A Better Benchmark Assessment: Multiple-Choice Versus Project-Based

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Abstract

The purpose of this literature review and Ex Post Facto descriptive study was to determine which type of benchmark assessment, multiple-choice or project-based, provides the best indication of general success on the history portion of the CST. The result of the study indicates that although the project-based benchmark assessment was better than the multiple-choice benchmark assessment at predicting the student acquisition of the desired "proficient" or above level on the CST, the data was inconclusive. However, the study did reveal that both types of benchmark assessments were successful in predicting acquisition of the "basic" or above level on the CST.
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CHAPTER I: THE PROBLEM

Introduction

With the passage of the No Child Left Behind Act (NCLB), high stakes standardized testing has become the rule throughout the United States. School districts and their administrators are scrambling to figure out ways to motivate students to perform well. They are also mandating teachers to make these tests the focal point in their lesson planning and instruction through alignment and integration of the state content standards (Louis, Febey, & Schroeder, 2005, p. 177).

The next logical step these districts have followed has been to assess students’ progress toward mastery of these state content standards and the teachers’ responsibility to teach these standards so the students perform well on the mandated tests (Olson, 2005a).

What this process has created is a system of evaluating the students throughout the course of their instruction called benchmark assessment or testing. The objectives in benchmark testing generally three fold: first, to assess students’ progress toward mastery of the content standards, which the mandated tests are based, second, to proved a minimum level of mastery and accountability for the student before they are able
to progress to the next class or grade level, and third, to give the teacher a functional assessment tool to gage students’ mastery of what was taught (Herman & Baker, 2005; Swanson & Collins, 1999).

These benchmark assessments come in a variety of forms (multiple choice, construction response, or project-based), which are either developed by the educational industry, then purchased by a district, or they are formed through cohort collaboration within a district (Darling-Hammond, 1994; Shepard, 1995).

Statement of the Problem

One facet of the benchmark assessment issue is that the mandated standardized tests are primarily multiple-choice. Many educators believe that multiple-choice assessments, in general, only assess a student at a basic cognitive level (Burton, 2005; Simkin & Kuechler, 2005). These educators also see multiple-choice benchmarks similarly; teaching and assessing content standards at the same basic cognitive level. Educators also see such assessments as “teaching to the test,” which has become a negative phrase that connotes the lack of affective learning (Burton, 2005; Popham, 2004).

The other facet of this issue is that this benchmarking system has created an era of school districts and administrators
implementing and mandating testing and curriculum that teaches to the content of the mandated tests. The result has created many complaints by educators and researchers alike. Their complaints aren’t with accountability, but rather with what the above scenario has caused many teachers to do; to leave behind assessments that gauge students at a deeper cognitive level, and into the affective domain (McNeil, 2000; Olson, 2005b; Sheldon & Biddle, 1998; Shepard, 1989).

The question this creates is what type of general benchmark assessment, multiple-choice (which generally is assumed to assess the cognitive domain) or project-based (which generally is assumed to assess the affective domain), is more effective in assessing a students’ knowledge of the content standards and therefore, a relevant indicator of success on the California Standards Test (CST) portions of the Standardized Testing and Reporting (STAR) Tests?

Statement of Purpose

The purpose of this study, through a literature review and an Ex Post Facto descriptive study is to determine which type of benchmark assessment, multiple-choice or project-based, provides the best indication of successful acquisition of the California History-Social Science Content Standards, and therefore general success on the history portion of the CST.
Importance of the Study

In an age of benchmark testing, high stakes tests, and the NCLB Act, this study can assist districts and educators in the process of creating a more productive benchmark assessment to gauge students’ knowledge of content standards and therefore, creating a tool that can be used to properly predict success on the history portion of the CST.

Setting

The study was conducted at the Delano Joint Union High School District (DJUHSD) in Delano, California. DJUHSD contains two comprehensive high schools (Delano High School and Cesar E. Chavez High School) with a population of roughly 2,000 students at each campus. The ethnic demographics of DJUHSD in the 2004-2005 school years are: 81% Hispanic, 13% Filipino, 3% White, 2% African American, 1% Asian, and less than 0.1% other. 61% of all students are English Language Learners and 79% are socio-economically disadvantaged.

This study focuses on all students enrolled in all levels (Sheltered, High School, College Prep., and Honors) of World History (10th grade year) and United States History (11th grade year). A.P. United States history classes will not be included in this study because A.P. classes are exempt for the district mandated benchmark tests (ACES).
Definition of Terms

Accountability

Accountability is an obligation of teachers and other school personnel to accept responsibility for students’ performance on high-stakes assessments; often mandated by policy makers calling for school reform.

Assessment

Assessment is any process that measures student learning or abilities. It can be conducted in formal or informal ways, and range in form from, but not limited to, tests, essays, projects, oral presentations, or portfolio projects.

Assessments of Core Exit Standards (ACES)

The ACES are the benchmark assessments that the DJUHSD uses which are developed through district-wide cohort collaboration that generally comes in two forms: multiple-choice and project-based.

Authentic Learning/Assessment

Authentic learning/assessment is any form of assessment where tasks are set in a meaningful context that provides connections between real world experiences and school-based ideas. At times authentic assessment is interchangeable with project-based and performance-based learning/assessment even though each has a slightly different focus.
Benchmark Assessments

Benchmark Assessments are standard-based assessments administered at regular intervals which are used to determine student growth and student performance relative to statewide grade-level achievement expectations.

California History-Social Science Content Standards

Academic content standards for tenth through grade twelve, adopted by the California State Board of Education.

California Standards Tests (CST)

The California Standards Tests (CST) show how well students are doing in relation to the state content standards which are a portion of the STAR Test. Student scores are reported as performance levels. The five performance levels are “advanced” (exceeds state standards), “proficient” (meets state standards), “basic” (approaching state standards), “below basic” (below state standards), and “far below basic” (well below state standards). Students scoring at the “proficient” or “advanced” level have met state standards in that content area.

High-Stakes Testing

High-stakes testing is the practice of using students’ performance on a single assessment to make major decisions about students or school personnel.
No Child Left Behind Act of 2001 (NCLB)

NCLB (public law 107-110) is a United States federal law that reauthorizes a number of federal programs which aim is to improve the performance of America's primary and secondary schools by increasing the standards of accountability for states, school districts, and schools, as well as providing parents more flexibility in choosing which schools their children will attend. Additionally, it promotes an increased focus on reading and re-authorizes the Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965 (ESEA).

Performance-Based Learning/Assessment

Performance-based learning is a term commonly interchangeable with Authentic Learning/Assessment with the slight difference being that performance-based assessment focuses on assessing tasks a student can do.

Project-Based learning/Assessment

Project-based learning is an approach that intends to bring about deep learning by allowing learners to encounter problem solving opportunities or research in the context of a complex, open-ended project.

Standardized Testing and Reporting (STAR) Test

State of California mandated achievement test that assesses students' knowledge according to the California Content
Standards for the relative grade level in the core fields of language arts, mathematics, science, and social science through the individualized California Standards Tests (CST).

**Traditional Assessment**

A traditional assessment is a test-based (pencil-paper) form of assessment. It can be formal or informal, include multiple choice, true/false, or fill-in-the-blank questions.
CHAPTER II: LITERATURE REVIEW

Mandated Testing and the NCLB Act

History

What began the road to government mandated testing started in the early 1900s with the compulsory elementary school attendance laws. Prior to these laws educational assessment and testing in the United States was generally for the purpose of assessing whether a student could apply their knowledge to a specific task. These assessments concentrated on a syllabus, curriculum or craft (Madaus, 1993).

