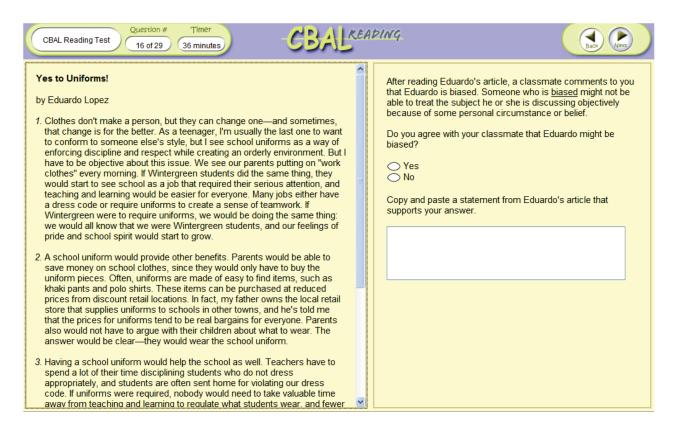


Figure 1. An applied comprehension task, part of a scenario-based task set requiring students to read various presented sources and think critically about the question of whether their school should require students to wear uniforms.

those of the two large-sample/multidistrict administrations. In general, the difficulty of the forms appeared appropriate to the students tested, with the median item difficulties falling in midrange (median of the medians across forms = .51, range of medians = .45 to .58). The forms generally appeared to have reasonable missing-response rates (median of the medians across forms = 0%, range of medians = 0% to 2%) and internal consistency reliabilities (median = .88, range = .83 to .91).

Internal consistency estimates take into account variation in the sample of items contained in a test. Also relevant is variation in examinee performance from one occasion to the next. Such variation, in combination with that for the sampling of items, can be captured in the correlation between parallel forms administered to the same students close together in time.

Table 1
Summary of Results From Reading Summative Assessment Pilot Administrations

Pilot date, report, & scenario-based task set(s)	Grade	N	# of items	Median p+	Median & range of % missing ^a	Coeff. alpha	Internal structure
1. Fall 2007 (Liang & Rijmen, 2008a) A Keen Observer, Teen Girls	7 th & 8 th Portland (ME)	216	23	.57	2% (0–18%)	.86	CFA, EFA: 1 factor (separable literal comprehension, vocabulary, inference and discourse-structure, and applied-comprehension factors not supported)
2. Spring 2008 (Liang & Rijmen, 2008b) School Uniforms	7 th & 8 th Portland (ME)	190	29	.55	1% (0–4%)	.89	CFA: 1 factor (separable model-building, weak applied- and applied-skills factors not supported); r of general factor with spokensection extension = $.50^{\circ}$
3. Fall 2008 (ETS, 2009a; Steinberg, 2009a) Seasons	7 th Portland (ME)	146	33	.47	0% (0–22%)	.83	CFA: 1 factor (separable test-section factors not supported)
4. Spring 2009 (ETS, 2009a) Wind Power	7 th Portland (ME)	59	27	.58	0% (0–3%)	NR	NA
5a. Fall 2009 (Fu, Wise, & Chung, 2011a; Yoo, Fu, Wise, & Chung, 2011)	7 th multi- state	1,229	38	.45	0% (0–2%)	.88	CFA, EFA: 1 factor (not supported were separable scenario-based vs. discrete factors; selected-response vs. constructed-response factors; literary vs. vocabulary factors; or subscore factors).
Seasons ^b							Nonparametric methods: 2 task-clusters detected. ^d

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Pilot date, report, & scenario-based task set(s)	Grade	N	# of items	Median p+	Median & range of % missing ^a	Coeff. alpha	Internal structure
5b. Fall 2009 (Fu, Wise & Chung, 2011a; Yoo, Fu, Wise, & Chung, 2011) Wind Power ^b	7 th multi- state	1,222	38	.46	0% (0–3%)	.91	CFA, EFA: 1 factor (not supported were separable scenario-based vs. discrete factors; selected-response vs. constructed-response factors; informational/persuasive vs. vocabulary factors; or subscore factors).

Note. Results refer to the comprehension section only; except where noted, the spoken (oral reading) section was omitted from the analysis. Scenario-based task sets with the same name across administrations do not imply identical test forms, as revisions often were made. CFA = confirmatory factor analysis, EFA = exploratory factor analysis, NA = not applicable, NR = not reported.

^a CBAL reading statistical reports vary in the terminology used to refer to unanswered items, sometimes leaving unclear exactly what was included in this percentage. In most cases, the percent missing explicitly included omitted and not reached items, but sometimes also included system errors. ^b Excludes the external linking sets that were included in the administration. ^c Coefficient alpha values for the spoken section were reported to be .91 and .92 for the Fall 2007 and Spring 2008 administrations respectively (Sheehan & O'Reilly, 2009). ^d The methods were conditional covariance-based nonparametric approaches (Stout, Habing, Douglas, Kim, Roussos, & Zhang, 1996).

That correlation should provide something nearer to a lower-bound reliability estimate. Both Sheehan and O'Reilly (2009) and Yoo et al. (2011) presented analyses that included the correlation between two nonparallel CBAL reading test forms, which might be expected to underestimate the lower bound. In the case of the former investigation, the two tests were given to students in a single district over a period of several months; for the latter study, the dual administration was conducted in multiple states within one month for the overwhelming majority of students. The correlation between the two forms, one primarily targeting the comprehension of literary text and the other primarily informational/persuasive text, was .76 (in the small sample) across the longer time period (where median coefficient alpha was equal to .88) and .79 (in the multistate sample) across the shorter period (where median coefficient alpha = .90).

Internal Structure

Table 1 also briefly recounts results from confirmatory factor analysis (CFA), exploratory factor analysis (EFA), and conditional covariance-based nonparametric dimensionality approaches (Stout et al., 1996). These results most often supported a single factor among the comprehension items, not only within a test form but also across two forms putatively measuring different skills given to the same students close together in time (Yoo et al., 2011). This latter finding suggests a convenient basis for aggregating scores across forms (subject to replication with forms spaced over longer time periods). Also of note with respect to the dimensionality results is that, in the one (small-sample) case in which the spoken section was included, the general factor extracted from the comprehension section was only moderately correlated with scores on the spoken section, suggesting that those two sections, at least, were measuring separable skills.

Although dimensionality results suggest that the comprehension test forms might measure a single dimension, Sheehan and O'Reilly (2009) presented results that lend partial support to the distinction between model-building and applied-comprehension skills depicted in the CBAL reading competency model. The distinction supported is not of qualitatively different skills but, rather, of differences in difficulty between items written to target the two hypothesized skill types. To the extent that these skills are learned together or caused by a third skill, they will not be separable in well-conducted factor analyses (which purposely control for difficulty differences). Such difficulty differences may still have import if they result in regions of the

score scale taking on theoretically different meanings because each region is predictably associated with a coherent set of items targeting the same skill.

