Experiences and Perceptions of English Learners Testing with Language Supports

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Introduction

English learners (ELs), students for whom English is not their first or best language, are a growing population in U.S. public schools. In the fall of 2010, 9.2% (4.5 million students) of K–12 students in public schools were identified as English learners, and this number increased to 10.4% (5.1 million students) in the fall of 2019 (National Center for Education Statistics [NCES], 2022). Students who are ELs consistently score lower on standardized assessments on average than native English speakers (Abedi et al., 2003; Genesee et al., 2005), and English proficiency is one important contributor to such test score gaps. When English learners take a test of academic content (e.g., math, science) in English, their limited English proficiency can interfere with their performance and lead to scores that do not accurately reflect their true achievement level (Noble et al., 2014). To help level the playing field for English learners, one widely accepted practice is to allow them to test with language supports, also known as accommodations (Li & Suen, 2012). Under the Every Student Succeeds Act, students who are ELs should be provided with reasonable and appropriate supports on high-stakes assessments (U.S. Department of Education, 2016).

In recent years, schools and large-scale assessment developers across the United States have been providing English learners with language supports when they take tests to reduce construct-irrelevant variance, or errors in test scores due to factors that are extraneous to the construct being assessed (Thorndike et al., 1991). Some of these supports are linguistically related, such as word-to-word bilingual dictionaries and translated test directions, whereas other supports are linguistically unrelated, such as giving students extra time and testing them in a small group (Schissel, 2014). An appropriate support is one that reduces construct-irrelevant variance caused by limited language proficiency while producing comparable scores between English learners and non-ELs (Rios et al., 2020). Several studies have found that language supports are effective for improving English learners' test performance and reducing test score gaps between ELs and non-ELs (Kieffer et al., 2009; Li & Suen, 2012; Pennock-Roman & Rivera, 2011). Other studies have found that although some supports such as extra time could benefit both ELs and non-ELs, these supports tend to benefit students who are ELs to a greater extent (Sireci et al., 2003).

However, these language supports benefit only the students who use them (Roohr & Sireci, 2017). Few studies have investigated which supports English learners actually use during assessment and how useful they find them. At ACT, our goal is to provide accessible and equitable products and services to all students. Understanding students' educational experiences and hearing their voices are important parts of our mission. In April 2022, we surveyed English learners who took the ACT® test on a National test date¹ in February or April



2022 to learn about their experiences and perceptions when taking tests with language supports (see the Appendix for more details on the sample). The purposes of this survey were to (a) understand the types of supports English learners used when they took tests at school and when they took the ACT; (b) investigate how ELs felt about these supports, whether they thought the supports were useful or not; (c) explore whether using these supports when taking tests was associated with self-reported confidence on test performance or with test anxiety; and (d) learn why some ELs did not use supports when taking tests in school or when taking the ACT. In this Insights report, we share what we learned from 1,256 English learners and offer insights into what educators can do to better support these students in the future.

What Language Supports Did English Learners Use When Taking Tests at School and When Taking the ACT?

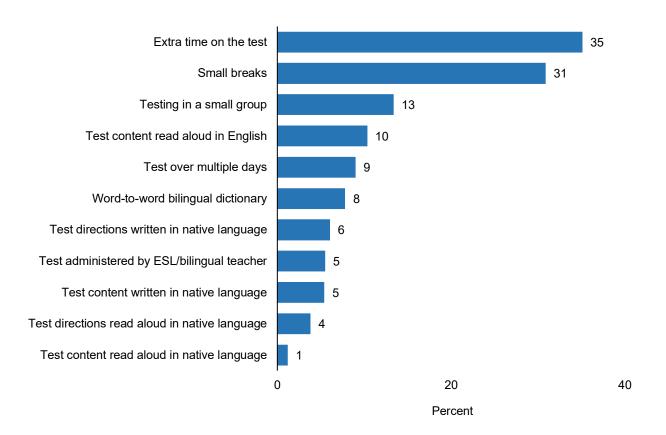
In-School Testing

Many language supports have been developed for students who are ELs to use when taking a test, including modifications to the test (e.g., test directions or test content written in an EL's native language) or test administration conditions (e.g., extra time, testing in a small group) (Moore et al., 2018). To understand which language supports English learners used at school, we provided a list of 11 common supports and asked students which ones they used when taking tests at school. Of the surveyed students, 62% reported that they used at least one support during in-school assessment, with 27% of students reporting that they used one support and 35% reporting that they used more than one support. The two most common supports during school testing were extra time on the test and small breaks (Figure 1). Over one third (35%) of students received extra time when testing at school, and we asked them how much extra time they were provided: 15% received time and a quarter, 27% received time and a half, 13% received double time, 6% received other amounts of extra time, and 45% did not know how much time they received.² Small breaks were the second-ranked support with 31% of students indicating that they took small breaks when taking tests at school. In response to a follow-up question, these students reported the types of testing breaks they received: 13% took breaks during test sessions, 80% took breaks between test sessions, 4% took other types of breaks. and 8% were not aware of what type of break they took.³ The remaining supports were used by smaller proportions of students (with usage ranging from 1% to 13%).