The elementary attendance laws were designed to guarantee the education of the growingly large and ethnically diverse population of students. The focus of these laws was efficiency in education and to meet the requirements of growing industrialization. These attendance laws also created an assembly-line method of organizing schools: linear progression of grades, and standard curriculum (Stiggins, 1991).

Generally, this new system of schools where used to weed out the students headed to the assembly line from the college bound students. Because of this weeding out process, assessments needed to be able to detect individual differences in achievement among students (Stiggins, 1991).
The successful World War I era Army Alpha standardized aptitude test became the wave of the future in education. The most influential characteristic of the educational field’s shift towards the Army’s standardized testing methods was the separating of duties; assessment and instruction became separated. This led to layered school-wide, district-wide, state-wide, and nation-wide testing programs layered on top of each other, which systems are still being used today (Stiggins, 1991).

From the late 1930s’ college admission tests, to the explosion of standardized tests in the 1950s, a proliferation of these published standardized tests began to be used as accountability tools for the first time, but on a small scale (Clarke, Madaus, Horn, & Ramos, 2000; Stiggins, 1991).

"High Stakes" Testing

The introduction to the idea of “high stakes,” holding students, districts, and states accountable, was introduced in the 1970s:

American educators were inundated with legislative requirements for testing that were part of the "educational accountability movement." State legislators, dismayed by what they believed to be ineffectual public schooling, mandated that a variety of obligatory tests be established
to show whether students could display at least minimal competence in the three R's. Sometimes, a student's receipt of a high school diploma or promotion to the next grade was linked to performance on these competency tests (Popham, 1993, p. 471).

These mandated tests led to an unanticipated use to compare test scores of school districts within a state. The results of the tests were then used to hold students back or to indicate educator’s effectiveness (Popham, 1993; Stiggins, 1991).

Popham (1993) goes on to explain:

But even the architects of the numerous new statewide testing programs failed to recognize the profound impact that these high-stakes tests would have on instruction. Because teachers wanted to make sure that their students would be promoted (or, in some instances, because they feared the wrath of parents if students were not promoted), they began to emphasize in their instruction the knowledge and skills that were being tested. Because administrators wanted their schools (or districts) to look good when local newspapers published test results, they encouraged teachers to give ample instructional attention to the content to be tested. The pressures to boost test scores became pervasive (p. 471).
In 1983, a publication called *A Nation at Risk* by the National Commission on Excellence in Education made recommendations which were quickly picked up by the media. Many educational reformers and civil rights advocates pushed for these recommendations which caused a new wave of educational reforms that demanded an even greater accountability and effectiveness in education (Louis et al., 2005; Melograno, 1994; Stiggins, 1991).

**The No Child Left Behind Act**

The next reform movement that added to the past fifty years of test-based education was the bipartisan passed No Child Left Behind Act of 2001 (NCLB). NCLB is a reauthorization of the Elementary and Secondary Act of 1965 (ESEA), but instead of applying to only schools receiving Title I funding, NCLB applies to all public schools (Linn & Miller, 2005).

NCLB “…mandates that all states establish challenging academic content standards in academic subjects that: specify what children are expected to know and be able to do; contain coherent and rigorous content; and encourage the teaching of advanced skills” (Ormrod, 2006, p. 591). School districts must then annually assess the students to determine whether they are making “adequate yearly progress” (AYP) for every student including all racial and socioeconomic groups (Ormrod).
The goal of NCLB is to have 100% of the students to reach the “proficient” level or higher by 2014 (Linn & Miller, 2005). If a school’s AYP targets are not being met, then the “...school will be identified as ‘needs improvement’ and be subject to the sanctions that apply to schools so designated” (Linn & Miller, p. 10).

Many supporters of NCLB, state standards, and accountability insist that (if correctly incorporated) schools with focused, common curriculum and feedback have a better chance of promoting student learning (Porter, 2000). There is also research (Carnoy & Loeb, 2002) which points out that strong accountability programs exhibit greater student achievement gains.

On the other spectrum of the issue, many educators agree that the NCLB forced standardized testing reduces the student’s creativity and genius which can’t be developed in an atmosphere of criticism, judgment, or evaluation that these types of assessments cause (Amabile, 1979; Armstrong, 1998; Krippner, 1967).

Other critics (Linn & Miller, 2005; Stecher & Hamilton, 2002) agree that the increased over-reliance on results from high-stake tests further distorts education by causing important objectives to be ignored by not being included in the standards
and tests that are counted. Additionally, these opponents claim that the increased scores are misleading because teachers often teach to the specifics of the test rather than the more general content standards (Linn & Miller; Stecher & Hamilton).

This issue of teaching to the test causes concerns among many educators on the reliability of the high-stakes test results (Koretz, 2005). This is concerning to educators especially after research (Camel & Chung, 2002, Koretz; Shepard, 1989) verifies that teaching to the test works to improve scores. Additionally, many teachers under the pressures of such tests have changed their instructional practices to assist the students’ ability to perform well through test taking strategies (Shepard; Vogler, 2005).

Another concerning influence of NCLB is that many states and their districts have negotiated their compliance, or lack-there-of, with the Department of Education by seeking waivers to specific provisions, while some states have even threatened outright rebellion. The Department of Education also has negotiated changes for individual states that have added complications to the whole process and interpretation of the law (Sunderman, 2006).

Despite the pros and cons and the diversity of thought regarding mandated testing and NCLB, there are many researchers
and educators working on potential solutions and systems to sift out the negative aspects of mandated testing and keep the positive (Furger, 2002; McElroy, 2006; Olson, 2005b; O'Shea, 2006).

Benchmark Assessments

**History**

Many school districts’ solution to the NCLB mandated high-stakes tests have been to develop a system called benchmark testing, also known as progress monitoring systems, or formative assessments (Herman & Baker, 2005). Benchmark assessments typically “are given periodically, from three times a year to as often as once a month; focused on reading and mathematics skills [or other core subjects], taking about an hour per subject; reflecting state or district academic-content standards; and measures students’ progress through the curriculum and/or on material in state exams” (Olson, 2005a, p. 14).

Benchmarking is the wave of the present and future as 70% of superintendents surveyed in 2005 said they give periodic district-wide benchmark tests, and another 10% said they are planning to do so in the coming year (Olson, 2005a).

Because of this large movement to benchmark assessments, the assessment industry has jumped on this burgeoning market. Market-research has indicated that benchmark assessments are one
of two high-growth areas in the industry along side state mandated exams (Olson, 2005a). Predictions indicate that by 2006 the benchmark assessment industry will generate 323 million in annual revenues for vendors (Olson).

**Positives and Negatives**

Research has shown to make an effective benchmark assessment the content standards should be assessed properly by effective alignment (Rothman, Slattery, Vranek, & Resnick, 2002). Then the content standards should be efficiently prioritized. “Only those content standards determined to be of the highest priority and also measurable on a per-standard basis should be tested via large-scale assessments. The remaining standards should serve as targets for teachers’ instruction and should be measured by classroom assessments” (Popham, 2000, p. 30).

Other researchers (Neill, 2006; Olson, 2005a) have further concluded that benchmark assessments which are not summative but are to be used as a formative assessment which can have a powerful impact on students’ achievement, especially with regard to low-achieving students.

Some research has also concluded that in the development of benchmark assessments “…students who do well on one set of standardized tests do not perform as well on other measures of
the same content, suggesting that they have not acquired a deep understanding” (Olson, 2005a, p. 14). Therefore, good benchmark assessments should measure performance on the entire curriculum at a deep level of understanding (Olson).