For CBAL reading assessment-design purposes, model-building skills were defined as "the ability to develop an accurate mental representation of the information presented in a *single* text," and applied comprehension skill as "the ability to use such representations, when necessary, to solve applied problems such as reconciling information from different texts" (Sheehan & O'Reilly, 2009, p. 28). Items written to measure applied-comprehension skills were, therefore, hypothesized to be more difficult than those written to target model-building skills. For the Fall 2007 test form, seven items were classified as model building and 23 as applied comprehension; for the Spring 2008 form, the numbers were 16 and 13, respectively. For both forms, the differences in mean percentage correct for each item category were calculated separately in the grade 7 and grade 8 student samples. For each test form in each grade, the model-building items were easier on average than the applied-comprehension items, with the average differences ranging from 18 to 28 percentage points.

Sheehan and O'Reilly (2009) also evaluated the meaningfulness of the model-building/applied-comprehension distinction through an examination of individual response patterns. In this analysis, they classified each examinee as low or high on each of the two skills based on a median split. Of particular interest were the proportions of students who were high on model building but low on applied comprehension (a predicted ordering) versus the opposing, theoretically inconsistent pattern. (Including students who are either low on both skills or high on both skills does not constitute a strong test of the model.) The predicted pattern was shown by 36% of students on one test form and by 41% of students on the other form, versus 0% for the inconsistent pattern. All other cases were either low or high on both skills.

Finally, Foo et al. (2011a) examined this skill distinction using the two test forms administered as part of the multistate study. In their analysis, model-building items were divided into two levels differentiated by the extent of activation between the text and comprehension question, with higher-activation items posited to be easier than lower-activation items. On one test form targeting the comprehension of literary text interpretation, 9 items were classified as model-building/high-activation, 14 as model-building/low-activation, and 9 as applied-comprehension, whereas for the other form focusing on information/persuasive text, the classifications were 8, 10, and 14 items, respectively. On the informational/persuasive form, the

average item difficulties followed the predicted ordering (i.e., model-building/high-activation being easier than model-building/low-activation being easier than applied-comprehension). On the literary text form, the two model-building types functioned as predicted relative to one another, but the applied-comprehension items proved to be easier, on average, than the model-building/low-activation items, a reversal that might signal the need to revisit the underlying theory as it relates to literary text, its instantiation in CBAL literary reading items, or both.

External Relations

In addition to analyses of internal structure, several analyses have been conducted of the external relations of CBAL reading test scores to performance on other measures. A very gross analysis comes from the Fall 2008 pilot administration (ETS, 2009a). In this administration, scores from the Maine Educational Assessment (MEA) and from the Northwest Evaluation Association's Measures of Academic Progress (MAP) were collected, along with CBAL reading comprehension scores. In this student sample ($n\sim140$), CBAL reading scores were correlated more highly with MEA reading and with MAP reading scores (median r=.73) than with MEA and MAP math scores (median r=.61).

Generally similar results were obtained with the data from the multistate study, in which each of two CBAL reading forms were correlated with state tests in reading, English language arts (ELA), and math (Yoo et al., 2011). For one CBAL form, the median correlation was .71 with four different state reading tests, .65 with five state ELA tests, and .59 with six state math tests. For the other form, the median correlations (with the same numbers of tests) were .75 for reading, .62 for ELA, and .66 for math.

A more refined external analysis comes from the Fall 2007 and Spring 2008 administrations listed in Table 1. Using combined seventh and eighth grade samples, Sheehan and O'Reilly (2009, in press) and O'Reilly & Sheehan (2009b) examined the relations of the CBAL comprehension and spoken sections to an external measure of comprehension, the Gates-MacGinitie Reading Tests (4th Edition, Form S) (MacGinitie, MacGinitie, Maria, & Dreyer, 2000), and to a test of oral reading, the TOWRE (Torgesen, Wagner, & Rashotte, 1999). These investigators report that the correlational pattern among the measures was as predicted: The total CBAL comprehension score correlated significantly higher statistically with the Gates comprehension section (r = .79 for Fall) than with the TOWRE spoken measure (r = .46 for Fall and r = .58 for Spring). (TOWRE was given at both times but the Gates was only given in the

Fall.) Similarly, the CBAL spoken measure correlated significantly higher statistically with TOWRE scores (r = .78 for Fall and r = .76 for Spring) than with the Gates comprehension scores (r = .63).

Finally, O'Reilly and Sheehan evaluated the relationship of CBAL performance to school grade. They reported that eighth graders taking the CBAL assessments scored higher than seventh-grade students on both the comprehension and spoken measures, roughly by a half standard deviation.

Population-Group Performance and Differential Item Functioning (DIF)

The performance of population groups on CBAL reading forms was investigated by Fu et al. (2011a) using data from the multistate study, the only pilot administration with sample sizes sufficient for meaningful analysis. For each of two forms, score means were compared within groups categorized by gender, race/ethnicity, socio-economic status (SES), and English language learner (ELL) status.³ Table 2 gives the results for all groups except race/ethnicity, which are displayed in Table 3. As should be clear, the tables unfortunately show the same general pattern of statistically significant group differences for SES, ELL status, and race/ethnicity commonly found on such nationally representative reading assessments as the National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP; NCES, 2007, p. 29, 31, 67). No other differences were statistically significant.

The evaluation of population-group differences can be inappropriately influenced by individual items that do not measure the same construct across groups, thereby contributing to inaccurate depictions of one or another group's performance. DIF methodology offers a tool for screening such items. Fu et al. (2011a) examined DIF for the two Fall 2009 forms in Table 2 through application of the Mantel-Haenszel procedure (Holland & Thayer, 1988). They investigated DIF for gender (male vs. female), race/ethnicity (White vs. Black; White vs. combination of Native American, Asian American/Pacific Islander, and Hispanic), and socioeconomic status (low vs. not low). Results were classified into three commonly used categories, A through C, with C indicating a level of DIF requiring expert review for possible bias. Only 1 of the 76 items examined was found to exhibit C-category DIF. This selected-response item, which was differentially difficult for female examinees, asked a mechanical comprehension question related to a passage describing the workings of a windmill.

Table 2

Performance Within Each of Three Population Groups for Two CBAL Reading Test Forms

Administered as Part of the Multistate Study

Subgroup	Cotocomy	λ7	Raw score									
	Category	N	Mean	SD	t	p						
Fall 2009 Seasons test form												
Condor	Male	542	22.5	9.8	-1.63	.10						
Gender	Female	580	23.4	9.5	-1.03	.10						
Low CEC status	No	344	25.5	10.5	7.20	00						
Low SES status	Yes	468	20.5	8.7	7.20	.00						
ELI states	No	857	23.9	9.6	3.93	00						
ELL status	Yes	35	17.5	8.5	3.93	.00						
	F	all 2009 W	ind Power test	form								
Gender	Male	544	21.6	10.8	0.22	92						
Gender	Female	553	21.5	10.2	0.22	.83						
Low SES status	No	335	24.9	10.9	8.98	00						
Low SES status	Yes	459	18.3	9.4	8.98	.00						
ELL status	No	845	22.7	10.4	5 16	00						
ELL status	Yes	35	15.2	7.9	5.46	.00						

Note. Student classifications were provided by school staff. ELL = English language learner, SES = socio-economic status. Data from *Statistical Report of Fall 2009 CBAL Reading Tests*, unpublished manuscript by J. Fu, M. D. Wise, & S. Chung, 2011, Princeton, NJ: Educational Testing Service. Copyright 2011 by Educational Testing Service.