Figure 1. Language Supports English Learners Used When Taking Tests at School (n = 1, 256)

Which of the following testing supports do you use when taking tests at your school?



Note. ESL = English as a second language.

ACT Testing

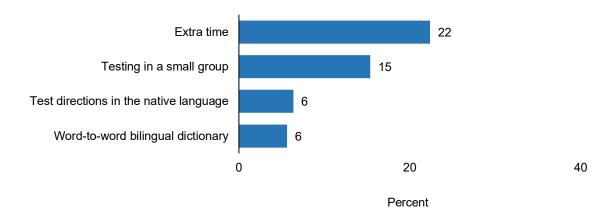
Since the fall of 2017, ACT has been providing four language supports to eligible students when taking the ACT test: extra time (time and a half), testing in a small group or familiar environment, test directions in the student's native language, and word-to-word bilingual dictionaries with no definitions (Moore, 2021). Students who are ELs can request these supports when registering for the ACT. To be eligible for the supports, they must attend school in the United States (including U.S. territories and Puerto Rico) and be classified as not proficient in English.⁴ Although the four supports are available to all eligible students, only 37% of surveyed students used one or more supports when taking the ACT (27% used one support, and 10% used two or more supports). The most popular support was extra time (Figure 2), provided to 22% of students, followed by testing in a small group (15%). The other two supports were less common. Among students who used one or more supports on the ACT, 60% received extra time, 41% tested in a small group, 17% received test directions in their native language, and 15% had a word-to-word bilingual dictionary.



These percentages were much lower compared to the percentages of approved supports reported in a previous study (Moore, 2021); of the English learners who were approved to use one or more supports, 99% were approved for extra time, 57% for testing in a small group, 45% for test directions in their native language, and 80% for a word-to-word bilingual dictionary. It is possible that there were differences between the samples studied in the Moore (2021) study and this study.⁵ It is also likely that some students might have received approval to use language supports but for some reason did not use them when they took the ACT. Further research is needed to explore the reasons for the discrepancies.

Figure 2. Language Supports English Learners Used When Taking the ACT (n = 1,256)

Which supports did you use when taking the ACT?



Solano-Flores (2012) proposed four validity and fairness dimensions with which to evaluate a given testing support, one of which is usability. Providing language supports for the ACT that are similar to the supports students use at school helps ensure that students are familiar with the supports and able to use them with ease. Previous research has suggested that testing supports are more effective if students are familiar with the supports and have experience using them in the classroom (Abedi et al., 2020; Acosta et al., 2008). In this study, we asked the students who took the ACT with supports to rate how similar or different these supports were compared to in-school supports. More than three guarters of students (78%) reported that they found the supports to be very or somewhat similar. We also analyzed the ratings of similarity by the number (Figure 3) and type (Figure 4) of supports used on the ACT (figures based on the same question). Compared to students who used one or two supports when taking the ACT, those who used three or four supports were more likely to report that the supports were "very similar" to the supports they received in school. In terms of the types of supports used, extra time (79%) and testing in a small group (79%) were more likely to be rated as very similar or somewhat similar than the other two supports (73% for test directions in native language and 75% for bilingual dictionary). Students who found the ACT supports different from the supports they received in school were asked an open-ended question to explain how the supports were different. Major relevant themes⁷ included the length of extra time provided being different, there



being no time limit for in-school testing, different test procedures being used, and students being able to ask teachers questions during in-school testing.

Figure 3. Ratings of Similarity by Number of ACT Supports Used



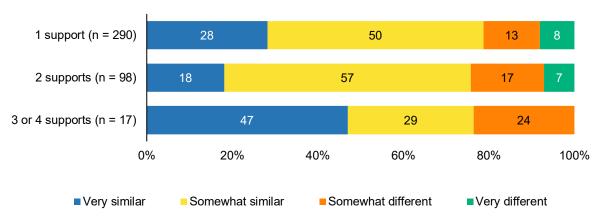
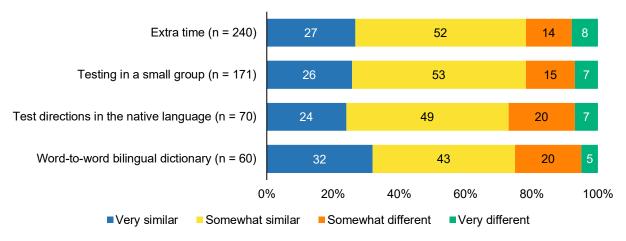


Figure 4. Ratings of Similarity by Type of ACT Support Used

Were the supports for the ACT similar to the supports you used when taking tests at school?