Herman and Baker (2005) infer that there are six criteria which determine the validity of good benchmark tests: alignment to content standards, enhanced diagnostic value of assessment results through initial item and test structure design, fairness for all students including English language learners and students with disabilities, data showing technical quality, built in utility, and feasibility.

On the other side of the issue of benchmarking, researchers have found some negative consequences of benchmark assessments in many school districts, for example benchmarking “leads to increased grade retention, which has repeatedly been proven to be counterproductive in terms of its effects on students” (Neill, 2006, p. 10). Another consequence of benchmarking is schools teaching to the test. “The higher the stakes on the examination, the more schools focus instruction on the tests themselves. Whole subjects, such as science, social studies, art, or physical education, may be reduced or eliminated if only the areas of language arts and mathematics are going to be tested” (Neill, p. 10-11).
Some educators insist that there is already too much testing and not enough instruction going on, with benchmarks becoming another mandated test getting thrown on to the assessment pile (McElroy, 2006; Olson, 2005b).

Other educators even claim that benchmark systems, which contain the content standards, frameworks, and aligned-curriculum, still lack tools for teachers; the results of which have caused them to grown increasingly cynical and impatient with the required output of high test scores, better grades, and passing scores on the state or graduation exams (Olson, 2005b; O'Shea, 2006).

With benchmark assessments here to stay (Olson, 2005a), the question now is which type of benchmark assessment would be the most beneficial in fulfilling all of the necessary criteria of a good benchmark assessment? For the purpose of this study, the possible benchmark assessment types fall into two general categories: multiple-choice assessments or project-based assessments.

Multiple-Choice Assessments

History

Well after the end of World War I, essay and oral examinations were the normal form of assessment in the United States. The Army Alpha examination was one of the first large
scale multiple-choice tests developed and used during World War I for the purpose of assessing nearly two million men’s aptitudes for selection and placement in the military. The army found a successful way to efficiently assess a large number of recruits, which ended up changing the nature of assessment in the education field within the United States ((Clarke et al., 2000; Madaus, 1993).

After World War I, the education field and the newly developed test-publishing industry produced a number of achievement tests patterned after the Army Alpha’s multiple-choice model. These tests could be given anywhere and did not require students to construct responses that would be costly and timely to administer and grade at a large scale. There was also ample evidence, at the time that performance on multiple-choice tests correlated well with performance on constructed response tests. For the next half century the multiple-choice assessment strategy was the norm, especially after many states began to require state-mandated minimum competency testing (Clarke et al., 2000; Madaus, 1993; Popham, 1993; Stiggins, 1991).

**Positives and Negatives**

Many educators and researchers have argued that multiple-choice assessments have their limitations. First, multiple-choice assessments tend to measure “whether the student knows or
understands what to do when confronted with a problem situation, but it cannot determine how a student actually will perform in that situation” (Linn & Miller, 2005, p. 196); second, multiple-choice items “requires selection of the correct answer, and therefore it is not well adapted to measuring some problem-solving skills...or to measure the ability to organize or present ideas” (Linn & Miller, p. 196); and third, the “difficulty of finding a sufficient number of incorrect but plausible distracters” (Linn & Miller, p. 196).

Other educators and researchers (Bridgeman, 1992; Carey, 1997; Lukhele, Thissen, & Wainer, 1994; Truckman, 1993) agree with Linn and Miller by concluding that multiple-choice assessments deny a student the ability to organize, synthesize, argue coherently, express knowledge in personal terms, and demonstrate creativity, in which a simple constructed assessment could accomplish all these items. They have further found that multiple-choice assessments discourage critical thinking and fail to attract students to science and industry or the student even views the course as a “numbers game” being more concerned with the testing process than the actual content.

Other researchers have also found that while constructed response assessments develop concept learning, multiple-choice assessments are limited to generally creating detail
memorization (Martinez, 1999; Traub & MacRury, 1990). Also multiple-choice assessments possess gender and racial biases (Bell & Hay, 1987; Bolger & Kellaghan, 1990; Lunsden & Scott, 1987).

Despite all the research against multiple-choice assessments there is evidence that multiple-choice assessments, if constructed correctly, can be just as effective as constructed response assessments (Burton, 2005; Simkin & Kuechler, 2005).

Many educators also conclude that multiple-choice assessments can do more than just give measurement of simple learning outcomes. They can assess a student’s knowledge of terminology, specific facts (who, what, when, and where), principles, methods and procedures, ability to identify applications of facts and principles, ability to interpret cause-and-effect relationships, and the ability to justify methods and procedures (Linn & Miller, 2005, p. 187-194).

In constructing good “multiple-choice type items [they] will tend to be of a higher quality than short-answer, true-false, or matching-choice items in the same area” (Linn & Miller, 2005, p. 196).

In summary, multiple-choice verses constructive response, or other types of non-traditional assessments, has been found to
be generally inconclusive. Each form of assessment has their own pros and cons (Martinez, 1999, Simkin & Kuechler, 2005).

Project-Based Assessments

History

There are several types of non-traditional assessments with the goal to assess what a student can do and the intention of applying their knowledge and skills to complex tasks inside or outside the classroom. These types of assessments, namely, project-based, authentic, or performance, have this similarity. These non-traditional assessments have gained increased popularity among educators today (Darling-Hammond, 1991; Lester, Lambdin, & Preston, 1997; Paris & Paris, 2001; Valencia, Hiebert, & Afflerbach, 1994).

Project-based learning can be traced back as far as the early 1900s when noted American philosopher and educator, John Dewey, supported “learning by doing.” This idea is also reflected in the educational theory of constructivism which “…explains that individuals construct knowledge through interactions with their environment, and each individual’s knowledge construction is different. So, through conducting investigations, conversation or activities, an individual is learning by constructing new knowledge by building on their current knowledge” (Grant, 2002, p. 2).
Many researchers and educators believe that it is imperative that “teachers consider what [their] students should be able to do when they join the real world, and [their] assessment practices must, to some extent, reflect those real-life tasks” (Ormrod, 2006, p. 526). The reasoning behind the movement to these types of non-traditional assessments includes “the too frequent discontinuity between what occurs in the classroom and what students must do beyond provides [the] primary rationale...” (Tanner, 2001, p. 25).

Positives and Negatives

Real-life experiences are just one aspect of the use of performance-based or project-based assessments. These non-traditional assessments have a greater use to promote student’s learning and achievement were multiple-choice assessments are limited (Roberts & Harlin, 2005).

These non-traditional assessments are able to facilitate the following, which research has found to be the most effective in promoting student’s learning and achievement: “Give a formal or informal pretest to determine where to begin instruction, choose or develop an assessment instrument that reflects the actual knowledge and skills a student should achieve, construct assessment instruments that reflect what how students should process information when they study, use as assessment task as a
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learning experience in and of itself, use an assessment to give students specific feedback about what they have and have not mastered, and provide criteria that students can use to evaluate their own performance” (Ormrod, 2006, p. 528).

There is also plenty of research that points to the fact that non-traditional assessments, such as project-based assessment, results in significantly higher test scores, passing rates, student engagement, knowledge retention, and classroom attendance (Bartscher, Gould, & Nutter, 1995; Ferretti, Macarthur, & Okolo, 2001; Mehta & Kou, 2005; Railsback, 2002).

Project-based or performance-based assessments also have many advantages such as: “...clear communication of instructional goals that involve complex performances in natural settings in and outside of school, measure complex learning outcomes that cannot be measured by other means, provides a means of assessing process or procedure as well as the product that results from performing a task, and implementation of modern learning theory approaches that reach students at an affective level” (Linn & Miller, 2005, p. 257).