Diagnostic Utility

Sheehan and O'Reilly (2009, in press) explored the potential diagnostic value of the CBAL summative measures, evaluating the use of differences in comprehension versus spoken performance, and of learning progressions. In the first case, these investigators examined the joint use of the spoken measure with the literal-comprehension items (i.e., the least cognitively demanding questions) from the comprehension section. These measures identified two groups of students, each of which might require different instructional treatment.

Table 3

Performance by Race/Ethnicity for Two CBAL Reading Test Forms Administered as Part of the Multistate Study

Race/ethnicity	N		Raw	score			Aultiple nparise	
		Mean	SD	F	p	A	AA	W
	Fall 2	2009 Se	asons to	est form	l			
Asian American/Pacific Islander (A)	37	31.2	10.3					
African American (AA)	291	19.2	7.4	38.3	0.00	*		
White (W)	563	25.2	9.7			*	*	
Hispanic (H)	37	21.5	8.4			*	NS	NS
	Fall 20	09 Wind	l Powe	r test for	rm			
Asian American/Pacific Islander (A)	34	29.6	12.0					
African American (AA)	273	16.6	8.1	50.1	0.00	*		
White (W)	565	24.6	10.1			NS	*	
Hispanic (H)	37	21.0	8.9			*	*	NS

Note. Student classifications were provided by school staff. NS = no statistically significant difference. Data are from *Statistical Report of Fall 2009 CBAL Reading Tests*, unpublished manuscript by J. Fu, M. D. Wise, & S. Chung, 2011, Princeton, NJ: Educational Testing Service. Copyright 2011 by Educational Testing Service.

Figure 2 shows the probability of responding correctly to a literal-comprehension item conditional on the CBAL spoken-section performance. The horizontal line separates students with scores of 0.68 or greater on the available literal-comprehension items, the expected performance level for a median-proficiency examinee from the Fall 2007 administration. The vertical line separates students with low or high scores on the spoken section, defined in terms of the level expected for a median-proficiency examinee measured in words correct per minute (wcpm). Two potential groups of interest emerged: (1) those who were fast readers yet had difficulty comprehending what they read ("word callers") and (2) those who, despite low basic skill, still managed to get the literal meaning of the text ("gap fillers"). The former group might

^a Dunnett's C test.

^{*} p < 0.05

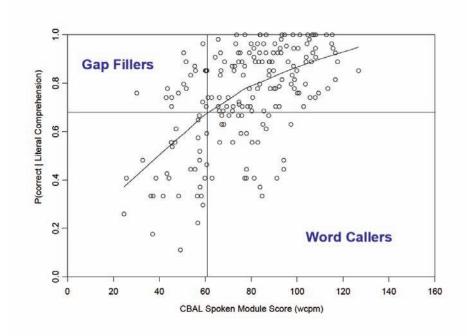


Figure 2. The probability of responding correctly to a literal-comprehension item conditional on CBAL spoken-section performance. From "The Case for Scenario-Based Assessments of Reading Competency," by K. M. Sheehan and T. O'Reilly, Assessing Reading in the 21st Century, edited by J. Sabatini and L. Albro, in press, Lanham, MD: Rowman & Littlefield Education. Copyright 2011 by Rowman & Littlefield Education. Reprinted with permission.

Note. wcpm = words correct per minute.

benefit more from comprehension instruction whereas the latter group could conceivably profit more from prerequisite-skills practice. Beyond this initial result, the extent to which students retain their group classification across parallel forms of the spoken and comprehension measures would need to be investigated, as would the hypothesis of benefit from differentiated instruction.

A second mechanism with potential diagnostic value is the learning progression.

Learning progressions posit an ordering of levels for a skill intended to help teachers differentiate instruction for students thought to be at a particular level. Because a summative assessment's content coverage is typically intended to be broad, that assessment is unlikely to probe any given learning progression in enough depth to produce reliable student classifications.

CBAL summative assessments have consequently included only a few items linked to such progressions. Along with evaluating overall performance, the intention is that the summative assessment provide one or more formative hypotheses about student standing in a learning progression, which teachers should confirm or refute through follow-up classroom assessment (Bennett, 2011).

Figure 3 depicts two progressions, Understand Text Structure and Understand Plot Structure, which were built into the assessment designs for the Fall 2007 and Spring 2008 pilot administrations. Figure 4 shows two items intended to measure the first two levels in the Understand Plot Structure progression. For students classified into the first level of that progression by both the test and follow-up classroom assessment, the teacher might focus instruction on the basic idea of plot. For students found to be in the second level, the teacher might give instruction in distinguishing such essential plot elements as climax and resolution.

Sheehan and O'Reilly (2009) examined the extent to which students' observed itemresponse patterns were in keeping with the prerequisite relationships specified in the two
hypothesized learning progressions described above. They found that considerably more students
produced response patterns that could be viewed as consistent with the two assessed levels of the
progression than produced inconsistent patterns. For the Understand Text Structure progression,
30% of students produced the hypothesized right-wrong pattern and only 6% gave a wrong-right
pattern. For the Understand Plot Structure progression, the comparable values were 23% and 4%.
(The remaining students in both instances either got both items right or both items wrong, which
contributes no information theoretically to the evaluation of the progressions.) Since only two
items were used to measure each progression, and because the student samples were small, these
results require replication with more progressions, items, and examinees.