In summary, some English learners used one or more language supports when taking tests at school and the ACT. The most popular supports were extra time, small breaks, and testing in a small group. Most students who used available supports on the ACT found them similar to those used at school.

How Useful Did English Learners Find the Language Supports?

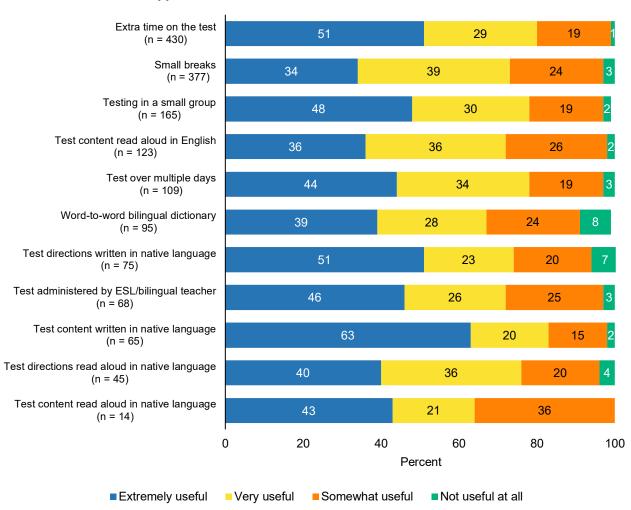
One goal of this survey was to investigate not only the types of language supports that students who are ELs used when taking tests at school and the ACT but also their perceptions of the



usefulness of these supports. The surveyed students were asked to rate the level of usefulness for each support they used. Most students considered the language supports they used at school to be extremely or very useful (ranging from 64% to 83%), and very small percentages of students considered any of the supports not useful (Figure 5). The two supports that were perceived as the most useful by students were test content written in the students' native language and extra time on the test; over 80% of students rated these two supports as extremely or very useful. Small-group and multiple-day testing were also perceived as helpful, with 78% of students ranking them as extremely or very useful. Even though having a word-to-word bilingual dictionary (67%) and test content read in the students' native language (64%) were perceived as the least useful, more than half of the students still rated these supports as extremely or very useful.

Figure 5. Ratings of Usefulness of Language Supports Used at School

How useful was each support?



Note. Percentages do not add up to 100% because of rounding.

Similar ratings of usefulness were seen for the language supports on the ACT. Nearly all students considered the supports they used to be at least somewhat useful (Figure 6). Extra



time was rated as the most useful support with 83% students considering extra time as extremely or very useful when taking the ACT. Testing in a small group and test directions in the students' native language were also found to be extremely or very useful (77% and 76%, respectively). Although the ratings for the usefulness of a word-to-word bilingual dictionary were not as high as those for the other supports, about two thirds of students (66%) who used this support considered it to be extremely useful or very useful.

Figure 6. Ratings of Usefulness of Language Supports Used When Taking the ACT

Extra time (n = 273) 57 26 15 Testing in a small group (n = 182) 42 35 Test directions in the native language (n = 75) 47 29 19 Word-to-word bilingual dictionary (n = 62) 35 27 0 20 40 60 80 100 Percent ■Extremely useful ■Very useful ■Somewhat useful ■ Not useful at all

How useful was each support?

Note. Percentages do not add up to 100% because of rounding.

To better understand why some students rated the supports they used when taking the ACT as not useful, we asked these students open-ended questions to explain their thoughts. Common themes were found for each support. Some students thought the extra time provided for the ACT was not enough. A few students commented that the number of students in a classroom did not matter to them and did not affect their testing experiences, which made testing in a small group less useful. Some students commented that the word-to-word bilingual dictionary was too time-consuming to use, and they suggested an electronic dictionary be allowed in the future.

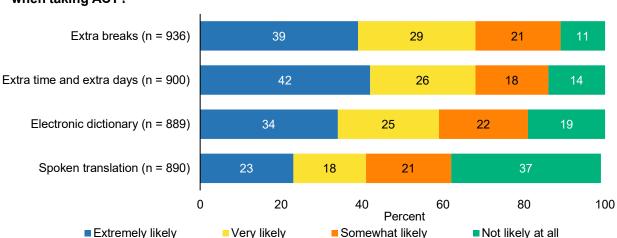
Based on these findings, our two suggestions to make the language supports on the ACT more useful to English learners are to bundle supports if necessary (Young & King, 2008) and provide new digital supports. While ACT allows students who are ELs to use any combination of the four supports, they must be requested to be approved for use. Previous studies (e.g., Abedi, 2002) have found that some supports, such as a glossary of key terms, are only useful when extra time is provided. Because using a bilingual dictionary requires extra time during a test, combining it with extra testing time will make this support more useful. We need to conduct more research to examine which combinations of supports could benefit students the most, and the combinations will most likely depend on the specific needs of each student. Our second suggestion is that digital technologies such as electronic tools and multimedia should be