Despite all the advantages of these types of assessments, there are limitations. The most common limitation is the unreliability of ratings of performances across teachers or across time for the same teacher. Another limitation is that
performance or project-based assessments are time-consuming. Students need ample time to perform each task which could limit the amount of curriculum covered (Burstein, 1994; Linn & Miller, 2005).

Shepard (1995) also notes that the implementation of non-traditional assessments into high-stakes testing systems could result in the same issues that the critics of multiple-choice based high-stakes tests argue. Shepard comments that “even authentic measurements are corruptible and when practiced for, can distort curriculum and undermine professional autonomy” (p. 38).

Darling-Hammond (1994) further agrees with Shepard (1995) and adds that “alternative assessment methods, such as performance-based assessment, are not inherently equitable, and that educators must pay careful attention to the ways that the assessments are used” (p. 5). Darling-Hammond then argues that “the equitable use of performance assessments depends not only on the design of the assessments themselves, but also on how well the assessment practices are interwoven with the goals of authentic school reform and effective teaching” (p. 5).

Benchmarks: The ACES

The mandated standardized testing required by NCLB, which caused the development and use of benchmark assessments, and the
debate over multiple-choice versus authentic project-based assessments, resulted in a benchmark assessment program that was adopted by the Delano Joint Union High School District.

DJUHSD has a series of benchmark assessments called Assessment of Core Exit Standards (ACES) which are designed through cohort collaboration within the district. James Hay, Director of Support and Assessment Services (personal communication, May 10, 2006) stresses that the ACES or the ACES system is broader than just a benchmark assessment. The ACES are a whole curriculum aligned to the California Content Standards in which a scope and sequence is developed which the teacher is to follow. The content of the actual ACES assessments are aligned to the scope and sequence.

Hay (personal communication, May 10, 2006) also noted that the ACES serve three main functions: to assess students’ progress toward mastery of the content standards, to provide a minimum level of mastery and accountability for the student before they are able to pass the particular class, and to hold the teacher accountable to teach the California Content Standards.

Hay (personal communication, May, 10, 2006) further noted that there are four ACES given per semester. A student has several chances to pass all four by obtaining a score of 70% or
more. At the beginning of the semester the students are given the final (all four combined ACES) as a pretest. This pretest is not scored toward a student’s ability to fulfill the requirement. Throughout the semester, the ACES are given after the teacher covers the associated instructional unit.

Hay (personal communication, May, 10, 2006) also said that if a student does not pass the ACES on the first try they are allowed one retake within two weeks after going to tutorial provided by each department. If a student still does not pass an ACES they can still pass the class by receiving a score of 70% or higher on the final, which is all four ACES combined.

Rodger Graf, Head of the Social Science Department at Cesar E. Chavez High School (personal communication, May 18, 2006), noted that the ACES are not scientifically developed or is their research on their validity or reliability, but the process of development (cohort collaboration) allows for constant refinement and adjustments to the ACES assessments and the actual scope and sequence. Graf prefers this method over the district paying large amounts of money for a private company to develop a curriculum that would be difficult and expensive to adjust.

Because of this cohort collaboration in the development of the ACES assessments, the separate committees of teachers and
administrators, which developed the ACES assessments, came up with different models of assessing. Graf (personal communication, May 18, 2006) noted that this is why the World History ACES are multiple-choice based (see Appendix B for examples) and the U.S. History ACES are project-based (see Appendix A for examples). Both forms of assessment are based on the scope and sequence and the California Content Standards, but the logic behind the multiple-choice ACES assessments was to be more similar to the CST. The logic behind the project-based ACES assessments was to hopefully reach the students at a deeper metacognitive level, therefore gaining deeper knowledge that would reflect on the CST.

Graf (personal communication, May 18, 2006) stressed that many teachers have issues with the different forms of assessments. Some feel the project-based assessments are limited for several reasons: the ability to conduct project-based research is limited due to the majority of students are socio-economically disadvantaged, the lack of resources at the different school sites, and the project-based assessments aren’t valid because they do not assess what they are suppose to assess. Other teachers feel that the multiple-choice assessments allow the teachers to teach to the test and the students only learn at a basic cognitive level.
Graf (personal communication, May 18, 2006) noted that some of the criticisms are alleviated because the ACES system allows flexibility in how the assessments are given. If teachers want to add an appendix to the test for their college prep or honors classes they can take that liberty. But, Graf added that the passing or not passing of the ACES is strictly based on the district ACES not on anything else a teacher may add. The teacher also has the liberty to work the grade of the ACES into their grading system any way they choose.

Graf (personal communication, May 18, 2006) also noted that there are some positive outcomes of the ACES; they have forced the teachers to teach the California Content Standards. Graf gave this example, “Before the ACES, if a teacher of U.S. History really liked the Civil War they would spend months on it and would cut out important standards through the rest of the course. The ACES have eliminated this kind of teaching.”
CHAPTER III: METHODOLOGY

Description of the Research

This study compares the passing rate of ACES in World History courses, which are multiple-choice based, to the same students’ CST results in the World History section of the test. This correlation is also made for the United States History courses, which have project-based ACES. The percentages from both groups are compared to determine the more effective type of test that 1) can be used as an effective indicator of a student’s score on the CST and 2) was effectively able to assess the content standards and therefore, have general success on the CST.

Research Design

The research design of this study was an Ex Post Facto descriptive study.

Selection of Subjects

The subjects of this study were all the 10th grade world history students and all the 11th grade U.S. history students that took the World History or U.S. History portion of the CST that attended one of the two comprehensive high schools (Cesar E. Chavez High School or Delano High School) within the Delano Joint Union High School District in the 2004-2005 school year. In addition to the above criteria, the students selected had to
be enrolled in either school for the majority of the year and have taken the district ACES benchmark tests.

Data Gathering

The data in this study was gathered from the 2004-2005 DJUHSD ACES reports and the 2005 DJUHSD CST reports with permission of James Hay, DJUHSD Support and Assessment Services Director and Bonnie Armendariz, DJUHSD IT Director.

Data Analysis

The data collected was analyzed through a comparison of percentages to the results of the World History and U.S. History ACES to the World History and U.S. History CST.

Limitations

The 2004-2005 school year was the third year the ACES were used in the DJUHSD, but the first year the district kept records. Before this, the teachers kept their own records of which students passed or failed. Because of the limited amount of data available, it is impossible to do any kind of study over the several years the ACES have been used. Another factor in regards to this is that the 2005-2006 ACES records are available, but the CST results for the same school year are not yet available. Therefore, currently this study can only be conducted with the 2004-2005 data.
This study was also limited in that the ACES are only reported as pass or fail (70% score or better is considered passing) while the CST results are broken down further ("advanced," "proficient," "basic," "below basic," and "far below basic"). Because of this, it makes it difficult to conduct a detailed comparison between the achievement levels.

Another limitation of this study was the instructional freedom that each teacher and each department had in their actual methodology in teaching the scope and sequence and the administration of the ACES themselves. CCHS also is a new campus with limited resources, compared to DHS that has existed since the early 1900s. Because of this, some of the project-based assessments were a slightly different variation at CCHS compared to DHS. Therefore, complete and accurate comparisons between the two high schools in the district are somewhat limited.