Automated Scoring

As mentioned, the CBAL comprehension section includes both selected-response and constructed-response questions. Most of the latter are machine scored using c-raterTM (Sukkarieh & Bolge, 2010). Results from the scoring of one set of seven reading comprehension items that entailed short text responses were reported by Sukkarieh and Blackmore (2009). Responses provided by seventh and eighth graders were scored independently by two human judges and by

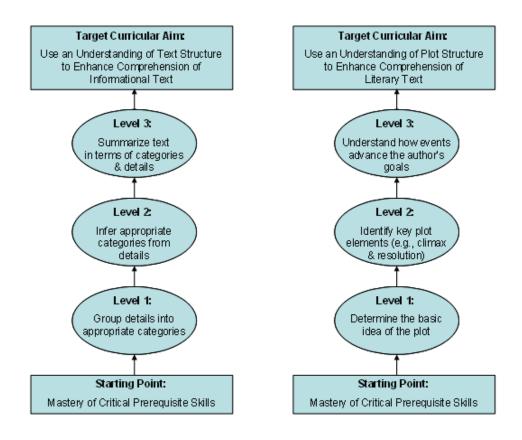


Figure 3. Two hypothesized learning progressions. From "The Case for Scenario-Based Assessments of Reading Competency," by K. M. Sheehan and T. O'Reilly, Assessing Reading in the 21st Century, edited by J. Sabatini and L. Albro, in press, Lanham, MD: Rowman & Littlefield Education. Copyright 2011 by Rowman & Littlefield Education. Reprinted with permission.

c-rater. A blind data set consisting of from 61 to 114 answers, depending upon the item, was used to evaluate the accuracy of the c-rater scoring. Accuracy was assessed by comparing the unweighted kappa statistic between the two human judges to that between c-rater and the average of the judges. For six of the seven items, the two human judges agreed more closely with one another than c-rater agreed with the two judges. Over all seven items, the median difference in kappa values was .07 points higher for the human judges (range of differences = - .02 to .32, with negative differences favoring c-rater–judge agreement).

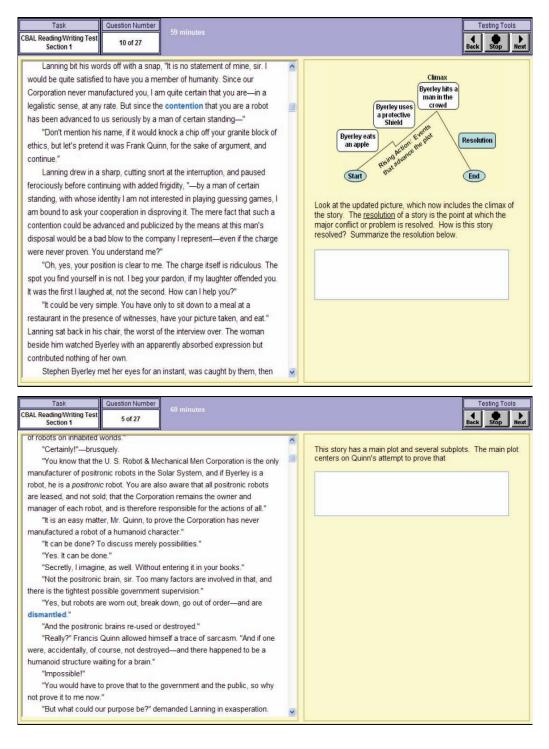


Figure 4. Two items designed to provide evidence relative to the first two levels in the "Understand Plot Structure" progression. From *The CBAL Reading Assessment: An Approach for Balancing Measurement and Learning Goals* by K. Sheehan and T. O'Reilly, 2009, paper presented at the National Conference on Student Assessment, Los Angeles, CA. Copyright 2009 by Educational Testing Service. Reprinted with permission.

In a second study, Sukkarieh (2010) evaluated several variations in c-rater's scoring methodology vis-à-vis human raters. This study employed eight reading comprehension items (three of which overlapped with the study above) and a blind set of between 51 and 114 student responses. For the best of three automated variations, results showed c-rater's agreement with the average of two human scores to be lower than the agreement between human raters in six of the eight cases. Over all eight items, the median difference in kappa values was .04 points higher for the human judges as compared with the c-rater-judge agreement (range of differences = - .06 to .24).

Considering the results from both studies, the relatively small size of the median differences suggests considerable promise for c-rater scoring for the types of constructed-response reading questions studied. At the same time, the wide ranges in scoring discrepancy attest to the fact that c-rater is not currently suitable for scoring a significant segment of items.

Summary

The five CBAL summative reading pilots have produced several notable results. With respect to basic psychometric functioning, test forms have consistently shown reasonable internal consistency reliabilities, appropriate difficulty levels, low missing-response rates, and reasonable cross-form correlations. Although dimensionality analyses most often suggest a single factor, items built to measure two key aspects of the reading competency model appeared to differentiate themselves in expected ways based on difficulty and on examinee response patterns. In terms of external relations, the CBAL reading forms appeared to be more highly correlated with several other measures of reading than with measures of math. In addition, the CBAL comprehension section was correlated more highly with another measure of comprehension than it was with a measure of oral reading; similarly, the CBAL spoken section had the expected, opposite pattern. Investigations of population-group performance showed differences very similar to those found on national reading assessments. Those differences appeared to be unrelated to DIF, which was largely absent from the reading forms studied.

Analyses of diagnostic utility suggested the potential for using CBAL summative tests to provide initial formative information for classroom follow-up. Along these lines, evidence suggested that the comprehension and spoken sections might be able to jointly identify student groups with distinct skill patterns and that items written to learning progressions might be used to place students tentatively into instructional levels. Finally, research on the machine scoring of

student answers to constructed-response questions showed that, although human judges generally agreed more highly with themselves than with an automated system, the automated system's scores were, on average, not dramatically different from judges' ratings.

Results From CBAL Writing

CBAL writing summative prototypes have been developed to align with the CBAL writing competency model. In 2011, that model was subsumed by an English language arts competency model, which crosses three modes of thought with five modes of cognitive representation (Deane, 2011). The modes of thought are interpretation, deliberation, and expression (which are closely related to reading, critical thinking, and writing, respectively). The modes of representation are social, conceptual, discourse, verbal, and print. Through 2010, 14 test forms had been developed in association with earlier versions of this model. Figure 5 gives an example of a culminating question from a scenario-based task set that requires students to read multiple given sources and compose a persuasive essay arguing their chosen position on whether advertizing targeted at children should be banned.

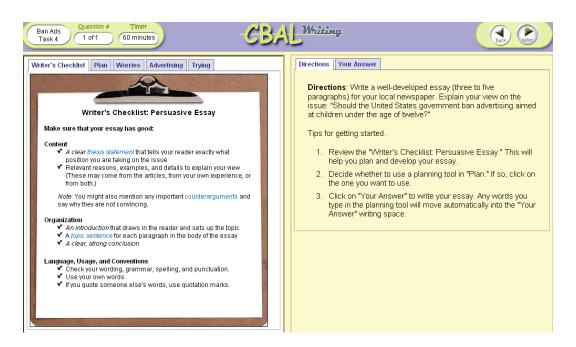


Figure 5. The culminating question from a scenario-based task set about prohibiting advertising targeted at children.

Basic Psychometric Functioning

Table 4 summarizes five writing summative pilots conducted between 2007 and 2009.⁶ These pilots included data from over 4,800 online administrations carried out with eighth grade students. In contrast to the CBAL reading summative assessments, the writing test design entailed only a single scenario-based task set with no section of discrete questions.