considered when developing new supports. Digital technologies offer new opportunities for innovative and flexible support options, which may more effectively remove construct-irrelevant variance (Roohr & Sireci, 2017). Adopting a rigorous conceptual and methodological approach when developing digital supports will reduce the risk of creating or perpetuating inequalities and of increasing students' cognitive load (Solano-Flores, 2022).

The survey asked students to rate how likely they would use other language supports when taking the ACT if additional options were provided (Figure 7). The two supports that were welcomed by most students were (a) extra breaks and (b) extra time and days. More than two thirds of students indicated that they would be extremely likely or very likely to use these supports when taking the ACT. More than half (59%) of students reported that they would use an electronic dictionary if available. Not as many English learners (41%) were interested in spoken translation.

Figure 7. Percentages of English Learners Who Would Use the Supports if Available



If ACT provides the following supports to English learners, how likely would you be to use them when taking ACT?

Note. Percentages do not add up to 100% because of rounding.

In general, most students found the language supports they used at school and when taking the ACT useful, and they welcomed improvements and other support options.

Was Using Language Supports Associated With English Learners' Confidence About Performance or With Test Anxiety?

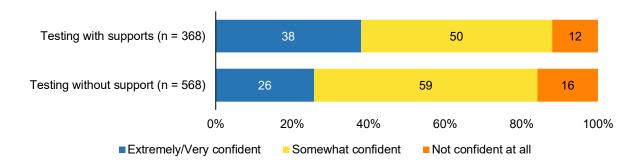
Previous research has often focused on the effect of language supports in removing construct-irrelevant variance, ensuring test validity, or ensuring measurement comparability (Roohr & Sireci, 2017). In this study, we were interested in other benefits that language supports could bring to English learners. We investigated whether the use of supports was associated with students' self-reported confidence about their ACT performance or their levels of test anxiety.



How confident were you about your performance on the ACT test?

Confidence, a state of being certain about the success of a particular behavior, is an important psychological construct and a predictor of academic performance (Stankov et al., 2012). The surveyed students were asked to rate how confident they were about their performance on the ACT test (Figure 8). The results⁸ suggested that students' confidence was associated with the use of language supports. Students who used supports when taking the ACT were more likely to report that they were extremely or very confident about their performance on the test (38%) than those who did not use supports (26%). Although this result indicates a correlational rather than causal relationship between the use of supports and students' confidence about their performance, it is likely that the supports allowed English learners to better demonstrate their knowledge and skills to some extent, which in turn increased their confidence about their performance.

Figure 8. English Learners' Ratings of Confidence About Their Performance on the ACT Test



Test anxiety has been reported to negatively correlate with English learners' test performance on high-stakes assessments (Salehi & Marefat, 2014). Their anxiety could come from perceived poor performance, insecurity, or fear of negative evaluation (Teemant, 2010). In this study, students also rated their level of test anxiety when taking the ACT. They were asked the extent to which they agreed with the statement "I felt scared when taking the ACT test." No significant difference in test anxiety levels was found between students taking the ACT with and without language supports. Overall, 63% students indicated that they somewhat or strongly agreed with the statement about test anxiety.

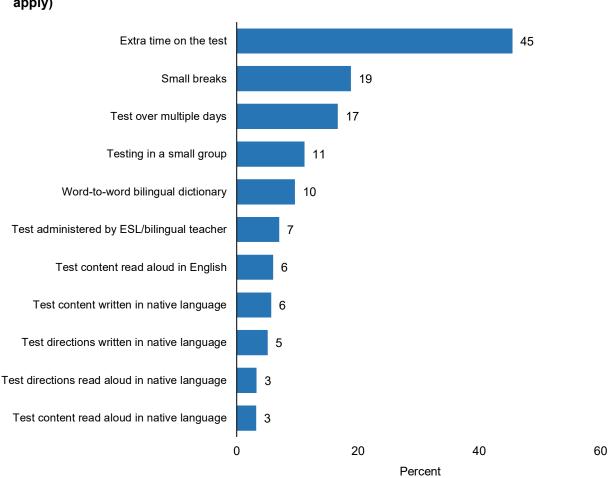
Why Did Some English Learners Not Use Supports When Taking Tests in School or on the ACT?