Another important limitation in this study is that many of more of the teachers at DHS participated in the creation of the ACES assessments, which gives them an instructional advantage over the teachers at CCHS. Along these lines, the 2004-2005 school year was also the first year the CCHS had a junior class, therefore, the first time many of the teachers at CCHS taught using the U.S. history scope and sequence and the U.S. history ACES assessments.
Another important limitation of this study is that the ACES results are graded and entered into the district database by the individual teachers. Because of the teacher’s control, the passing of a student is based on a teacher’s honor and general discretion. Also each teacher’s grading criteria or rubrics of the project-based assessments vary.
CHAPTER IV: DATA PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS

Presentation of Data

The percentages of students with a passing score (70% or more) on the ACES in World History are as follows: DHS, 54.8%; CCHS, 73.5%; for an average of 59.9%. The percentages of the passing rates of the ACES in U.S. History are as follows: DHS, 52.4%; CCHS, 70.1%; for an average of 58.7% (Also see graph version of data in Figure 1).

The percentages of students with a “proficient” or above score on the World History portion of the CST are as follows: DHS, 21%; CCHS, 18%; for a district average of 19.5%. The percentages of students with a “proficient” or above score on the U.S. History portion of the CST are as follows: DHS, 37%; CCHS, 21%; for a district average of 29% (Also see graph version of data in Figure 2 for the complete CST break-down).

The percentages of students with a “basic” or above score on the World History portion of the CST are as follows: DHS, 59%; CCHS, 57%; for an average of 58%. The percentages of students with a “basic” or above score on the U.S. History portion of the CST are as follows: DHS, 67%; CCHS, 55%; for an average of 61% (Also see graph version of data in Figure 2).
2005 DJUHSD ACES Passing Percentages

- **Students who passed all ACES requirements.**
- **Students who did not pass all ACES requirements.**
Figure 2

2005 DJUHSD CST Proficiency Percentages
Passed ACES to “Proficient” CST Comparisons
Analysis of Results

In comparison with each high school, the data shows that CCHS had 18.7% more students pass the World History ACES and 17.7% more pass the U.S. History ACES. But, DHS had 3% more students reach the “proficient” or above level on the World History portion of the CST and 16% more reach the same level on the CST U.S. History portion (Also see graph version of data in Figure 3).

As a district, the comparison of the passing rate of the ACES to the “proficient” or above level of the CST is as follows: 40.4% less students reached the desired level on the CST World History portion than passed the World History ACES; and 29.7% less students reached the desired level (“proficient”) on the CST U.S. History portion than passed the U.S. History ACES.

Comparison of the data of the students who reached the “basic” level, which is considered by the CST as “approaching state standards,” brought a much different result. First the comparison between the two schools which students reached “basic” or above on the World History portion of the CST resulted in the following: CCHS, 57%; DHS, 59%. The same comparison, but for the U.S. History portion of the CST is: CCHS, 55%; DHS, 67%. The average number of students, of both
high schools, who reached “basic” or above on the CST for the World History portion of the CST is 58%, while the same criterion of the U.S. History portion of the CST is 61% (Also see graph version of data in Figure 4).

The statistical difference of students who reached the “basic” or above level on the history portions of the CST in comparison with the percentage of students who passed the ACES are as follows (more students passed the ACES then the CST unless otherwise noted): CCHS World History, 16.5%; DHS World History, 4.2% (more met the CST levels than passed the ACES); DJUHSD World History, 1.9%; CCHS U.S. History, 15.1%; DHS U.S. History, 14.6% (more met the CST levels than passed the ACES); DJUHSD U.S. History, 2.3% (more met the CST levels than passed the ACES. Also see graph version of data in Figure 4).

Summary

Considering the scope and sequence and the ACES are generally the same between the two campuses, there is a discrepancy in their passing rates, nearly 20% for each ACES. As a district, there is also a large discrepancy between the ACES passing rates and the number of students that reached the “proficient” or above levels (around 35% less students reached the “proficient” level on the CST than passed the ACES), which was one of the goals of the ACES.
The data does show that the number of students that passed the ACES, from both campuses and as a district average, are more closely related (only a 1.9% to 2.3% difference) to the amount of students that reached the "basic" or above level on the CST.
Figure 4

Passed ACES to “Basic” CST Comparisons
CHAPTER V: CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Conclusions

In answering the question of which ACES is a better gauge on the student’s ability to reach “proficient” or above on the CST, the research shows that (as a district) the difference in percentage between students’ passing the ACES and reaching the desired level on the CST were as follows: World History ACES, 44.7%; U.S. History, 32.3%. Therefore, the U.S. History project-based ACES are 12.4% better at predicting student success on the CST than the World History multiple-choice based ACES.

Although the project-based ACES are closer in relation to the adjoining CST desired results of reaching the “proficient” level or above, the U.S. History project-based ACES are still 32.3% off from the same amount of students that actually obtained those levels on the CST.

What the data does verify is that the U.S. and World History ACES at both campuses are accurate at predicting the number of students that will reach the level below “proficient,” which is “basic.” The data shows that the difference is only around 2%. Therefore, the ACES can be used successfully to gauge students’ potential on the CST at the “basic” level.

The data gathered also shows major differences in the passing rates of both types of ACES from the two campuses with
CCHS passing around 70% on both types of ACES and DHS passing around 55%. The result of which can be concluded that despite the continuity between the scope and sequence and generally the ACES themselves, there are differences in teaching methodology, focus, style, and teaching to the ACES or teaching to the state standards, but also possible leniency issues in adherence to the district ACES policies.

Implications and Inferences

This research is not only valuable to the DJUHSD and the individual campuses of the district, but to numerous other school districts that are attempting to formulate effective benchmark assessments without turning to expensive programs from the educational assessment-making industry. Although the ACES are unsuccessful in properly gauging student success at the "proficient" or above level on the CST, the ACES do, however, properly detect the "basic" level right below it.

To adjust the ACES to properly assess the "proficient" or above levels, the ACES should be modified to serve more as a formative assessment opposed to the current form as a summative assessment. Research has concluded (Neill, 2006; Olson, 2005a; Popham, 2000) that for benchmark assessments to be effective they need to be formative, which allows the teacher to evaluate while the content is being taught and re-teach if needed. The
DJUHSD should also follow Herman and Baker’s (2005) six criteria to effective benchmark assessments.

If these adjustments are followed the ACES assessments should engage the students properly, have the formative functionality, and possess the rigger required to properly gauge the student as the “proficient” or above level.

In regards to which type of assessment, multiple-choice or project-based benchmark assessments are more effective in their own right, the data in this study is rather inclusive. But, the data does show that the U.S. History project-based ACES results, at DHS, had the closest relation out of all the types of ACES at the two campuses. The difference in the passing rate was only 15.4%. In comparison the same ACES, at CCHS, gave a difference of 49.1%. Why the difference?

The answer can be ascertained through the stated literature concerning the ACES. The ACES at CCHS were modified from the originals used at DHS because CCHS is a new campus (3 years old at the time) with limited resources. For example, a majority of social science teachers at DHS had computers with internet access either in their classrooms or had ample access to them. On the other hand, CCHS had very limited access to similar computers. Because of this, the CCHS history ACES were modified
to allow all research on those project-based ACES to be completed through the sole use of the available textbook.

What this ACES modification created at CCHS was an ineffective project-based assessment, going against what research has revealed to be an effective project-based or an authentic assessment (Bartscher et al., 1995; Ferretti et al., 2001; Linn & Miller, 2005; Mehta & Kou, 2005; Ormrod, 2006; Railsback, 2002; Roberts & Harlin, 2005).