As for reading, the forms administered fall into two groups: five given to small samples in Portland and four given to relatively large samples as part of a multistate study. Unlike reading, however, there was considerably more variability across forms, possibly a result of more substantial changes in form design over time. In terms of composition, the forms extended from 10 to 32 questions. Item difficulty varied from a median p+ of .35 to .62 (median of the medians across forms = .57). Median missing-response rates went from 0% to 7% (median of the medians across forms = 1%), though for some forms the range of missing responses was quite wide, suggestive of potential difficulty, speededness, or motivational problems. Internal consistency reliability ran from .76 to .94 (median = .82), but the upper value in the range probably should be considered in conjunction with the very small sample size of that administration.⁷

Also relevant to the reliability of CBAL forms are results from Fu et al. (2011c) who reported the correlations among all pairs of four (nonparallel) test forms given to the same students over a short period. (The four forms were targeted at argumentation and summarization, informational writing, literary analysis, and persuasive appeal, respectively.) The correlations between the six pairs ran from .66 to .76, with the median at .73 (as compared to the internal consistency median of .77 for the same four forms). Because of content differences among the forms, this result may underestimate the lower bound for their reliability.

Internal Structure

Table 4 also briefly recounts dimensionality analysis results within a test form. In the small-sample pilots, a single dimension was supported for each of the test forms administered. Results from the large-sample pilots also recovered a single dimension (although two-dimensional structures emerged when less conventionally used, conditional covariance-based nonparametric methods were applied). Further, Fu et al. (2011b) found exploratory and confirmatory factory analytic results for each of the six multistate form pairs to suggest that a single cross-pair dimension might be tenable, even though each form was constructed to target a different writing

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Table 4
Summary of Results From Writing Summative Assessment Pilot Administrations

Pilot date, report, & scenario-based task set(s)	Grade	N	# of items	Median p+	Median & range of % missing ^a	Coeff. alpha	Internal structure
1a. Fall 2007 (Rijmen, 2008a) Ban Ads	8 th Portland (ME)	45	10	NR	NR	.86	NA. Correlations among 3 subscores and with total score suggest 1 factor.
1b. Fall 2007 (Rijmen, 2008a) Service Learning	8 th Portland (ME)	46	12	NR	NR	.94	NA. Correlations among 3 subscores and with total score suggest 1 factor.
2. Spring 2008 (Rijmen, 2008b) Teen Agers and Sleep	8 th Portland (ME)	133	11	NR	NR	.82	NA. Correlations among 3 subscores and with total score suggest 1 factor.
3. Fall, 2008 (ETS, 2009b; Steinberg, 2009b) Name NR	8 th Portland (ME)	268	12	.51	7% (0-17%)	.85	CFA: 1 factor (not supported were separable subscore factors)
4. Spring, 2009 (ETS, 2009b) Ban Ads	8 th Portland (ME)	130	24	.57	1% (0-5%)	.86	CFA, EFA: 1 factor (not supported were separable subscore factors or skill factors)
5a. Fall 2009 Writing (Fu, Wise, & Chung, 2011b, 2011c) Service Learning	8 th multistate	1,195	25	.35	1% (0-5%)	.78	CFA, EFA: 1 factor (not supported were separable selected-response vs. constructed-response factors; task factors; subscore factors; or a general factor with task-specific factors).
							Nonparametric methods: 2 item-type dimensions detected. ^b

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	Pilot date, report, & scenario-based task set(s)	Grade	N	# of items	Median p+	Median & range of % missing ^a	Coeff. alpha	Internal structure
	5b. Fall 2009 Writing (Fu et al., 2011b, 2011c) Invasive Species	8 th multistate	1,219	32	.57	1% (0-18%)	.76	CFA, EFA: 1 factor (not supported were separable selected-response vs. constructed-response factors; task factors; subscore factors; or a general factor with task-specific factors).
								Nonparametric methods: 2 item-type dimensions detected. ^b
	5c. Fall 2009 Writing (Fu et al., 2011b, 2011c) Ban Ads	8 th multistate	1,161	26	.62	0% (0-5%)	.76	CFA, EFA: 1 factor (not supported were separable selected-response vs. constructed-response factors; task factors; subscore factors; or a general factor with task-specific factors).
								Nonparametric methods: 2 item-type dimensions detected. ^b
21	5d. Fall 2009 Writing (Fu et al., 2011b, 2011c) Mango Street	8 th multistate	1,213	14	.56	0% (0-4%)	.81	CFA, EFA: 1 factor (not supported were separable selected-response vs. constructed-response factors; task factors; subscore factors; or a general factor with task-specific factors).
								Nonparametric methods: 2 item-type dimensions detected. ^b

Note. Scenario-based task sets with the same name across administrations do not imply identical test forms, as revisions often were made. CFA = confirmatory factor analysis, EFA = exploratory factor analysis, NA = not applicable, NR = not reported.

^a Percentage missing includes omitted, not-reached, and system errors. ^b The methods were conditional covariance-based nonparametric approaches (Stout et al., 1996).

genre and constellation of competencies. As for the CBAL reading assessments, however, replication of this finding with forms whose administration is distributed over longer periods is needed.

External Relations

Aside from the internal analyses, the relations of CBAL writing scores to scores on the MEA and MAP reading and math tests have been explored. Across two pilot administrations (Fall 2008, Spring 2009), CBAL writing scores seemed, as expected, to be correlated more highly in our samples with MEA reading scores (median r = .59) than with MEA math scores (median r = .46; ETS, 2009b). A similar, though less distinct, differentiation appeared to hold with MAP, for which the median reading correlation was .53 versus .47 for math.

Population-Group Performance and Differential Item Functioning (DIF)

Using data from the large-sample multistate study, Fu et al. (2011c) investigated the performance of population groups on CBAL writing forms. For each of four forms, score means were compared within groups categorized by gender, race/ethnicity, and SES. Table 5 shows the results for all groups except race/ethnicity, which are displayed in Table 6. Across all four forms, female examinees achieved scores that were statistically significantly higher than male examinees. Similarly, students from high SES groups achieved scores that were greater than the scores of students from low SES groups. These (undesirable) patterns are consistent with results commonly found on such writing assessments as NAEP (NCES, 2008, p. 12). Differences among the racial/ethnic groups listed in Table 6 varied somewhat across the four forms, likely due to the small sample sizes for minority students. However, the differences that were statistically significant, unfortunately, also echo performance patterns found more generally on NAEP (NCES, 2008, pp. 11, 18).

Following up on the examination of population-group differences, Fu et al. (2011c) employed the Mantel-Haenszel procedure (Holland & Thayer, 1988) to identify instances of DIF in each of the four writing forms. Groups categorized by gender (male vs. female), race/ethnicity (White vs. Black; White vs. the combination of Native American, Asian American/Pacific Islander, and Hispanic), and socio-economic status (low vs. not-low) were investigated for DIF. Of the 94 items examined, only one was found to exhibit C-level DIF against the focal group.