Because language supports benefit students who are ELs, we were interested in why some of them did not use these supports when taking the ACT or tests in school. To learn about their perceived needs for such supports, we asked the surveyed students to indicate supports that they wished they could get but that were not available at school. The results implied that a gap exists between the supports students wished to receive and the supports they used at school. About two thirds of the surveyed students (66%) reported that there was at least one support that they wished for but could not get in school, and 31% of the students who indicated a desire for additional supports reported that they did not use any supports when taking tests at school.



Of the 11 listed supports, the most popular was extra time on the test (Figure 9): 45% of students wished for extra time when taking tests at school. More than 10% of students (ranging from 11% to 19%) wished they could test in a small group, test over multiple days, or take small breaks when taking tests at school. It is likely that some students did not use supports at school because they were unavailable. The lack of classroom implementation may explain why these language supports were unavailable. Although English learners were eligible for language supports, teachers in classrooms may not be able to adequately implement these supports for various reasons, including inadequate funding or shortages of teachers with expertise in teaching students who are ELs (Fenner, 2022; Schissel, 2014; Williams, 2020).

Figure 9. Percentages of English Learners Who Wished to Get Each Support in School but the Support Was Not Available (n = 1,216)



Are there any supports that you wish you could get but are not available? (select all that apply)

To further investigate the issue of students' wanting unavailable supports, we conducted a logistic regression analysis predicting whether students reported wanting one or more additional supports that were not available, with ACT English scores, race/ethnicity, family income, and parent education level as independent variables. After controlling for the other variables, we found that students who reported their race/ethnicity as Latinx were 9% more likely than

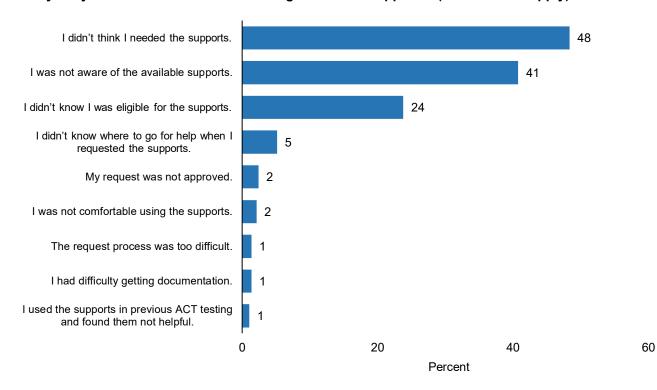


students who reported their race/ethnicity as White to indicate one or more supports that they wish they could receive but that were not available. ¹⁰ Latinx students are one of the largest EL groups in public schools in the United States (NCES, 2019). Ensuring access to the supports that these students need during in-school testing is critical for them to accurately demonstrate their knowledge and skills.

In addition, only 37% of the surveyed students took the ACT with language supports. We wanted to learn more about why some English learners took the ACT without supports. Students who tested without supports were asked to select from a list of reasons or provide their own reasons for not using the supports. Based on the responses from these students (Figure 10), the three most common reasons were "I didn't think I needed the supports" (48%), "I was not aware of the available supports" (41%), and "I didn't know I was eligible for the supports" (24%). These results indicate that while some students felt that they did not have a need for supports, others did not understand the availability of the supports and/or their eligibility, implying that more efforts should be made to inform students who are ELs about the available supports. A few students also responded to an open-ended question, commenting that they were afraid of the unknown consequences of using these supports, such as whether it would have a negative effect on their college applications. However, their testing with supports would not have a negative effect because ACT does not provide any information in score reports about whether a student received language supports or any other accommodations. These findings indicate that ACT needs to do more to educate English learners, their parents, educators, and testing coordinators about the benefits of testing with supports, and ACT also needs to address any concerns or misconceptions about using the supports.

Figure 10. English Learners' Reasons for Taking the ACT Without Supports (n = 660)

Why did you take the ACT without the English learner supports? (select all that apply)





One encouraging finding was that very few students indicated "I didn't know where to go for help when I requested the supports" (5%), "The request process was too difficult" (1%), or "I had difficulty getting documentation" (1%). This finding was consistent with responses to a separate question about the process for requesting testing supports when registering to take the ACT in which a majority of students (84%) reported it was very or somewhat easy to request language supports for taking the ACT. If students who are ELs better understand the availability and benefit of these supports, then requesting the supports should not be a barrier for them.

In addition, we explored subgroup differences in the reasons for taking the ACT without supports. We found that students who are Black, from low-income families, or whose parents did not have any college education were less likely to choose "I didn't think I needed the supports" as a reason for testing without them. ¹¹ This finding suggests that students from traditionally underserved populations took the tests without supports not because there was no need but for other reasons (e.g., not being aware of the available supports, not knowing whether they are eligible for the supports, etc.). To better serve English learners, we need to first understand what challenges they face in obtaining the supports and then address their needs properly.