The issue of the discrepancy in the passing percentages between the two campuses’ ACES results, after looking at the data and the literature, was most likely the result of teachers at CCHS formulating their instruction to the content of benchmark assessments themselves, or in other words teaching to the test. Research has shown that teaching to the test does, indeed, work for a particular assessment but does not work across different assessments, though the content is similar (Neill, 2006; Olson, 2005a). This can also be concluded by the fact that DHS had around 15% fewer students pass the ACES than CCHS, but had around 10-15% more students score “proficient” or above on the CST. It could be concluded that DHS did not align their instruction strictly to the ACES, but more toward the state content standards.
Recommendations for Further Study

To get accurate results in comparing the multiple-choice and the project-based ACES and the CST results, a study would need to be conducted over several years with statistical data. Along this line of formulating statistical accuracy, there would also need to be better criterion and relative consistency and accuracy established in the development of the ACES themselves between the two campuses (and by 2008 the third campus, Robert F. Kennedy High School).

Another recommendation would be to conduct a survey of the teachers at DHS and CCHS to determine how they implement the scope and sequence, how they prepare the students for their respected ACES, how they prepare the students for the CST, and their grading/evaluation procedures of the ACES. This survey would be beneficial to analyze the differences in passing rates between teachers and between campuses within the district.
References


Appendix A

Project-Based ACES

U.S. HISTORY ACES #1: INFORMATION BOARD RESEARCH PROJECT

Name_________________________ Period_______ Date_____________ Teacher_____________________

California State Standards Assessed:

11.1.1 Describe the Enlightenment and the rise of democratic ideas as the context in which the nation was founded.
11.1.2 Analyze the ideological origins of the American Revolution, the Founding Fathers' philosophy of divinely bestowed unalienable natural rights, the debates on the drafting and ratification of the Constitution, and the addition of the Bill of Rights.
11.1.3 Understand the history of the Constitution after 1787 with emphasis on federal versus state authority and growing democratization.

Directions:

1. Explain the historical background and give a synopsis of the following three documents: the Declaration of Independence, the U.S. Constitution, and the Bill of Rights (a half page for each document).
2. Create a time-line with a minimum of 15 events from the list below.
3. Pick at least five of these events and relate them to the United States Constitution and/or the Bill of Rights.
4. Prepare to present your information to the class in an oral presentation.

Grading Guidelines:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Historical Accuracy</th>
<th>30 points</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Knowledge of historical content</td>
<td>30 points</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Time Line</td>
<td>15 points</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Creativity</td>
<td>10 points</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maintain Eye Contact</td>
<td>5 points</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Use of visual Aids</td>
<td>5 points</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Speaking and Delivery Style</td>
<td>5 points</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*All events are in the textbook Americans.*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>The Enlightenment (p. 34)</th>
<th>The Louisiana Purchase (p. 114)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Great Awakening (p. 35)</td>
<td>The War of 1812 (p. 114)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Common Sense (p. 52)</td>
<td>Monroe Doctrine (p. 117)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Federalists (p. 69)</td>
<td>The Missouri Compromise (p. 122)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Anti-Federalists (p. 69)</td>
<td>Jacksonian Democracy (p. 122)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Democrat-Republicans (p. 76)</td>
<td>The Nullification Crisis (p. 124 &amp; 128)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>George Washington (the 1st President) (p. 74)</td>
<td>Indian Removal (The Trail of Tears) (p. 124)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Alexander Hamilton (p. 75)</td>
<td>Texas Independence (the War with Mexico) (p. 133)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thomas Jefferson (p. 112)</td>
<td>Commonwealth v. Hunt (p. 143)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The XYZ affair (p. 78)</td>
<td>Abolitionism (anti-slavery) (p. 144)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Alien and Sedition Act (p. 78)</td>
<td>Seneca Falls (suffrage) (p. 147)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Your overall evaluation must be 70% or greater to pass this ACES.
ACES #3: INDUSTRIAL TIMES NEWSPAPER

California State Standard 11.2: Students analyze the relationship among the rise of industrialization, large-scale rural-to-urban migration, and massive immigration from Southern and Eastern Europe (1865 to 1920).

Directions:

Take one-sheet of blank unlined paper, turn on side, and fold sideways in half. This will create four pages that you will fill in to make your newspaper. (Fold paper at dotted line)

Grading Outline:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Points</th>
</tr>
</thead>
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<td>Completeness of Project</td>
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<tr>
<td>Creativity of Project</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Historical Accuracy</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Neatness of Project</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total points possible</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Page 1**
(1) Make a title for your newspaper
(2) What were the industries that grew during the United States Industrial Revolution? (Use Ch. 6, Sections 1, 2, & 3)
   (a) Pick one of the four major industries of the industrial revolution (steel, railroads, oil, or banking)
   (b) Describe what that industry does and who controlled that industry (Carnegie, Vanderbilt, Rockefeller, or Morgan)
   (c) Show what that person did to make the company grow (trusts on p. 243, horizontal and vertical integration on p. 242)

**Page 2**
(1) How the United States urban populations change during the Industrial Revolution?
   (Chapter 7, Sections 1 & 2)
   (a) Make a map or pie chart that details effects of immigration on the U.S. (p. 255, 263)
   (b) Draw a political cartoon that shows how immigrants were viewed by native-born Americans (nativism, p. 258-259)

**Page 3**
(1) Who were the Populists and the Progressives and what did they do to help the workers?
   (a) Draw a chart showing the changes wanted by the Populist Party and what were the results (Chapter 5, Section 3)
   (b) Draw a chart with the left side showing the four goals of the Progressive movement and the right side showing the names of the people (or groups) who fought for the change (Chapter 8, Section 2 and Chapter 9, Section 1, 2, 3, 4)

**Page 4**
(1) What were the differences between the industrialists and the workers? (Chapter 6, Section 3 and Chapter 7, Section 2)
   (a) Write one letter to the editor from a business leader (Carnegie, Rockefeller, Morgan, or Vanderbilt) that explains why they were rich (Social Darwinism, p. 242)
   (b) Letter two is from an average worker that explains the living and working conditions of the poor (p. 244-245)
ACES #5: Jazz Age Newspaper

California State Standard 11.5
Students analyze the major political, social, economic, technological, and cultural developments of the 1920s.

Directions:
Use four sheets of blank unlined paper. Each paper will be each page of the newspaper as follows:

Page 1
(1) Make a title for your newspaper
(2) What was the Harlem Renaissance?
   (Use Chapter 13, Section 4)
   (a) A map of the “Great Migration”
   (b) Describe the different type of artistic expression, including the name of at least three artists.
   (c) Include a poem from Langston Hughes (page 459)

Page 2
(1) How did the 18th Amendment affect the United States?
   (Chapter 13, Section 1)
   (b) Draw a political cartoon that shows an aspect of Prohibition (bootlegging, speakeasies, organized crime, or law enforcement)

Page 3
(1) What were the changes in everyday life of the people of the United States?
   (Chapter 13, Section 3)
   (a) Write sports report about a popular sport during the 1920’s
   (b) Write an advertisement for a popular product (car, radio, etc.) of the 1920’s

Page 4
(1) What are the major issues in people’s lives?
   (a) Write one letter to the editor from a flapper who talks about her new freedoms. (Chapter 13, Section 2)
   (b) Write a second letter from A. Mitchell Palmer explaining how the communists are trying to destroy America. (Chapter 12, Section 1)

Grading Criteria:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Points</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Historical Accuracy/Completeness of Project</td>
<td>60 pts</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Artistic Creativity</td>
<td>20 pts</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Neatness</td>
<td>20 pts</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>100 pts</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Appendix B

Multiple-Choice Based ACES

Revised 1/25/2005

GRADE 10
World History/ Geography
ACES #5

CLUSTER 3: CAUSES, COURSE AND EFFECTS OF THE FIRST WORLD WAR
Multiple Choice
(Standard 10.5: Causes and Course of the First World)