Table 5

Performance Within Each of Two Population Groups for Four CBAL Writing Test Forms

Administered as Part of the Multistate Study

Subgroup	Cotocomy	λī	Raw score									
	Category	N	Mean	Mean SD		p						
	Fall	2009 Serv	ice Learning to	est form								
Gender	Male	441	21.9	11.1	6 99	0.00						
Gender	Female	441	27.0	10.7	SD T p form 11.1 -6.88 0.00 10.7 -6.88 0.00 11.5 5.56 0.00 form 13.6 -5.83 0.00 15.0 6.28 0.00 12.3 6.28 0.00 m 10.1 -7.05 0.00 11.5 11.0 4.90 0.00	0.00						
Low SES status	No	338	25.9	11.5	5 56	0.00						
LOW SES status	Yes	271	20.9	10.4	3.30	0.00						
	Fall 2009 Invasive Species test form											
Condor	Male	380	31.5	13.6	5 92	0.00						
Gender	Female	399	37.3	14.2	-3.63	0.00						
Low SES status	No	273	36.5	15.0	6.28	0.00						
LOW SES status	Yes	266	29.1	12.3	0.28	0.00						
		Fall 2009	Ban Ads test for	orm								
Condor	Male	436	26.2	10.1	7.05	0.00						
Gender	Female	435	31.3	11.5	-7.03	0.00						
Low CEC status	No	271	29.4	11.0	4.00	0.00						
LOW SES status	Yes	292	25.1	10.1	4.90	0.00						
	Fa	ll 2009 Ma	ango Street tes	t form								
Condor	Male	446	17.4	7.5	0.50	0.00						
Gender	Female	412	22.3	7.6	-9.30	0.00						
Low CEC status	No	287	21.4	8.2	6.10	0.00						
Gender Low SES status Gender Low SES status	Yes	297	17.5	7.0	0.19	0.00						

Note. Student classifications were provided by school staff. SES = socio-economic status. Data are from *Statistical Report of Fall 2009 CBAL Writing Tests*, unpublished manuscript by J. Fu, M. D. Wise, & S. Chung, 2011, Princeton, NJ: Educational Testing Service. Copyright 2011 by Educational Testing Service.

Table 6

Performance by Race/Ethnicity for Four CBAL Writing Test Forms Administered as Part of the Multistate Study

Race/ethnicity	N		Raw	score			Multip mparis	
		Mean	SD	F	p	A	AA	W
Fal	1 2009	Service	Learnir	ng test fo	orm			
Asian American/Pacific Islander (A)	29	32.3	12.0					
African American (AA)	141	18.0	10.0	34.0	0.00	*		
White (W)	478	27.0	10.2			NS	*	
Hispanic (H)	88	22.7	10.7			*	*	*
Fal	1 2009	Invasive	Specie	es test fo	orm			
Asian American /Pacific Islander (A)	23	51.2	12.9					
African American (AA)	127	26.5	11.5	26.1	0.00	*		
White (W)	399	35.0	14.2			*	*	
Hispanic (H)	75	31.9	13.9			*	NS	NS
	Fall 20	009 Ban	Ads te	st form				
Asian American /Pacific Islander (A)	28	42.0	9.2					
African American (AA)	163	22.4	9.7	41.8	0.00	*		
White (W)	406	30.4	10.5			*	*	
Hispanic (H)	78	26.6	9.2			*	*	*
F	all 2009	9 Mango	Street	test for	m			
Asian American /Pacific Islander (A)	26	27.0	7.4					
African American (AA)	166	15.6	7.2	29.1	0.00	*		
White (W)	422	21.2	7.9			*	*	
Hispanic (H)	82	18.8	7.2			*	*	NS

Note. Student classifications were provided by school staff. NS = no statistically significant difference. Data from *Statistical Report of Fall 2009 CBAL Writing Tests*, unpublished manuscript by J. Fu, M. D. Wise, & S. Chung, 2011, Princeton, NJ: Educational Testing Service. Copyright 2011 by Educational Testing Service.

^a Tukey HSD test.

^{*} *p* < 0.05

The polytomous item in question was differentially difficult for Black examinees. A second polytomous item was differentially easy for female examinees.

Automated Scoring

The scenario-based task set that composes each CBAL writing form requires, in addition to the completion of short exercises, the production of a significant document such as an essay, letter, or pamphlet. Deane (2010) explored the suitability of automated scoring methods using the multistate data set. Across the four test forms, he reported a median correlation of .79 between the automated score and a pair of human scores on the document, as compared to a median correlation of .82 between two pairs of human judges. In addition, Deane found a median correlation of .73 between the automated document score and the total test score for the form (of which the *human*-scored document was a part). Finally, Deane found a median correlation of .53 between the automated document score and the total score for the other test form taken (close in time) by the same students. No comparable data for human ratings were reported.

Summary

As of 2010, results from five CBAL summative writing pilots had been reported, accounting for over 5,400 online administrations. With respect to basic psychometric functioning, the test forms piloted have been more variable in terms of internal consistency reliability, difficulty, and missing-response rates than the CBAL reading forms, perhaps reflecting more substantial experimentation in writing test design over time. The use of a test design consisting of a single scenario per form produced internal consistencies in the high .70s, with cross-form correlations close to that level. Also, analyses of internal structure generally recovered a single factor, both within forms and across pairs of forms (though with nonparametric methods, two-dimensional structures emerged). With respect to external relations, writing scores appeared to be more highly correlated with reading scores than with math scores on other standardized assessments. An examination of population-group performance showed patterns similar to those found on NAEP. Finally, automated scores were highly correlated with human scores, and reasonably correlated with both the same form's total test score and with total scores on another CBAL writing form taken by the same students.

Results From CBAL Math

Math summative prototypes were built to measure aspects of the CBAL math competency model (Graf, 2009). The latest iteration of that model is composed of three major branches: use cross-cutting processes (e.g., modeling, representation, argumentation), understand and use content-specific procedures and language (e.g., numbers and operations, geometry, algebra, measurement, data analysis, and probability), and use basic dimensions of mathematical competency (e.g., conceptual knowledge, fluency). In contrast to the CBAL reading and writing summative assessments, the math summative test design has typically involved an extended scenario-based task set accompanied by a shorter task set or sets. As of the end of 2010, eight summative test forms had been created, enough to illustrate a complete through-course design for the seventh and eighth grades. Figure 6 gives an example from one of those forms, showing the introduction to a scenario-based task set that targets the use of data and statistics to support a justification.

Basic Psychometric Functioning

Table 7 summarizes six math summative pilots from 2007 to 2010. These pilots included response data from over 1,300 online administrations, all carried out with seventh and eighth grade students in Portland.

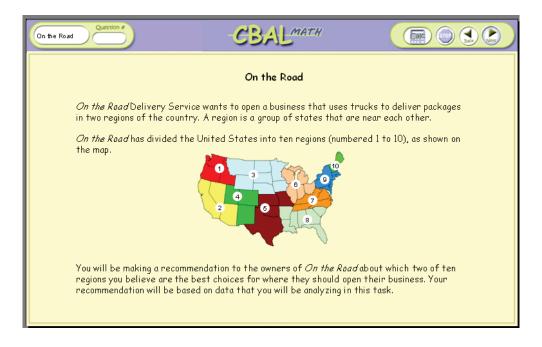


Figure 6. The introduction to a scenario-based task set from a math summative assessment.