How Can We Better Support English Learners?

Because of the language barriers associated with limited English proficiency, taking a test in English is a challenge for English learners. Some survey respondents explained it this way:

Based on my experience, as an ESL student, I had to read each question or sentence twice to translate it to my language and process it which took more time.

Taking the test only in English language has made it difficult to achieve the score I need.

ESOL [English to speakers of other languages] students' brains takes double time of processing information in other language. That is just how it is.

Meanwhile, the surveyed students considered the testing supports that they used for in-school testing and on the ACT as useful, and using supports was associated with greater confidence about their performance on the ACT. Nevertheless, some English learners did not use supports when taking tests at school or when taking the ACT. Looking ahead, we offer the following recommendations for schools and large-scale assessment developers to better support students who are ELs.

For Schools, We Recommend These Actions

1. Collect information regularly to understand English learners' needs for supports.

Language supports are more useful to English learners when the supports fit their specific needs and characteristics. For example, a student who does not read in Spanish would not benefit from a word-to-word English-Spanish dictionary. Supports are also more useful if they are familiar and if a student has had opportunity to practice using the support prior to test day. To provide the most suitable supports to English learners, schools should first understand their students and their needs and then use the data as the basis on which to decide which supports fit each student the best (Koran & Kopriva, 2017). Examples of potential data sources include annually assessing students' English proficiency, surveying English learners, and interviewing teachers and parents about their students' needs.



2. Offer individualized supports for English learners.

English learners are a diverse, heterogeneous group of students, differing in many characteristics, such as native language, race/ethnicity, number of years in the United States, number of years of English instruction received, and number of years of being in EL programs (Moore et al., 2018). When providing supports, schools should consider students' individual needs and offer appropriate supports. Some examples of factors that need to be considered include students' language proficiency (in both English and in their native language, either of which may be at different levels in reading, writing, listening, and speaking), cultural background, schooling experience, and grade level (Yang, 2020).

3. Provide professional development for teachers.

Classroom teachers are the key to implementing language supports for students who are ELs. However, not every teacher is properly trained and prepared to effectively provide supports to English learners (Yang, 2020). Schools should regularly provide professional development for teachers to increase their knowledge and understanding of EL supports for testing. In this way, students who are ELs are more likely to receive the supports they need. Encouraging collaboration between teachers and experts (e.g., bilingual teachers, ESL teachers) at school could help increase the availability of supports for students. Also, these professional development opportunities should include information about how to help students get the supports they need on large-scale assessments.

For Large-Scale Assessment Developers Such as ACT, We Recommend These Actions

1. Advocate for the available language supports.

The survey results showed that substantial proportions of English learners either were not aware of the language supports that they could use when taking the ACT or did not know that they were eligible for the supports. This highlights the need for ACT and other large-scale assessment developers to do more to advocate for the supports. First, we need to use different channels to inform students, their parents, and educators about the available supports and eligibility criteria. The best channel for outreach varies in different testing contexts. For example, for ACT State and District Testing, a good way to disseminate the information is to hold workshops or webinars for district leaders and testing coordinators, particularly those in schools and districts that are not utilizing the supports at rates we would expect given the numbers of English learners enrolled. For ACT National Testing, the online registration system could be used to publicize the available supports to students and school counselors, as well as to communicate with students via social media or other channels. Second, we need to educate target audiences (e.g., students, their teachers, and parents) about the potential benefits of using these supports and address their concerns about the perceived negative consequences of using these supports.

2. Reach out to English learners from underserved populations.

Some surveyed students from traditionally underserved populations (e.g., students who are Black, students from low-income families, and students whose parents did not have any college education) did not use supports when taking the ACT—not because they might not need the supports but for other reasons such being unaware of the available supports or unaware that



they were eligible for them. This finding emphasizes the need to offer additional help to these groups. We need to reach out to traditionally underserved populations, learn about their challenges in terms of requesting and/or using the supports, help them understand the available supports, and guide them through the request process. Large-scale assessment developers could target schools and districts with high numbers of students who are ELs, or they could calculate utilization rates of EL testing support among underserved populations by school and district and then use that data as the basis for outreach.

3. Add additional language support options in the future.

The surveyed students showed interest in additional supports such as an electronic dictionary and extra breaks, extra time, and extra days. Because these supports were available for inschool testing for some students who are ELs, it is a challenge if they cannot use the same supports when taking a large-scale assessment. More research is needed to investigate the feasibility of additional language support options in the future and whether these supports would threaten the construct validity¹² of tests.

All these efforts would help ACT achieve its ultimate goal of ensuring that all students have an accessible and equitable experience when engaging with ACT's assessments, tools, services, and other solutions in students' journey toward education and career success.