1. Whose assassination was the “spark” that started World War I?
   A. President Woodrow Wilson
   B. Archduke Franz Ferdinand
   C. Czar Nicholas I
   D. Kaiser Wilhelm I

2. All of the following added to the rivalry between many European nations prior to World War I, EXCEPT:
   A. Nationalism
   B. Communism
   C. Militarism
   D. Imperialism

3. Some European nations formed two separate groups called the Triple Entente and the Triple Alliance for the purpose of:
   A. putting all their money together to buy colonies in Asia
   B. sharing resources and technology
   C. having the help of another nation in case of a war
   D. spreading democracy to nations that still had monarchies

4. How did the Ottomans respond to the demand by Armenians for their own independent nation?
   A. The Ottomans gave them a large portion of their territory and wished them luck
   B. The Ottomans murdered thousands of Armenians and deported thousands more
   C. The Ottomans tried to convince the Armenians that independence was not very important
   D. The Ottomans agreed to sell some of their land to the Armenians

5. How did the Alliance System result in World War I?
   A. Several nations entered the war because they had to keep their promised to support one another
   B. Every nation wanted to see Germany get defeated
   C. Nations that did not have any military agreements were forced to fight the war or else lose land
   D. Countries were not satisfied with their current military partners and wanted new allies

6. Glorifying military power and keeping an army prepared for war is known as:
   A. Nationalism
   B. Militarism
   C. Imperialism
   D. Communism
7. World War I was a “total war” because
   A. regular civilians suffered.
   B. countries from all over the world were involved.
   C. nations at war devoted all their resources to fight it.
   D. soldiers were trained to use many types of weapons

8. During World War I propaganda was used to
   A. influence people’s beliefs and opinions
   B. quiet the press.
   C. inform the enemy
   D. strengthen democracy

9. Which statement is the best example of propaganda that might have been used during World War I?
   A. “It is your duty to help protect our great nation against the evil enemy who wish to destroy us”
   B. “The war is none of your business, therefore no news about it will be printed in the newspapers”
   C. “The enemy is much stronger and smarter than we are, therefore we must surrender at once”
   D. “Vote for the politician who you think has the best idea on how to win this war”

10. What was the system of rationing designed to limit?
    A. How much information about the war could be printed in newspapers
    B. The amount of supplies people could buy in order for the military to have what it needed
    C. The length of time men had to be away from home while they were in the army
    D. Age requirements for men and women who wished to serve in the military

11. One soldier who fought in the war wrote: “In a few minutes the first wave of enemy soldiers were wiped out. But wave upon wave kept attacking us. As they got tangled in the barbed wire, we used our rifles to kill them off one by one. Most, however never got as far as the wire. They lay dead in no man’s land as shells exploded among them and bullets tore through the deadly air.” What was this soldier describing?
    A. The successful battle plans made by enemy generals
    B. Trench warfare on the Western Front
    C. Why the British Army was better than the German Army
    D. How easy it was for the enemy to capture more land

12. How did the fighting on the Eastern Front help cause the stalemate on the Western Front?
    A. Russia was able to give the German the extra supplies they needed to fight the Allies
    B. The German army used the Eastern Front as a military base to train more soldiers
    C. The German army had to split its forces to fight battles in two separate regions
    D. The Allies used the Eastern Front to confuse the German army

13. Why did the combat on the Western Front in World War I take place in a relatively small area?
    A. There is only a small amount of flat land in all of Europe
    B. The armies became immobile because of trench warfare
    C. Each side cut off the fuel supply of the other
    D. Germany’s military tactics were based on “static warfare”
14. How did the Communists Revolution affect Russia’s participation in World War I?
   A. Russia signed a peace treaty with Germany and stopped fighting in the war
   B. Russia became more dedicated than ever to help the Allies win the war
   C. Russia left the Allied Powers and joined the Central Powers
   D. Russia began to win more battles and was able to defeat the German army

15. Why did German submarines sink American ships traveling to France and Britain?
   A. Germany was hoping the United States would join the Allied side and fight in the war
   B. The United States was selling supplies to the Allies they needed to fight against Germany
   C. The Germans were trying to prevent the United States from being tricked by the Allies
   D. The Germans hoped to increase the amount of supplies being given to the Allies

16. How did the entry of the United States on the side of the Allies affect (change) the course of World War I?
   A. American soldiers, who were fresh and eager to fight, helped defeat the German army
   B. Nothing changed, the war lasted for ten more years and millions of men still died
   C. The Allies became weaker and had to surrender to the much stronger German army
   D. The Allies gave up and let the Americans do all the fighting

17. What was the result of the armistice that was signed in 1918?
   A. Both sides agreed to continue the war to the bitter end
   B. Both sides agreed to stop fighting
   C. Both sides agreed to stop using poison gas on each other
   D. Both sides agreed to fight one more battle

(Standard *10.6.1: Post WWI Peace Efforts*)

18. President Wilson said that his Fourteen Points would provide a framework for
   A. a lasting and just peace
   B. determining war reparations
   C. expanding colonial empires
   D. punishing aggressor nations

19. A major goal of France and Great Britain at the Conference of Versailles following World War I was to
   A. create a politically unified Europe
   B. keep Germany from rebuilding its military
   C. restore pre-war imperial government to power
   D. help Germany rebuild its industrial economy

20. Who was required to take responsibility for the war?
   A. All the nations that fought in the war
   B. The nations that lost the most soldiers
   C. Germany had to accept blame for the war
   D. All those nations that were on the losing side
21. The League of Nations was an international association whose goal was
   A. to keep peace
   B. feed children
   C. discover new medicines
   D. fight injustice

22. Which statement accurately summarizes the human cost of World War I?
   A. Fewer people died in World War I than in any war in history
   B. The losing countries were the only one who lost very many soldiers
   C. The only people who died during this war were the soldiers who were fighting
   D. Millions of people died or were wounded as a result of this war

23. In 1919, a person called the Versailles Treaty “a peace built on quicksand.” What was that person saying about the Versailles Treaty?
   A. The peace treaty was very well put together and peace should last forever
   B. The peace treaty had many flaws and peace would not last very long
   C. The peace treaty satisfied all nations because they got land near the ocean
   D. The peace treaty settled the most serious problems that had caused the war

24. Why did the United States refuse to join the League of Nations?
   A. The U.S. wanted to continue to fight the war against the Germans
   B. The U.S. was not invited to join the League of Nations
   C. The U.S. thought its best hope for peace was to stay out of European affairs
   D. The U.S. wanted more territory than the League of Nations was planning to give them
CLUSTER 4: CAUSES AND EFFECTS OF THE SECOND WORLD WAR
Multiple Choice
(STANDARD 10.7.3: Analyze the rise, aggression, and human costs of totalitarian regimes in Germany, Italy, and the Soviet Union)

1. In the years following World War I, why were some of the newly created democratic governments in Europe unpopular with their people?
   A. Democratic governments gave people more rights than they knew what to do with
   B. These governments lacked the experience and the effectiveness to deal with problems
   C. People wanted to return to the old practice of having Absolute Monarchies
   D. The leaders of these governments were assigned to them by the Allies, not chosen through elections

2. All of these people are considered to have been dictators except:
   A. Joseph Stalin
   B. Adolf Hitler
   C. Franklin Roosevelt
   D. Benito Mussolini

3. What was the name of the time period of economic problems that affected the entire world?
   A. National Poverty
   B. Economic Collapse
   C. Business Reformation
   D. Great Depression

4. What does the term “totalitarianism” mean?
   A. Government control over every aspect of public and private life
   B. Government that attempts to give people total freedom
   C. Government that controls what religion its citizens have
   D. Government that is controlled by the people by the use of their vote