Table 7
Summary of Results From Math Summative Assessment Pilot Administrations

Pilot date, report, & scenario-based task set(s) and short task sets	Grade	N	# of items	Median p+	Median and range of % missing ^a	Coeff.	Internal structure
1a. Fall 2007 (Liang & Rijmen, 2008c) Wins and Losses, Fruit Drink, Zither, Paste, Mix it Up	7 th	161	15	.20	4% (1-19%)	.80	CFA, EFA: 1 factor (separable skills factors not supported)
1b. Fall 2007 (Liang & Rijmen, 2008c) Magnifying Glass, Stage, Resizing photos	8 th	129	14	.41	3% (0-10%)	.84	CFA, EFA: 1 factor (separable skills factors not supported)
2a. Spring 2008 (Liang & Rijmen, 2008d)	7^{th}	193	32	.46	3% (0-23%)	.91	CFA: 1 factor (separable skills factors not supported)
Crane, Geometric Floor Plan, Watering the Garden							EFA: 3-factor and 5-factor task-specific solutions
2b. Spring 2008 (Liang & Rijmen, 2008d) Buy Music, Dams and Drought, Heart Rate	8 th	52	21	.44	12% (0-52%)	.89	NA
3a. Fall 2008 (ETS, 2009c; Steinberg, 2009c) Paper Crane, Watering the Garden, and Geometric Floor Design	$7^{ ext{th}}$	162	39	.49	3% (0-31%)	.90	CFA: 1 factor (separable skills factors not supported)
3b. Fall 2008 (ETS, 2009d; Steinberg, 2009d) Statistics Discrete, Bigfoot, and Forest Carbon	8 th	131	86	.41	16% (0-36%)	.95	CFA and EFA: Analysis run only within each test section; No consistent structure supported

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Pilot date, report, & scenario-based

task set(s) and short task sets	Grade	1 ₹	items	p+	of % missing ^a	alpha	internal structure
4a. Spring 2009 (ETS, 2009c) Trade Places, Greeting Cards, and All Wet	7 th	44	42	.57	5% (0-36%)	.95	NA
4b. Spring 2009 (ETS, 2009d) Carnival, Scoot Along, Heights and Growth	8 th	102	48	.54	4% (0-24%)	.93	CFA and EFA: 1 factor
5a. Fall 2009 (ETS, 2010b)	7 th	162	32	.37	6% (0-25%)	.91	CFA: bi-factor with task-specific factors
Cartooning, Zither, Paste, and Mix it Up							EFA: 1 factor (separable skills factors not supported)
5b. Fall 2009 (ETS, 2010c) Carbon Footprint, CO ₂ and Transportation, and Bigfoot	8 th	78	61	.35	11% (0-35%)	.93	NA
6a. Spring 2010 (ETS, 2010d) Greeting Cards, Moving Sidewalks, and All Wet	7^{th}	66	46	.56	7% (0-20%)	.92	NA
6b. Spring 2010 (ETS, 2010e) Moving Sidewalks, Scoot Along and Heights & Growth	8 th	67	49	.48	19% (0-41%)	.93	NA

Median

Median and range

Coeff.

Internal structure

N

Grade

of

Note. All administrations were conducted in Portland Public Schools (ME). Task sets with the same name across administrations do not imply identical test forms, as revisions often were made. CFA = confirmatory factor analysis, EFA = exploratory factor analysis, NA = not applicable. ^a CBAL math statistical reports use different terminology to refer to unanswered items, sometimes leaving unclear exactly what was included in this percentage. In most cases, the percent missing explicitly included omitted and not reached items, but sometimes also included system errors.

As Table 7 suggests, considerable variation occurred across the math pilots. The test forms administered ranged from 14 to 86 items. The median item difficulties ran from .20 to .57 (median of the 12 medians = .45), suggesting that many of the forms may have been very demanding for the students tested. Median missing-response rates ranged from 3% to 19% (median of the medians across forms = 6%), and the ranges within forms were even broader, suggestive of potential difficulty, speededness, or motivation problems. Internal consistency reliabilities had a median of .92 and ranged from .80 to .95.

Internal Structure

Due to small sample sizes, CFA and EFA analyses were carried out for only about half of the administrations. In most of these instances, a one-dimensional structure was supported. However, even here sample sizes were small enough to make the results suggestive only.

External Relations

To examine external relations, CBAL math scores were correlated with performance on the MEA and MAP reading and math tests. Across two pilot administrations for which MEA data were available, CBAL seventh grade math scores were, as expected, correlated more highly in study samples with MEA math scores (median r = .79) than with MEA reading scores (median r = .70) (ETS, 2009c). For the four seventh grade administrations having available MAP data, a similar differentiation was observed, with a median correlation of .77 for math vs. .69 for reading (ETS, 2009c, 2010b, 2010d).

For the eighth grade, the median of three correlations between CBAL math and MEA math was .73, compared with .67 for CBAL math and MEA reading (ETS, 2009d, 2010c). With respect to MAP, the median of four correlations between MAP math and CBAL math was .68. With MAP reading, the CBAL math median correlation was .62 (ETS, 2009d, 2010c, 2010e).

Of note in all of the above comparisons is the relatively small difference between the math and reading correlations, possibly reflective of the demand on reading skill (and/or critical thinking) that CBAL scenario-based math tests may make.¹¹

Automated Scoring

CBAL math tasks include both selected-response and constructed-response questions. Some of the latter, which require students to enter a short text response, have been machine scored using c-rater (Sukkarieh & Bolge, 2010). ¹² Results from the scoring of one set of five such items were reported by Sukkarieh and Blackmore (2009). Responses provided by seventh and eighth graders were scored independently by two human judges and by c-rater. A blind data set consisting of 67 answers per item was used to evaluate the quality of the automated scoring by comparing the unweighted kappa statistic between the two human judges to that for c-rater and the average of the judges. For all five items, the two human judges agreed more closely with one another than with c-rater. The median difference in kappa values was .10 points higher for the human judges (compared with the c-rater-judge agreement; range = .05 to .14).

In a second study, Sukkarieh (2010) used ten items (one overlapping with the study above), and blind samples of 50 to 96 responses per item. She found c-rater agreement for the best of three automated-scoring-method variations to be lower than human-human agreement for all but one item. The median difference in kappa values across all ten items was, at .20, quite substantial (range = -.10 to .52, with negative values favoring c-rater). Across these two studies, the size and range of the differences suggest that c-rater scoring for the kinds of math items evaluated is still noticeably below agreement levels attainable with human scoring.