Appendix

This survey study focused on English learners' experiences and perceptions of language supports when taking tests in school and the ACT. Part of the 30-question survey asked students about their experiences during the COVID-19 pandemic, which is summarized and released in a separate data byte (available at

https://www.act.org/content/act/en/research/reports/act-publications/testing-supports-for-english-learners-taking-the-act.html
This report summarizes findings from the questions related to language supports used during tests.

The target population for this survey was U.S. high school English learners who took the ACT test on a National test date in February or April of 2022. These students responded yes to the question "Do you receive English language (EL) services at school now?" when they registered for the ACT test. The restricted population (n = 21,740) also excluded students who opted out of ACT communications.

All students in the sampling frame were invited to participate in the online survey study after they took the ACT test. The survey opened on April 2, 2022, and closed on April 26, 2022. A total of 1,684 students responded to the two required questions in the survey, which were about the supports they used when taking tests at school and when taking the ACT. Among them, 428 students reported that their native language was English, they did not use any supports when taking tests at school or when taking the ACT, and they never received any English language learning (ELL) instruction at school. Because it was likely that these 428 students responded yes to the filter question during ACT registration by mistake, they were excluded from the respondent data file. Therefore, the respondent data file included 1,256 students. Table 1 shows the demographic information of the respondents.



Table 1. Demographic Information of the Survey Respondents.

Female 65	Demographic	Demographic	Percent
Gender Male 34 Another gender or did not report gender 1 Black 19 Latinx 28 White 35 Asian 10 American Indian, Hawaiian Native/other Pacific Islander, Alaska Native 0.5 Two or more races/ethnicities 3 Race/ethnicity unknown 3 Grade 10 14 Grade 11 46 Grade 12 34 Other grade levels 6 Less than 24,000 14 About 24,000 to 36,000 10 About 24,000 to 50,000 8 About 50,000 to 60,000 5 Annual family income (in \$) About 80,000 to 100,000 About 100,000 to 120,000 5 About 120,000 to 150,000 5 About 120,000 to 150,000 4 More than 150,000 8 Income unknown 34 No college experience 26 Some college experience, but less than a bachelor's degree from a four-year institution or higher 40	variable	group	0.5
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Latinx White 35		<u> </u>	<u> </u>
White	Race/ethnicity		
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Race/ethnicity unknown 3			0.5
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Grade level Grade 11 46 Grade 12 34 Other grade levels 6 Less than 24,000 14 About 24,000 to 36,000 10 About 36,000 to 50,000 8 About 50,000 to 60,000 5 Annual family income (in \$) About 60,000 to 80,000 5 About 80,000 to 100,000 6 About 100,000 to 120,000 5 About 120,000 to 150,000 4 More than 150,000 8 Income unknown 34 No college experience 26 Some college experience, but less than a bachelor's degree from a four-year institution 21 Bachelor's degree from a four-year institution or higher 40		Race/ethnicity unknown	3
Grade level Grade 12 34 Other grade levels 6 Less than 24,000 14 About 24,000 to 36,000 10 About 36,000 to 50,000 8 About 50,000 to 60,000 5 Annual family income (in \$) About 80,000 to 100,000 6 About 100,000 to 120,000 5 About 120,000 to 150,000 4 More than 150,000 8 Income unknown 34 No college experience 26 Some college experience, but less than a bachelor's degree from a four-year institution 21 Bachelor's degree from a four-year institution or higher 40	Grade level	Grade 10	14
Other grade levels 6		Grade 11	46
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About 50,000 to 60,000 5 Annual family income (in \$) About 80,000 to 100,000 6 About 100,000 to 120,000 5 About 120,000 to 150,000 4 More than 150,000 8 Income unknown 34 No college experience 26 Some college experience, but less than a bachelor's degree from a four-year institution Bachelor's degree from a four-year institution or higher 40		About 24,000 to 36,000	10
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About 100,000 to 120,000 About 120,000 to 150,000 More than 150,000 Income unknown No college experience Some college experience, but less than a bachelor's degree from a four-year institution Bachelor's degree from a four-year institution or higher 40		About 60,000 to 80,000	5
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More than 150,000 Income unknown 34 No college experience Some college experience, but less than a bachelor's degree from a four-year institution Bachelor's degree from a four-year institution or higher 40		About 100,000 to 120,000	5
Parental education level Income unknown No college experience Some college experience, but less than a bachelor's degree from a four-year institution Bachelor's degree from a four-year institution or higher 40			4
Parental education level No college experience Some college experience, but less than a bachelor's degree from a four-year institution Bachelor's degree from a four-year institution or higher 40		More than 150,000	8
Parental education level Some college experience, but less than a bachelor's degree from a four-year institution Bachelor's degree from a four-year institution or higher 40		Income unknown	34
education level from a four-year institution Bachelor's degree from a four-year institution or higher 40		No college experience	26
Bachelor's degree from a four-year institution or higher 40		-	21
Unknown 13		Bachelor's degree from a four-year institution or higher	40
		Unknown	13

Additionally, we asked the respondents to report how many years they had been in an ELL program: 16% reported less than 3 years, 15% reported 3–7 years, 15% reported more than 7 years, and the rest (55%) did not provide a response. The respondents reported a wide range of native languages including Arabic, Chinese (Mandarin), Creole, French, Gujarati, Hindi, Hmong, Japanese, Karen, Korean, Navajo, Portuguese, Spanish, and Vietnamese.