5. Which is something a leader of a totalitarian government would do to increase his power?
   A. Make sure all the citizens are registered to vote
   B. Change laws in order to give people more freedom
   C. Arrest any person who does not belong to the Church
   D. Use censorship and propaganda to control public opinion

6. What would a dictator use his “secret police” for?
   A. To investigate crimes against innocent civilians
   B. To arrest those who disagreed with the dictator and force others to be obedient
   C. To spy on the armies of enemy nations to see what they are planning
   D. To protect the leaders of other political groups so they are safe from terrorists

7. What would a Fascist demand his people do?
   A. Be loyal to the nation and to him (the leader)
   B. Obey one’s parents and grandparents
   C. Remember wars are a terrible and solve nothing
   D. Refuse to pay taxes or go to school
Appendix B continued

8. Fascist in Germany and Italy gained popularity by promising all of the following except:
   A. Economic recovery
   B. Restore past glory
   C. Give more rights
   D. Protection from Communism

9. Which nation replaced its Monarchy with a Communist Totalitarian Regime?
   A. Japan
   B. Soviet Union
   C. Great Britain
   D. France

10. What was the name of the democratic government of Germany after World War I?
    A. Czarist Regime
    B. Kaiser Parliament
    C. Congress of Berlin
    D. Weimar Republic

11. All of the following are reasons why Germany was angry towards the Allied nations and the Treaty of Versailles except:
    A. Germany got more land than they could afford to take care of
    B. Germany were humiliated by being blamed for World War I
    C. Germany had to pay the Allies millions of dollars for reparations
    D. Germany was forced to give up some of its territory

12. The title of Hitler’s book, Mein Kampf, in English means:
    A. “My Struggle”
    B. “My Country”
    C. “Master Race”
    D. “Revenge”

13. Hitler’s main method of getting Lebensraum was to:
    A. Attack the liberals
    B. Conquer other countries
    C. Form a secret police force
    D. Give people more rights

14. What would have been the consequence for disobeying or disagreeing with a dictator?
    A. A person would be forced to pay a fine and do community service
    B. A person would either be sent to prison or executed
    C. A person would be forced to join the army for at least four years
    D. A person would be given a lawyer and forced to testify before a judge

15. What does the term indoctrination mean?
    A. Teaching others a specific set of beliefs and values
    B. Giving unemployed workers new jobs and benefits
    C. Forcing people to surrender their citizenship and leave a country
    D. Respecting people’s thoughts and point of view
Read the passage below and answer questions 16 through 20 that follow the reading.

**The Oath to Adolf Hitler**

*Speech by Rudolf Hess on 25 February 1934*

**Background:** On 25 February 1934, about a million Nazi party officials gathered at points around Germany to swear an oath to Adolf Hitler. This is an excerpt from the speech Rudolf Hess gave on the occasion, which was broadcast to the nation.


German men, German women, German boys, German girls, over a million of you are gathered in many places in all of Germany!

On this the anniversary of the proclamation of the Party's program, you will together swear an oath of loyalty and obedience to Adolf Hitler. You will display to the world what has long been obvious to you, and what you have expressed in past years, often unconsciously. You are swearing you oath on a holiday that Germany celebrates for the first time: Heroes' Memorial Day. We lower our flags in remembrance of those who lived as heroes, and who died as heroes. We lower the flags before the giants of our past, before those who fought for Germany, before the millions who fought in the World War, before those who died preparing the way for the new Reich.

Woe to the people that fails to honor its heroes! It will cease producing them, cease knowing them. Heroes spring from the essence of their people. A people without heroes is a people without leaders, for only a heroic leader is a true leader able to withstand the challenge of difficult times. The rise or fall of a people can be determined by the presence or absence of a leader.

The battle-ready manly heroes and the quiet sacrifices of mothers and women are holy examples of loyalty for us Germans. The flags that we now raise once more are the symbols of this loyalty, which for Nordic mankind is closely bound to heroism!

Hitler Youths, you have given the same absolute loyalty to the Führer that Germany's young volunteers gave twenty years ago at Langemarck, which demanded their heroic deaths for our people and the Reich. You have the good fortune to live in a Reich that the best warriors of 1914 could only dream of—a Reich that for all eternity will remain united if you do your duty. For you, doing your duty means: Obey the Führer's orders without question!

I say to the political leaders what I said to your comrades in Gau Thuringia as they were sworn in last year: Be true to Hitler's spirit! Ask in all that you do: What would the Führer do. If you act accordingly, you will not go wrong! Being true to Hitler's spirit means always being an model. "To be a leader is to be an example," just as Hitler and his work are an example for you. It means that no matter what, always to be a servant of the total National Socialism of Adolf Hitler, to be a fully conscious, heartfelt follower of the Führer above all else.

Be ever aware that, wherever you are, you owe thanks to the Führer, for his leadership enabled every victory. Wherever you are, be it high or low, work for his movement, and therefore for Germany. Remember what Adolf Hitler says: it makes no difference if one is a street cleaner or a professor, as long as he works for the whole and does his duty. The reward for your labors is the feeling of having done one's duty for the movement, for Adolf Hitler, for Germany. Each of you is as unique in history as National Socialism itself.

Your oath is not a mere formality; you do not swear this oath to someone unknown to you. You do not swear in hope, but with certainty. Fate has made it easy for you to take this oath without condition or reservation.
Never in history has a people taken an oath to a leader with such absolute confidence as the German people have in Adolf Hitler. You have the enormous joy of taking an oath to a man who is the embodiment of a leader. You take an oath to the fighter who demonstrated his leadership over a decade, who always acts correctly and who always chose the right way, even when at times the larger part of his movement failed to understand why.

You take an oath to a man whom you know follows the laws of providence, which he obeys independently of the influence of earthly powers, who leads the German people rightly, and who will guide Germany's fate. Through your oath you bind yourselves to a man who — that is our faith — was sent to us by higher powers. Do not seek Adolf Hitler with your mind. You will find him through the strength of your hearts! Adolf Hitler is Germany and Germany is Adolf Hitler. He who takes an oath to Hitler takes an oath to Germany!

**Inferring Main Ideas**

16. What do you think was the main idea of this passage?
   A. The Nazi government was interested in Germany getting colonies in Asia.
   B. German men, women and children were expected to be loyal to Germany and Hitler.
   C. Explaining the reasons why World War I and World War II happened in Europe.
   D. The importance of citizens to respect the religion and rights of other people.

**Recognizing Facts and Details**

17. Who was about to take the oath to Hitler?
   A. German men, women and children
   B. Men, women and children from all over the world
   C. Men, women, and children who were afraid of Hitler
   D. German veterans who had been wounded during World War I

**Making Inferences**

18. From this reading you can infer (conclude):
   A. World War I had not been fought when this speech was given
   B. Very few people knew whom Hitler was when they swore loyalty to him
   C. Hitler was already the leader of Germany when this oath was taken
   D. Rudolf Hess (the speaker) did not think Hitler was worthy of respect

**Drawing Conclusions**

19. Which conclusion can you draw from this reading?
   A. People from France were proud to make this oath to Hitler
   B. Hitler wanted the German people to be obedient and loyal to him
   C. This speech made it clear that Hitler did not like the Jews
   D. This was a secret oath that only the Nazis were allowed to know about

**Distinguishing Fact from Fiction**

20. Which statement is an opinion?
   A. About a million Germans were about to take an oath to Hitler
   B. This speech was given in 1934
   C. Most Germans made this oath because they were afraid of Hitler
   D. The German people were told to have faith and confidence in Hitler