Summary

In mathematics, six CBAL summative pilots have been conducted, involving more than 1,300 online test administrations. In contrast with reading and writing, which most often targeted a single grade, the math pilots were generally conducted in both seventh and eighth grades. As for writing, considerable variation occurred across pilot test forms with respect to internal consistency, difficulty, and missing-response rates, perhaps partly reflecting the range of design changes explored since 2007. Factor analytic results most often suggested a single dimension within forms. As expected, CBAL math scores appeared to be more correlated with math scores from other assessments than with reading scores from those assessments (but only by relatively modest amounts). Finally, an analysis of automated scores showed that, for the types of items studied, agreement with human raters was noticeably lower than that found between human raters.

Conclusion

The primary goal of CBAL research is to create and evaluate a model that is a significant improvement over traditional approaches to K–12 assessment. Toward that end, CBAL incorporates results from learning-sciences research (in addition to content standards); uses

innovative, computer-delivered performance tasks targeted at measuring higher-order thinking; attempts to exemplify effective instructional practice for students and teachers in every summative and formative assessment; and uses through-course summative assessment to, among other things, create a stronger evidential basis for high-stakes decision making. It is hoped that these features, in combination, will result in better measurement, as well as in more positive effects on learning and teaching practice than traditional approaches appear to have provided.

This paper summarized empirical results from 16 summative assessment pilots involving nearly 10,000 online administrations conducted between 2007 and 2010. Those results have focused on measurement considerations, rather than effects on classroom practice, under the belief that, without a credible technical foundation, an assessment system will not be around long enough to have positive effects.

The key technical results are shown in Table 8. The table suggests that, on average, the CBAL initiative was successful in building innovative assessments that worked empirically as intended. The assessment prototypes were generally appropriate in difficulty for the student samples tested and produced reliable scores, which were related at reasonable levels to other measures of the same skills. The prototypes most often tapped a single dimension, within and across test forms, suggesting the possibility of a convenient basis for score aggregation. Not represented in the table are the preliminary results from CBAL reading which suggest that, even with a one-dimensional structure, the assessments might provide starting points for teacher follow-up through the use of competency-model-based item clusters (e.g., learning progressions) that differ in difficulty (and not in dimensional structure). Also not shown are the population-impact findings, which (unfortunately) replicate commonly found group differences. Finally, the results suggest that, at least for reading and writing, agreement statistics for automated scoring were reasonably good, though not as good as for human raters.

Whereas Table 8 suggests that the CBAL assessments worked reasonably well on average, as noted earlier, considerable variability was observed, particularly in the functioning of the CBAL writing and math prototypes. That variability may in part be random fluctuation due to the small sample sizes that characterized many of the pilots or fluctuation resulting from purposeful experimentation in form design. However, it might also suggest that the knowledge required to create high-quality test forms in a replicable, not to mention scalable, manner is not yet at hand.

Table 8
Summary of Key Results Across Three CBAL Content Areas

Content area (and # of form admini- strations)	# of tests	Median of the median <i>p</i> + values	Median of the median % missing	Median coeff. alpha	Median cross-form correlation	Most frequent factor analytic result	Median correlation with other tests of the same skill	Difference between automated- human & human-human agreement
Reading (6)	3,062	.51	0%	.88	.78	1 factor within & across forms	.74ª	.06° (kappa)
Writing (9)	5,410	.57	1%	.82	.73	1 factor within & across forms		.03 ^d (correlation)
Math (12)	1,347	.45	6%	.92		1 factor within forms	.76 ^b	.15 ^c (kappa)

^a Median of 13 correlations, each for either a different criterion measure, scale, or grade. ^b Median of 13 correlations, each for either a different criterion measure or grade. ^c Median of two median differences in unweighted kappa values. ^d Difference between two correlation coefficients.

Although this paper offered initial data on the technical quality of CBAL scores, studies directed at addressing many critical questions have yet to be completed. These questions include the alignment of CBAL forms to the Common Core State Standards; dimensionality of CBAL test forms when distributed across time; impact of different aggregation methods on score meaning; horizontal equating and vertical linking; fairness and accessibility for students from special populations (e.g., those with disabilities or who are English language learners); appropriateness of the reading load demanded by the math prototypes; measurement of growth; instructional sensitivity; utility of formative information provided by the summative test; effectiveness of different approaches to score reporting; and impact of CBAL assessments on classroom teaching and learning practice, among other issues. Studies targeting many of these issues, including fairness for special populations, are underway.

The list of the CBAL initiative's empirical accomplishments, as compared with the list of outstanding questions, should highlight the fact that, in consequential educational assessment, meaningful innovation requires considerable investment, concerted effort, a significant tolerance for failure, and an extended time horizon. For CBAL, as for the Race to the Top Assessment Program consortia, the proposed innovations are extremely ambitious. The good news from the CBAL initiative appears to be that modest progress is being made.

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Notes

- ¹ Eight sets of formative assessment materials also had been created as of the end of 2010. These sets combine reading and writing and are coordinated, in terms of skills focus, with the reading and writing summative test forms.
- ² The internal consistency reliabilities may be spuriously inflated due to the local dependency induced by the scenario-based task set that, as noted, entailed a series of questions related to the same context and purpose. Speededness can also inflate such estimates.
- ³ Students with individualized education programs (IEPs) were not included in either the impact or DIF analyses because this indicator turned out to include both students with disabilities and those classified as gifted/talented.
- ⁴ Status for ELL was not analyzed because of small sample sizes.
- ⁵ As noted earlier, eight sets of English language arts formative assessment materials that combine reading and writing also had been created by the end of 2010.
- ⁶ The results of a sixth pilot, conducted in Spring 2010 (ETS, 2010a), are not included because technology problems prevented delivery of the culminating essay to the majority of the sample for both of the test forms administered.
- ⁷Because each writing form is essentially a self-contained scenario-based task set, the internal consistency reliabilities may be somewhat inflated by local dependency and possibly by speededness.
- ⁸ Students who were ELL or who had IEPs were not included in either the impact or DIF analyses, the former group because of small sample size and the latter group because the IEP indicator included both individuals with disabilities and those classified as gifted/talented.
- ⁹ This correlation may slightly underestimate inter-rater agreement as it was computed between rater pairs using different rubrics: one a rubric that focused on organization, word choice, sentence fluency, and mechanics, and the other a rubric that centered on rhetorical effectiveness and quality of reasoning.
- ¹⁰ As of the end of 2010, nine sets of formative assessment materials had been developed, several of which are coordinated with the summative forms in their skills foci.

- ¹¹ See Embretson (2010) for a commentary on the potential unintended consequences of emphasizing critical thinking in the CBAL model.
- Other CBAL math items call for entry of an expression, equation, numerical value, or points on a grid. Responses to these items are usually scored by m-rater. In other testing contexts, m-rater scoring has been reported to be highly accurate in comparison with both human rating and multiple-choice scoring (Bennett, Steffen, Singley, Morley, & Jacquemin, 1997; Sandene, Bennett, Braswell, & Oranje, 2005, pp. 31–35, identified as *pattern-and-feature matching*). A formal analysis has not yet been reported for CBAL data.