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Notes



¹ Survey participants were limited to students who took part in ACT National Testing who tend to be higher-achieving, college-bound students. In contrast, nearly all students in a given school district—typically Grade 11 students, including those who otherwise would not have chosen to take the ACT—take part in ACT State and District Testing. It is possible that State and District-tested students would have a somewhat different experience in obtaining testing supports than National-tested students. In particular, students make the initial request for supports for National Testing, whereas schools make the initial request for supports for State and District Testing. For these reasons, the findings of this study may not be completely generalizable to State and District-tested students, although we expect the findings would be similar.

² Students were asked to select all options that applied in the question "How much extra time do you get?" The n count for this question was 437.

³ Students were asked to select all options that applied in the question "What kind of testing breaks do you get?" The n count for this question was 386.

⁴ According to ACT, eligible documentation to show limited English proficiency includes (a) it being documented by an English language proficiency assessment, (b) participation in an English language acquisition program at school, or (c) a formal EL plan showing supports received because of limited

English proficiency (https://www.act.org/content/act/en/products-and-services/the-act/registration/accommodations/policy-for-el-supports-documentation.html).

- ⁵ The Moore (2021) study included both National Testing and State and District Testing, covered a 2-year period, and relied on approved supports rather than self-reported supports.
- ⁶ The four validity and fairness dimensions are safety of untargeted test takers, sensitivity to individual test takers' needs, fidelity of implementation, and usability (Solano-Flores, 2012).
- ⁷ A thematic qualitative data analysis procedure was used to analyze the responses to the open-ended questions. All the responses were read, segmented by relevance, and coded independently by two research experts. The codes from the two experts were compared, and categories were then constructed.
- ⁸ A non-parametric test (chi-squared test of independence) was conducted, and the difference between groups was significant at a .05 alpha level (chi-squared = 16.13; df = 2; p < .01).
- ⁹ Different studies have asked about students' test anxiety in various ways. Considering English learners' limited English proficiency, we used the word "scared," which most ELs would understand.
- ¹⁰ A logistic regression was conducted for whether English learners had some language supports that they wish they could get but were not available. The independent variables included race/ethnicity, family income, and parental education level. The ACT English section score was also added into the model as a covariate. Self-reported Latinx ethnicity was a significant predictor at a .05 alpha level. The odds of students wishing for one or more supports that were not available were about 1.09 times higher for Latinx students than for their White peers. This table shows the coefficients of the logistic regression.

Logistic regression	Estimate	Standard error	t	р
(Intercept)	0.91	0.06	14.68	< 0.01
ACT English score	-0.01	0.00	-5.58	< 0.01
Black	0.02	0.04	0.48	0.63
Latinx	0.08	0.04	2.13	0.03
Asian	0.08	0.05	1.67	0.10
Other race/ethnicity	0.07	0.05	1.23	0.22
Low income	0.05	0.04	1.34	0.18
Income unknown	-0.01	0.04	-0.23	0.82
Parental education: no college	-0.05	0.04	-1.36	0.18
Parental education: some college	-0.06	0.04	-1.62	0.11
Parental education: unknown	-0.06	0.05	-1.30	0.19

¹¹ Three non-parametric tests (chi-squared tests of independence) were conducted to examine whether the selection of the reason "I didn't think I needed the supports" was associated with race/ethnicity, family income, or parental education level, respectively. The reported factors were significant at a .05 alpha level (test for race/ethnicity: chi-squared = 22.62; df = 4; p < .01; test for family income: chi-squared = 16.34; df = 2; p < .01; test for parental education level: chi-squared = 11.18; df = 3; p < .05).

¹³ The self-reported English language services registration question was used to include/exclude students from the restricted population, and some students who were not English learners were included in the restricted population if they mistakenly answered yes to this question. Although we removed some students who indicated in their survey responses that they were not ELs, it is still possible that there were a small number of non-ELs included in the survey. The English language services question has since been revised to ensure that students understand that the question is intended to determine whether students are learning English as a nonnative language.



¹² Construct validity is the degree to which a test score corresponds to a meaningful construct, trait, or set of behaviors (Thorndike et al., 1991).



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